

**SOURCES OF STRESS AMONG
HUMAN RESOURCE PRACTITIONERS**

**A STUDY OF THE INTER-RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CAREER
ORIENTATION, ROLE STRESS AND BURNOUT : AN
INVESTIGATION INTO SOURCES OF WORK-RELATED STRESS IN
A SAMPLE OF HUMAN RESOURCE PRACTITIONERS IN
KWAZULU NATAL**

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“The ambiguity, tension, conflict and unpredictability of much personnel management work is clearly likely to put considerable stress on those engaged in such work.”

(T. J Watson, 1986)

In accordance with the regulations of the University of Natal, I certify that the contents of this thesis are my own work unless specifically indicated to the contrary in the text.

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ABSTRACT

Human Resource Management (HRM) has undergone significant changes during the past twenty-five to thirty years in response to the demands made upon the Human Resource function. With the change in emphasis in HRM has come the need for human resource practitioners (HRPs) to adapt to the new demands made upon them to contribute directly to the bottom line success of their organisations. It is argued that HRM is inherently ambiguous, attempting to meet both the needs of the business and the individual employee. This places pressure on HRPs to become “specialists in ambiguity” as they attempt to meet the demands of key stakeholders in the enterprise. The emphasis in the role of the HRP, has moved, historically, from that of a welfare officer to that of a fully fledged member of the management team, held equally responsible for the success of the operation.

As with most professions today, a price is exacted for participation in modern organisations in the form of increased work-related stress.

Considerable research has been undertaken over the past thirty years into work-related stress among many professions, but no identifiable, in depth studies into sources of work-related stress among HRPs were located. The significant shift that has taken place in the role of HRPs, from their original welfare orientated function, to the current role emphasis on contributing to direct bottom line success, provides the context for the increase in work-related stress levels experienced by some HRPs.

The study investigates the links between the career orientation of HRPs, role stress factors and burnout in an attempt to identify sources of stress among a sample of human resource practitioners drawn from the greater Durban area and the KwaZulu Natal coastal region. The report is diagnostic and not prescriptive in attempting to ascertain coping skills for stressed HRPs.

The study model posits a juxtaposition between those HRPs who are “service” orientated with those who are “management” orientated. The purpose is to establish, in the current corporate environment, whether those who are more service orientated, would suffer greater work-related stress, in contrast to those who are more “management” orientated, who were conceived of as experiencing less work-related stress. No strong links are revealed between “service” and “general management” and Role Stress or Burnout.

The combined effects of role stress and burnout are conceived in the study to illustrate work-related stress.

In contrast to the original study model, two other findings of significance emerged. Those HRPs who were entrepreneurially orientated showed the highest levels of work-related stress. And, those who were technical/functional orientated were least likely to be affected by role stress and burnout. These findings are important in light of the current call for HRPs to be entrepreneurial and innovatively creative. Yet these HRPs reveal the greatest possibility of experiencing role stress and burnout. In contrast, those HRPs whose orientation is technical and functional are found to reveal the least possibility of suffering from work-related stress.

These findings lead to a new paradigm revealing the presence of a different dilemma and tension for HRPs. Within the demand for a total business focus on the part of HRPs and HRM, emerges a tension between the more stressful entrepreneurial and innovative role and the more stable technical and functional role also demanded by the organisation. The study suggests that the ambiguity in HRM in practice presents itself in terms of dilemmas and contrasts with which the HRPs has to live.

Role ambiguity and role overload appear to contribute most to the possibility of burnout. Role ambiguity has its origin in the very nature of HRM, which is shown to be inherently ambiguous. Role overload among management, is observed more as part of the nature of the modern work environment, whereas role ambiguity emerges as a feature of the nature of HRM. Role conflict is explained mostly as a normal element in the HRPs job of balancing competing demands in the work place. The ambiguous nature of HRM and the uncertainties which it generates adds to the work-related source of stress and leads to HRPs having to become "specialists in ambiguity". Role stress factors, rather than career orientation elements are shown to be the leading contributors to the possibility of increased levels of burnout

The findings have implications for the selection and training of HRPs. The contemporary emphases require HRPs to balance a tough minded business focus with acceptable innovate approaches to the organisation's human resources and excellent ongoing functional services. This balancing of ambiguities needs to be accompanied by a sensitivity to people, without becoming the subject of role stress and raised levels of burnout.

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DEFINITIONS AND USAGE

The following definitions will explain special usage of certain terms in this study. In some cases important historical background to terms and their usage is provided.

1. “human resource management” (HRM)

Numerous definitions of both human resource management (HRM) and the now dated term, personnel management (PM), are available in the literature. Most texts carry a definition chosen or created by the author. As the HRM discipline evolves, definitions change to include newer versions.

No attempt is made to argue for the use of the term ‘human resource management’ in preference to the use of ‘personnel management’. The extensive debate which commenced in the early 1980's as to the validity of the one over the other will only be drawn on where necessary to clarify specific issues affecting the substance of this study.

Both terms will be used. The term ‘human resource management’ is currently the term of choice by most practitioners and academics and thus will be used predominantly. However, there will be occasions in the study when ‘personnel management’ is used. This will occur when the significance of a point under discussion or its context is best conveyed by the use of the term personnel management. The interchangeability is thus for pragmatic purposes. The more recent term ‘people management’ has received prominence in recent years with the name change of the South African Institute of Personnel Management to that of the Institute of People Management.

Illustrative of the range of conceptualisations of the discipline among academics, is where they place the emphasis in their interpretation of HRM. Tyson (1979) focussed on the “employment relationship” and understood human resource practitioners to be essentially, “specialists in the employment relationship”. Torrington & Hall (1987) perceived ‘personnel management’ in essence to be about “working relationships”. It could then be argued that HRM refers to “the management of the employment relationship”. ‘Human resource management’ in this study emphasizes the management of people in the form of human resources in the employment relationship .

The desire by some to suggest that the more specialist dimensions of HRM should be treated as all encompassing, is not supported. Such descriptions as, ‘organisational culture’, ‘organisational development’ and ‘training and development’, are rather seen as specialised functions within HRM. It may be significant that the British Institute of Personnel and Development (IPD) in their promotion literature do not define the discipline but provide 23 areas of specialised attention wherein training and development is provided for members. Their dual title relates to the emphases on the development of human resource practitioners (HRPs). It may also be noted that the South African Board of Personnel Practice (SABPP) in their promotional material do not attempt a definition of HRM, but outline rather what qualities are required of a professional HRP.

2. “human resource practitioner” (HRP)

The title ‘human resource practitioner’ (HRP) is used to describe those who practise HRM, whether as a generalist or as a specialist, usually understood to be at management level where decision making ability could be influential in the organisation. ‘Human resource practitioner’ refers to a trained person with specific knowledge and skill in HRM, normally with recognisable academic qualifications.

The Langenhoven (1980) preference for the uniform usage of ‘practitioner’ in preference to ‘manager’ is followed. In this study, decision making powers at management level are implied. The term excludes the lesser qualified ‘technician’ level. Although a technical distinction is made by Langenhoven in terms of professional standing, the term ‘practitioner’ is accepted for this study as suitably comprehensive. On this basis it would be inaccurate to refer to a line manager who practices HRM as a HRP.

3. “black personnel practitioner” (BPP)

The term ‘black personnel practitioner’ (BPP) is used only in the two chapters reviewing human resource management due to its special significance within the context of South African history. The term BPP is not used in the rest of the study as the more universally accepted term HRP is applied to all ethnic categories.

The term BPP has historical significance. From the early 1960's, black functionaries in Personnel, African Affairs or Labour Relations departments in South African organisations had job titles prefixed with ‘African’ or ‘Bantu’, eg., ‘African Personnel Clerk’. From the mid 1970's, a change began to take place in recognition of the important role black persons played in the personnel function. The term ‘black personnel practitioner’ (BPP) then emerged.

By the early 1980's historical developments found BPPs playing significant roles in their

company personnel functions. There were those BPPs who wanted to retain their identity as BPPs for their own reasons, as distinct from 'white' practitioners. However, by the early 1990s, the trend was to accept the term 'human resource practitioner' (HRP) as a universally applicable form to describe all practitioners, regardless of ethnic origin.

The term 'black' is not applied to those practitioners who may be classified as 'Indian' or 'Coloured', and their traditional classification is retained for statistical purposes in the study.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Human Resource Management (HRM) has received increased attention in South Africa over the past twenty-five years. Organisations have steadily reassessed the importance of their "human capital" during this period. Research, both internationally and in South Africa, has focussed on the conceptualisation of HRM and its application to meet ever growing demands for the efficiency and productivity of human resources by business and other organisations. In the process the role of the human resource practitioner (HRP) has taken on greater significance

Accompanying the pressure on these 'human resources' for a greater contribution to organisational success, is a rise in stress related problems among all levels of employees, from senior executives to blue collar workers, from police to nurses. Considerable research has been focussed on identifying the sources of stress and aiding all these categories of workers to cope with the increased stress arising from the modern work environment. In contrast, little research has been undertaken among the human resource practitioners (HRP), and even less targeted research, into the sources and levels of work-related stress among HRPs.

1.1 The Need for the Study

The literature reveals few significant research based studies into the role of the HRP and little direct research into sources and levels of stress experienced by HRPs. This study sets out to make a contribution to an important shortcoming in one aspect of the role of the HRP, viz., sources of work-related stress among HRPs.

If a meaningful contribution is to be made in assisting stressed HRPs, adequate research based knowledge of the problem is called for. It is important to establish which aspects of the job have the potential to create higher levels of stress and whether there are certain HRPs who are more susceptible to stress than others.

1.2 The Context of the Study

The study is set within the context of modern business pressure which exacts its stress toll on many of its participants, some of whom are HRPs. The study is also set within the context of contemporary human resource management (HRM), which is seen as dominated by the concept of strategic human resource management (SHRM). The HRP exercises his/her function within the context of this dominant interpretation.

HRM has a century of history from its early beginnings. Contemporary HRPs emerge from that tradition which has an influence on how they perceive their role. The historical

context can thus not be ignored.

South Africa is a complex society, currently lacking a dominant homogeneous culture which may be called upon to provide a common unifying tradition. Two broad streams of culture operate within the business world. One, a white western orientated business culture, and the other, a black African culture with a history of struggle for democracy. However, both cultures are faced with adapting to the common demands of the new democratic South Africa and the common business pressures of the new era of globalisation in a free market economy. This background makes South Africa unique. HRPs come from both these cultures, which add to the uniqueness of the study. This contextual mix, creates potentially, a very stressful environment out of which HRPs must operate.

To understand the conceptual context within which HRPs function, a review of human resource management is undertaken. This review focusses specifically on the inherent ambiguities in HRM and their implications for HRPs. It is argued that a feature of HRM, from its earliest welfare beginnings, through Personnel Administration and on to the current emphasis on Strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM), is the inherently ambiguous nature of HRM.

This feature of ambiguity in HRM sets the context for the central dilemma for HRPs, viz., dealing with the perennial tension between the needs and demands of employees on the one hand, and the needs and demands of the organisation on the other. It is argued that this tension is exacerbated in the context of SHRM, which results in the professional HRP experiencing greater levels of work-related stress.

1.3 The Nature of the Research Problem

Given the reality of stress among HRPs, the requirement was to find a means of establishing sources and levels of work-related stress in HRPs. To achieve this a hypothesis based research programme was developed using a multi-variable, multi-method approach.

The better known studies into the role of the HRP, eg., Ritzer and Trice (1969), Watson (1977), Legge (1978) and Tyson (1979) focussed on the profession as a whole and the role of Personnel Managers in general. (see DEFINITIONS and USAGES for usage of terms 'Personnel' and 'Human Resources' in this study). Tyson (1979) researched ambiguity in HRM and its implications for the role of Personnel Managers, whom he referred to as 'specialists in ambiguity', which theme he continued to explore in subsequent studies. Legge's (1978) research into the role of Personnel Managers remains an often referenced study into the key power dilemmas confronting human resource practitioners, and continues to influence her research into HRM and the role of the HRP.

More recently, Ulrich (1997), in addressing the newer challenges confronting the contemporary role of HRPs, refers to HRPs as 'human resource champions'. But there appears to be a paucity of in depth research into the actual role and its implications for those who are required to play a key part in addressing the new challenges involved in the application of Strategic HRM. With the emphasis in HRM focussed on achieving more from its 'human capital', organisations expect HRPs to lead the way. This expectation not only places the HRP closer to the centre of business activity, but with it a demand for tangible results. These more demanding expectations in the current context translate into the potential for higher levels of work-related stress among HRPs.

The study has identified a lack of research into the nature and extent of stress among HRPs. Considerable research has been undertaken into work-related stress among other professions. The only specific research into stress among HRPs which was uncovered was by Giles (1985) in Great Britain. Watts (1985) studied organisational stress among black managers, some of whom were HRPs, but this was not a specific HRP stress research project.

The study seeks to isolate the "career orientation" of HRPs to ascertain whether there is an association between this inner career drive and classical role stress factors, which is structured as an intermediate variable. The research then seeks to establish whether role stress contributes to burnout, which is structured as the dependent variable.. Burnout is a sensitive term and its use is controlled in the research to avoid popular notions which may have distorted responses of the participants. .

The study hypothesises that HRPs who are more "service orientated" experience more role stress and burnout, than those who are more "management orientated". Professor Edgar Schein's well established "career anchor" analysis instrument is applied to identify the career orientations of HRPs. Contact with Professor Schein established that he was unaware of this approach ever having been used previously.

This study applies, with the approval of Prof Schein, his Career Orientations Inventory (1994) as a means of establishing the career orientations of a sample of HRPs in KwaZulu Natal. The adapted Rizzo, House & Lirtzman (1970) Scale for Role Stress and the Maslach Burnout Inventory (1981) for burnout, are used to test for aspects of work-related stress. Both are well researched instruments of academic standing. Contact with Prof Maslach revealed that she was not aware of the MBI having been specifically applied to HRPs.

A qualitative interview technique is used in the study to obtain opinion and perspective from a selected number of respondents on a range of related issues which provides complementary and supplementary data to the quantitative results. The methodology applied allows the benefit of both quantitative and qualitative techniques to be gained by means of a triangulation technique.

The research aimed at establishing a link between the inherent ambiguity within HRM, the career orientations of HRPs and the level of role stress and burnout that may be experienced by HRPs in the pursuit of their professional role within their organisations.

The study, further seeks to uncover underlying factors that may contribute to role stress and burnout among HRPs. The study does not endeavour to make comparisons with other professions. Role stress has been actively researched since the path breaking studies by Kahn, et al (1964). However, no in depth research was found which sought to focus solely on the implications for HRPs. From this perspective the present study hopes to meet a lack in work-related stress research in regard to HRPs.

Much current research focusses on “burnout” as a form of modern managerial malaise. This study, in contrast, approaches the topic from a more classical role theory perspective with a view to expressing findings within that format and then relating such findings to the role of the HRP within the current South African context.

1.4 The Relevance of the Study

The HRP is the human resource specialist mandated to provide professional leadership within an organisation on all matters pertaining to the well being and effectiveness of the organisation’s people.

In most organisations, HRPs are normally expected to be the responsible officials who investigate and apply solutions for matters of stress among employees. With the recognition that work-related stress is normally a matter for attention by HRPs, it is important that HRPs are in a position to understand their own sources of stress and take action to deal with it where needed. Having an understanding of their own stress and, where necessary, having dealt successfully with it, HRPs would be in a better position to understand stress in others, and thus more able to provide guidance to their organisation and its employees in matters of work-related stress.

1.5 The Scope of the Study

To avoid too wide an area of investigation, clear limits have been set to eliminate too general a project. The study seeks to investigate work-related stress. External, personal or family-related sources of stress are specifically excluded, as are clinical or pathological conditions. The study looks at sources of stress and does not attempt to follow diagnosis with treatment. An extensive body of research and methods of coping with stress is available in a vast array of literature, both popular and academic.

In order to obtain a manageable study group, the scope of the study was limited to HRPs who were specifically defined in terms of experience and level of responsibility. The sample was drawn from the greater Durban area. The respondent sample comes from a cross section of businesses operating in medium to large organisations in a broad spread

of industries.

1.6 The Organisation of the Thesis

Chapter One provides the background, need, rationale and scope of the study.

Chapter Two sets out to outline the ambiguity issues in human resource management as an important conceptual context with in which the HRP must work. The second part of the chapter outlines the implications of this ambiguity for HRPs and identifies the HRP as a ‘specialist in ambiguity’.

Chapter Three provides historical perspectives on the ambiguities in HRM with special reference to the experience of black HRPs within in the unique South African context.

Chapter Four explains Schein’s theory and application of Career Orientation and Career Anchor’s which form the theoretical construct on which the study’s independent variable is based. The eight career orientation categories form the basis for testing and exploring a link between personal orientation and stress levels.

Chapter Five undertakes a conceptual presentation of Organisational Stress with a general perspective on stress and the concept of burnout. This is followed by an introduction to role theory and a detailed explanation of Role Stress as the study’s intermediate variable. The three factors of role stress, viz., role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload are presented as major factors to be measured in an endeavour to establish classical sources of role stress.

Chapter Six sets out the Research Methodology, outlining the research problem, the research hypotheses, the research design and the research subjects. Research theory is presented in terms of the use of both quantitative and qualitative approaches and the reasons for triangulation being used to achieve more satisfactory results for the study.

Chapter Seven details the Data Gathering Instruments selected and the reasons for their choice, together with a presentation of the Pilot Test exercise and the adjustments made thereafter.

Chapter Eight presents a detailed analysis and interpretation of the research data from both the quantitative and qualitative exercises and the significance obtained from the triangulation of the results from the two methodologies.

Chapter Nine provides the Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations arising from the research

CHAPTER TWO

2: THE NATURE OF AMBIGUITY IN HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

This chapter reviews two elements in human resource management:

- * some perceived ambiguities in human resource management
- * the implications of these ambiguities for human resource practitioners

2.1 AMBIGUITY ISSUES IN HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

This section will review available literature which illustrates the perceived inherent ambiguities within human resource management (HRM). It is from within this context that the research project is conducted. The relevant historical background and the development of these ambiguities are dealt with in more detail in Chapter Three.

For purposes of this study, a review of the debate on ambiguities within HRM is important as it reveals the contradictions, tensions, conflicts, dilemmas and ambivalences in HRM. Storey (1989) referred to these problems that afflict personnel management.

“Personnel management has long been dogged by problems of credibility, marginality, ambiguity and a ‘trash can’ labelling....” (p.5).

This chapter focusses on one of those problems, viz., that of ambiguity in HRM.

In certain instances, issues depicting ambiguity will be presented on the grounds of a juxtaposition of two apparently opposing features which commentators perceive as creating an ambiguity within HRM. This approach has the value of focussing the debate more sharply even though the issues may be more blurred than the juxtaposition suggests.

Not all the issues presented have equal impact on the theory and practice of HRM, but they are perceived as facets illustrative of underlying tensions within HRM.

2.1.1 Personnel Management vs Human Resource Management

The extensive academic debate which commenced in the late 1970's and continued into the 1990's attempted to clarify and achieve an understanding of the concepts ‘personnel

management' (PM) and 'human resource management' (HRM). Are PM and HRM two significantly different schools of thought, or is HRM the latest fad or simply an upmarket brand name for PM?

2.1.1.1 The Debate

Despite strenuous efforts to bring clarity and greater certainty into HRM, the debate appears to have reinforced the ambiguities within the discipline. Keenoy (1990) in reviewing the burgeoning literature on HRM acknowledged the problem.

“..... what stands out from it (the literature) is a series of puzzles and apparent contradictions which are not only unresolved but also seem to be a necessary feature of HRM.” (p.3)

Armstrong (1989): Guest (1987): Horwitz (1988, 1990): Keenoy (1990): Legge (1978, 1989, 1995): Molander (1989): Storey (1989, 1992): Tyson (1979, 1980, 1987, 1992, 1995): Tyson & Fell (1992): Torrington (1988): Torrington & Hall (1987), Watson (1977) and other leading commentators and researchers have all undertaken analyses of the two concepts. None claim to be able to eliminate ambiguity and most acknowledge its inherent nature.

In an attempt to simplify the conflicting understanding between the concept and practice of PM and HRM, Keenoy (1990) proposed two main distinctions.

First, he distinguishes between PM and HRM by using the classical ideological bases. He interprets PM from a pluralistic frame of reference and HRM from a unitarist or neo-unitarist orientation.(p.3). Keenoy finds support from numerous writers who have pointed to the increasing element of unitarism or neo-unitarism to be found in current HRM in the USA and UK.

The second distinction Keenoy makes is that HRM is 'strategic', whereas PM is merely 'tactical' or pragmatic. Current writing stresses the need for the management of human resources to be central to the business, rather than peripheral, and that 'human resources' be managed as strategically as any other 'resource'. Legge, Tyson, Guest, Armstrong, Storey, appear to support this interpretation.

Keenoy's (1990) distinctions are simplistic, but have the benefit of identifying relevant emphases.

Torrington & Hall (1987) reviewed both PM and HRM as concepts and placed their emphases differently. Although, also simplifying issues to the level of basic orientation, they do allow for other emphases to emerge. In regard to PM, they stress the pre-eminence of the employee.

“Personnel management is directed mainly at the organisation's employees.....Although indisputably a management function , it is never totally identified with management's interests, as it becomes ineffective when unable to articulate the aspirations and views of the workforce. There is always some degree of being in between the management and the employees....” (p.14).

This perception reflects the further dilemma for PM as appearing to be in no man's land between management and employees. This has led to the perception that PM could be seen to be serving two masters - management and employees.

The emphasis in HRM for Torrington and Hall (1987), as with Keenoy (1990) , is on the primacy of organisational needs.

“Human resources management is directed mainly at management needs for human resources.....It is totally identified with management interests, being a general management activity”. (p.14).

Their additional contribution is the understanding that HRM is the responsibility of all management and is not the exclusive function of HRPs.

Torrington & Hall (1987) do not suggest that HRM has taken over from PM, as though PM was old fashioned and HRM modern, or the one is right and the other wrong. Rather they perceive a mix of both which serves to underscore the uncertainty experienced by HRPs.

“Both are usually present in one organisation; sometimes in one person. This can cause tension and ambiguity”. (p.15).

This interpretation raises a further aspect of the problem. The issue does not lie simply in attempting to clarify the two concepts, but also reflects the personal dilemma and experience of ambivalence of the individual HRP. This individual aspect is specifically dealt with in section two of this chapter.

2.1.1.2 Periodic Uncertainty

The PM/HRM debate is for some commentators an expression of the lack of confidence, referred to by Storey (1989) in Section 2.1.1.1, which periodically appears to afflict the discipline. This uncertainty exacerbates the tensions within HRM . Legge (1995) maintains that this perception of uncertainty “.... not surprisingly provokes recurring attacks of navel gazing.” (p.xv). Her understanding is that when the discipline comes under pressure the underlying conflicts emerge. Thurley (1981) and Tyson (1985) expressed similar perceptions . Legge (1995) believes that the uncertainty in the early 1980's was brought about largely by the rise of Thatcherite economics which led to a period of re-assessment of PM within Britain.

“The early 1980’s under the first shockwave of enterprise culture, saw a bout of such attacks leaving personnel management ripe for its periodic re-assessment, remoulding and re-marketing - this time as human resource management.” (p.xv).

This view illustrates the contextual implications for the discipline. PM/ HRM is sensitive to the external pressures in society with its social demands, political influences, economic pressures and technological advances.

The debate does not only tax the minds of academics. In an international discussion on the South African Board of Personnel Practice’s (SABPP) email Forum (1999), initiated from within the Australian Human Resource Institute (AHRI), the question of a name change for the discipline, and hence its own name, raised the issue, this time over the name for human resource management. Herbert (1999) directed attention to the “widespread discomfort with the term ‘resources’ when applied to people - it implies people are inanimate objects....” This long standing reservation appears to have become lost in the drive to meet the challenge of organisational strategic objectives. For some HRPs the name is less important than the permanent dilemma confronting them.

The debate was rekindled in June 2001 on the same SABPP email forum, indicating that the dilemma continued, this time under the title of “Personnel or HR. What’s in a Name?” (27 - 29 June 2001).

2.1.1.3 "Hard" vs "Soft" Human Resource Management

Various commentators have suggested a distinction between the ‘hard’ and ‘soft’ versions of HRM as a further means of assisting in identifying certain emphases in HRM, but which also further reflects its ambiguity.

The ‘hard’ version of HRM stresses the idea of a ‘resource’ which is to be actively and rationally managed, and reflects a “utilitarian instrumentalism”. (Storey, 1987). The ‘soft’ usage of the resource stresses more the ‘human’ aspects, reminiscent of “developmental humanism”. (Storey, 1987).

These emphases suggest “diametrically opposite sets of assumptions”. (Storey, 1992, p.26). There is on the one hand, reaction to an instrumental treatment of people and on the other, an ineffective liberal approach which “is simply inappropriate to the harsh realities of business”. Storey argues that the two versions stem from different intellectual traditions. The soft view is traceable to the human relations movement dating from the 1930’s onwards. The hard version stems from the stress on the “quantitative, calculative and business strategic aspects of managing the ‘headcount resource’ in as ‘rational’ a way as for any other factor of production”. (p.29).

The ‘soft’ version of HRM is often associated with the so called “Harvard School” articulated by Beer, et al., (1984) as summarised in McKenna & Beech (1995). This

school emphasizes certain specific features of HRM, viz., that

- (i) the human resource is unique, with feelings and emotions, and as such can not be treated like other resources;
- (ii) from its pluralistic orientation individual and organisational needs will not always coincide, although endeavours will be made to balance the differing needs;
- (iii) participatory initiatives are believed to carry greater benefit and that trade unions as representing collective interests are accepted;
- (iv) commitment is generated through communication and involvement in all aspects of the business.

The **'hard'** version of HRM is often associated with the so called Michigan School articulated by Fombrun, et al., (1984) again, as summarised by McKenna & Beech (1995) Illustrative of this school's thinking is that

- (i) the importance of corporate strategy is central and that strategic HRM is an outcome of that strategy;
- (ii) the organisation is seen as a total entity of which HRM is an integral part;
- (iii) the role of HRM is to assist in creating a competitive advantage for the organisation;
- (iv) the human resource is more a factor of production along with land and capital and an expense of doing business.
- (v) the unitarist perception prevails where the goals of the individual and the organisation converge

It may be significant that Guest (1990) in his study of the development of HRM in America makes no mention of this hard/soft distinction as a contributor to the HRM debate.

Some commentators interpret HRM and PM in practice as two sides of the same coin, believing that there is no necessary conflict between the two. Keenoy (1990) states,

“...they are complementary rather than mutually exclusive forms of practice. A human resources policy may be unitary or pluralistic, collaborative or conflictual depending upon both circumstances and strategic choice;” (p.6).

2.1.2 The Care vs Control Issue

The history of human resource management reveals its origins in the caring function of the early industrial welfare workers. This welfare role was designed specifically to meet employee needs. Niven (1967) wrote of these welfare workers as “doing good by stealth”. The early form of HRPs were variously referred to as “acolytes of benevolence” and “humane bureaucrats” (Torrington & Hall, 1989) or “servants” and “handmaidens” (Storey, 1992).

At a later stage in their development, the then emerging HRPs, were called upon to play a role in the ‘control’ of labour. This change created a significant paradigm shift and Watson (1986) identified a conflict which was created for HRPs who were now expected “to control or manipulate the labour force”. This control requirement, as Watson (1986) states, became the source of a classical dilemma for emerging HRPs.

“This tension between the co-existing care and control function in part relates to the twin historical roots of the occupation in philanthropic and control concerns” (p.181).

The management control function, in contrast to the welfare role, was rooted in the managerial need for economic efficiency, which the personnel function was called upon to ensure via a range of personnel policies, all of which were designed to achieve maximum productivity, minimum disruption and the retention of a contented workforce. This control element led management to “resort to a multitude of historically contingent control mechanisms and strategies”. (Keenoy, 1992). These methods ranged from simple ‘bossing’ through to bureaucratic control via rules and procedures.

Emphasis changed over the years as employers experimented with new motivational techniques to ensure competitive advantage and to overcome the “perpetual dilemma” of “the paradox of what might be called the ‘motivation - control equation’”. (Keenoy, 1992). Management sought in these new approaches in HRM to obtain a highly motivated workforce who would be committed to the organisation and its objectives.

The dual pressure within PM resulted in HRPs attempting to meet the expectations of both employees and management. Watson (1986, p.174) summarised these expectations:

Employee Expectations	Management Expectations
* be concerned with employee welfare	* be concerned with efficient labour utilisation
* maintain justice in the way employees are treated	* ensure employee interests are subservient to those of organisational effectiveness
* care for the workforce	* control the workforce

The care/control dilemma is located within the term 'personnel management'. (Thomason, 1975). He saw two potentially incompatible orientations in what he called the 'personnel' and the 'management' approaches to the personnel function.

"...if we see personnel management as having developed from two diverse origins, the one paternalistically orientated towards the welfare of employees and the other rationally derived from corporate needs to control, we have a foundation for understanding the ambivalence so often associated with the function." (p.26).

Storey (1992) in a study of HRM practice in leading UK companies, found HRPs attempting to escape the original dilemma. They hoped by embracing the new HRM concept and by seeking integration as a fully fledged member of the management team, they would avoid the problem.

"The full team member aspirant tries to escape from the dichotomy of playing the policeman and the servant." (p.167).

Watson (1986) perceived the dichotomy as revealing, "a deep ambivalence within personnel management." (p.176) which illustrated the personal dilemma of the HRP.

"To do personnel work is to find oneself regularly switching from a tough to a tender mode of operation and frequently to be amazed that one is at times operating in the two modes simultaneously." (p.181)

For example, HRPs may find themselves planning retrenchments, informing affected persons as well as counselling traumatised employees.

This internal personal conflict, it is argued in this study, is still present, stronger in some HRPs than in others and is dealt with further in Section 2.2

2.1.3 From Control to Commitment

By the 1980's a new focus had emerged, best summarised as a movement from 'control' to 'commitment' (Walton, 1985) or from 'compliance' to 'commitment' (Guest, 1992). Walton in the USA identified a growing sense of rejection among workers of the traditional control mind set that called for a more enlightened approach. He found that, "changing expectations among workers have prompted a growing disillusionment with the apparatus of control" (p.78), which, added to the economic demands of the time, lead to a re-think on control issues.

Walton (1985) perceived the “profound differences as reflecting the choice between a strategy based on imposing control and a strategy based on eliciting commitment.” (p.78). He contrasted a “control strategy” with a “commitment strategy”. The commitment strategy is described as a philosophy which acknowledges the claims of all stake-holders, but, “At the centre of this philosophy is a belief that eliciting employee commitment will lead to enhanced performance.” (p.80).

HRM is seen as orientated towards developing in individual employees a feeling of greater commitment to the organisation with the help of more sophisticated techniques emerging from more recent studies. The assumption is that committed employees will be more satisfied and more productive. (Guest, 1987, p.512-514 and 1992, p.111-135).

2.1.4 The People vs the Market Issue

The demands of the market place today shape the contribution which strategic HRM is now called upon to play within an organisation. Concern for people in the process of meeting the new challenges of production and efficiency in a global economy take on new importance. (Keenoy, 1990) explored what he viewed as a paradox between ‘people’ and ‘market’ orientations.

“The emphasis on matching the HRM policy to both labour and product market conditions is the quintessential underlying focus of strategic HRM.” (p.7)

HRM is seen as a more sophisticated method of releasing the productive power of human resources. This new demand for unlocking human potential arose largely due to the competitive pressures of the marketplace, now intensified by global competition. As a result, on the one hand, there appeared signs of a return to a more unitarist frame of reference in the British experience, in an effort to meet new challenges of the market place, which is reflected in the new strategic HRM.

“HRM reflects a market ethic of the personnel function and is supported by a personnel philosophy emphasizing employer-employee mutuality, common corporate culture, employee commitment and employee involvement. It is underpinned by a neo-unitary approach to managing people individually and to co-operative employee relations.” (Farnham & Pimlott, 1991, p.70).

On the other hand, there is a concern that humanistic values have been reduced in the interests of the bottom line. “HRM is seen as having ousted the decent, welfare and humanistic values stance of traditional personnel management.” (Storey, 1995, p.6). This school of thinking holds the position that the needs of people (employees) should predominate in HRM, but they observe people as being too dispensable, tossed aside, when their utility is exhausted. Storey (1995) raised the issue for debate within the context of teaching HRM within an academic environment. In the South African context, the contemporary interpretation of strategic HRM is constantly challenged by the labour

movement to bring to an end the too ready practice of retrenchments.

2.1.5 Human Resource Practitioners vs Line Managers

Some commentators observe that HRM has never been the exclusive domain of HRPs. Responsibility is shared with line management. Recognition of this feature of HRM creates its own tension and ambiguity.

“The inconsistencies and contradictions which have characterised the debate about HRM can be traced to a failure to remember that people or ‘human resource’ management has never been the exclusive responsibility of the personnel function.” (Keenoy, 1990, p.8).

Molander (1989) accepting the newer interpretation of HRM as representing a closer integration of personnel responsibilities with those of line management supports the concept of shared responsibility.

“The effective mobilisation of human resource effort will be crucial to organisation survival, and since all managers manage the ‘human resource’ then HRM will become increasingly a shared concern for both personnel professionals and line managers.” (p.16)

From their research Torrington & Hall (1987) identified a trend whereby line managers were found to be taking on more of the traditional personnel functions.

“The devolution of personnel duties to line managers means that more of the mediation and reconciliation of needs associated with personnel management is being undertaken by line managers. Managers of all sorts are increasingly their own personnel managers as part of a tendency for all managers to become more general than specialised in their responsibilities.” (p.15).

Some of the dilemma for the HRP in practice lies in the tension between their professional advice and the constraints of the business which line managers experience.

“.....the professional advice of the personnel specialist and the demands of line management, (in terms of) best practice does not always coincide with the constraints of business policy in the context of the competitive market.”
(Keenoy, 1990, p.8)

The more recent developments in interpreting HRM confirms the prominent role of line management in HRM.

“In the HRM model (as compared to PM), HRM is vested in line management as business managers responsible for co-ordinating and directing all resources in the

business unit in pursuit of bottom-line results....” (Legge, 1989, p.28)

Legge (1989) sees the new orientation carrying the full weight of the most senior executive. “In a nutshell HRM presents the discovery of personnel by the chief executive.” (p.29).

The role of line management in HRM is further emphasised in relation to initiating changes in HRM. Such changes often have been found to be lead by line management rather than HRPs. Storey (1992) in research undertaken from 1989-1990 in the UK, which included analysis of change initiatives in HRM, discovered that many of the initiatives studied, were lead by non-HRPs. He found that

“.... even when there was a job to be done with regard to the people-side-of-business it can not be assumed that personnel specialists will be seen as the appropriate people to do the job.” (p.185).

Storey (1992) went further to maintain his research discovered that, “Most of the major change programmes in this set of cases had originated outside personnel.” (p.186).

2.1.6 Individualism vs Collectivism

The contradiction between the concepts of ‘individualism’ and ‘collectivism’ create further ambiguity. Such contradictions come strongly to the fore in the industrial relations elements of HRM.

2.1.6.1 Individualism

Individualism relates to a belief in the value of the individual and his or her rights . It finds its sharpest focus in discussion over the industrial relations aspects of HRM The concept of individualism and individual rights are most commonly associated with free market capitalist enterprise. (Farnham & Pimlott, 1991, p.221). In the employment relationship, it is argued, people should not be treated merely as units or just factors in production. Salamon (1987) provides a generally recognised understanding in this regard.

“Rather they should be seen as individual human beings each with his or her own aspirations, attitudes and attributes and each, in their own sphere of work able to make a unique and significant contribution to the successful operation of the business.” (p.52).

Individualism in HRM focusses not only on the capabilities of employees but also on their individual rights. (Purcell, 1987). These individual rights are today re-inforced in a range of labour laws, and in South Africa, enshrined within the Constitution.

This ideological interpretation of individualism is not the same as the “rugged

individualism” identified by Guest (1990) in his study of HRM in the USA. This “frontiersman” image is more of a nostalgic perception of management style in keeping with the ‘American dream’ of the rugged entrepreneur who takes on all comers.

2.1.6.2 Collectivism

The collectivist ideal, on the other hand, emphasizes the value of co-operation, shared beliefs and values and, depending on its political context, the use of the state to achieve collective improvements. From a managerial perspective, collectivism

“.....concerns the extent to which the organization recognises the right of employees to have a say in those aspects of management decision-making which concerns them.” (Purcell, 1987, p.538).

The legitimacy of the acknowledgement by management of collectivism depends upon whether management welcomes and co-operates with such collective or merely tolerates their existence and function. (Legge, 1995, p.35; Purcell, 1987, p.539).

When individual employees join collectives to strengthen their position or to further protect their rights, they relinquish some of their individualism to the control of the collective, however defined, eg., a trade union. Determination of remuneration and employment conditions, for example, are conceded to the collective will. The individual may then be faced with a dual loyalty to the employer and the collective. Management, by agreeing to collective employee rights, in turn concedes certain of its own rights.

During the 1980’s, a decline in the strength of the collectivist ideal was observed in Britain and the emergence of neo-unitarist based management thinking began to occur. A similar trend had occurred in the USA. The new HRM thinking stressed the value of the individual. Guest (1989) found that the new HRM values were more individualistic than collectivist orientated.

“HRM values are essentially individualistic in that they emphasise the individual-organisation linkage in preference to operating through group and representative systems.” (p.43).

Within South Africa a counter trend developed. The black trade union movement began to establish a growing presence early in the 1980’s in contrast to the UK and the USA where trade union strength was declining. The national history and contexts are thus dissimilar. Despite the impact of globalisation on South African industry, the overseas trend is not replicated. Rather the union movement has experienced a growth phase with industrial relations still highly charged within strong collectivist and socialist ideals. The historical developments are addressed in Chapter Three.

South African commentators express awareness of the ideological and conceptual issues involved in the individualism/collectivism debate. Horwitz (1990) clarified the ideological perspectives, especially in relation to the radical critique of HRM. Speaking from within the SA context, he questioned whether the unitarist conceptualising in the UK and the USA was sustainable in strongly pluralist societies, such as South Africa.

“The HRM process of seeking attainment of homogeneity or mutuality of organisational culture and values may be unrealistic in the context of viewing organisations as pluralist societies. Whilst a shift in the direction of commonality and convergence of values and objectives is desirable for optimisation of organisational performance, and reduction of attitudinal polarisation, it raises important ethical and ideological questions.....”(p.11-12).

Farnham & Pimlott (1991) observing the more recent trend in the United Kingdom towards individualistic ideology in HRM, noted the negative perceptions that went with it in terms of attitude towards collectivism.

“This ideology of economic individualism, and an employee commitment to the enterprise, regards the collectivist values and methods of trade unionism as inimical to the enterprise culture. Individualism finds sharp focus in discussion over the industrial relations aspects of HRM.”(p.221).

2.1.6.3 Seeking Balance Between Individualism and Collectivism

How HRM responds to the tension between the concepts of individualism and collectivism depends, according to Swanepoel (1996, p.33), on an underlying philosophy which he accepts as the unitarist/pluralist ideological frames of reference.

Swanepoel presents the view that the individualism/collectivism debate is most focussed in industrial relations issues. Due to a failure in many instances to integrate an IR philosophy more closely into HRM thinking, some important individualism/collectivism features have not received appropriate attention within the HRM debate. Swanepoel argued that this was true in South Africa as well when IR was treated as less influential.

“Typically, human resource management has been viewed as the overarching concept, with labour relations as some downgraded sub-part of it.” (p.35).

Swanepoel (1996, p.36-40) through his own South African research sought to correct this imbalance, first by identifying the shortcoming and then by endeavouring to find some form of integration between individualism and collectivism by adapting a Purcell model Purcell (1987, p.533-547), using managerial styles as a starting point within a study of employee relations (IR), endeavoured to show the interconnections between individualism and collectivism by means of a two dimensional matrix.

Legge (1995, p.35) questioned the basis of such attempts to adapt opposites as two facets of a managerial belief system towards employees. She summed up her position on the debate by stating that, “HRM appears torn between preaching the virtues of individualism and collectivism.” (p.35)

Storey (1992) after analysing HRM concluded that the HRM approach “relies in the main, upon individualistic rather than collectivistic means to relate to labour.” (p.28).

2.1.7 Rhetoric and Symbols vs Reality and Meaning

Some commentators consider the use of rhetoric and symbols as contributing factors to the ambiguity and uncertainty in HRM. {See Tyson (1995), Legge (1995), Storey (1992)}. Communication in HRM often requires the employment of rhetoric and symbolism for persuasion, interpretation of concepts and/or to illustrate underlying significance of perceived reality and meaning. In HRM, ambiguity arises in the normal process of interpreting rhetorical expression or symbols into the everyday operations of the work environment - in this case, HRM realities. The process is complicated when trying to understand the intention of the use of specific terms or symbols. The meaning of the rhetoric and the symbol is thus constantly open to interpretation.

2.1.7.1 The Use of Rhetoric

Tyson (1995) understands rhetoric to be an integral part of maintaining the ideological bases of management.

“Management ideologies as much as political ideologies are belief systems and sustaining beliefs requires a rhetoric to which all can subscribe.” (p.29).

Within normative models of HRM, it is necessary to be able to show that the values espoused are good for the business and all its stakeholders. For example, those who work off a unitarist, or neo-unitarist frame of reference, would utilise rhetoric to propound belief in ‘the team’, ‘commitment’, ‘mission’ and ‘working towards a common goal’ to achieve higher performance levels.

Attention has been drawn to the tendency in HRM to resort to rhetorical expression, as against the use of more direct expression of reality, when dealing with sensitive and difficult issues. Legge (1995) in addressing some of these problems titled her study, “Human Resource Management: Rhetoric and Realities”. Some of the issues she addresses have been discussed above. She perceives rhetoric to be “used to mask the reality of the harsh face of managerial prerogative in the service of capitalism.” (p.314).

Tyson (1995) in commenting on normative models of HRM, identifies rhetoric as a necessary means to enable management to support values which are projected as being good for the business. The rhetoric required is directed at all stakeholders including

employees. Illustrating rhetoric from a unitary belief system, Tyson (1995, p.9), draws attention to the use of such phrases as 'mission', 'team', 'commitment', 'communication', which are used to refer to the working together to achieve a common goal of efficiency and high performance in the interest of business success.

Legge (1995) supports Keenoy and Anthony (1992, p. 241-244) who consider the use of euphemism and rhetoric in HRM matters as an apparent means to

“.....preserve the image of the company and to sanitise the reality of the workings of the 'free' market forces. Free markets are supposed to bring economic opportunity and wealth, not to destroy peoples' livelihoods. Management too, is absolved of the responsibility for harsh decisions - all it is doing is virtuously acceding to the imperatives of the free market that knows best how to allocate resources so that the fittest survives. Individualism finds sharp focus in discussion over the industrial relations aspects of HRM.” (p.90).

This application of rhetoric enables management to manipulate a perception of reality by its workforce which otherwise may not be in the interests of the organisation and its bottom-line commitments.

The use of rhetoric is prominent in the promotion of strategic HRM in its various forms. This arises from a belief that by meeting the needs of its employees competitive advantage will be gained. In a micro-political sense the use of rhetoric is to convince employees of the legitimacy of managerial understanding. Legge (1995) finds support in Keenoy (1990) who perceives 'managerial ideology' as being designed to “facilitate an intensification of work and an increase in the commodification of labour.” (p.90). Legge (1995, p.91) also finds rhetoric in use in HRM where it is used as an agent of change within the organisation. In this regard she sees HRM as concerned with the management of beliefs and, by this means, obtaining acquiescence to corporate values through the “production of images”.

To summarise the contrast between rhetoric and reality Legge (1995, p.314) presents Sisson's (1994, p.15) comprehensive schedule.

'Rhetoric'	'Reality'
Customer first	Market forces supreme
Total quality management	Doing more with less
Lean production	Mean production
Flexibility	Management can do what it wants
Core and periphery	Reducing the organisation's commitments
Devolution/delaying	Reducing the number of middle managers

Rhetoric	Reality (cont)
Down-sizing/right-sizing	Redundancy
New working patterns	Part-time instead of full-time
Empowerment	Making someone else take the risk
Employability	No employment security
Recognising contribution	Undermining the trade union and collective bargaining
Team-working	Reducing the individual's discretion

Many of these same terms are found in use in the contemporary South African HRM context, and are used by HRPs in common parlance. The terms used are thus illustrative of the application of rhetoric.

In the South African context, the HRP handles two sets of rhetorical expression. The first in the presentation of management rhetoric and symbols, especially in industrial relations and the second, when contending with trade union rhetoric. From the COSATU socialist ideological orientation there emerge rhetorical expressions such as, “worker control” (Labour Bulletin, 2001, 25 :3, 42 - 44), “elitism” (Labour Bulletin, 24: 3, 30 - 34), “collective ownership” (Labour Bulletin, 25: 2, 25). It would appear that the means of communication and the furtherance of productive employment require rhetoric and symbols. The HRP is required to understand and use such forms of expression in the furtherance of the organisation’s interests.

2.1.7.2 The Significance of Symbols

Symbols are recognised as powerful sources of influence in most facets of life. HRM is “peculiarly rich in symbolism”. (Storey 1992, p.273). Symbols derive their power from the images generated in the mind and in so doing can convey messages beyond their obvious meaning. “Symbols carry meanings which extend beyond and beneath their surface.... (and) ‘apparent’ purpose.” (Storey 1992, p.272). Because of their openness to interpretation, their use in HRM can contribute to ambiguity in the understanding of what they are intended to convey.

Pfeffer (1981) summed up the significance of both symbols and the use of political language.

“On the expressive or symbolic level, the use of political language and symbolic action serves to legitimate and rationalize decisions and policies. Organizations are viewed as systems of shared meanings and beliefs in which a critical administrative activity involves the construction and maintenance of belief systems which assure continued compliance, commitment and positive affect on the part

of participants.....” (p.1)

HRM deals in abstract concepts such as ‘jobs’, ‘responsibilities’, ‘competencies’. But there is no such entity as a ‘job’, for example. These terms are shorthand expressions for complex variables, each of which makes assumptions about the realities it purports to represent. These symbols become part of what Tyson (1995) refers to as the “symbolic order” These concepts allow management to manipulate them as ideas in the process of managing, much as politicians do with political symbols and concepts.

“The terms (eg., ‘jobs’) are used symbolically, partly to avoid the problems of having to explain what these terms might mean. HR people then trade in these concepts. The activities of HR belong to the symbolic order.” (Tyson 1995, p.157).

Tyson (1995) identified three purposes for symbols in HRM. First, for general management they help construct a system of shared meanings in an organisation within which HRM operates. Second, they convey messages of complex concepts. Third, as cultural categories, they help legitimatise management, organisational status systems and ‘legends’.

These areas of HRM activity become places for the expression of the “symbolic order”.

“Because HRM policies and practices are at the centre of the work relationship, the usage by HR of the symbolic order is critical for its existence as a management function.” (Tyson 1995, p.156).

However, Tyson not only sought to understand the part HRM played in establishing symbolic order in organisations but also its importance where change was required. He argued that if such an understanding could be obtained.

“... we will see how managers use the symbolic order within organisations both to legitimate their authority and to fulfil their managerial roles. Such roles are typically concerned with achieving goals which require changing ideas and relationships and with causing actions. The management process is centred on change, as part of its *raison d'etre*.” (p.15) .

Earlier Tyson (1987, p.524) had explained symbolic order in organisations, in terms of ‘organisation charts’, ‘formal job descriptions’ and the like, which brought order out of potential chaos. For him the difficulty arose in the interface between the symbolic order and the more “unpredictable realities of life where feelings and emotions are facts”. In reality, where people enter the equation and the uncertain fit between symbol and reality takes place. At this point uncertainties, conflicts and ambiguities arise in the integrating of the two separate entities.

But for Tyson, the process of fit between symbol and reality is further complicated due to the different styles and beliefs on the part of HRP's themselves, who may have varying perspectives on their role. These different styles according to Tyson (1987),

"..... depend upon the extent to which they believe that their work is to explain and translate economic symbols (profit, overhead costs, etc), into meanings which organization members can share and respond to through their work performance." (p.524).

This view of HRP's as interpreters of symbols has direct influence on the effectiveness of organisational symbols. As with HRM in general, which is not the sole domain of the HRP, as responsibility is shared with management in general, the HRP has a major role to play in the interpretation of symbols. The function of the HRP requires that they interpret or re-interpret, as the case may be, the meaning of the abstract elements of HRM into acceptable reality in practice within their organisations.

"Human resource management deals in abstractions such as 'jobs', 'rewards', 'development'.... Jobs do not have a physical existence. Each job is described at best as a collection of tasks which the person describing them imagines someone performing." (Tyson 1995, p.35).

Conceptualising reality in symbols is not unique to HRM. Much of managerial time is spent dealing with organisational symbols. Accountants need to explain what the numbers in their reports mean for the business. Their figures are symbols open to interpretation. This leads Tyson to argue that,

"All managers find it necessary to work with the symbolic order - that level of abstraction where decisions may be taken in a language where a rational assumption is made about behaviours, and the awkward, unspoken questions such as 'What is a job?', are not asked." (Tyson, p.36)

The symbolic order is a way of maintaining order within an organisation "and for managers such a legitimating authority is essential." (Tyson, p.36). Commentators see management's use of symbolic order as a means to sustain the claims of the legitimacy of their actions.

Storey (1992) understands the manipulating of symbols to be a distinctly 'political' act and that HRP's actions can often be interpreted as "the micro- political manipulation of symbols". (p.272). Quoting Wieck (1979, p.42), Storey observes that,

"Managerial work can be viewed as managing myth, symbols and labels ... because managers traffic so often in images, the appropriate role of the manager may be the evangelist rather than the accountant."

Tyson (1987, 1995) supported this contention that the role of the HRP was not only to create, but also to manage the interpretation of the symbolic order.

“The HR function has to translate the organisation's symbolic order into actions by managing the meaning of the symbols.” (1995, p.37).

As previously noted, HRM is not the sole responsibility of HRPs. Thus this function of interpreting symbols is also that of line managers, but it is the HRP, as specialist, who would be expected to provide the leadership in such matters. An example can be found in the management of rewards. Management's intentions are expressed symbolically in the form of rewards. HRM provides the meaning and use of these symbols in the minds of employees so that the ‘reward’ is harnessed to individual energy to achieve corporate goals. Where necessary, HRM shifts meanings through re-interpreting symbols.

2.1.8 Evaluation of Success

The difficulty of evaluating success for HRPs is ongoing. Ambiguity within HRM may be observed in the process of attempting to assess the contribution of HRM to business success in terms of desired outcomes. Two aspects may be commented upon.

The first relates to the pressure on many contemporary HRPs to justify their place within the organisation by proving their value to the business. This is illustrated by journal articles such as “How HR can Prove its Worth” (People Dynamics, 2001, 19 :9.); “Rolling up your Sleeves will Win HR more Respect” (People Dynamics, 2001, 19:1) and comments by Ulrich such as “We need to focus on what we deliver not what we do.” (1998, p.36).

The second, involves the role played by line managers who practise HRM by applying its theories, principles and procedures initiated from within the HR function. Measurement of success in terms of workforce morale, motivation, productivity, absentee and turnover rates lie with line managers who apply, more or less effectively, HRM theories and policies. There is no unequivocal way in which the contribution of good HRM can be demonstrated. Legge (1978) addressed this dilemma for HRPs in her original research in the late 1970's and repeated it again after further research. (1995).

“This difficulty of establishing direct causal relationship between personnel activities and desired outcomes contributes to the ambiguity surrounding personnel management.” (p.22).

Credit for success is normally attributed to the line manager, not the HR department. Legge (1978) takes this inability further to show that the opportunity to prove success undermines the HR function.

“Confronted by a difficulty in demonstrating success in both functional and

organisational terms, the authority of a personnel department and the specialists within it are constantly undermined.” (p.66).

Earlier it was recognised that HRM was not the sole prerogative of the HRP (Item 1.5) This feature reinforces the the view that it is problematic to provide unequivocal credit for achievements by the HR function. This deficiency adds to the “enduring problem of establishing credibility” on the part of HRPs. (Legge, 1995, p.28).

2.1.9 Concluding Comments

The foregoing has provided a review of the debate surrounding inherent ambiguities in HRM. The fundamental issue is the perennial dilemma within organisations to find a balance between the needs and demands of the people within the organisation, and the needs and demands of the business, so as to ensure its survival and profitable success. The numerous apparently contradictory issues in HRM practice arguably originate with that basic conceptual ambiguity of meeting both sets of demands at the same time . The HRP as the custodian of the organisation’s HRM policies is required to apply those policies to the benefit of all the stakeholders. This conceptual ambiguity in HRM is part of the necessary context for understanding the stress experienced by HRPs.

Section 2.2 reviews the implications of this ambiguity in HRM for the professional role of HRPs in their application of HRM concepts and policies.

2.2 : THE IMPLICATIONS OF AMBIGUITY FOR HUMAN RESOURCE PRACTITIONERS

The ambiguities in HRM reviewed in Section 2.1 impact on both an organisation's management as a whole and specifically on HRPs. For purposes of this study, the review focusses on the implications of ambiguity for the specialist role of the HRP. Watson (1977), in his study of personnel managers, identified the issue.

“All managers operate in terms of conflicting criteria, long term versus short term, efficiency versus human satisfaction and so on, but those criteria are brought into conflict most overtly at the point where, typically, the personnel manager operates.” (p.95).

The role of the HRP in applying HRM principles is problematic because the role of the HRP is itself an ambiguous one. Tyson (1995) following his earlier research into the role of the HRP (1979), referred to the “ambiguous, shifting sands” of the role of the HRP as it “seeks to represent organisational interests and to take advantage of the ambiguity of the function's organisational position.....” (p.19).

The role of HRPs may be seen as an expression of the interpretation of HRM in its

particular organisational context. From a contingency theory perspective, HRM is then perceived to be a complex expression of the context wherein it is practiced. The HRM formulation applied by an organisation is influenced by both internal and external factors. It does not occur in a theoretical vacuum.

Internally, HRM may be interpreted as an expression of an organisation's culture. However, HRM policy formulation takes place within an organisation that is also significantly influenced by external factors prevailing at the time. These include the political and socio-economic context of the environment, together with the dominant technology influencing the business. The internal and external influences may be found to increase the level of stress experienced by HRPs. This study investigates stress levels in HRPs within the context of the inherent ambiguities within HRM.

This section selects for review five areas of potential impact where the HRP as an individual is found to be interfacing with potentially significant ambiguities inherent in the HRM function. Some of these may have been mentioned in Section 2.1, but are now reviewed in a more comprehensive manner.

- * The “ ‘man’ (sic) in the middle” debate
- * Professionalism and the client
- * The implications of value systems for HRPs
- * The changing nature of ‘meaning’ for HRPs
- * Living with ambiguity

2.2.1 The ‘Man (sic) in the Middle’ Debate

The perception of HRPs as being ‘in the middle’ arises from the pressure on HRPs to find a balance between meeting the needs of employees and the demands of business success and survival.

2.2.1.1 The Historical Background to the Concept of the ‘Middle-Man’

The historical origins of HRM in the welfare tradition created the expectation that the HRP would continue to play the role of an intercessor with management on behalf of employees. This traditional expectation has been referred to by many commentators as a source of role ambiguity and role conflict for HRPs.

"Partly because of the the historical role of the welfare officers from which one strand of personnel management developed , managers and employees alike may believe it to be an intercessory role between management and work people"
(Tyson, 1980, p.45).

Molander (1989) defined the ‘man in the middle’ as “poised somewhere between management and workforce - with the task of seeing that justice is even handedly

dispensed". (p.14).

At the time when the perception of the HRP as the 'man in the middle' arose, the role of the HRP had been variously referred to as a "placator", "oiler of the works", "buffer" or "a safety valve". (Watson, 1977, p.62). These descriptions suggested common perceptions of the role of the HRP at that time.

Thomason (1976) is attributed with being the first to refer to the HRP as the "man in the middle". Commissioned by the British Institute of Personnel Management (IPM) to produce a text book on personnel management, his view of the third party role of the HRP is quoted as reflective of pre-HRM debate times.

Watson (1977) in his study of "personnel managers" specifically included in his interviews a question directly related to the idea of the 'middleman'. It is significant that the overwhelming majority of his respondents rejected any 'in-between' notion. It is noteworthy that these findings emerge from the mid 1970's prior to the emergence of the full blown HRM debate of the 1980's.

Subsequently, with the emergence of the concept of strategic HRM and the perception that the HRP should identify with the strategic objectives of the organisation and its bottom line requirements, a school of thinking emerged that would require the HRP to identify his/her role first with the organisation's success and then with the individual employee. The alternative was to endeavour to place oneself in between the organisation and the individual in some form of facilitating role.

2.2.1.2 The Debate on the "Man in the Middle"

Some commentators lean towards an interpretation of personnel management (as against HRM) which perceives the role of HRPs as never totally identified with management interests. Such HRPs are seen as placing greater emphasis on employee attitudes and interests and "become ineffective when not able to understand and articulate the views and values of employees." (Torrington 1988, p.5). He perceives such HRPs as "always a mediator between them and us."

Molander (1989) believes such a middle man position to be a myth. He argues that such a stance is not possible because HRPs are employed by managers as managers to represent the managerial point of view and to help them achieve their managerial objectives. "The myth has its roots once again in the welfare orientated history of the personnel function." (p.15). With the resurgence of a unitarist orientation in HRM, he argues that there is "no place" for the 'man' in the middle.

Godsell's (1981) research into changes required within industrial relations in companies in the post-Wiehahn era in South Africa resulted in her questioning the legitimacy of the authority and the value base of the decisions of HRPs. Her findings appear to support

Molander. The HRP's role is "to represent management values and interests and the employee representative is there to do the same for employees." (Godsell, p.26)

Legge (1995) in her analysis of personnel management concluded that it was "not surprising" that HRPs were commonly identified as 'the man in the middle'. But this image for her, of HRPs as filling a mediatorial role, has the disadvantage for them of appearing as Janus-faced. (the two faced Greek god - each face pointing in an opposite direction)

"Any mediatory role, as with the proverbial Janus, runs the risk of giving the impression of two-facedness, with the attendant loss of credibility." (p.19).

Ulrich (2000) on the contrary, claims that HRPs should speak with two voices.

"When HR is in the management room they should be the voice of the employee and the employee should feel that the HR person represents him or her in that room. When the HR person is working with the employee, worker or labourer, they should be the voice of management and management should have confidence in them." (p.35)

Managing the paradox requires skill from the HRP. Ulrich (2000) maintains that, if HRPs are only the voice of management and never the voice of the employees, they will lose credibility.

This perception of continually oscillating between the interests of employees and the interests of management goes "hand in hand with ambiguity". (Legge, 1995, p.19). This potential loss of credibility may explain why Watson's (1977) respondents were strong in their rejection of an 'in-between' role.

2.2.1.3 The Special Experience of Black Personnel Practitioners in South Africa

The middle-man concept has been prominent in South African HRM experience. Black Personnel Officers (BPPs) were specifically recruited for a role as an essential 'linkman' in the unique SA context. (Dickerson, 1974, p.8-19).

In discussing the specific industrial relations function of the HRP in South Africa, Keenan-Smith (1986), stated that such person "will often find himself or herself in the ambiguous position of 'middleman'". (p.19). He saw this 'go-between' role in terms of both dispute resolution and as pro-actively creating constructive relations between workers and management.

Nzimande's (1991) research into the experience of BPPs revealed that under the special conditions prevailing in South African history, BPPs at first understood themselves to be spokes-persons for black workers, attempting to alleviate the oppressed worker's

lot. The role of the BPP was that of 'linkperson'. With the advent of black shop stewards as representatives of the black workforce, the role of BPPs changed. The unique SA context then confronted many BPPs with the ambiguous situation of, on the one hand, trying to serve the needs of fellow black persons and supporting the democratic struggle of black workers with whom they identified, but on the other hand, upholding their management role as representing the interests of the company. (See Chapter Three for a more detailed historical presentation).

Horwitz (1989), in reporting on his research into the effectiveness of industrial relations practitioners in the chemical industry in South Africa, identified the problem of marginality which BPPs perceived as influencing their level of effectiveness. He acknowledges, as do other researchers (eg., Human, 1987), that this was due largely to the unusual South African context where black managers at the time generally were ".....not sufficiently part of the normative management culture of the organisation" (p.12) and as a result felt isolated and marginalised.

In a further report, Horwitz (1991) re-affirmed his earlier finding concerning BPPs. "This problem occurs where conflicting and ambiguous demands are faced by black people in higher status positions." (p.10).

Horwitz (1991) summarised the dilemma of BPPs,

".... one has to show support for the liberation struggle, but still risk being accused of being a sell-out because of personal desire to advance up the corporate ladder." (p.10).

Black HRPs are uniquely placed within the contemporary South African organisational climate to move between the different cultural worlds. However, no research has been identified which indicates where BPPs currently stand in the climate of western neo-unitarism and South African renaissance ubuntuism.

2.2.2 Professionalism and the Client

The debate whether the Human Resource Practitioner may claim professional status is part of a wider discussion over what merits an occupation to refer to itself as a "profession" and on what grounds may its practitioners refer to themselves as "professionals". Most occupations in contemporary parlance claim to operate according to 'professional norms' and provide 'professional service'. For HRPs the debate over professionalisation is extended to the need to identify who the client is to whom the service is rendered.

2.2.2.1 Criteria for Professional Status

The grounds for professional status were researched by Wilensky (1964), Millerson

(1964), Hall (1968), Elliott (1972), Miner (1980), all of whom provide a number of qualifying criteria that determine whether an occupation may claim professional status.

For example, Millerson's (1964) list of qualifying criteria included, an area of competence, the service ethic, recognition of the profession by others. Hall (1968) developed his idea of 'professionalism' from his findings that members of a 'profession' hold specific attitudes to the nature of their work. Some of these he identified were: a belief in service to the public, belief in self-regulation of the profession, a sense of calling to the occupation, autonomous action.

The purpose of this review is not to enter the debate over whether the issue of professional status is to be decided on the basis of, eg., a traits approach or authoritative control of access to the 'profession', (see Legge, 1975), or whether it is to be decided on the basis of occupational professionalism or individual professionalism (see Orlikowski and Baroudi, 1989). or whether the whole idea of professionalism should be treated radically and 'deprofessionalised' (Haug 1973).

2.2.2.2 The Service Ethic

Tyson and Fell (1992) in their discussion on the professional status of the HRP noted that for Wilensky (1964) the service ethic was the paramount criteria. "The service ethic is the pivot around which the moral claim to professional status revolves." (p.54).. This view conforms to the earlier historical welfare orientation of the original HRPs. The issue facing the contemporary HRP is to identify who are the clients and with what service are they to be provided.

Miner (1980, p. 487-508) in a study on professionalism developed five role prescriptions from analysing the work of leading commentators on the subject. These were: acquiring knowledge; independent action; accepting status; providing help and professional commitment. All but the first are problematic for the HRP.

In regard to the provision of a professional service, Miner maintained that "in a profession the client-professional relationship is central". He believed that "a profession must possess a desire to help others to achieve their best interests". (p.488). For the HRP, where the 'clients' have competing interests, this desire to serve the client, should it be there, will be a conflictual one. For the HRP, a rationale is required to decide whose 'best interests' will take precedence and what will decide the nature of the service.

2.2.2.3 Identifying the Client

A further traditional defining criteria for deciding on the claim to professional status has been the nature of the relationship with the client. Who the client is, for whom the HRP provides a service, is of particular significance. This section focuses on who the client is for the HRP.

Ritzer & Trice (1969) in their research were unable to establish who the client was, if it was accepted that 'personnel' performed a 'service' function. "Since it is difficult to pinpoint personnel's clients, it is hard to determine whether personnel has adopted a service ideal". (p.29). The origins of altruistic service in industrial welfare work appears as an important factor. The dilemma for the contemporary HRP within strategic HRM, if traditional professional status is claimed, is to decide to whom the service is to be directed.

Tyson & Fell (1992) understood the 'client' whom the HRP served, to be as diverse as, "individual workers, chief executives, line managers, groups of workers, or all four." (p.18). It is this diversity which has the potential to lead to role ambiguity and role conflict for HRPs.

"Conflicts of interest and the possibility of personnel work becoming separate from the business may create difficulties for personnel people." (p.18).

To avoid separation from the interests of the business, current strategic HRM can arguably be seen to have given priority to the interests of the business. It is to be decided still whether this shift has reduced the role conflict and role ambiguity within HRPs. If Tyson's (1992) fourfold client focus is valid, then it could be argued that the modern HRP has not escaped Legge's 'Janus syndrome' which continues to generate ambiguity and tension for HRPs.

Torrington & Hall (1987) identify a similar dilemma in terms of their basis of distinction between PM and HRM. Their research suggested that,

"Personnel management can potentially have the independence and authority of a profession, but human resource management cannot, as it is an integral part of general management and the job holder becomes a manager first and a personnel specialist second." (p.17-18).

The definitions of role conflict, role ambiguity and role stress will be dealt with in Chapter Five where an in depth review of the implications for HRPs of these issues will be undertaken. At this point it may be noted that Watson (1977) in his study of personnel managers and conflict does not accept as necessarily valid the classical sociological theories of role conflict and role ambiguity propounded by Kahn, et al (1964). However, Ritzer & Trice (1969), in their study of personnel managers as an "occupation in conflict" used role theory as their conceptual and theoretical framework as applicable to the conflictual nature of the function of HRPs. (p.77).

2.2.2.4 Formalising Professional Status

Historically, both the Institute for Personnel Management (IPM)(the original name) in Great Britain and the Institute for Personnel Management (IPM) in South Africa

actively endeavoured over a long period to achieve formal professional status for their members, in the belief that this was in the interests of the occupation. In SA these efforts go back to the mid 1970's. It is significant that having failed to obtain statutory recognition in SA in the early and mid 1980's the IPM and its off-shoot, the South African Board of Personnel Practice (SABPP), now concentrate on improving educational and training standards of HRPs to increase competencies.

The term 'professional' now is commonly applied to HRPs without any formal status having been achieved, as is the case with most other 'professional' occupations. The IPM, now the Chartered Institute of Personnel Development (CIPD) in Great Britain achieved charter status in year 2000, thus empowering the organisation to confer formal professional status on qualifying members.

However, the ill-defined term 'professional' within the South African context is found to be applied less to status and more to skill and knowledge, thus utilising a more pragmatic application of the term. Watson (1986) identified this trend in Britain prior to the CIPD's charter status.

"It appeared that they (*IPM*) resolved the possible contradiction here by redefining the word 'professional' to mean simply 'competent' or 'good at the job'." (p.190).

2.2.3 The Implications of Value Systems for HRPs

Personal values and organisational values play an important part in determining how HRPs implement the HRM strategies of their organisations.

Some commentators make passing reference to the place of values, some make none, and others identify it as a significant contributor to complicating the application of HRM in practice. HRPs, by nature of their function, find themselves inevitably part of the web of the competing values systems within organisations. Tyson and Fell (1992) perceive that "Personnel Managers walk a tight rope because they work at the nexus of competing values....." (p.63)

Tensions may arise for the HRP where personal values conflict with corporate values. HRM philosophies and policies are normally an expression of corporate values of an organisation which would by their nature contend with the competing value systems of the various parties within the organisation. The organisation's corporate values find expression in the conceptualisation of HRM, whether of the personnel management or the human resource management version.

2.2.3.1 Corporate Values

Corporate core values are increasingly spelt out by organisations to pronounce what

values guide the business. These values express what is believed to be in the best interests of the business.

"Values express what management believes to be important and define how it intends to conduct the business and to treat the people who work in it."
(Armstrong, 1989, p.38)

These core values would normally include, for example, how the organisation intends to conduct its business, eg., the level of customer service and how it will treat the people who work in the organisation.

The organisation's core values in regard to its people would normally include, for example,

- * fair /equitable treatment of employees;
- * provision of equal opportunity for all, without discrimination; the principle of natural justice in handling disciplinary matters; maintaining a safe and healthy working environment, etc.,.

The debate over good corporate governance illustrated by the King 11 Report on Corporate Governance (2002), draws attention to the seriousness with which appropriate corporate values are increasingly being presented to organisations for earnest attention and commitment. The focus on 'people' related issues suggests that the HRP is an integral part of implementing the King recommendations as indicated by Khoza (2002a).

In a stake holder organisational model based on democratic pluralism , each stakeholder will present his/her own set of values which calls for negotiating skills on the part of management, especially HRPs, to achieve a balance of interests whilst attaining business targets.

Salamon (1987) addressed the question of values within the context of industrial relations where value judgements invariably add to the conflict.

"..... industrial relations is concerned with subjective, value judgements about concepts for which there is no universally accepted criteria. Different individuals and groups have different perceptions of what is 'good/bad', 'right/wrong' or what power maybe exercised legitimately and when." (p.48).

Where a neo-unitarist view of HRM is adopted by the organisation and common values are propounded, Horwitz (1988, 1990) believes this would conflict with democratic pluralism and that in SA such an approach is not attainable.

"Whilst a 'toenadering' (*a drawing together*) in the direction of commonality and convergence of values and objectives is desirable for optimization of

organizational performance, and reduction of attitudinal polarization, it raises important ethical, ideological and sociological questions.” (1988, p.5).

Horwitz (1990) questions “whether it is appropriate for the values of the managed to be decided by people other than themselves, or at least formulated jointly.” (p.12). Even where “shared values” have been jointly arrived at, as with such companies in South Africa as P G Glass (Evans, 1992, p.40 - 51) and Lever Brothers (Swanepoel, 1990, p.1-7), where strong trade unions were present, democratic pluralism in the South African context continued to ensure a strong ‘them and us’ climate.

Within the South African experience, contrasting value based perceptions have often provided the underlying dynamic tension within industrial relations as well as within HRM in general. It is in this corporate environment that HRP’s apply themselves.

2.2.3.2 Personal Values

The HRP’s dilemma over personal values may occur when he/she operates within an organisation that has core values that may be at variance with their personal values. For the HRP whose personal values may differ significantly from those of the organisation, the outcome could be either compromise or resignation. Armstrong (1989) identified one aspect of this dilemma which the HRP needed to recognise.

“Personnel managers cannot set themselves up as the sole conscience of the organization, but they can act as guardians of its values. It is their right and duty to point out if any proposed action is inconsistent with those (*the organisation's*) values.” (p.40).

Some HRP’s may have a greater sense of conflict than others in finding a balance between personal and corporate value systems. For such persons their level of role stress may well be higher than those whose personal values may coincide more closely with organisation values. For instance, willingness to compromise over nepotism in appointments or not applying equitably company disciplinary policies. The downside of compromise for such HRP’s is that their credibility is lost in the eyes of both employees and management and, with it, their professional integrity.

The personal values of a HRP can thus play a complicating role for the individual. These personal values may become the source of heightened stress for certain HRP’s, but this element appears seldom to be researched. Watson (1977), in his interviews with HRP’s, states that although he did not explicitly raise the question of the relationship between personal values and occupational actions, he did find that respondents nonetheless spontaneously proffered relevant comment, indicating that the issue of personal values was a present reality in the experience of many HRP’s. (p.111 -112).

Watson (1977) suggests that the “essential problems and difficulties” for the “personnel

occupation” arise due to its “dual orientation to people as *people* on the one side and to people as *resources* on the other.” (p.90).

Watson (1977) draws attention to two applications of HRM which create dilemmas for HRPs. The first, is “efficiency” and the second is “fairness”. The HRP would try to maintain balance between efficiency, ie., the need for the HRP to play a role in assisting the business to operate effectively to meet bottom line requirements and all that it involves; and fairness, ie., ensuring the business is run in a socially just and fair manner. (p.98 - 101). For Watson(1977) the biggest test for HRPs arises with the case of redundancy.

“My own feeling is that the redundancy situation is the one where, potentially, the conflicts and tensions inherent in the personnel role become most apparent.” (p.101).

Watson believes that it is in the issue of redundancy where the dilemmas of ambiguity, ambivalence, role conflict, most acutely focus the HRP between “the treatment of people as resources and the recognition of the individual’s personal needs and difficulties .”

“If ever there was ‘role conflict’ or ‘role-strain’ and a feeling of being the ‘man in the middle’, then this was it. Also, in carrying out dismissals, one thought very hard about one’s own values.” (p.103).

O'Meara (1979) in a somewhat prescriptive manner, outlined certain guidelines for basic values and concerns he believed needed to be present in HRPs.

- * a concern for the work community as distinct from the system;
- * a humanistic concern for the needs of the individual employee;
- * a concern for the optimum use, development and care of the human resources in an organisation;
- * a concern for initiating and guiding management policies and action in their relation to employees. (p.25).

For O'Meara (1979) values are underpinned by commitment to them, which in turn may have consequences for the HRP. Such values and concerns are not expedient and he accepts that there is a risk involved that must be taken by professional HRPs if they are to fulfil their professional mandate. For him,

“... this is a risk that must be taken, and has been taken by other professions in the past. Personnel Management requires integrity, moral courage and a humanistic outlook. Without these it degenerates into a travesty....” (p.25)

Ambiguity becomes a way of life for HRPs. ‘It goes with the territory’. The conflict of ideals and reality may generate confusion in the minds of HRPs. If the thesis of inherent

ambiguity in HRM is accepted, then it becomes a fact of life for HRPs. It requires that HRPs come to terms with this factor. Armstrong (1989) explains the kind of person needed in HR practice.

" The personnel organization has to be staffed with people who can rise above and triumph over ambiguity, or at least can learn to live with it." (p.51).

Horwitz (1989) in discussing the qualifications of Industrial Relations Practitioners identified the same requirement of "a high tolerance of ambiguity" (p.11) to be able to play a meaningful role in highly conflictual situations.

2.2.4 The Changing Nature of Meaning

As observed in Section 2.1, HRPs who are involved in issues related to 'rhetoric' and the 'symbolic order' are confronted with an ongoing process of providing meaning, negotiating new understandings, or re-interpreting meanings. The 'meaning' of many understandings in life and social interaction constantly undergo change or re-definition. In HRM this process of re-interpretation may take place through negotiation either at an individual or collective level and usually in response to changing circumstances. HRPs involved in the management of the employment relationship encounter "the shifting, equivocal nature of meaning." (Tyson 1980). According to Tyson (1980) there are a number of reasons for the changing nature of meaning within HRM, of which he mentions the four presented below.

- (i) People in different parts of the organisation define their situations differently. Different occupational groups, management and worker, head office and branch, social class, age, education, race, sex, etc., invariably create different perspectives on similar issues, eg., the pension fund, job evaluation, wage increases. Meanings, intentions and the like have to be negotiated and compromises made to obtain some form of consensus. To achieve consensus compromise is mostly required. Such is the common experience of most HRPs.
- (ii) Meanings are usually context bound. Definitions of 'success' and 'potential' are products of organisational culture. Standards applied may vary between head office and branch, creating contradictions. Appraisal outcomes may be affected unduly by the appraiser's values and opinions. Meanings may change when contexts change, resulting in re-interpretation of understanding or meaning.
- (iii) Words are blunt instruments to describe emotions, innermost thoughts and even everyday situations. Often shorthand methods are used to speed up communication and miscommunication may result. Terms such as 'low morale' can lead to various interpretations and misunderstanding, requiring clarification and re-interpretation to obtain a more accurate understanding.

- (iv) ‘Meaning’ allows for almost limitless interpretation. Describing an incident or event is, invariably, one person's interpretation of what occurred. Disciplinary hearings, like court cases, illustrate the complexity of interpreting what actually occurred and what meaning can be placed on any interpretation provided.

This function of dealing with ‘meanings’ is not unique to the HR function, but is a feature of management in general. HRM is a function of all managers, not only HRPs, as observed in Section 2.1. The significance for HRPs is that they are expected to be specialists, organisational politicians, providing guidance and skills in the art of balancing contending interpretations.

2.2.5 Living with Ambiguity

This review has emphasised the inherent ambiguities within HRM. Armstrong’s (1989) perception that “ambiguity often has to be a way of life for personnel people” (p.50) has implications for HRPs who may react in different ways when faced with the ambivalences of their function.

2.2.5.1 Reactions of HRPs to Ambiguity

Tyson (1980) identified three possible reactions by HRPs to ambiguity which assists in clarifying the implications for HRPs of living with ambiguity.

- (i) Where HRPs feel that “ambiguity is wrong and an anathema to good management”, a negative bureaucratic reaction may occur. In an attempt to eliminate the unwanted uncertainties of employee behaviour and the vagaries of human inter-relationships, rules are introduced as the solution. HRPs who may have a subjective need to follow a more legalistic method may become increasingly involved in rule formation. As one rule is circumvented, another is established ad infinitum. But the dynamics of human behaviour cannot be encased finally in rules/laws. Tyson (1980) maintains that where such HRPs find ambiguities difficult to cope with and rely overly on rule formation, the whole process may “prove too much of a strain, leading to signs of stress.” (p.46)
- (ii) Where HRPs may have a need to show their work in a favourable light, there may emerge “devious” responses to ambiguity. This reaction could occur where HRPs are required to change meanings or negotiate changes. Meanings are manipulated in a political manner by “using the ambiguity to avoid accountability, and to prevent the conclusion of arguments they are unable to win.” (p.47). Tyson (1980) believes this behaviour stems from the HRPs own personal insecurity. (See Section 2.2.4)
- (iii) A more successful approach occurs where HRPs adopt a positive attitude to ambiguity. Ambiguity is accepted as inevitable and the opportunity to positively

manipulate meanings is endorsed. Tyson believes such positive manipulation is acceptable.

“Since meanings are shifting and being negotiated in the normal course of social interaction, providing the purpose is to ensure the happiness of employees, the resolution of conflict or the development of talents, the manipulation that is involved can be said to be positive.” (p.47).

2.2.5.2 A Pragmatic Approach

Tyson (1980), in light of his understanding of the ambiguous role of HRPs, and believing that there are distinct advantages in the ambiguities with which HRPs deal, suggests that HRPs should identify and utilise the ambiguities. He proposed certain positive, pragmatic methods of dealing with ambiguity.

“Ambiguity should not be perceived as a threat and a source of anxiety, but rather as an opportunity and a sign of humanity which is to be welcomed.” p.45)

The HRP is recommended to take a pragmatic stance on ambiguity which takes into account pluralism, with its recognition of different interest groups within the organisation, and of a need to ensure balance between employer and employee interests.

Tyson (1980) acknowledges that his approach is “an openly managerialist response to ambiguity”, but argues that it allows for “the acceptance that there is no moral imperative behind economic rationality “. (p.47). Central to this approach is the understanding that “such techniques offer an opportunity for meanings to be negotiated when decisions are made”. Tyson (1980) illustrates this approach when, for example, negotiations allow for job evaluation committees to ‘horse trade’ to reach consensus on the relative worth of each job. HRPs require skill and knowledge to participate in this process and, for those HRPs without the skill, it can become stressful.

This positive approach finds support among those who perceive importance for HRPs in the rediscovery of ambivalence as a counter balance to the newer “brutal single-minded, business mission of HRM”. Storey (1995) supports Tyson’s approach.

“Personnel specialists, it is argued, should even be advised to rediscover ambivalence which has caused such soul searching. This ambivalence is a signal of more liberal values than can be found among the certainties of HRM.” (p.6).

2.2.5.3 The Ability to Live with Ambiguity

Watson (1977) in his study of personnel managers found that such persons need a high tolerance of things ambiguous and that “the greatest strain comes from tolerating so much ambiguity”. (p,97).

For some HRPs, having to live with ambiguity is more problematic than it is for others. Armstrong (1989) illustrates this perception with one such problem which appears to affect many HRPs, viz., the ability to separate and live with the tension between ideals and reality. This in turn raises the matter of the selection of HRPs who may have greater ability to operate within the context of ambivalence which emerges as a feature of the function.

“There is a confusion in many personnel minds between ideals and reality. So the personnel organization has to be staffed with people who can rise above and triumph over ambiguity or at least learn to live with it.” (Armstrong, p.51)

Horwitz (1989) in his study into the effectiveness of Industrial Relations Practitioners in the chemical industry in South Africa identified the need for such persons to be able to rise to the challenge of “tolerance regarding ambiguity and equivocality”. (p.11).

2.2.6 Concluding Comments

The inherent ambiguities in HRM that have been reviewed in this chapter and which confront the HRP, create an environment requiring special skills. The ability to deal constructively and positively within a plural context without losing credibility with the many stakeholders in an organisation, at the same time retaining one's own integrity, requires a high level of skill. This part of the chapter has illustrated potential tension areas for HRPs. The conflict areas have been noted as potential sources of role conflict and role ambiguity, leading to possible role stress and probable burnout. It is surmised that those least able to cope with ambiguity are potential candidates for higher levels of burnout.

CHAPTER THREE

3 : HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES ON AMBIGUITIES IN HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

3.1. Introduction to a Historical Perspective

The description of the inherent ambiguities in Human Resource Management (HRM) and their implications for HRPs presented in Chapter Two has a century long history. These ambiguities, and the tensions they generate between people needs and business demands, can be observed historically reasserting themselves in different ways from time to time. HRM responds by creating new ways of adapting to new challenges, much as medical science responds by discovering new forms of treatment and antidotes..

Many of the historical adaptations within HRM result from this ongoing process of organisational adaptation. New approaches are often responses to socio-economic-political change or technological advances in the operating environment. The historical process confirms that the employment relationship is never static. It is the perspective of this review that the inherent ambiguities in HRM persist.

The task of the HRP with each new challenge is to find new applications or interpretations of HRM to meet the demand of the day. The interest of this study is the stress implication for the HRP dealing with the current pressures of the job. The review in this chapter provides an essential background to recognising the historical nature of the problem.

It is the purpose of this chapter to provide a historical perspective on significant developments in HRM practice illustrative of the ongoing tension between people needs and organisational demands, with resultant dilemmas for HRPs. Contradictions within employing organisations between the needs of its employees and the demands of the business are perceived in this study to be an integral part of the structure of the employment relationship.

Within the free enterprise market based economic system there exists a persistent demand on the employer to reduce costs and obtain increased efficiency and productivity from employees. Over a period of more than a century pressure has increased on organisations to give greater attention to the needs of their employees. This requirement has led to the perennial search for a balance between the needs/demands of employers and the needs/demands of employees. It is part of a dynamic process of perpetual adjustment between contending forces in the interests of business success. HRPs find themselves at the interface between these forces. It is the stress toll of this

process on the individual HRP which is the focus of the study.

The historical perspective in this review moves from the few pioneering employers at the turn of the 20th century, who responded to a humanitarian need to provide elementary social welfare services for certain categories of employees, to the turn of the 21st century where empirically researched sophisticated management techniques, applicable to every aspect of the employment relationship, are designed to elicit maximum contribution from employees.

This chapter will endeavour on a selective basis to illustrate this historical process.

A suitable analytical framework for a historical review is first discussed. Then, on the basis of the selected framework, relevant historical developments are presented, emerging at the current stage of strategic human resource management. Specifically the chapter provides:

- * A Consideration of Alternative Historical Models
- * Personnel Management The First Stream
- * Human Relations and Behavioural Science : The Second Stream
- * Industrial Relations The Third Stream
- * Human Resource Management The Main Stream

3.2 A Consideration of Alternative Analytical Historical Models

To assist in the process of historical analysis, three alternative methods of historical overview were considered, viz., Cascio (1995), Watson (1986) and Armstrong (1989a). These three analytical methods are briefly outlined as each approach has merits which could contribute to a review of historical developments in HRM. Armstrong was selected as providing the most useful analytical format for the purposes of this study. The reason for the choice will accompany the explanation of the method.

3.2.1 Cascio's Four Growth Stages

Cascio (1995, p.34-40) finds four discernible stages in the development of HRM which provide opportunity for the intelligible grouping of HRM activities in a meaningful manner. It is of significance that only the first stage is employee driven. As the stages are illustrative of the progression of HRM generally, albeit in an American context, a brief outline is presented to provide a general overview of the historical development of HRM theory.

Stage One: "File Maintenance" Stage

Up to the mid 1960's the emphasis was on employee concerns. Personnel departments focussed on such activities as, screening applicants, induction programmes, maintenance

of employee records, organising company social events, general welfare of employees. A similar set of practices occurred within personnel departments in SA up to the mid 1970's.

Stage Two: “Government Accountability” Stage

With the passing of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and other legislation in the 1970's in the USA, increased demands were placed on employers to conform to the requirements of a range of new laws improving the lot of employees, all of which accelerated the rise in importance of the personnel function. The new anti-discrimination, pension, health and safety laws which were introduced forced a new set of priorities on personnel departments. Employers wanted to avoid costly court actions and looked to their personnel departments to provide specialists with the competencies to guide their companies.

Although South Africa for many years had in place employee protection legislation, the more significant legislation began from the 1980's. A similar process to that observed in the USA commenced with the Labour Relations Act (1981). Over a decade later a series of new Acts was passed: the Occupational Health and Safety Act (1993), the new Labour Relations Act (1995), amendments to the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (1997), the Employment Equity Act (1998), the Skills Development Act (1998). Most had time consuming implications for HRPs and consultants, who were required to provide guidance and avoid costly failures.

Stage Three: “Organisational Accountability” Stage

In the 1970's and 1980's a combination of political, social and economic factors placed pressure on companies in the USA to reduce costs. High interest rates, growing international competition and shrinking productivity, conspired to demand greater dollar accountability from functional areas of the business. Personnel functions were equally pressured to be ‘dollar accountable’. Social trends accelerated demands for improving quality of life at work, managing cultural and ethnic diversity, and for ongoing training and re-training of employees. These trends arose following the external focus on the place of women, minorities, immigrants, poorly educated workers. These social factors, in addition to the economic realities, called for adaptability and improved skills from personnel practitioners.

Elements in this stage, although lagging by a decade, can be identified readily in South Africa in the late 1980's. Affirmative action, quality of working life, increased investment in training, adult basic education, were common features of the larger companies. In the mid 1990's, with the election of the new democratic government, the emphasis increased in these areas. A new commitment was brought to equity for those ‘previously disadvantaged’, training and development targets were increased and other requirements of the new legislation were progressed, probably exceeding what had occurred in the USA.

Stage Four: “Strategic Partnership” Stage

The emergence of strategic human resource management in the 1990's is seen by Cascio as the stage of strategic partnership. Within companies HRM had moved to the centre to play a key role to "gain and sustain a competitive advantage in the worldwide market place." (p.40). This "strategic partnership" was required by companies to cut costs and obtain the maximum contribution from their human resources in response to company need "to enhance competitiveness and to add value to the firm in everything it does". (p.40). A similar pattern began to emerge in South Africa, which accelerated after 1994 with the advent of a new democratic regime with economic protectionism being reduced and the full impact of global competition beginning to be felt.

Cascio's approach, although tracking broad trends in the USA, which are reflected in South Africa, does not allow sufficiently for the close attention required by this study of the more complex elements to be found in the ambiguities and dilemmas in HRM in the South African context.

3.2.2 Watson's “Waves of Theory”

Watson (1986), in his study of behavioural and employment aspects of the managing of work organisations, developed a wave analogy in which to set the historical dimension of his analysis. His approach offers opportunity to recognise the continuity between different movements or schools of thought, especially in relation to the ‘human dimension’ of managing the employment relationship within employing organisations. He deliberately attempts to avoid the restrictive approach of historical sequencing.

Watson rejected the traditional approach where ideas are presented as belonging to successive ‘schools’ which are then recorded sequentially. In that traditional approach a new ‘school’ emerges to discredit or replace what went before. Watson prefers to recognise that older ideas in management and organisational thought still have a major impact on actual practice. The older wave still contains valuable insights which contribute to newer understandings.

“Hence the use of the waves analogy. New ideas, like new waves, do arrive and appear to cover up those which came before them. In reality, however, they merge with what came before as well as clashing with them.” (p.xii)

Of Watson's three applications, one is considered as specifically relevant to this study, viz., the history of the theory of the management of people. (p. 86-132). He acknowledges that his method of grouping has little validity other than to assist “the reader find a way through a potentially frightening mass of different ideas and theories.” (p.89).

The first wave occurs where people are seen as machines. Within this stage fall the division of labour, Taylorism and Fordism. This is followed by the second wave where

people are seen as having needs. This wave includes the human relations thinkers, democratic humanism as found in such researchers as Lewin, Maslow, Likert, McGregor, and others. The third wave builds on the social scientists of the second wave. The mental and cognitive processes through which an individual proceeds now become important. The world outside the workplace becomes significant with its political, economic and social implications for the individual. Balance and equity theories, expectancy and cultural and symbolic management ideas come to the fore.

Watson's analogy of waves was applied specifically to organisational structure and employment strategy. It has relevance to certain historical developments in sections of HRM. It is, however, more problematic when applied to labour history with its often stark historical cut-offs, where, particularly in the context of South African industrial relations history, the historical sequence of events has importance. The significance of the "waves of theory" is the reminder that ideas and their application have grown mostly out of the past, and that the past is intermingled with new and current interpretations.

3.2.3 Armstrong's "Three Streams of Development"

Armstrong (1989a), in order to obtain an historical perspective on the development of the HRM function, traced "three streams of development converging into the human resource management pool".(p.24).

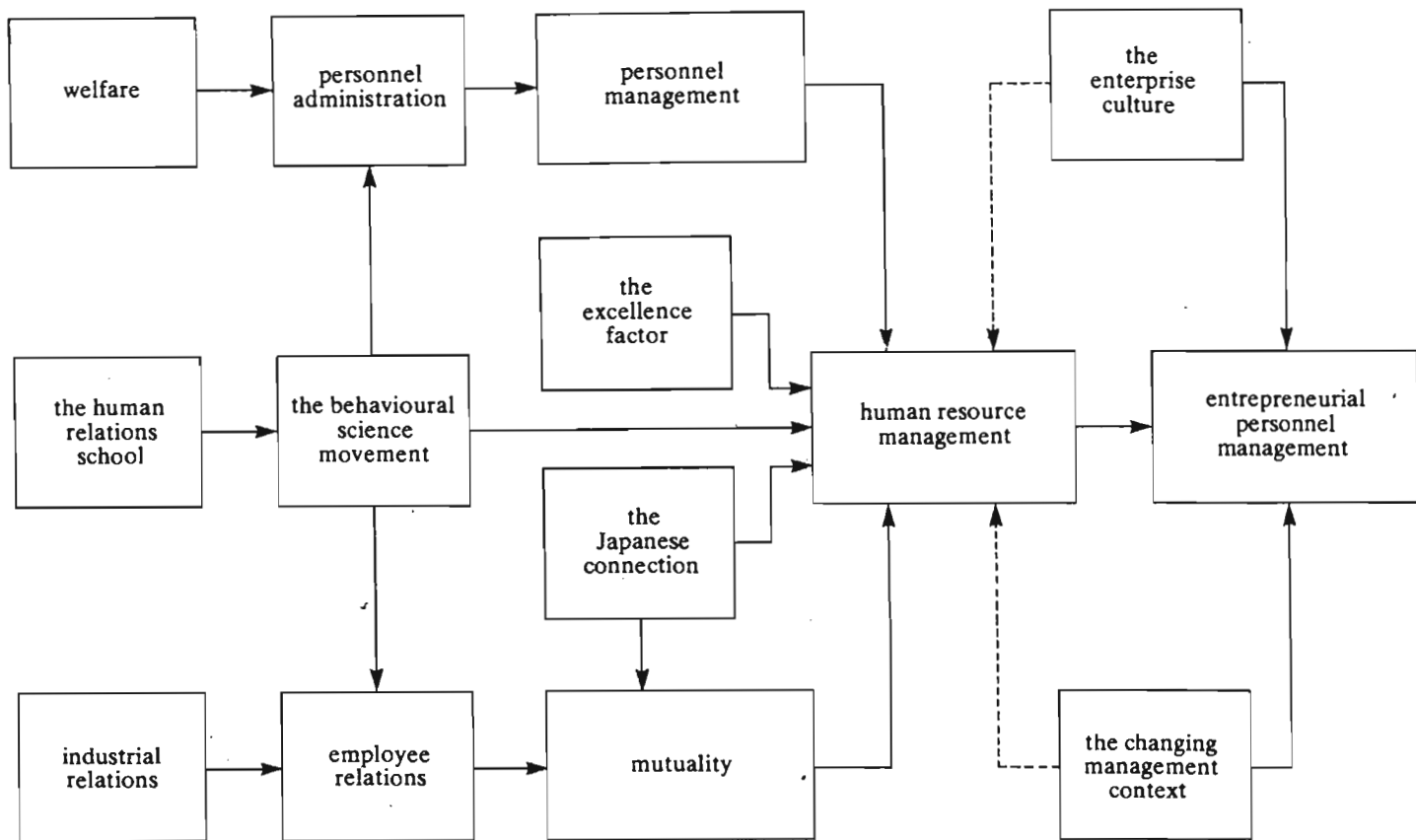
His purpose was to simplify the tracing of HRM developments from its origins to explain the sources for his concept of "entrepreneurial personnel management". It is not necessary to accept his thesis of entrepreneurship to find value in his historical format. Nor does one need to accept his three streams merging into a HRM "pool". However, the "three streams" provide a useful format for unravelling some of the complexities of HRM history. Armstrong's "entrepreneurial pool" is a contemporary interpretation to explain current emphases in HRM and the necessary orientation of HRPs. In a future time, some other concept may be required to interpret the demands on HRM in relation to a newer and yet undefined environment. For this study the concept of three streams merging into one common HRM stream provides a practical and theoretical model.

Armstrong's three streams, viz., personnel management, human relations and industrial relations (Figure 3.1, p.44) allows for the influence of the "behavioural science movement", the "excellence factor", the "Japanese connection" and significantly a contemporary focus on the need for entrepreneurial creativity within management thinking in the interests of seeking competitive advantage.

The model does not allow sufficient credence to the contribution of training and development, which in SA has made a significant addition to HRM. Armstrong does allow for a clearly delineated role for industrial relations and significantly indicates the influence of the behavioural sciences on industrial relations. His concept of mutuality is premature in the highly divided and conflictual SA labour context.

Figure 3. 1

**Armstrong's "Three Streams" of Historical Development
of Human Resource Management**



The three streams are briefly outlined below together with the core stream.

3.2.3.1 The Personnel Management Stream

The personnel management stream springs from its origins in the welfare services offered by enlightened companies at the turn of the 20th century, through to the emergence of personnel administration, and on to its broadening involvement in specialised services. These services include psychometric testing, job evaluation, merit rating, management by objectives.

3.2.3.2 The Human Relations/Behavioural Science Stream

The human relations stream originates with the influence of Elton Mayo and Kurt Lewin in the 1930's and the human relations school which arose from their thinking. This approach developed into the behavioural science movement under the influence of Argyris, Herzberg, Likert, MacGregor and others in the 1960's. Out of this thinking emerged emphases on quality of working life, motivation of employees, organisational health, organisational development(OD) and other trends based on behavioural science concepts. Armstrong notes that these behavioural science concepts influenced traditional personnel management and the employee relations dimension of industrial relations.

3.2.3.3 The Industrial Relations Stream

The industrial relations (IR) stream has its origin in the very nature of the employment relationship. It manifests itself with the emergence of industrial relations as a pervasive element in HRM and the creating of an IR function to meet specialised demands, such as wage and benefits negotiations, productivity agreements and structured communication programmes.

The Armstrong model acknowledges the influence of the “Japanese connection” and participatory methods envisioned in “mutuality” between the main parties to the employment relationship. From the 1980's onwards in South Africa, ‘hard’ industrial relations dominated the activities of most company HR departments which generally limited the possibility of more creative and participatory approaches to the solution of IR issues.

3.2.3.4 Human Resource Management

Armstrong's three streams merge in his concept of HRM as the central stream. This concept is based on Armstrong's interpretation of the current need for the central integrating factor in HRM, namely, “entrepreneurial personnel management”. Feeding into this central core are the two important elements of the contemporary business world, that of ‘enterprise culture’ and ‘the changing management context’. These two elements

heavily influence the nature of HRM and its needed focus of “entrepreneurial personnel management”.

These three streams, together with the main core of HRM and its entrepreneurial aspects, form the theoretical framework of the historical review to follow in this Chapter.

3.2.4 The Problem of Selectivity

Any effort at providing a brief overview of historical developments is fraught with many difficulties, not least value laden biases. Finnemore and van der Merwe (1989) identify the problem. “Analysing the past is even more conducive to value-laden judgements, than analysis of current developments.” (p.13).

The problem is even more acute when investigating historically the employment relationship in the racial socio-political-economic context of South Africa. Selecting events to illustrate issues is subject to the commentators’ values. In the South Africa context, values are often diverse and seldom common between parties when applied to the employment relationship, especially in regard to industrial relations. Finnemore and van der Merwe (1989) acknowledge the problem prior to presenting their history of industrial relations in SA and recognise that, “the interpretation of history cannot easily be divorced from the ideology of the historian. (p.13).

Selection of events in this study will be on the basis of their potential contribution to understanding HRM developments and their ability to assist in highlighting key ambiguities in HRM.

3.3 PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT : THE FIRST STREAM

Armstrong’s first historical stream refers to traditional personnel management. Personnel management’s welfare origins are of relevance to this study and are addressed in some detail. The element of personnel administration (see Figure 3.1, p.44), although of relevance to the general development of HRM, provides little of significance to this study. Its role is noted only. The third element of personnel management will be analysed in terms of the impact of scientific management and earlier industrial psychology.

3.3.1 The Welfare Origins

3.3.1.1 The Early Background

The harsh and inhuman working conditions brought about by the industrial revolution are well known and recorded, as is the role in Great Britain of the social reformers to ameliorate the dehumanising working and living conditions of the time.

The social and industrial reform movements in Britain and the USA influenced the

appointment of industrial welfare workers before the turn of the 20th century. They were appointed by the more socially conscious employers to alleviate some of the degrading effects of industrialisation on workers. These “social” workers were the forerunners of early personnel practitioners. It is in this milieu that welfare and humanitarian elements were introduced into organisations. This legacy left an expectation that later personnel/human resource functions should ensure that their organisations met their social responsibilities to their employees.

Many textbooks on Personnel or Human Resource Management open with reference to the industrial welfare origins of personnel management, thereby acknowledging the origins, but not necessarily the implications. (White 1946; Beach 1985; Torrington and Hall 1987; Molander 1989; Cascio 1995; Swanepoel (Ed) 1998).

Molander (1989) corrects the perception that the early origins of personnel management have little value. He maintains that, “These early beginnings have had a profound impact on the development of Personnel Management” (p.2)

This legacy of humanitarian concern for an organisation’s employees has always confronted HRPs in the unique South Africa context. This legacy provides a foundation for some of the dilemmas and ambiguities in HRM. Whether these implications have always been recognised is a matter for debate. Historically, it can be shown that this history of care and concern for employees has continued, not as the central focus, but as an element requiring ongoing attention, albeit stronger in some organisations than in others.

3.3.1.2 The Provision of Welfare Services

In Great Britain the state’s laissez faire policy during the 18th and early 19th century allowed industry to exploit workers unchecked, until the work of the social reformers such as Peel and Shaftesbury (1811-1851) assisted in bringing about changes for the better in both social and industrial life with, for example., the introduction of the Factory Acts (1833), the Mines Act (1842) and the Ten Hours Act (1847). For the purposes of this study, it is the application of social and employment reform by humanitarian entrepreneurs within their own industries which warrants attention.

3.3.1.3 The Humanitarian Entrepreneurs

As an example of the philosophy of the early industrialist social reformers, Robert Owen (1771-1858) stands out as a humanitarian entrepreneur. As a Scottish textile manufacturer, his approach was from within the business community of his day. In 1813 he wrote “A New View of Society” outlining his philosophy, markedly in contrast to the exploitative views of the majority of industrialists of his time. Beach (1985) points out that Owen believed that one should devote as much attention to one’s “vital machines” (the workers), as one did to inanimate machines.

Owen believed in paying higher wages and creating shorter working hours as being a right as well as being in the national economic interest.

“No evil ought to be more dreaded by a master manufacturer than the low wages of labour. These in consequence of their numbers are the greatest consumers of all articles and it will always be found that when wages are high, the country prospers; when they are low, all classes suffer from the highest to the lowest, but most particularly the manufacturing interest.” (Owen cited in Beach, 1985, p.13).

As an entrepreneur he was ahead of his time. His theory of higher wages was in contrast to the popular belief of the time “ of ‘profits in the last hour of work’ theory, which was used as a strong argument for the lengthening of the working day.” (White, 1946, p.312).

Owen may have been displaying enlightened self interest, but as an early example of paternalistic management, he pioneered a humanitarian concern for his workers, not evident in his time. He established villages for his workers near his cotton mills and built decent health and sanitation facilities in his factories. He went on to abolish child labour in his mills. His general interest in the welfare of his people lead him to establish schools for workers and their children.

According to White (1946), the early paternalistic pioneers like Owen,

“.... began to regard their workers as children to be directed and governed wisely, and their efforts were directed to the development of character, as well as to conducting their business in such a way that high profits could be made and better wages paid than those of their competitors”. (p.312).

Owen and others like him, may have been seen as mavericks in their day, but they created a tradition of care for the human condition of their employees which left a legacy. The element of concern for the needs of employees became an enduring issue within the employment relationship, requiring attention to interpret the principle of care in a contemporary context. The needs of employees became one side of the dilemma which creates ambiguity in HRM. In terms of Watson’s “waves of theory”, the influence of this school of caring paternalism is still felt today.

Urwick & Breck (1990) described Owen as “the pioneer of personnel management”. (p.8). However, Leatt, et al., (1986) noted that Owen in the end despaired of inspiring his fellow industrialists to change and turned to the trade union movement to further his beliefs. (p.196).

3.3.1.4 The Welfare Workers

The purpose of this section is to observe the conditions under which the industrial welfare

workers were introduced by pioneering companies.

Swanepoel (1998, p.6) draws attention to the period 1880 - 1920 during which important developments took place which impacted on the evolution of personnel management. During the latter part of the 19th century the lead was taken by such companies as Cadbury's, Rowntree's and Lever Brothers. They introduced welfare workers, who set up progressive schemes of unemployment benefit, sick pay, education, subsidised housing and other schemes beneficial to employees and their families.

Molander (1989) draws attention to the possibility of mixed motives of these early humanitarian employers. "By means of a mixture of Christian conscience and enlightened self interest, some employers responded to the growing disquiet about working conditions". (p.2)

In 1896 the first full time industrial welfare worker was employed at Rowntrees in York. Other companies followed. These workers were all female with a limited role. They were to act as the "worker's friend". However, they were not necessarily acceptable to all parties. As Molander (1989) observes:

"Even in this limited capacity they generally earned the distrust of both management and the trade unions. The former resented their intrusion into the workplace; the latter perceived them as a management device for controlling employees." (p.2).

Torrington and Hall (1987, p.5) refer to these welfare officers as "acolytes of benevolence" as their function was to dispense benefits on behalf of their employer to relieve the distress of the worst affected employees. "It was the plight of the women and children which first struck the consciences of the public it was for their sake welfare officers were first appointed." (Niven, 1967. p.15).

3.3.1.5 The Ongoing Welfare Debate

Although these companies were accused later of paternalism, their initiatives "marked a fundamental shift of employer philosophy". (Torrington and Hall, 1987. p.5). Those opposed argued that offering welfare was merely a cheap means of buying off the emerging trade unions or avoiding paying higher wages. Whatever the merits or otherwise of welfare, the principle of care for employees would continue into the twenty first century as an ongoing debate. The current HIV/AIDS crisis in South Africa has led to a debate over whether organisations should meet the expensive cost of anti-retroviral and other treatment for their employees who are infected by the virus. Now pressure comes from trade unions and human rights groups.

Even if the early welfare functions were more expressions of benevolence and Christian charity than of a desire for improved productivity, after the turn of the 19th century,

indications suggest that welfare orientated operations were obtaining better productivity results. Niven (1967) pointed out that,

“.....the word ‘efficiency’ began to be heard, employers were discovering that schemes for the well being of their people were not only essential on humanitarian grounds, but were also a step towards efficient running of their business.” (p.19).

By 1912 this understanding was being articulated. Niven (1967) quotes from Edward Cadbury, “Experiments in Industry” (1912), to illustrate the belief of the more enlightened industrialists, that “....business efficiency and the welfare of employees, are but different sides of the same problem”.(p.23). Legge (1995) referred to Cadbury as having “made the vital connection between welfare and efficiency”. (p.11).

The equation of balancing human and business needs has become an enduring tension within organisations . On these grounds, it is argued that the theory and practice of HRM on an ongoing basis needs to discover ever more relevant ways of addressing the dilemmas, contradictions and ambiguities inherent within the context of the free enterprise system.

3.3.2 Scientific Management and Earlier Industrial Psychology: The Impact on Personnel Management

At the same time as welfare and social conditions were being improved in the factories and mines in both Great Britain and United States of America, new trends were emerging to have far reaching impact on workers and personnel management. A more scientific approach to improving production and efficiency was being developed.

The contribution of scientific management and the role of the earlier industrial psychologists introduced a process of modernisation that endured for decades. This process contributed significantly to the tension between the concern for people and company productivity requirements. Early personnel management found itself part of the process of the application of the principles of scientific management and the thinking of the early industrial psychologists.

3.3.2.1 Scientific Management

Around 1885 F W. Taylor began to study work systematically, using scientific methods and published his findings in his pioneering “The Principles of Scientific Management” (1911). By using techniques such as time and motion studies, standardised tools and method specification, coupled with proper selection and placement of the right worker in the right job, together with exact training in the job, all supported by management in a spirit of co-operation, Taylor believed a perfect fit could be achieved between person and job. He understood this method to be in the interests of both worker and employer.

At no stage should workers be called upon to perform at a pace which would be detrimental to their health. To achieve this enhanced status, Taylor maintained,

“Each man must learn to give up his own particular way of doing things, adapt his methods to the many new standards, and grow accustomed to receiving and obeying directions covering details..., which in the past have been left to his individual judgement”. (1947, p.133)

Taylor’s approach conformed to the concept of the ‘economic man’ that dominated motivational thinking at the time, viz., that people are primarily motivated by economic gain. By establishing appropriate wage and piece work incentives, which would be provided from higher productivity, conflict between worker and employer could be eliminated “over the division of the surplus as the all important matter and together turn their attention towards increasing the size of the surplus.” (Hawkins, 1972, p.30: cited in Deery & Plowman, 1991, p.7).

Kochan (1980) maintained that scientific management was an effort “to blend economic incentives and industrial engineering techniques”, to produce the “one best way” for organising work. (p.9).

Munsterberg (1913) earlier referred to the standing Taylor had in his day.

“Enthusiastic followers have declared it (scientific management) to be the greatest advance since the introduction of the mill system and of machinery. A sober examination of the facts soon demonstrates that the truth lies in the middle.” (p.49).

3.3.2.2 Scientific Administration

A further feature of the scientific approach to management and work organisation of this period was what Luthans (1977) referred to as the rise of the “organizational specialists” (p.6) and Tozi, et al., (1994) as “administrative theory” (p.10). Henri Fayol, a French engineer, became the leading exponent of applying a scientific approach to the task of management and administration of the division of work. Fayol (1949) developed 14 principles of management and believed that:

“The object of the division of work is to produce more and better work with the same effort. The worker always on the same part, the manager concerned always with the same matters, acquire an ability, sureness, and accuracy which increase their output”. (p.20).

Tozi et al.,(1994, p.11) maintain that despite being derided as “proverbs”, Fayol’s principles revealed a depth of understanding of the functions of management which have endured in such traditional managerial functions as planning, organising, leading and

controlling.

3.3.2.3 Limitations of Scientific Management

Scientific Management or, as it commonly has been called, Taylorism, later came under much criticism in light of newer insights.

Drucker (1961), by the mid 1950's, recognised that scientific management in its time, “..... may well be the most powerful as well as the most lasting contribution America has made to western thought since the Federalist Papers”, (p.247). Taylor (1961) identified a critical limitation in Taylorism, which may be extended to the scientific administration of Fayol, when he declared that

“Despite all its worldly success, (*scientific management*) has not succeeded in solving the problem of managing worker and work”. (p.249).

Drucker further believed that Taylor failed to distinguish between “a principle of analysis and a principle of action”, because the action being carried out was by, “a human being which is not a machine tool”. (p.250).

Taylor (1947) can be observed to express a traditional unitarist stance, which is a severe limitation for those who advocate a pluralist or radical frame of reference.

“The men must be brought to see that the new system changes their employers from antagonists to friends who are working as hard as possible side by side with them, all pushing in the same direction and all helping to bring about such an increase in the output as to so cheapen the cost of production that the men will be paid permanently from thirty to one hundred percent more than they have earned in the past”. (p.131, Chapter: “Shop Management”).

From a management perspective, his stance is explicable in terms of the conventional orthodoxy of the day. From an HRM perspective, his unitarism may be viewed in light of the resurgence of unitarism emerging in strategic human resource management (SHRM) in the late 1980's and 1990's in Great Britain and the United States of America (See Section 3.5.2.4).

The critique of scientific management (Section 3.3.3) by certain later South African commentators reveals strong opposition to management and especially of the unitarist variety.

Munsterberg (1913) was somewhat dismissive of the opposition of some trade unions.

“(trade union opposition) may be disregarded, as it is not directed against the claim that the efficiency can be heightened , but only against some social

features of the scheme, such as the resultant temporary reduction of the number of workers” . (p.50)

3.3.2.4 Earlier Industrial Psychology

Around the early 1900's, at about the same time as scientific management techniques were being introduced, the early psychologists began to examine the behaviour of workers in industry and were to add new dimensions to worker productivity. The intention of these early industrial psychologists, according to Viteles (1932), was to assist individuals to adapt to the industrial workplace and thereby to advance the efficiency of industry. Their studies focused first on the impact of, and then the improvement of, working conditions such as heat, noise, humidity and resultant fatigue, etc.,

With Munsterberg's "Psychology and Industrial Efficiency" (1913), there emerged the new specialist field of industrial psychology, or what Munsterberg referred to as "scientific psychology" .(p.52). From his studies in job analysis and the need to identify necessary skills to perform specific functions through aptitude testing devices, a whole new direction for personnel management was to arise. The application of these techniques was refined during the First World War and potential job performance was improved through, for example, intelligence testing.

3.3.1 Scientific Management and Earlier Industrial Psychology in South Africa

The principles of scientific management made their way into South Africa via the mines from 1910 onwards when efforts were made to optimise the productivity of the largely migrant black work force. Little worker opposition occurred. (Fullagar, 1983. p.6).

3.3.3.1 South African Mining and the Chamber Of Mines

The South African mines, traditionally the largest employer of labour, played an important part in the introduction of scientific management into South Africa. Bozzoli (1977) in tracing the role of management, demonstrated the part played by J.S Ford in the 1930's and 1940's, whom she referred to as the "pioneer of scientific management in South Africa", and quoted him in this regard. "By reason of the particular type of native labour available, the gold mines should lend themselves more to scientific management than do the industries of Europe and America". (p.14).

Industrial psychologists went on to develop the first psychological test battery for selecting semi-skilled workers and to standardise acclimatisation tests. The National Institute of Personnel Research (NIPR), established in 1946 under the leadership of Dr Simon Biesheuvel, played an important role in the earlier years in developing selection and other tests for the mines until the establishment of the Chamber of Mines Research Organisation (COMRO) in the early 1960s when the research included both human relations and technical mining problems. (Mitchell, 1992)

3.3.3.2 A Critique of Scientific Management and Earlier Industrial Psychology in South Africa

Scientific Management, industrial psychology, the NIPR and Biesheuvel, its Director, who played a leading role in industrial psychology thinking for over 30 years, came in for criticism in later years from some academic and non-management sources in South Africa. Fullagar's comprehensive critique (1984, p.95-100; 1987, p.4-10) is important for HRM as he raises numerous critical people-centred issues which are central to this study, the most relevant of which are raised below.

- (i) Scientific management was perceived as founded largely on a rational economic view of human nature. Man was perceived as primarily a hedonistic organism motivated by economic incentives with the chief desire to maximise one's self-interest.
- (ii) "The worker became a commodity in the production of other commodities."
- (iii) Initiative and individuality were subordinated to a mechanistic and dehumanising system.
- (iv) Quoting Blauner (1967), Fullagar (1987, p.11-12) argued that large production units, such as the mines in South Africa, created psychological alienation for workers from their work due to the application of scientific management methods.
- (v) Scientific management did not take into account the complexities of organisational structure and functioning by ignoring:
 - * the social, political, cultural context of an organisation;
 - * the individual's needs, attitudes and values that are brought into the work situation from the external social environment;
 - * the informal relationship structures that exist within an organisation which affect internal work matters.

Such challenges, albeit from the late 1980's, highlight certain principle issues that appear not to have been adequately addressed by the newly emerging personnel management discipline. However, a reading of contemporary writers such as White (1946) and Northcott (1947a), reveal an awareness of, and consideration for, the people element, but addressed largely in terms of management's economic 'wisdom' and the paternalism of the time. Other responses will be identified in the adaptations reflected in the Second Stream of "Human Relations and Behavioural Science (Section 3.4).

Nzimande (1991) relied heavily on Fullagar (1984 & 1987) to support his claim that scientific management and industrial psychology were used as means of class oppression against the black working class from the inception of their application in South Africa. (p.301-302). The weakness of the highly critical Fullagar approach and of those he quotes in support, is that they lack workable, pragmatic, business orientated proposals which would better enable companies to run successful operations that would survive in

a competitive business market place.

It can be noted that Drucker in the early 1950's had warned that, although scientific management had been a great move forward for work organisation, it did not take into account factors that the human relations school had raised.

3.4 HUMAN RELATIONS AND BEHAVIOURAL SCIENCE : THE SECOND STREAM

The second historical stream has its source in the emergence of the human relations movement and behavioural science research and its applications. This section will note the important stages in the development of this movement using selected applications as illustrations. The human relations stream can be identified by its humanistic and individualistic orientation. It is this focus on the individual human dimension which creates for HRM one of its major ambiguities. As a response to the depersonalising elements of scientific management, the human relations movement, with its focus on the individual's social relations, created a tension for traditionally production orientated management.

3.4.1 The Background

From the early 1930's, the USA lead the way with a number of factors conspiring to create an environment calling for a new approach to dealing with employees.

- * Welfarism had declined in effectiveness.
- * Taylorism was no longer delivering its earlier productivity gains, partly because it was not fully understood, but more because of its shortcomings in understanding and dealing with the social dynamics of the work environment.
- * The growing labour movement in the mid 1930's and onwards began to apply pressure on employers to improve treatment, wages, benefits and working conditions. Many companies understood that changes were required, but as Beach (1985) observed,

“Some managements saw the rise of unionism as a challenge to provide so sound a personnel program and so enlightened a leadership that their employees would find no need for a union”. (p.19).

3.4.2. The Human Relations School

The inter-war years of the 1920's and 1930's were formative for the new developments which saw the emergence of the human relations school.

Most commentators see the Hawthorne studies as the significant factor in launching the

human relations movement. The findings of the lengthy Western Electric research at Hawthorne (1927-1932) under Elton Mayo and his Harvard University colleagues had a profound catalytic effect on understanding the social dynamics of people in a work situation.

Beach (1985) maintains these research findings “created the theoretical and intellectual foundations of ... the human relations movement” (p.20). The findings challenged many of the established concepts and furthered the process of adjustment in the work place.

Kochan (1980) interpreted the emergence of the human relations school during this period as a reaction to the efforts of the early industrial psychologists who had focussed on the individual. Human relations theorists now stressed the importance of the work group. (p.11).

Deery & Plowman (1991) located the emphasis of the movement in social relations, believing their “..... emphasis lay not on structuring the appropriate economic incentives, but on creating satisfying social relations within work groups.” (p.7)

The human relations movement effectively redefined motivation in the workplace from one based on financial incentives of Taylorism towards one based on human co-operation.

Torrington and Hall (1987) referred to the personnel manager that emerged during this period, as a “humane bureaucrat” who operated within an organisational bureaucracy and attempted to blend the scientific management of Taylor, the scientific administration of Fayol, with the human relations of Mayo. (p.5-6).

The new focus on the social implications of the work group was in contrast to Taylor’s focus on the individual and of the organisation as a technical-economic system. It now fell to supervisors to treat workers as human beings and to create a sense of well being, team work and of belonging to the organisation. Deery and Plowman (1991) stated the common belief. “Good supervision and good communication would inspire a sense of confidence and commitment to the goals of the organisation.” (p.7).

3.4.3 Limitations of the Human Relations Movement

Cascio (1995) states that the human relations school dominated personnel thinking for a generation, but was often misunderstood or misused by management and gradually became discredited.

“Managers used human relations for short term purposes of manipulating workers to increase output rather than for the long term goal of satisfying worker needs while meeting organisational needs. By 1960, the ‘happy worker’ fad had ended.” (p.38).

Legge (1995) tried to identify a sense of continuity between the old welfare orientation and the newer humanistic focus.

“On the one hand, it might be argued that the choice of scientific and administrative management shows a growing concern with notions of rationality and efficiency, while adherence to human relations shows an awareness of limitations of rational models of management control and a continuing tradition of concern for the welfare and development of individuals at work.” (p.11).

Legge (1995) cautioned against a too ready interpretation of genuine humanitarianism in the new school with a more cynical interpretation, where human relations could be seen as conveniently linked with paternalistic welfarism which was nothing more than a further search for greater production efficiency. She interprets this as “..... that concern for workers as people, requiring a measure of respect and self-fulfilment, would mean greater efficiency and lower costs.” (p.11). She suggested that the human relations strategy was a form of management control through motivation.

Luthans (1977) interprets the early human relations thinking as too simplistic to survive later developments. “Human relations was based on some very simplistic assumptions about human behaviour and offered equally simplistic, prescriptive solutions for managing people.” (p.xv).

It can be argued that the long standing dilemma for HRM of people needs and business demands was still prevalent, and that the management approach in to attempting to deal with the ambiguity was through the application of a strategy based on the theories of the human relations school of thinking.

3.4.4 Neo-Human Relations & Behavioural Science

From the mid 1950's, according to Deery and Plowman (1991), research findings began to cast doubt on the prescriptive remedies of the human relations theory. A neo-human relations school began to emerge, lead by American behavioural scientists. The Armstrong model (Figure 3.1, p.44) identifies this school as the “behavioural science movement” which made (and continues to make) a major contribution to HRM strategies.

The new school of thinking was based on the scientific study of human behaviour. Ongoing research would create the foundations for future developments in HRM. Much of the attention centred on trying to find the holy grail of human motivation to create greater organisational success.

This period is characterised by the emergence in the 1950's and 1960's of an unusually high number of prominent scholars, all of whom made significant contributions to the new school's thinking, which may explain the strength and impact of the movement on HRM.

Scott Myers (1970) listed 12 names from this period and endeavoured to show how they shared a commonality in their theories of human effectiveness. Six of these names linked to this new movement are provided, together with their significant written contribution

A H Maslow (1954: Motivation and Personality); Chris Argyris (1957: Personality and Organization), who dealt with managerial competence that could generate authentic relationships that in turn would allow for meaningful work, freedom to act, accountability; David McLelland (1961: The Achieving Society), who in the late 1940's was researching and writing on the achievement motive; Douglas McGregor (1960: The Human Side of Enterprise), argued for tapping into the higher order needs of workers for successful motivation; Renis Likert (1961: New Patterns in Management), demonstrated that supervisors of high producing groups were employee-centred and participation orientated; Frederick Herzberg (1966: Work and the Nature of Man), dealt with motivation through challenging work, responsibility and focus on the work itself, as well as the traditional 'hygiene factors' to achieve organisational success. The thinking of the new school of behavioural scientists, based as it was on rigorous empirical research, enabled extensive new application to the management of human resources.

The confidence of these researchers in their findings lead some to express their new hope ambitiously. McGregor (1957) illustrates this belief.

“It is quite possible for us to realize substantial improvements in the efficiency of industrial organizations during the next decade or two. The social scientists contribute much to such developments;the ingenuity and perserverance of industrial management in the pursuit of economic ends have changed many scientific and technological dreams into commonplace realities. It is now becoming clear that the application of these same talents to the human side of the enterprise will not only enhance substantially these materialistic achievements, but will bring us one step closer to the ‘good society’.” (p.22-26).

Alfred (1997), in reviewing this period, confirmed its impact and the humanistic values embedded in the thinking were accepted at the time.

“Humanistic psychology exerted a profound influence on management thinking. Work-related human satisfaction became a hotly pursued value of the times.” (p.1).

Watson (1986) reminds us of an important feature of this movement, viz., that it is individualistically orientated, typical of western middle class society. From this perspective it may not be as effective when transferred to a more collectivistic and communalistically orientated society in third or developing world contexts, such as may be experienced among the largely black workforce in South Africa.

“The starting point for the humanistic psychology movement is the belief that scientific investigation of human behaviour should be oriented towards releasing in people the potential they have. This is a strand of thinking that has flourished in a variety of forms in the warmth and affluence of middle-class California ever since it first appeared.” (Watson, p.106).

There were those at the time who expressed concern at the overwhelming influence of the new movement which they believed needed some counter balancing. Leavitt (1962), somewhat apologetically, suggested that the role of the human being in the organisation should be ‘deweighted’ but not ‘devalued’.

“The theme here is not that human relations theory is either incorrect or immoral. My argument is that it is insufficient. It is too narrow a perspective from which to analyze the management of organizations”. (p.53)

By the 1980's the neo-human relations movement had applied its organisational behaviour insights to a range of management development requirements. These applications included a new field of organisational development (OD). By the end of the decade it extended its insights into organisational restructuring in the interests of company survival and competitive advantage.

3.4.5 The Impact of the Human Relations and Behavioural Science Movements on the Historical Development of South African HRM

This review now shifts its focus from the formative developments and sources of these movements in the USA to its historical progress in South Africa. It takes into account the impact in South Africa of both the human relations and neo-human relations schools of thinking.

3.4.5.1 Post-Second World War South Africa

The post-second world war era was a turning point for HRM in South Africa. The personnel function emerged in its own right. A significant sign of this recognition was the establishment of the South African Institute of Personnel Management in 1945 and the presentation of the first post-graduate Diploma in Personnel Welfare and Management at Rhodes University College in 1944. (Swanepoel. 1998, p.36).

A further indication was the publication in 1946 by the Leather Industries Research Institute (LIRI) of Isobel White's, “Personnel Research in South Africa”, the first work of its kind in this country. Herein can be found one of the few recorded descriptions of the nature of industrial welfare work of the early 1940's in the Eastern Cape. (p.219-273).

The establishment of the National Institute of Personnel Research (NIPR) in 1946 under the leadership of Dr Simon Biesheuvel, whose research work would influence personnel

management for a generation, was to provide industrial psychology with a formidable research base. In this post-war period the dominant influence continued to be the early industrial psychologists. This may be attributed to the role of the NIPR and to a lesser extent the LIRI. The human relations school had a delayed influence in South Africa, arguably due to the need to select and develop the growing numbers of poorly educated Black workers who had moved into industry during and after the war years.

3.4.5.2 The Application of Neo-Human Relations Theories in South Africa

For the purpose of this historical review any possible significance of the earlier human relations thinking is bypassed in the interests of noting the more relevant impact of the neo-human relations movement in South Africa. This is well documented from the early 1970's onwards in *People and Profits*, the official journal of the South African Institute of Personnel Management (IPM), which journal can be viewed as an indicator of the focus of personnel management at the time.

Herzberg addressed the 1973 IPM National Convention, which was followed by an article on his motivational theory in *People & Profits*, (Vol.1:3). Bruynzeel Plywoods in the same year were able to report the implementation of a successful productivity programme based on behavioural science principles, quoting Likert, Herzberg and others, as the source of a new organisational development model. (*People & Profits*, Vol.1:6).

During this period considerable attention was placed on developing managerial effectiveness and various approaches were adopted for this purpose, most of which stemmed from the application of theory and practice originating in the USA. Illustrations of some of the applications of the neo-human relations movement, relevant to this study, are noted below and provide insight into historical attempts to deal with the perennial HRM problem of ambiguities and contradictions.

First, is the Blake & Mouton Managerial Grid. In 1975, *People & Profits*, (Vol. 2:12) reported on the introduction of the Blake and Mouton Managerial Grid as a training package for management development. First presented in 1961 in the USA as a seminar for developing managerial leadership, the model made its appearance in South Africa in 1968. By the end of 1973 over 450 managers had attended "Grid" training seminars in South Africa.

As an example, the "Grid" was introduced at OK Bazaars in 1971. By 1973, as a result of the innovative programme, the company was able to report that the new man-management (sic) approach and team development had resulted in a drop in absenteeism and a substantial boost in turnover and productivity. (*People & Profits*, Vol.1 :1)

Critics have argued that such programmes are simply a manipulative technique for extracting greater productivity. But it can be equally argued that the "Grid's" acceptance

illustrates a recognition in South Africa of a search for balance between a “concern for production” and a “concern for people”, the two axes of the “grid”. William Reddin’s, “Three Dimensional Model of Managerial Effectiveness”, which also utilises a grid with two axes, viz., “relationships oriented” and “task oriented” management, for some reason, although as useful as the Blake & Mouton model, did not receive as much acceptance in South Africa. (Reddin, 1985). The study interest in the Reddin model is its similarity to the “Grid”, with its search for balance between people needs and productivity demands.

Second, is Behaviour Assessment and Behaviour Modelling. Behaviour assessment and behaviour modelling became another well publicised application of the new approach. Edgars, in 1972, contracted Professor Bill Byham from the USA to assist in improving their management selection and development by using Byham’s assessment techniques to select for potential. (People & Profits, Vol. 1: 2). In the same article it was reported that other well known companies, such as The Old Mutual, S A Breweries and Afrox had in recent years successfully introduced similar programmes based on the latest techniques, with positive results.

In 1974 Rank Xerox introduced techniques for assessing people-management ability by behaviour analysis as a prelude to management skills development. The company credited this new assessment technique with its success in developing management skills. (People & Profits, Vol.2:3).

In 1975, People and Profits, (Vol. 2 :11 to Vol 3: 4) ran a five part series on “Behaviour Modelling” by Mel Sorcher. These articles described Sorcher’s interactive skills technique for supervisors and focused on the development of key behaviours. The new skills were claimed to be expressed in better staff motivation and productivity.

Third, is Situational Leadership. The Hersey & Blanchard’s (1981) “situational leadership” model is a further illustration of the juxtaposition of “people” and “task”. They intend with their flexible leadership model to create opportunity for maximisation of individual effort in the interests of organisational output. They explain their understanding:

“.....the scientific management movement emphasized a concern for task (output), while the human relations movement stressed concern for relationships (people). The recognition of these two concerns has characterized the writings on leadership ever since the conflict between scientific management and the human relations schools of thought became apparent.” (Hersey & Blanchard: p.85).

The study interest in this model is the contrast of two styles of management behaviour. The traditional authoritarian leader, who is task focused on directing operations, is juxtaposed with the non-directive democratic style leader who stresses concern for human relationships. By 1979, considerable interest had grown in South Africa in the Hersey & Blanchard model. (People & Profits in 1979: Vol.7:3).

3.4.5.3 Shortcomings of these Techniques in South Africa

The three illustrations (Section 3.4.5.2) of the application of behavioural science to management development in South Africa during the 1970's, as will be observed in the Industrial Relations stream, revealed two shortcomings in their application in South Africa:

- (i) An ideological socio-political environment militated strongly against achieving unity of purpose between black workers and the largely white management of the time.
- (ii) The unitarist frame of reference to which management thinking was generally orientated restricted overly positive results from these techniques. The growing conflictual context in which South African companies operated in the 1970's called for the acceptance of at least a pluralist understanding to adequately interpret the situational context and then to propose solutions. A conflict-pluralist model would emerge at the turn of the decade under pressure of militant unionism.

Despite these limitations, South African companies steadily developed their use of behavioural science techniques in a range of training, motivational, participatory and productivity programmes, with varying success. What is not observable to any significant degree is the impact of behavioural science on industrial relations as the Armstrong model suggests. Armstrong went further to identify the emergence of an emphasis on mutuality and employee relations arising from behavioural science insights.

3.4.6 Organisational Development in South Africa

During the 1980's South African companies were being forced to cope with a range of challenges from different quarters, both from within and from without, arising from the political-socio-economic environment in South Africa.. Organisations sought new techniques to assist them to initiate change to meet the new demands. Organisation Development (OD), which made a faltering entry into South Africa in the 1970's, emerged as a prominent management technique in the 1980's, as one means of attempting to address some of the growing conflictual issues within organisations.

3.4.6.1 The Shortcomings of Earlier Organisational Development in South Africa

The early expressions of OD, according to Zimbler (1986), were characterized by narrow value orientations, emphasizing openness and trust using "sensitivity training" workshops lead by professional consultants. The focus was on leadership style, organizational change and people versus task concerns. These early expressions of essentially humanistic values were strongly criticised by some academics. Coetsee (1977a & b) questioned the theoretical grounds of OD and its commercialisation by consultants.

“Verskeie skrywers is dit eens dat een van die belangrikste tekortkominge van baie OD-tegnieke, en veral laboratoriumopleiding daarin gelee is dat dit nie as wetenskaplik beskou kan word nie.” (1977a, p.26)

His criticism included the Blake & Mouton, Managerial Grid and similar commercialisations. Zimbler (1986) supported the disillusionment with OD in the 1970's in that “it appeared to produce no lasting changes and little improvement.” (p.6).

3.4.6.2 The Application of Later O D Theory in South Africa

It was a decade before the IPM published another article focussing on OD, following the two critical articles by Coetsee published by the Journal in 1977.

By this time OD had advanced in applicability and had become a well used management technique to obtain planned change within an organisation. In December 1986 the whole issue of People & Profits, Vol.5:8), comprising seven articles, was given to Organisational Development.

Various definitions of OD are available, depending on the definers own orientation. Van Rooyen (1986) defines OD in relation to its challenging environment.

“.....an approach which aims at changing an organization, its structures and the beliefs, values and attitudes of its people so that it can better adapt to the changing and turbulent environment it faces or may face.” (p.9).

McGivering's (1989) definition includes its long term nature and the type of support needed.

“Organisational development is the application of behavioural science knowledge in a deliberate organisation- wide effort to change the functioning of the system in the direction of greater effectiveness. It is a long term effort, requiring the constant support of top management, and frequently makes use of an external consultant.” (p.281)

Zimbler (1986) stressed the bottom-line implications of OD, that it is essentially line management driven and concerns process issues.

“It is essentially a line management tool which is primarily concerned with bottom-line results. OD is therefore not just some soft interpersonal technique. By focussing mainly on the process of organizations, OD enables management to maintain a pro-active, innovative position in face of environmental and internal change.” (p.4).

The theories of OD are behavioural science based and adopt a holistic approach to the

organisation and its culture. McGivering (1989) maintains that as social scientists, the values of OD practitioners are humanistic. (p.282).

“They are behavioural scientists by training, by experience and by inclination and their approach to organizations is broadly humanistic. That is to say, they tend to judge organizations by the quality of the working life of employees, by the extent to which human needs and human dignity are accorded priority, by the honesty and integrity with which human relations are conducted, and by the opportunities for initiative and human development.” (p.293).

When these values came to be actively propagated within South African organisations from the early 1980's onwards, they were often received positively as a means of providing the counterbalance to the task driven demands of production. From this perspective, OD served to bring to the surface the ongoing ambiguity between people needs and production demands.

3.4.6.3 The Limitations of Organisational Development in South Africa

Criticism of the part played by OD and its protagonists in the South Africa context has come from a number of commentators. Much of the criticism originates from OD's perceived shortcomings in not directly addressing industrial relations issues. Douwes-Dekker (1990, p.311 - 348) identifies certain important limitations:

- (i) OD interventions are primarily aimed at middle to senior management. The concept of employees as part of a collectivity is not properly understood.
- (ii) While OD's prime purpose is to serve the requirements of efficiency and effectiveness of the business, it does not show how its techniques will not be abused to suppress unionism.
- (iii) OD does not address the structural sources of power in the management-union relationship.
- (iv) OD does not deal with the separate and conflicting goals of management and union, preferring to see conflict as interpersonal, rather than an inherent conflict within the capital-labour divide.
- (v) OD consultants fail to understand the dynamics of collective bargaining, with its rituals and the tactics associated with distributive bargaining. Rituals such as bluffing, feigned anger, are contrary to OD values.
- (vi) OD consultants need to acknowledge certain principles of the employment relationship in a market economy.

- (vii) OD consultants operate more out of a unitarist frame, preferring to understand the organisation in holistic terms rather than acknowledging the inherent competing interests of the parties.

Some of these limitations are confirmed by noting that no mention is made of unions or industrial relations in Luthans (1977), Zimble (1986) and Coster (1987).

As will be observed from illustrations in the industrial relations stream in South Africa, there was in the late 1970's, through the 1980's and into the early 1990's, a hardening of attitudes due to increasingly confrontational labour-management relations. Trade unionists and political activists believed that company programmes founded on behavioural science theories had actually failed, due to their inability to deal effectively with the fundamental issues in an apartheid society which deprived persons of colour their rightful place in society. Above all, they wanted the end of apartheid and the introduction of democratic government. Company programmes did not address fundamental rights and were thus viewed with suspicion.

3.5 INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS : THE THIRD STREAM

3.5.1 Introduction

Armstrong's third stream separates out industrial relations (IR) as the next major component of his historical analysis. Armstrong identifies an 'employee relations and a 'mutuality phase. in the developmental stages of IR. Neither of these two stages appear to feature strongly within the historical developments of industrial relations in South Africa. The aggressive, confrontational style, which generally characterises labour relationships in South Africa, mostly precluded in the past the more participative features of the softer elements of employee relations and mutuality. In more recent years participative methods have been introduced within organisations, but only with marginal impact in South Africa.. However, Armstrong's industrial relations stream is an important analytical approach. The third stream allows for appropriate separation out of industrial relations developments in South Africa in order to illustrate the direct relevance of industrial relation to the main theme of the study.

The political, economic, social and technological environments within which organisations operate, influence heavily the nature and history of industrial relations, both within an organisation and within a country. The adversarial nature of industrial relations in South Africa may be seen as an illustration of this principle. A selective approach of IR history has been adopted in this review to illustrate the ambiguities in HRM and specifically the ambivalences it creates for HRPs in fulfilling their function.

This section will be in two parts.

Section 3.5.2 on interpreting industrial relations will provide a necessary background

to the most prominent approaches that have influenced the interpretation of industrial relations. It is felt that the history of industrial relations can not be adequately understood, without attempting a brief philosophical and theoretical understanding of the subject.

Section 3.5.3 deals with a perspective on industrial relations in South Africa and presents aspects of the development of South African industrial relations history. This part includes special reference to the experience of Black Personnel Practitioners (BPPs) as a means of illustrating a unique aspect of ambiguity in HRM in South Africa during a specific period of time.

3.5.2 INTERPRETING INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

3.5.2.1 Industrial Relations and Human Resource Management

Historically, Industrial relations has not been well integrated into Personnel/HRM strategy. The IR stream as a result is more readily identified. In more recent years a greater integration of IR theory and practice into strategic human resource management (SHRM) may be observed.

Personnel/HRM textbooks which provide a brief history of the origins of HRM mostly allocate a minor part to IR. HRM textbooks usually only allocate one or two chapters to the subject of Industrial Relations, which finds itself wedged in amongst a great number of HRM topics. This phenomenon can be observed commencing with one of the earliest published texts on Personnel Management by Northcott (1947, p178-182), where, despite a clear commitment to “industrial democracy”, relations with trade unions, collective relations and collective bargaining receive minimal attention. (p118). See also, Cherrington, (1983): Cascio, (1995).

Swanepoel (1998) observed this practice in South African texts.

“Typically, human resource management has been viewed as the overarching concept, with labour relations as some ‘downgraded’ sub part of it”. (p.35).

Swanepoel (1998) also notes that textbooks on industrial relations “will also refer to personnel management’s links to industrial relations ‘on the sideline’”. (p.35).

This mutual practice of ‘downgrading’ or ‘sidelining’ between two specialisms, in Swanepoel’s (1998) view, is due to a failure of both theorists and management to have understood the integration of the two, and to have formulated a suitable strategy which would integrate industrial relations within the overall SHRM discipline. He concludes his argument by saying that “..... it has become extremely important to integrate human resource and industrial relations decisions.” (p.50).

3.5.2.2 Some Reasons for the Lack of Integration of Industrial Relations

Commentators have noted various reasons for this lack of integration.

- (i) The emergence of ‘scientific management’ at the turn of the century lead entrepreneurs to focus on productivity issues.

“During the early 1900's management was more concerned with theories that focussed on management efficiency and organisation than with theories relating to trade unions.” (Finnemore & v d Merwe, 1989, p.3).

- (ii) The classical economists of the industrial revolution, such as Smith, Mill and Ricardo emphasised the ‘natural laws’ of economics. Labour was just another ‘commodity’ subject to the laws of supply and demand. This thinking dominated the 19th century.

“They (*classical economists*) believed there was no justification for any special treatment of workers as this would be interfering with the workings of market forces. (Finnemore & v d Merwe, 1989, p.1).

“The classical economists shared the view that in the long run the ‘invisible hand’ of the competitive market would work in the best interests of the largest number of workers and of society.” (Kochan, 1980, p.3).

- (iii) Much of the early labour discourse focussed on economic debate which lead to addressing labour issues from a macro-economic perspective. The University of Natal library reinforces this element with Labour Economics and related industrial relations issues being located within the Economics section, rather than with HRM..
- (iv) Industrial psychology and other behavioural sciences which created much of the theoretical foundation for the shaping of personnel activity, did not directly address industrial relations issues. See criticism of industrial psychology and organisational development by Fullagar and Douwes-Dekker in Sections 3.3.3.2 & 3.4.6.3.

3.5.2.3 The Origins of Industrial Relations as a Field of Study

The principles which guided the original thinkers in their approach to attempting to solve labour issues provided the foundation for the development of concepts which would have long term importance for industrial relations.

A number of seminal thinkers at the end of the 19th century laid the base for the later evolvement of industrial relations as a new, independent field of study and the rationale

for trade unions. A whole new understanding of people in a work context was to emerge.

“The idea of studying man in the whole of his social setting was beginning to take root through the influence of the thinking and writing of the Webbs and other social reformers.” (Niven. 1967, p.19).

Although the Webbs (Sidney and Beatrice) solutions to the problems of working people differed from that of internal organisational welfare, the objective was the same, to relieve the burden on disadvantaged workers.

Kochan (1980, p.5) offers three ways in which Webbs contributed to the development of industrial relations by:

- (i) creating a normative framework which challenged the arguments of both the classical economists, who shaped British labour policies, and the marxist paradigm;
- (ii) developing a theory of trade unionism and collective bargaining as rational strategies for dealing with the problems of unequal bargaining power between workers and employers;
- (iii) emphasising the importance of empirical research in labour affairs using historical analyses.

Trade Unions had been in existence in Britain since 1851 with the formation of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers. Such unions comprised largely skilled workers and, by the end the 19th century, were accepted in society. What emerged with the initiatives of the Webbs was a “new unionism” of “general unions” for the more unskilled general workers, previously not provided for adequately. (Farnham & Pimlott. 1990, p.109).

John Commons in the USA, referred to by Kochan (1980) as “the father of US industrial relations”, developed a similar approach to the Webbs by, “..... rejecting the economic determinism of classical economics on the one hand and the followers of utopian solutions of the marxists and socialists on the other”. (p.5).

The so called “Wisconsin School” lead by Commons, represented an institutional economic approach which according to Bluen (1987),

“.....shifted attention from commodities, individuals and exchanges to transactions and working rules of collective action. The institutional school advocated compromise as a means of dealing with the diverse interests of labour, management and the wider society.” (p.675).

Commons (1934) shared with the Webbs and Marx an assumption that conflict of interest existed between workers and employers. But unlike the Webbs and Marx, Commons maintained that, “..... the source of this conflict of interest was not believed to arise out

of the nature of capitalism.” (Kochan, 1980, p.8).

Commons, according to Kochan (1980), believed that the means of dealing with the conflict was,

“..... through worker organization and union - employer accommodation and periodic conflict resolution, all strategies for working within the capitalist system.” (p.8).

Towards the end of the 19th century Marx was developing his own alternative to classical economics. As with the Webbs and Commons, he wanted to improve the position of workers, but his approach and assumptions were radically different.

Marx did not directly address the labour issue but provided

“..... a general theory of society and of social change with implications for the analysis of industrial relations within capitalist societies.... it is not strictly accurate to refer to a Marxist theory of industrial relations.” (Farnham & Pimlott, 1990, p.13).

Marx wrote little about trade unions and industrial relations. Any application of Marxian theory as it relates to industrial relations comes more from Marxist scholars rather than directly from the works of Marx. (Farnham & Pimlott, 1990, p.13).

With this understanding in mind, Bluen’s summary (1987, p.675-676) of Marx’s assumptions are presented:

- (i) Workers were forced to live with the negative consequences of the market economy;
- (ii) The capitalist society consisted of two classes: the owners of the means of production and the workers. These two classes represent inherently conflicting interests;
- (iii) The long term solution was not negotiation by unions, but the overthrow of the capitalist society and replacement with a classless society;
- (iv) Trade unions only achieve short term economic improvement. Their prime function was to be a vehicle for overthrowing the existing system.

The fundamentals of Marxist thinking are important background to understanding industrial relations in South Africa, as various schools of socialist thought have enthused the labour movement from the beginning of worker movements in the country.

3.5.2.4 Theoretical and Ideological Considerations

Of all the areas of HRM, the industrial relations element is the most susceptible to

theoretical and ideological interpretation by the different stakeholders with interest in an organisation. For this reason, consideration is given here to the theoretical and ideological issues brought to the debate over understanding and interpreting the nature and history of industrial relations.

From the creative era of thought and action encountered at the end of the 19th century, industrial relations arrived mid 20th century without a generally accepted theoretical framework for interpretation.

On the one hand, management thinking had been influenced by the schools of scientific management, industrial psychology, behavioural science, human relations and later neo-human relations. (Streams One and Two). But, on the other hand, a different development took place in the USA. as Kochan (1980) reveals.

“Unfortunately, little interchange of ideas occurred between the work of management researchers and the institutional economists”, and, “While the union scholars downplayed the role of management, the management researchers developed theories without much thought for the unions.” (p.9).

It is argued that these mutually exclusive and divergent approaches served only to reinforce the ambiguities in HRM.

During the 1950's new thinking began to emerge which endeavoured to understand and integrate the complexities involved in the IR arena. The theoretical considerations below follow a format common to many texts where attempts are made to present and integrate the complexity of competing systems and ideologies which play a part in industrial relations. For the purposes of this review the format utilised by Farnham & Pimlott (1991) is adopted.

(i) The Systems Model

In the 1950's, John Dunlop in the USA, sought to develop an all embracing theory which would provide a comprehensive framework by which the complex phenomena of industrial relations could best be explained. Dunlop (1958) reflected the state of the thinking on IR at the time:

“Facts have outrun ideas. Integrating theory has lagged far behind expanding experience. The many worlds of industrial relations having been changing more rapidly than the ideas to interpret, to explain and to relate them.” (p.vi)

Dunlop developed the concept of an “industrial relations system” whereby he tried to present a general theory of industrial relations which would integrate the diverse elements of industrial relations. The IR system was a subsystem of the wider society which was seen as the “total social system”. A fundamental outcome of the IR system was a “web

of rules” which governed the activities of all the “actors” in the IR system. Dunlop’s system binds the “actors” together by an ideology or set of ideas and beliefs.

Despite various shortcomings and criticism the Dunlop systems model continues to find acceptance as a valid interpretation and integrating theory for the diversity that is industrial relations. Dunlop’s model suggests that HRM theorising needs to be equally comprehensive in integrating the contending forces within its overall model by recognition of its fundamental ambiguity as already outlined

(ii) The Unitary Theory

Most texts discuss “unitarism” within the context of a “frame of reference” or ideology, rather than as a theory of industrial relations. {See, Bluen (1987); Finnemore & van der Merwe (1989); Deery & Plowman (1991); Salaman (1987)}.

Fox (1966 and 1975), outlined the unitarist stance in various publications..For him, work organisations are integrated and harmonious, existing for a common purpose. Employees and managers are assumed to share the common purpose of an efficient organisation. No real conflict of interest exists between those who provide the capital and those who supply the labour. The players are similar to a professional football team. Everyone has a common stake in the production and rewards of success. Trade unions are unnecessary and unwelcome as disruptive to the smooth running of the organisation. Conflict is temporary or aberrant, but not due to the structure of society or the economy. Managerial strategies are needed to build harmonious relationships.

The resurgence of unitarism in modern HRM interpretations in the form of neo-unitarism, requires noting, as its presence in the USA and UK is regarded as influential. According to Farnham & Pimlott (1991), neo-unitarism has been observed since the 1980 s and is more sophisticated than traditional unitarism. For them it is company centred.

“Its orientation is distinctly market centred, managerialist and individualist. By gaining employee commitment to quality production, customer needs and job flexibility, employers have expectations of employee loyalty, customer satisfaction and product security in an increasingly competitive market place.”(p.6).

To achieve this, employers, according to Farnham & Pimlott (1991), “.... create a sense of common purpose and shared corporate culture the primacy of customer service and invest heavily in training and management development.” (p.6).

These comments indicate important implications for HRM which were indicated in Chapter One on HRM ambiguity.

In the South African context, unitarism historically, was evident. However, with the

growth of black unions in the 1970's, the unitarist orientation of management within companies became evident. Various methods were adopted by management to frustrate the unwelcome advent of militant black unionism. Bluen (1987) noted, for example, "..... promoting the committee system refusing to deal with unregistered unions; or by hiring spies to report on union affairs." (p.693). Douwes-Dekker (1987) noted coercive action, eg., dismissing the 'agitators' or the total workforce, or use of legislative measures". (p.746).

Douwes-Dekker (1987) reported that a survey of 16 companies conducted in 1976 revealed that 12 out of 16 companies adopted a closed, unitary approach. (p.751-753).

Following the First Report of the Wiehahn Commission in 1979 and subsequent publication of the Labour Relations Act in 1981, most companies moved to accept a conflict-pluralist theory based approach to labour issues.

(iii) The Conflict-Pluralist Theory

In contrast to the unitarist frame of reference, a more all embracing pluralist philosophy has been followed by other organisations. The classical pluralist approach was outlined by Fox (1966,1975), who produced a generally acceptable interpretation of its position within IR theory. Numerous other writers have followed his general outline. {eg., Clegg (1975), Bluen (1987), Deery & Plowman (1991).}.

In the same way as various competing interest groups can be perceived to be held together in some sort of loose balance by the agency of the state, so too, a work organisation may be perceived to be held together by the agency of management. (Farnham & Pimlott, 1991, p.8). In this model, trade unions are viewed as legitimate representatives of employee interests at work, and have a valid role in regulating conflict between employer and employees. Conflict is accepted as normal, as are conflicting objectives and values. The parties accept their interdependence and agree that destructive conflict needs to be avoided. Collective bargaining is recognised as an institutionalised means of regulating and resolving conflict between the parties through compromise.

“There is little doubt that the post-capitalist and pluralist analyses of industrial relations, with their twin virtues of parliamentary democracy and collective bargaining as separate but conflict-resolving and rule-making processes, were the predominant academic orthodoxy in Britain during the 1960's and 1970's.” (Farnham & Pimlott, 1991, p.8)

Despite criticism from some, notably marxist thinkers, and a neo-unitary revival in the 1980's, industrial conflict-pluralist theory remains a major theoretical approach to industrial relations.

In South Africa, following the Wiehahn Commission Report, and the introduction of the

Labour Relations Act (LRA) in 1981, employers generally adapted to a conflict-pluralist based model for interpreting their IR responses. Negotiating Recognition Agreements and providing training in negotiation skills became a priority for both management and unions, as both parties required new skills to be able to implement an institutionalised means of dealing with conflict.

The rewriting of the Labour Relations Act (1995) in a new political era by a new democratic government in alliance with the major trade union federation (COSATU), has entrenched a conflict-pluralist ideology, despite the emergence of stronger unitarist forces in the latter part of the 1990's.

(iv) The Radical-Marxist Theory

As explained in Section 3.5.2.3 in commenting on Marx, there is no one marxian theory of industrial relations, rather there are different marxist interpretations. One interpretation oft quoted in standard texts on industrial relations is that of Hyman (1975) usually classified as the “radical” approach. Due to the extensive literature and debate surrounding Marxist interpretation an attempt is made to isolate the core of the ‘radical-marxist’ approach which has bearing on the issue of ambiguity in HRM.

The radical interpretation recognises the fundamental and inherent conflict of interest between workers and employers in the work place. While the conflict-pluralist school asserts that conflict of interest is not total, because the parties share some common goals, a marxist interpretation would perceive worker-employer relations as only one aspect of class relations. As a result “there exists a radical conflict of interest which underlies everything that occurs in industrial relations”. (Hyman, 1975. p.23). Antagonism of interest between capital and labour at the workplace derives from the very nature of class conflict in capitalist society as a whole.

Another central theme, is the constant struggle for power and control between capital and labour with the purpose of transforming capitalism into socialism. “An unceasing power struggle is therefore a central feature of industrial relations”. (Hyman, 1975. p.26). The transformation sought is to be achieved by workers combining as a collective body and taking control of the means of production processes and determining the framework of economic policy of the society as a whole.

This radical-marxist school gives more attention to the notion of power than do the conflict-pluralists. As Deery & Plowman (1991) explain:

“This is not surprising given the pluralists’ emphasis on conflict resolution and procedural reform. Marxists see the imbalance of power both within society and at the workplace as central to the nature of industrial relations.” (p.13)

The dilemma for trade unions, who may see themselves as, “.....vehicles of revolutionary

change to a classless society is that they get caught up en-route in the trappings of capitalism". (Bluen, 1987, p.689). This feature emerged in South Africa in the latter half of the 1990's, for example, as COSATU unions began to invest funds in equities on the stock market and other capitalist ventures.

Collective bargaining and militant trade unionism, in and of themselves, are unable to resolve the problems of industrial relations in a capitalist society. Trade unions merely accommodate the contradictions inherent within the capitalist mode of production and social relations. Hyman (1975) believes that the continuous relationship of conflict, whether open or concealed "..... stems from the conflict of interests in industry and society which is closely linked with the operation of contradictory tendencies in the capitalistic economic system". (p.31).

The radical-marxist interpretation has notably influenced the South African trade union movement. This perspective within the South African racial socio-political economic context helps to fuel the heavily confrontational IR climate within the country.

The dilemmas referred to above are of relevance to this study. They illustrate the conflict between people needs or demands (as interpreted by a leftist union movement in this instance) and company demands (as interpreted by management). Unions express their demands in collectivist, rather than in individualistic terms. Management, on the other hand, working today with the demands of a profit orientated business prefer to follow neo-unitarist policies. The HRP, as the industrial relations specialist, needs to find balance between these two contending forces.

(v) A Radical-Marxist Approach to Human Resource Management

Legge (1995) suggests that an interpretation of the dilemmas in HRM arise due to "the contradictions of capitalism". (p.18). Marxists, according to Legge (1995) perceive the role of HRM and its functionaries, the HRPs, as existing, ".....to assist in the realisation of surplus value through obscuring the commodity status of labour." (p.14). This claim is supported, according to Legge (1995), by the "oscillating" role of HRPs in their approach to the dilemma faced between their "caring" role and their "control" function. (Chapter Two: 2.1.2.). She contends that this ambiguity,

"..... can be attributed to their (*HRPs*) role in mediating a major contradiction embedded in the capitalist system: the need to achieve both the control and the consent of employees." (p.14).

Commenting on the contradictions of capitalism, Legge (1995), further suggests that HRPs suffer loss of credibility when they are required to oscillate,

"..... between two different interests, 'personnel' (*people concerns*) and 'management' (*company demands*)" (author's italics), and that this process of

mediation goes hand in hand with ambiguity. At this point personnel specialists become just as much victims of the contradictions of capitalism as their instruments.” (p.19).

These dilemma's, contradictions and ambivalences were dealt with extensively in Chapter Two and are observed again to be fundamental to industrial relations in a capitalist, free enterprise market economy. It is in this context that the contemporary HRP works.

3.5.3. A PERSPECTIVE ON SOUTH AFRICAN INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS HISTORY

The history of industrial relations in South Africa is given special attention in this review due to the significant influence it has exerted on general HRM developments in South Africa, and its related effect on HRPs. . The experience of black human resource practitioners (BPPs) within this period is given special prominence, as that experience provides a unique insight into a significant phase of South African industrial relations history and the role of the HRP within that period.

3.5.3.1 Power and Industrial Relations

A country's industrial relations system can be said to reflect the power structures of that society. As the power structures change, so too, it may be anticipated, will the labour relations systems in order to reflect the new power forces at play. South African industrial relations history is illustrative of this view.

“The power structure of any society is changing continuously, so it is within this context that a labour relations system evolves as new problems arise and solutions are sought....” (Rigby, et al., 1987, p.593).

Developments in industrial relations in South Africa can be viewed from the power plays of the parties involved. Government legislation until the 1970's had curtailed the development of black trade unions and allowed management considerable freedom to avoid dealing with the more forceful aspects of labour power. However, from the mid-1970s the strength of the emerging black labour union movement began grow to a point where they were able to bring about changes in the interests of the largely black labour force. Concessions were gradually won through power struggles, whether within a plant, an industry or at national level. Over a period of 25 years the balance of power shifted away from management as labour gained more leverage to effect changes in their favour.. The National Party government was forced to concede increasing rights to workers. Following the democratic elections in 1994, further wide ranging legislative improvements were introduced favourable to labour and enhancing the growing power of the unions, especially the largest federation, COSATU.

The selected history to follow will reflect the continuous power struggle between the

three main parties, government, management and organised labour, and the task of HRM to endeavour to interpret and manage the contending forces.

An understanding of the main ideological positions influencing industrial relations has been provided already. (Section 3.5.2). That understanding is important background to appreciating the unique build up of the ambiguities involved for HRM in South Africa. It would be difficult to interpret the contemporary experience of HRP in South Africa without an insight into the contending conceptualisations behind daily confrontations

The history to follow is divided into convenient periods. Each period usually being marked by a significant labour, political or economic event, which served as a watershed to set in motion a new surge of activity as a response. South African industrial relations history over the previous twenty five years has been dominated by Government and Management reaction to pressure from the black trade union movement.

3.5.3.2 The Earlier Period : Up to the Late 1940s

With the proclamation of the goldfields in 1886, a labour structure commenced which would influence industrial relations thereafter. Whites filled the skilled occupations and blacks provided the unskilled and semi-skilled labour. Unionisation of skilled occupations commenced in the 1880s, with strong membership among white miners from an early stage. Unionisation of black workers began to be resisted from the 1920 s.

With the passing of the Industrial Conciliation Act (ICA) in 1924, an historic accommodation between white labour and management was achieved.. Black workers by definition were excluded from the provisions of the Act. When the National Party came to power in 1948, a new era emerged where pressure developed to restrain the development of the power of black unions. In terms of the Industrial Conciliation Act (1924), collective bargaining was carried out within a regionalised or centralised industrial council system, which excluded direct representation of black African workers.

3.5.3.3 Suppression of Black Trade Unionism : 1950 to 1970

The period 1950 - 1970 follows the coming to power of the National Party in 1948, after which, moves were made to contain black opposition during the 1950's. A turning point was reached in black resistance politics with the police shootings of pass book protesters at Sharpeville in 1960 (now enshrined in Human Rights Day on 21 March each year) and the subsequent banning of the African National Congress and the Pan African Congress. The South African Congress of Trade Unions (SACTU), the rallying force for left orientated trade unions, was neutralised. The economy began to grow in the mid 1960's, leading the government and their supporters to believe their political actions were justified and correct. But that period was about to end, as the next decade was to herald a new struggle in which the black trade union movement would play a leading role.

Friedman (1987) commented on the state of black union affairs during this period and from as far back as the 1920's.

“None of the African union movements before the 1970's endured because none could turn worker support into a permanent source of power. In each union generation, workers surrendered their power - whether to charismatic leaders, the law, registered TUCSA unions, or non-workers who sought to lead resistance to apartheid.” (p.33)

“But if attempts to build permanent unionism failed during those fifty years in the wilderness, so did attempts to suppress it. By the 1970's new pressures were building which forced those in power to concede that they could no longer resist unionism. Those fifty years explain where the unions of the eighties came from - and the debate about where they were going to today.” (p.33).

Up to the end of this period industrial relations had not been a major focus for the personnel function of the times.

3.5.3.4 Industrial Relations from the 1970's and the Black Personnel Practitioner

It is the purpose of this section to examine certain aspects of the experience of Black Personnel Practitioners (BPPs) during the 1970s and 1980s in an attempt to gain a historical perspective on important elements of IR history in South Africa. Such review deepens an understanding of the nature of the ambiguities in the theory and practice of HRM within the special South African context. It provides further insight into the key tension between employee needs/demands and that of employing organisations. (See “Definitions and Usage” for explanation of use of “‘Black’ Personnel Practitioner”)

Seven aspects of the historical experience of BPPs are briefly reviewed to create a necessary perspective.

(i) Interpreting the Experience of Black Personnel Practitioners

The role and experience of black personnel practitioners (BPPs) in South Africa is unique. No similar comparative experience has been identified among HRP internationally. The historical experience of many BPPs is illustrative of at least two factors. First, the socio-economic-political-racial context in South Africa created an unusual context in which to practice as a black HRP. Second, many BPPs, in their role as HRM functionaries, experienced the ambiguities within HRM in a unique manner from inside a conflict environment with many contradictions.

This context had a particularly South African impact on HRM and IR theory and practice within organisations. Industrial relations was one aspect of the experience of BPPs in their exposure to the spectrum of HRM activities. It is not practical to cover

the whole range of experiences of BPPs, but a selection will illustrate the contradictions and dilemmas encountered by them.

This section selects aspects of the experience of BPPs relevant to historical developments in industrial relations (and by implication HRM), and from this perspective to attempt an understanding of the historical dynamics of industrial relations from a viewpoint not usually explored. It is believed that this experiential perspective will identify more closely certain of the dilemmas and ambiguities central to this study.

This approach is not intended as a case study, nor a microcosm, of black experience, but rather is viewed as a means of illustrating:

- * the relationship between HRM and IR and their societal context;
- * the application of aspects of HRM in South Africa over a critical period of industrial relations history;
- * ambiguities inherent in HRM especially for BPPs.

By way of introduction to the emergence of BPPs, an introduction is provided to the earliest form of “personnel” service for black employees in South Africa.

(ii) Early Personnel Services for Black Employees

The indunas and isibondas who were first appointed at mines as early as the 1920s, and later in manufacturing industries, mostly where hostels were operated, were an adaptation from their traditional background. They were used for purposes of control and liaison between management and black workers. Their duties often came to include rudimentary welfare services. (Rheinhalt-Jones, 1947, Bozzoli, 1977). Later in the 1940s, in certain South African industries, following British practice, a significantly large number of women were employed as white female welfare officers. (White, 1946). (See also Section 3.3.1 - The Welfare Origins). However, the indunas and isibondas may be described as the early forerunners of BPPs.

(iii) The Emergence of the Black Personnel Practitioner : The 1960s to Early 1970s

‘Black personnel practitioners’ emerged in the mid 1960s. Their function was largely administrative at the beginning and belonged more to the administrative elements of the “personnel” stream. However, a picture of their early activity is provided as background to understanding their total experience.

During the 1960's the first appointments of BPPs were made as companies broke unfamiliar ground in an endeavour to meet new challenges. Black graduates were

recruited to install administrative systems to modernise labour control of black workers. Labour influx control and other restrictive legislation affecting black workers was firmly in place and enforced. Companies were required to comply with influx control legislation which restricted the free geographical movement of black workers.

Often only rudimentary personnel records were in existence even for companies whose black workforce comprised thousands of employees. A typical example was the Romatex textile factory on the outskirts of Durban where a “Bantu” Personnel Officer was appointed in 1966 to establish a Personnel Department for “Non-Whites” (*a). Unilever in Durban and other large employers followed the same appointment practice. (*a) Based on interview by author with original incumbent 15/4/98).

The need for improved selection, training and motivating of Black labour had been identified for many years, but had now become an urgent priority in the interests of productivity. “Bantu” Training Officers were appointed to assist in this regard. This need was linked to the establishment of the National Institute of Personnel Research (NIPR).

Increasing numbers of BPPs began to be appointed around the country. Some were graduates, but others were “Bantu” personnel clerks, with or without degrees, who were promoted to newly created Personnel Assistant or Personnel Officer positions. It became a contentious issue among these appointees that they believed they were performing the same functions as their white Personnel Officer counterparts, but were not receiving the same recognition. This perception was used to illustrate racial discrimination against the BPPs in the personnel function .

Mokoatle (1972), at the time the African Labour Consultant at S A Breweries, noted the potential importance of the emerging BPPs, referring to them in personnel practice as “well nigh indispensable” in the current situation in “bridging the gap between two cultures.” (p.23). He pointed to the role that the BPP could play in organisational productivity, but which was still restricted in concept in most companies.

“Do they see him as capable of contributing towards the effectiveness of the organisation or do they see him as just a necessary grapevine?” (p.23).

Nzimande (1991) commented extensively on the issues surrounding BPPs. His research was based on minutes of the Personnel Management Association (PMA), the Black Management Forum (BMF) and interviews with BPPs in KwaZulu Natal (KZN). Although the study suffers from a narrowly focussed ideological perspective, it provides illustrative material on the dilemmas facing BPPs during this period and remains the only detailed study of BPPs in KZN, if not South Africa, during this critical period.

An early indication of frustration among BPPs was the formation of the first BPP association. The reasons for its emergence are important for this study. In 1970 just over 20 of South Africa’s leading BPPs were invited to a two week training course at Fort

Hare University. Unintentionally, the course provided BPPs the first opportunity, at a national level, to share their problems and express their resentment at perceived racially based discriminatory treatment by their companies. It also reflected their view of the lack of interest and support from the Institute of Personnel Management (IPM). Delegates decided to start an association to meet the specific needs of BPPs country-wide which they felt the IPM was unable, or unwilling, to undertake. The Non-European Personnel Training and Development Association of South Africa (NEPTDASA) was launched in January 1971.

With the rapid appointment of more BPPs the association grew and mutated into the Personnel Management Association (PMA) in 1973, with its leadership based in Natal and with similar aims as its predecessor. Its major support base was in the Natal - Border region, but also with support on the Reef. The PMA's continued rejection of the IPM left some BPPs divided in their affiliation between the PMA and the IPM. Some joined the IPM, others did not. It was this rejection of the traditional forum for personnel practitioners which would continue to divide BPPs into the mid 1990s. Despite the failure of the PMA to establish itself as a national voice for BPPs, and its relatively low membership, it represented an influential view which was taken seriously by the more conservative business orientated circles of the IPM. Prominent names such as Wells Ntuli, J B Magwaza, Lot Ndlovu, Felix Dlamini and others later emerged as senior company executives in South Africa. (*b) (Based on interviews by the author with three PMA members during 1998).

(iv) Rapid Growth in Numbers of Black Personnel Practitioners : 1973 to 1979

The 1973 wage strikes in the Durban area was a watershed for industrial relations in SA. The strikes precipitated unprecedented rethinking as to the manner in which organisations conducted their industrial relations. To improve communication channels companies increasingly appointed BPPs on the basis that they were better able to communicate with black workers. At this stage the BPP was seen as a valuable "linkman" and training was being provided to develop their effectiveness in this role. Dickerson (1974) described the process of selection and training of BPPs at S A Breweries and Afrox. The BPPs industrial relations role now began to emerge strongly.

Government response to the labour unrest was to pass the Bantu Labour Relations Regulations Amendment Act (BLRRA) in 1973 to reinforce their commitment to the committee system as an effort to ward off the development of black trade unions. Companies supported this position. The Institute of Personnel Management (IPM) in 1974, through their President, sent a circular letter (*c) to all members declaring the IPM's support for the committee system.. This resulted in an increase in BPP's being appointed by organisations to assist in developing the effectiveness of a system that would be found to be a temporary holding phase against black worker unionisation.

(*c) (Author's private collection)

It was against this officially stated position of the IPM that many BPPs found themselves increasingly alienated from the IPM, and in silent contradiction with their employers. Reasons for the BPPs dilemmas will be outlined later in this sketch.

Early recognition by big business that all was not well on the IR front, and that drastic changes were necessary, came from Harry Oppenheimer, Chairman of Anglo American Corporation. Speaking at the Annual National Convention of the IPM in July 1974, he called for new thinking and for,

“..... an acceptable means to be found to provide for collective bargaining on wages and conditions of employment by black workers.”

“I do not believe the Blacks will ever be brought to accept that an organisation of labour which is regarded as right and necessary for White workers, not only in South Africa but throughout the Western world, is not suitable for them.” (The Star, 29/7/74).

By 1977, in an effort to bolster what had become a largely discredited system for meeting the increasing demands of black workers, the government amended the BLRRA Act. The amendment allowed black workers, through the committee system, to negotiate binding agreements. It was to be the government's last effort prior to conceding to the pressure to open the way for full black trade union activity.

In commenting on the futility of the amendment the Financial Mail under a heading “A Formula for Chaos” stated,

“The key to industrial peace in SA lies in trade unionism for Africans.... the sooner the government stops tinkering with an obsolete system, the better.” (1/4/77).

The 1976 Soweto youth revolt created another watershed. It had a significant effect on labour relations. A new dynamic was released into the socio-political environment and a subtle change was detected. There was “a change in the profile of the African working class. Workers began to come from the class of 76”. (Nzimande, 1991, p.310).

New workers coming onto the labour market were younger, more educated, more militant and often accompanied by a sense of black consciousness. This change was illustrated in the high profile Ford strikes in Port Elizabeth in 1979. Fred Ferreira, Ford's Industrial Relations Director, in an address to the IPM in Durban on 15/7/80 explained that in an analysis of the strikes, age distribution in the two plants involved appeared to be a feature. The plant with the “younger, higher educated and average shorter period of service employees was much more militant”. (From author's private collection of notes and cuttings on the Ford Strikes)

The Ford strikes in Port Elizabeth highlighted a change that had taken place in South

African labour history. It illustrated that political, social and community issues could not be separated from labour disputes, a factor that would influence South African industrial relations for the next fifteen years.

“The Ford strike signalled the beginning of a new type of unionism, linked to community and with a more militant political profile”. (Baskin, 1991, p.25).

Ferreira believed that workers,

“did not differentiate between industrial issues and political issues. Because there are no political channels acceptable to blacks, a lot of grievances are bound to flow over into the industrial channels.” (Rand Daily Mail, 29/11/79).

It was from the “class of ‘76” that many BPPs were recruited and who came to their companies with ideals to create a free and democratic South Africa, and in the process to serve their fellow black workers. But they were faced with the dilemma of attempting to apply their ideals in a generally conservative business community.

The few BPP voices that were heard on formal platforms were careful to avoid being branded as ‘communists’ or ‘radicals’, and thereby to negate the possibility of playing an effective role in their organisations. An analysis of “People & Profits”, the official voice of the IPM during the period 1973 - 1979, reveals few articles by BPPs. Wilby Baqwa, a well known BPP and speaker on black worker productivity issues, was the first BPP to have an article published in People & Profits. (Vol. 1:6). December, 1973). Mokoatle, an academic from UNISA became recognized for his strongly reasoned arguments for the development and training of black workers, as did later BPPs such as, J B Magwaza and Wells Ntuli, both of whom subsequently became senior executives in large organisations..

(v) The Increasing Role of BPPs in the Post-Wiehahn Era : 1979 to 1983

With the release of the first report of the Wiehahn Commission on 1 May 1979, a new era arrived in South African labour history. Freedom of association was to be granted to all workers, unions were to be given autonomy, job reservation was to be abolished and an Industrial Court would be established, starting a process of dismantling some of the legacy of apartheid. This and other changes came into effect with the new Labour Relations Act in 1981, replacing the Industrial Conciliation Act and repealing the Bantu Labour Relations Regulation Amendment Act.

The impact on companies was swift. Industrial relations came to the forefront of the personnel function and would dominate its focus for most of the next 15 years. If the 1973 strikes had been a watershed in industrial relations, then 1979 created a flood which would continue through the democratic elections in 1994 and there after, as new labour legislation was consistently promulgated by the new democratic government. The process

of adjusting to new worker rights and power, meant companies were placed under pressure to re-align themselves to the new dynamics in industrial relations.

BPPs were called upon to play a more active role in industrial relations. However, their relationship with the black workforce now created dilemmas for them. Often they were called upon to represent management, interpreting and explaining company policies and decisions to the workforce. The “man in the middle” syndrome came to the forefront with the pension fund unrest in 1981. Nzimande (1991) saw the BPPs as “managers of discontent”. (p.311).

The dilemma for BPPs in this period was exacerbated by the fact that, although industrial relations legislation now allowed rights to workers in the work environment, similar rights had not been extended to their wider political, social and economic life. BPPs shared these deprivations with black workers. This inconsistency during the next decade led to ever increasing confrontations between management and labour. BPPs found themselves in the forefront of dealing with workers whose fundamental arguments they found themselves in agreement. This situation illustrates further, the vacuum previously referred to by Finnemore & van der Merwe. (1991).

BPPs were faced with personal conflicts as they carried out their company function. They felt themselves trapped between the increasing confrontations between management and workers. To maintain their integrity many sought to find some form of neutral status. Nzimande (1991) believes this is why many BPPs sought to obtain professional status by joining the newly formed SA Board of Professional Practice (SABPP) that had been established in 1981 through the initiative of the IPM.

“It was professionalisation that the African Personnel Practitioners saw as their ‘salvation’ during this period. Through professionalisation, they hoped that they could mediate in the conflict between labour and capital in such a way as they would not be seen to be favouring one side.” (p.312-313).

An additional reason was that professional status offered the added chance that they may be more marketable for promotion.

According to Nzimande (1991), BPPs believed that, “Although they were employed by management this did not mean they could not perform a neutral role”. (p.313). But the context had changed for many for BPPs and their earlier welfarist approach. Previously, they had seen themselves as representing worker interests by virtue of their identification with the wider black community. Now, because of their increased management status their position needed review.

The desire for professionalism on the part of BPPs, Nzimande maintained, was to be on their own terms and not those articulated by the IPM and the South African Board of Personnel Practice (SABPP). They sought to negotiate access to the SABPP and the

assumed accompanying professional status for those who did not have the qualifications laid down by the SABPP. They argued that those standards were based on racial exclusivity.

This tension perpetuated the repercussions for the IPM as these BPPs continued to believe that the IPM did not understand, nor meet, their particular needs. The conflict between the PMA pressure group and the IPM and the SABPP continued until 1995, when, at the IPM National Convention, it was resolved through a formal reconciliation process (IPM, 1996)

(vi) Mass Mobilisation. Union Militancy and BPPs : 1983 to 1989

Political mass mobilisation brought about by the founding of the United Democratic Front (UDF) in 1983 and the establishment in 1985, of the Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU), uniting 33 separate trade unions, created a powerful force within South Africa which would lead to pressurising many changes in the history of industrial relations.

BPPs continued to find themselves confronted with difficult decisions. How were they to reconcile their sympathy with the mass democratic movement, which represented both the UDF and COSATU, with their managerial position within the companies which employed them? Nzimande posed the question as to whether they were to be “Janus-faced or corporate guerillas”, (p.313). The assumption need not be made that all BPPs accepted the juxtaposition posed by Nzimande, but all wanted a free and democratic South Africa providing them with the same rights as their white counterparts.

The arrival of shop stewards as representatives of black labour brought about a change in communication channels with workers. It was now the elected shop steward who formally presented the claims of black workers. Nzimande (1991) describes the BPPs relationship with workers having become “more politicised along class lines”, following his class analysis with BPPs perceived as “corporate petty bourgeoisie”. He characterises the relationship as being “one of suspicion and tension”, but “not an antagonistic one”. (p.314). BPPs admit to the stress they endured at the time. The situation is described by one BPP who lived through the period and who was interviewed by the author. (*c)

“It was lonely to be a black practitioner. We were isolated. Workers did not know where we stood and therefore we were not trusted. The community wanted us to be one with them. But we also needed to be accepted by our white colleagues. After all, they were the doorway to our future promotion. It was an ambiguous situation, we were not accepted by white management and we were not accepted by workers”. (*d)(Interview 20/7/98).

This feeling of non-acceptance extended to the IPM.

“The IPM could have played an important role. They did not understand the sensitivities. The IPM did not allow for our development.” (*d)(Interview 20/7/98).

The rejection of the IPM among many BPPs continued to symbolize the unstated resentment by BPPs of their perceived inferior status within their organisations, based on racial prejudice.

(vii) The Implications of a New Democratic Era : Strategic Human Resource Management and BPP's in the 1990s

South Africa commenced a process of major change in 1990 with the unbanning of the ANC and other organisations, the release of Nelson Mandela from prison, followed by constitutional negotiations and the election in 1994 of a democratic government. These changes created a new set of forces that would impact importantly on human resource management. Industrial relations, however, continued to be based on aggressive, confrontational methods by the unions as they sought to achieve social democratic goals founded on long standing ideological commitments. After 1994 changes that may have been in process over the years were actively progressed as can be observed in amended labour legislation. (Section 3.6.4).

BPPs found themselves moving more rapidly up the hierarchical structures of organisations with increased authority to introduce black empowerment changes. They were, however, increasingly faced with the classic dilemmas of strategic human resource management in a globally competitive world. With rapid promotion, BPPs became more strategically placed in organisations to influence corporate decision making, which often distanced them from the ideological commitment of the workforce and the unions. Their role had changed and new tensions and ambiguities arose for BPPs

This brief outline of the history of BPPs provides additional insight into HRM ambiguities and contradictions within the uniquely demanding South African context.

3.6 HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT : RELEVANT INFLUENCES AND DIRECTIONS : THE MAIN STREAM

3.6.1. Introduction

This historical perspective now reviews the current phase of HRM holistically and follows the Armstrong model (Figure 3.1, p.44), with certain additions to accommodate the South African context. Armstrong (1989a) conceptualises HRM as representing a converging of three identifiable streams flowing into the main stream human resource management “pool” (p.24). This conceptualisation of HRM history is most strongly influenced by the “excellence factor” and “the Japanese connection” occurring around

the 1980's. Armstrong perceives contemporary HRM as “entrepreneurial personnel management” and strongly influenced by two new factors, “the enterprise culture” and “the changing management context”. The last two decades of the 20th century were formative for the emergence of strategic human resource management (SHRM).

This section of the review will cover selected relevant aspects of both global and South African HRM developments during the 1980s and 1990s in terms of the Armstrong model. The period is featured by ever increasing demands on HRPs to integrate their contribution more directly into the success and survival of their organisations through innovative participative management techniques, which Armstrong (1989a) refers to as “entrepreneurial personnel management”. In South Africa additional factors placed considerable demands on HRPs to provide leadership during a changing socio-political period.

The South African experience during the 1990's and early 2000's is notable for a combination of additional pressures on companies. Not only were South African organisations exposed to globalisation, but also to the influence of the changed political and social demands requiring organisations to make rapid corrections for past imbalances brought about by the apartheid society. Pressure to change was exerted through a mixture of legislative and social means, whilst adapting to global competition. This scenario called for creative policies from HRPs who were required to provide innovative ways of meeting the challenges facing their organisations

3.6.2 Two Global Human Resource Management Influences in the 1980's and 1990's

Armstrong's (1989a) model refers to two major influences in the 1980s: “the excellence factor” and “the Japanese connection”. These two factors may be observed to have certain common features. Both received considerable attention from management and HRPs in the 1980s. Their impact continued into the 1990's, often with their fundamental principles being absorbed or improved upon and marketed under more fashionable concepts. In this sense they illustrate Watson's (1986) “waves of theory” interpretation. (Section 3.2.2).

3.6.2.1 The Excellence Factor

To be successful required companies to perform at the level of excellence.

Peters & Waterman (1982) were the most articulate exponents in the 1980's of the “excellence school”. The ideas of these popular writers lead to a new school of thinking which influenced managements' approach in developing strong company cultures of commitment to standards of excellence in performance. Peters & Waterman's (1982) research revealed eight attributes of excellent innovative companies, of which most were dependent upon the input of people to produce the quality standard of “excellence” which distinguished the excellent companies from the average ones.

The Peters and Waterman findings indicated that “the root source of quality and productivity gain” (p.14) arose when all employees became aware that their best efforts were essential for company success and when they were allowed to share in the rewards of their company’s success. They found that fundamental to these companies was a “respect for the individual”. (p.15). Yet, for them, people orientation was a “tough minded respect for the individual”.(p.239). In this they had progressed from the earlier ‘softer’ aspects of the human relations school.

Part of the Peters and Waterman (1982) finding was to discover the ability of successful companies to manage ambiguity and paradox inherent in successful company management. (p.89-118). They found that “... the new wave of management thought leads us to an ambiguous, paradoxical world....”. (p.91). They believed that this ability to identify and manage ambiguity and paradox was an important feature of the time.

“Most important, we think the excellent companies, if they know any one thing, know how to manage paradox.” (p.91).

Their finding supports the view that ‘people management’ is essentially ambiguous and paradoxical.

It can be noted that the Blake Mouton grid (Section 3.4.5.2) and the Hersey and Blanchard situational leadership model (Section 3.4.5.2) were contemporary techniques utilised in management development programmes for balancing contending and paradoxical interests within organisations.

Peters and Waterman (1982) based their interpretation on an understanding of the progress in management theory, which had moved from the more closed, rigid application of the ‘rational’ school of thought to the more open ‘social’ view of management style required to meet new productivity demands in a changed world of increased business competition.

For Peters & Waterman (1982), each era was defined by a unique combination of elements in a two dimensional grid representing the movement away from previous management concepts along two axes of a grid in the direction of an approach more relevant to meeting newer demands on management for organisational success. They explained their concept in terms of this two dimensional grid as on one side running from ‘closed’ to ‘open’ and on the other side as running from ‘rational’ to ‘social’. (p.91-94)

In 1984 the South African IPM National Convention acknowledged the significance of the excellence school by presenting the annual convention under the theme: "Human Resource Management in Search of Excellence", with Tom Peters as keynote speaker, reflecting the recognition being given in South Africa to the new school of excellence thinking.

The 'excellence' approach was unitarist in nature, based on individual excellence, and on commitment to the organisation and its culture, and was orientated at eliminating 'us/them' labour attitudes. Such approach was inimical to the growing black labour movement in South Africa where the emerging new black unions were radically focussed on confrontational strategies founded on collective action directed at achieving a power base within organisations.

3.6.2.2 The Japanese Connection

Japanese culture was used by Japanese management to develop high levels of production and quality. So effective were these techniques that they were copied throughout the world.

Interest in Japanese methods began in the late 1960's when Americans began studying Japanese management principles in an endeavour to discover why Japanese productivity was so much higher than that of the USA. Pascale & Athos (1981) and Ouchi (1981) reported on the nature of Japanese culture which revealed itself in management techniques and a culture of high commitment and productivity on the part of employees. Ouchi (1981) identified features such as life-term employment, mutual trust, broad based job descriptions, collective decision making, total involvement and quality circles. His research took him to certain leading American companies who were practising what he perceived as a mixture of Japanese and Western management concepts. He referred to this style as "Theory Z" which he believed contained the ingredients for improved productivity.

Ouchi (1981, p.58) noted distinct contrasts between Japanese and traditional American organisations:

Japanese Organisations

- * Lifetime employment
- * Slow evaluation & promotion
- * Non-specialised career paths
- * Implicit control mechanisms
- * Collective decision making
- * Collective responsibility
- * Wholistic (sic) concern

American Organisations

- Short-term employment
- Rapid evaluation & promotion
- Specialised career paths
- Explicit control mechanisms
- Individual decision making
- Individual responsibility
- Segmented concern

The individualistic nature of Western and American cultures, in contrast to the more participative/collective emphasis in Japan, may be identified as an important element contributing to the greater Japanese productivity. It is this element that would be explored later within the South African context as an important factor in achieving higher productivity.

Ouchi (1981) commented on the Japanese interpretation of the collective/individual element in relation to productivity.

“In the Japanese mind, collectivism is neither a corporate or individual goal to strive for nor a slogan to pursue. Rather, the nature of things operates so that nothing of consequence occurs as a result of individual effort. Everything important in life happens as a result of team work or collective effort. Therefore, to attempt to assign individual credit or blame to results is unfounded.” (p.50).

In South Africa, Spoelstra (1978), was among the first to outline Japanese management and personnel methods with his explanation of Theory Z. In 1981, *People & Profits* carried an article on Quality Circles, a specific Japanese technique, which became a popular quality technique adopted by increasing numbers of companies. Lack of success was partly attributable to the failure to understand that the Quality Circle technique needed to be part of a wider organisational culture of participation and trust. This culture was not present, even in the most advanced companies in a racially divided society. It is this factor which may explain why Toyota in South Africa, although actively applying Japanese techniques from the 1970's (van den Bergh, 1987), had outbursts of major industrial unrest at its Durban factory despite its implementation of a range of Japanese management techniques over a period of 20 years.

Kaizen or ‘continuous improvement’, another Japanese management technique, which was a forerunner to the development of the concept of ‘total quality management’ (TQM), became popular in the 1990s in South Africa as a recognised technique in many successful companies.

No research was identified which showed that the Japanese management culture and techniques produced lower stress levels among Japanese managers when compared to, say, the stress levels generated among American or British managers operating within the traditional western management culture.

In the late 1990's, some aspects of the Japanese management style began to come under pressure with the economic downturn in Japan. For example, lifetime employment was exposed with the need to retrench employees.

3.6.3 Illustrations of Participative Management in South Africa

Participative management as a human resource management technique of involving workers/employees in company decisions that affected them has been an active topic of debate and experimentation within South Africa since the 1970s. In certain cases with success. Two illustrations are provided.

3.6.3.1 Cashbuild

Cashbuild are building material suppliers operating largely outside the large city centres with each operation employing around 30 persons. The Cashbuild experience is a unique South African example of the application of participative management methods, which although not a direct application of Japanese and 'excellence' concepts, illustrates the use of similar principles in the management of people in the interests of productivity and company profitability.

Cashbuild has been regarded as a successful model and is well documented. Koopman, Nasser & Nel (1987) commented on the success of Koopman's participative management innovations which commenced in 1983 during a time of serious labour and political upheaval in South Africa. Also, of significance is that the strong HRM elements of Koopman's approach are line management initiated.

Koopman's CARE (Cashbuild's Aspirations with Regard to Excellence) system was based on participation from the lowest level, openness, trust, and excellence of service to customers. Management style was on the principle of "devolution of power from the top and empowerment from the bottom". (p.171-174). A reward system of sharing in the profits was only introduced after four years, during which time fundamental issues of concern to employees were first dealt with and agreed upon by all employees. The collective element was taken into account as many employees preferred to be rewarded as a team.

"A significantly large proportion of employees prefer to stand out inside the crowd rather than to stand out from the crowd. It therefore made sense to allow people to strive for incentives and improved rewards as a team rather than as individuals. This does not negate the fact that people are individuals or that they do not have unique needs and aspirations, it merely states that these unique needs and aspirations may be easier to achieve within the collective effort of a group or team." (Koopman, et al,1987, p.162).

Nel (1987) explained that participative management was successfully introduced at Cashbuild by first ensuring that, "... the philosophy of participation is first developed in the organization before ventures of this nature are entered into." (p. 22) This approach enabled Cashbuild to participatively develop their own form of Quality Circles, as they perceived the Japanese model to be inadequate to meet the challenges of the South African environment. Cashbuild's Venturecomm system more directly dealt with the historical distrust inherent in the racially divided and politically dis-empowered South African context. Koopman, et al., (1987, p.148-156) contrasted South African Quality Circles with Cashbuild's Venturecomm. The following are two illustrations of the contrasts:

Quality Circles

- * Motivated and initiated by senior management to improve quality and productivity
- * Driven by management focus on better 'return on investment' through employee involvement

Venturecomm

- Motivated and initiated by senior management to develop human potential and dignity
- quality and productivity are spinoffs
- Driven by a common management-worker focus on a philosophy based on human dignity, which philosophy was developed jointly by all people in the business

These examples of contrasts are specifically South African and revealing of the demands made on HRM. within the South African context. Two further features are of interest. First, up to 1998 no union had made an inroad into Cashbuild. Second, the company has continued successfully to implement the approach introduced in 1983 by Koopman. The approach is unitarist, with competing interests merged into a company culture of commitment and service, over-riding sectional stakeholder interests. The Cashbuild experience became a model in South Africa and abroad, but few similar success stories are documented in South Africa. Koopman (1990) understood that he had set about establishing a business based on "humanising free enterprise".

More recent writers have explored the relationship of African concepts of ubuntuism to work relationships as a method of improving productivity within South African industry. (See Section 3.6.5). This utilisation of African humanistic cultural concepts, it is argued, could result in similar productivity and quality gains as achieved by the Japanese techniques based on their cultural patterns. More recently, attempts have been made to apply ubuntu concepts in some organisations, but none have been lead from the top and as well documented as applying throughout the organisation.

3.6.3.2 P G Bison

P G Bison operate in the timber press board manufacturing industry. In 1989 P G.Bison attempted to deal with the destructive confrontational relationship between labour and management, characteristic of industrial relations at the time in South Africa. To do this Management introduced a "value sharing" programme involving all employees and managers in the company to open the way to improving relationships and productivity. This lead to a joint statement of 'Company Values' and a programme of 'Continuous Improvement' under the title of "Total Productivity and Quality" (TPQ). In 1991 a national forum was established within the company, which included the Paper Pulp Wood & Allied Workers Union (PPWAWU) and shop stewards, in order to develop a

new business strategy for the company which would involve restructuring and retrenchments.

The history of industrial relations in South Africa with its racial socio-political history, its radical ideological divergence between the two parties and the politically based struggle in which the COSATU unions were involved, created for companies a near insurmountable task for entry into meaningful participative schemes. The public debate is well recorded. (eg., Evans (1992) and Buhlungu (1992). Bethlehem, quoted by Alfred & Potter (1995), provides a realistic comment on the whole programme.

“The company and the union benefited from the process. Their agendas were not the same but it was possible to craft a solution which benefited both..... We believe that this experience has demonstrated that labour can be used as a resource for the South African economy. If you are going to turn the economy around, you need labour involvement.” (p.229).

This comment reflects the nature of labour/management relations within South Africa, which still appears to call for a conflict pluralist interpretation if realistic solutions are to be found for higher productivity at this stage of South African history.

3.6.4 The Impact of New Labour Legislation : Post 1994

A notable feature of the period in South African HRM, not observed in other comparable countries, is the demand made on HRPs to apply an ever growing body of labour/HRM orientated legislation.

Industrial relations continued to play a dominant role in HRM in the 1990s. The advent of the first democratically elected government in 1994, however, was to lead to the passing of a series of bills during the balance of the decade, attempting to bring South Africa rapidly into line with more democratic practices and speeding up the rectification of past discrimination. HRM once more found itself placed in the forefront of organisational change and the application of labour legislation, this time not necessarily favourable to the employer, but rather of employees.

Some sections of certain of the Acts met with strong resistance from the business community, but with equally forceful support from COSATU. This conflict reflected the perennial tension between employee demands and employer requirements within the free enterprise system at a macro level. The Acts of Parliament passed were:

- * The Labour Relations Act (LRA) (No 66 of 1995)(amended 1999 & 2002)
- * The South African Qualifications Authority Act (SAQA) (1995)
- * The Basic Conditions of Employment Act (BCOE) (No 75 of 1997)
- * The Employment Equity Act (No 55 of 1998)
- * The Skills Development Act (No 97 of 1998)

Much of the legislation introduced was designed to increase worker rights and, in so doing, improved the potential benefit to employees by reducing the power of the employer. The Labour Relations Act, in concept and wording, was designed to reduce the tension between employee and employer through statutory requirement of conciliation, mediation and arbitration. Workplace Forums were provided for as a means of negotiation and consultation to deal constructively with plant issues.

The challenge for management in the post 1994 new democratic South Africa was how to chart a course through the new legislation by incorporating it into an organisation's human resource management strategies, so as to maintain a competitive position in the face of global competition.

A changed and demanding legal environment thus faced HRPs in the post-1994 era.

3.6.5 Instrumentalism and Humanistic Values

The socio-political changes in South Africa brought to the fore the need to consider African traditional cultural values in organisational life. (See Section 3.6.3.1). Coldwell and Moerdyk (1981) commenting on their research into stress levels drew attention to this dilemma for black managers.

“Blacks in general, and Black managers in particular, are confronted by a dilemma caused by contrasting world views existing together. While on the one hand most of them believe in ‘ubuntu and the importance of being part of a community, on the other hand many feel that the material competitiveness and self-assertive individualism, which characterizes western society is unavoidable if Blacks wish to progress inside the present social system . It is postulated that this constant struggle between dissonant cultural paradigms that goes on in the minds of many Blacks , has a deleterious affect on Black managerial performance and is a major source of stress..” (p.75).

Jackson’s (1999) later research in South Africa contrasted the western individualistic style instrumentalism and African collectivist style ubuntuism in employment practices in South Africa in the late 1990's .

"Not wanting to underplay the complexities of the situation, there are major cultural differences between the instrumentalism of western styles of management and the humanism of many non-western cultures." (p.2).

Jackson (1999) explored the apparent antithesis between western and non-western ideas of organisation and management. He reviewed the idea of people as a resource (human resource management) and people with a value in themselves (reflected in the word ‘ubuntu’). He refers to Allison (1993) who identifies the antithesis as one where people are,

“..... regarded as a means to an end in western organizations, but being regarded as having value in their own right in non-western (eg., Japanese) cultures where organizations may be seen as serving the needs of its people, as a collective, rather than people being purely a resource for the organization.” (p.2).

“Ubuntu” is defined by Mbigi (1998) as “I am because we are - I can only be a person through others”. He explains the philosophy as, “How we feel about ourselves and how we feel about others are the essence of our being. This is the heart and soul of the African philosophy of Ubuntu.” (p.25). Khoza (2002b), as a senior business executive in South Africa, attempts to set African concepts, such as Ubuntu, within the context of globalisation..

Jackson (1999) identifies western experience as more individualistic, emphasising self interest and an instrumental relationship with others, particularly in organisational relationships, whereas collectivism emphasises a more obligation-based relationship often associated with kinship and group membership. Jackson (1999, p.4) depicts his analysis in Figure 3. 2 (p.95).

In the 1990's, a number of proponents of ubuntuism encouraged companies to actively practise a more traditional African style of management in the interests of business success.. Christie, Lessem and Mbigi (1994) presented the challenge of “pragmatic humanism” within an enterprise based culture. Lessem (1996) expanded on the contrast in “Individualism vs Communalism” and its expression within business organisations. Lessem and Nussbaum (1996) discussed the problem in the South African context of “Business and Humanity” within a four world model, where the ‘South’ is represented most strongly by ‘humanism’. Mbigi (1998) declared that “It is our responsibility as

managers and Human Resource practitioners to facilitate the creation of spirited and caring organisations.” (p.26). More recently Khoza (2002b), expounded the relevance of this more Afrocentric concept of business management in contrast to the dominant Eurocentric management approach in South Africa.

Jackson (1999) identified what he perceives to be a cultural ambiguity between “regarding people as a resource and a means to an end, or as a value and an end in themselves” (p.6), which requires reconciling as a part of management strategy.

3.6.6 Entrepreneurial “Personnel” Management

Armstrong’s (1989a) model (Figure 3.1, p.44) culminates in “Entrepreneurial Personnel Management”, his term to depict the current expression of HRM, and is in keeping with his understanding of the nature of the function of HRM.

Armstrong (1989a) identified the three factors contributing to contemporary HRM as, “human resource management”; together with the additional influences of “the

Figure 3.2

**Instrumentalism and Humanism
in the Management of People**

(Values concerning the regard for people within the organisation)

<i>Management Practices</i>	<i>Management Attitudes</i>	<i>Organisational Orientation</i>	<i>Developing People</i>
INSTRUMENTALISM			
Human resource management	People are a valuable resource	People serve the ends of the organisation	Competencies approach: equipping people for the job
HUMANISM			
People development	People have a value in themselves	The organisation serves the ends of its people	Holism: developing the whole person

enterprise culture” and “the changing management scene”. These three provide for him the ingredients for his concept of “entrepreneurial personnel management”.

The outcome of Armstrong’s (1989a) in depth interviews with 21 Personnel Directors in the United Kingdom was his conclusion that the enterprise culture of the 1990's would require “personnel managers” to become entrepreneurial in approach to provide the leadership that was required within organisations if they were to succeed in the contemporary business environment. Armstrong found (1989b) that Personnel Directors now used terms like,

“..... competitive advantage, leading edge, added value, bottom line. Twenty years ago people in equivalent positions would have been more likely to talk of or write about organisational development, manpower planning, job enrichment, salary administration....”.(p.53)

The task of HRPs today, according to Armstrong (1989b, p.54), was to become ‘enablers’ who assisted the organisation to achieve its objectives , by getting, motivating and developing the organisations key resources - its people.

Cascio's (1995) fourth growth stage of HRM (Strategic Partnership) (Section.3.2.1.d)

referred briefly to the implications of global competitiveness in the 1990s which contributed to the emergence of strategic human resource management (SHRM), wherein HRM was seen as an integral part of management strategy.

Renton (2000a , 2000b), commenting on a South African survey of trends in HRM in a cross-section of businesses, ranging in size from 600 to 30 000 employees, noted the most significant contributors to HRM practice to affect HRPs at the turn of the 21st century:

- (i) The outsourcing trend in a search for greater competitiveness and people productivity, which included the outsourcing of routine HR administration, catering, routine training, recruitment.
- (ii) Re-engineering of the HR function whereby line managers took on greater human resource functions including such traditional functions as granting of personal loans, disciplinary enquiries.
- (iii) These changes resulted in HRPs having to play a more supportive and guiding role to line managers.
- (iv) HRPs had become more integrally involved in business strategy and planning.
- (v) Accessibility of line managers to HR information via electronic data base and records.

Renton(2000b) believes:

“HR professionals in the new millennium will be expected to focus far less on providing routine HR administration services to line managers . Instead they will be expected to focus more on providing line managers with processes to manage their human resources themselves.. The main HR role will then be to work with line mangers on developing and implementing business policies and strategies that are both strongly competitive and fully congruent with the effective utilisation of human resources.” (p.45)

To achieve these HRPs need to become a “strategic partner” in the management of the business. (Ulrich's,1997).

The 1990s saw organisations facing even greater demands to meet the challenge of increased competition especially of a global nature. Armstrong (1996) believed that these demands lead organisations to constantly re-evaluate their strategies.

"The virtues of teamwork, empowerment and continuous development in ‘the learning organisation’ were extolled and the role of HR in total quality initiatives became more important" (p.33).

Organisations sought ever more creative HRM approaches to meet the increased pace of demands to cut costs and provide greater efficiencies whether in production or service. Armstrong (1996) noted the many HRM initiatives that had been introduced during this period. These emphasised, “flexible and de-layered organizations”, “major redundancy or ‘downsizing’”, “‘business process re-engineering’”, “‘benchmarking’ in order to identify and emulate ‘best practice’”, “outsourcing”, “the concept of a ‘job for life’ was no longer the norm”.

3.6.7 Concerns over the Direction of Human Resource Management

The implications of certain aspects of the new commitment of HRM to the enterprise driven culture and globalisation is questioned by some writers. Pfeffer (1998) questions many of the approaches adopted to meet the challenges in the 1990s by arguing that companies were moving in precisely the opposite direction to what they should be by downsizing and outsourcing.

“Many if not most organizations are doing precisely the opposite what they should. Rather than putting their people first, numerous firms have sought solutions to competitive challenges in the place and means that have not been very productive - treating their businesses as portfolios of assets to be bought and sold in an effort to find the right competitive niche, downsizing and outsourcing in a futile effort to shrink or transact their way to a profit, and doing a myriad other things that weaken or destroy their organizational culture in efforts to minimize labor costs - even as they repeatedly proclaim, ‘people are our most important asset’”. (p.xv -xvi).

Pfeffer (1998) argues for workplaces that create mutual trust and respect as a basic condition to higher productivity.

“All work place practices and changes should be evaluated by a simple criterion: Do they convey and create trust, or do they signify distrust and destroy trust and respect for people?”. (p.62).

Among the “dimensions” Pfeffer (1998) envisages for successful companies in terms of “strategic partnership” is “security of employment” (p.65-69), contrary to the common wisdom of downsizing, where many essential skills as well as commitment may be lost to the organisation and not easily replaced.

With all the changes in HRM has come a new view of employment relationships. Old company loyalties have given way to newer approaches to employment contracts. The older so-called ‘psychological contract’ began to be replaced by less secure contractual employment relationships, where long term employment could no longer be guaranteed. Increasingly, contracts are short term, with little or no security, with casualisation and temporary employment being offered by employers. Volpe (1999) discussed the

implications of downsizing in terms of the ‘psychological contract’ and its negative effect on employee morale, loyalty and trust .

The trade union movement in South Africa, notably COSATU, has consistently attacked job losses, casualisation and other HRM policies that create insecurity and unemployment with its devastating effects on the lives of workers and their families. The SA Labour Bulletin has conducted a consistent campaign for many years against work loss for a range of reasons. Most issues for the five year period 1997 - 2001 carry strident articles attacking job losses arising from the capitalist free market system.

3.6.8 Concluding Comment on the Role of the Human Resource Practitioner

The demands of business place on HRPs the responsibility of creating innovative ways of contributing to organisational success and profitability, without losing their opportunity to represent the human needs of employees. Ulrich (1997) identifies the HRP as a “strategic partner” in the business enterprise, but posits the paradox where the HRP is also the “employee champion”. Ulrich describes HRPs as filling a multiple-role.

“Success in the multiple-role requires that HR professionals balance the tension inherent in being a strategic partner on the one hand and an employee champion on the other.” (p.45).

Ulrich (1997) conceives the HRP “as representing both management agendas and employee needs, be the voice of the employee and the voice of management, act as a partner of both employees and managers.” (p.45). In so doing Ulrich believes the HRP will achieve a balance between the needs of the these two potentially competing stakeholders.

Ulrich further suggests that the HRP can play the paradoxical role of both “change agent” and “administrative expert”.

“HR professionals must also balance the need for change, innovation and transformation with the need for continuity, discipline and stability.” (p.46)

These paradoxes set the context for HRPs to play an innovative role in meeting the demands of their function in the contemporary business environment.

3.7 Concluding Comment to Historical Review

This historical review has illustrated:

- (i) the long history of the dilemmas, paradoxes and resultant ambiguities within HRM, suggesting the inherent nature of the ambiguities in HRM;

- (ii) how succeeding decades of academics, consultants and practitioners have addressed these dilemmas, contradictions and ambiguities in HRM;
- (iii) the complexities of the South African context for HRM;
- (iv) the additional implications for Black Personnel Practitioners who in their experience encountered unique features of the ambiguities of HRM theory and practice within the South African environment;
- (v) that the management of the employment relationship in contemporary post-industrial society requires ever more skilled, perceptive and innovative attention in the interests of both employee needs, and employer demands for business growth and survival.

This study is focussed on identifying sources of stress affecting HRPs in their role. The review has set the exercise within a history of just over a century which reflects a role constantly under pressure to adapt to the socio-political, economic and technological challenges of the times.

If the contemporary HRP is found to be suffering role stress and burnout, then it may be argued that the history of growing demands on the HRP, over the past twenty five, would support this anticipation. The pressurised environment now experienced by HRPs can be shown to have been created over a period of time and that the current pressure to meet ever new and challenging demands is conducive to work-related stress..

CHAPTER FOUR

4 : CAREER ORIENTATION

Introduction

The “career orientation” of a person is an important insight into what directs the interests and commitment in that person’s work life. The career orientation relates to the individual’s view of him or herself in a manner that can have far reaching implications for their working lives. It has been shown that this driving force needs to be taken into account when dealing with a range of work related issues, such as career development, promotion, performance assessment, and counselling. It is also a valuable guide for individual’s to assist them in understanding their own motivations and possible future career planning.

This study applies the career orientation concept in a hitherto unexplored area by attempting to assess whether the career orientation of H R practitioners has an effect on their role stress and work stress/burnout levels within the context of current strategic human resource management.

This chapter discusses the concept of career orientation by means of:

- * an examination of the theoretical concept of career orientation
- * an analysis of the origin, nature and development of the Schein’s “career anchor” concept
- * an outline of the Career Orientation Inventory used for data collection
- * an introduction to the eight “career anchor” categories
- * a brief review of some comparative concepts and some practical applications.

The discussion includes a comment on the use of the term “career orientation” in place of “career anchor” in the study and concludes with a comment on the relationship between the career orientation concept and the overall research plan.

4.1 The Concept of Career Orientation and Career Anchor

In 1975 Professor Edgar Schein of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) introduced the concept of a ‘career anchor’. (1975, p.11-24). Schein’s ‘career anchor’ has specific meaning.

Some background is provided first to Schein’s concept of career orientation and career anchors.

4.1.1 The Internal Career

Schein's concept of career is broader than the normal connotation of a profession or an occupation. He perceives significance in a dimension referred to as the 'internal career', as distinct from the 'external' elements of the common understanding of a career.

"I prefer to use the word (*career*) somewhat more broadly. All people develop some kind of picture of their work life and their own role in it. It is this 'internal career' that I wish to explore." (1987, p.155).

He distinguishes this perception of an 'internal career' from the more usual concept of a career as a form of progress or advancement through an organisation which he refers to as the 'external career' in the sense of 'having a career' (1993, p.11). He excludes any link with the negative image of careerism. He believes it to be more useful "to examine the internal career from a dynamic evolutionary perspective". 1987, p.155)

{For more detailed presentations of this 'internal/external' conceptualisation see: van Maanen & Schein (1977, p.45-57) and Derr & Laurent (1989, p.454- 469)}.

Schein accepts that a career may be understood to be 'anchored' in a job description which deals with organisational features such as rights and duties. He prefers to understand a career as,

".... anchored in a set of needs and motives which the individual is attempting to fulfil through the work he does and the rewards he obtains for that work - money, prestige, organizational membership, challenging work, freedom and other satisfactions - what he is looking for in a job. These values, in turn, also reflect an underlying pattern of needs that the individual is trying to fulfil." (1975, p.13).

4.1.2 The Evolutionary Approach

Schein's concept of an internal career arises from his understanding of the dynamic evolutionary process through which such an internal career develops and is arrived at. Arthur, Hall & Lawrence (1989) in their review of the new directions of career theory adopt an evolutionary approach, stating that, "Our adopted definition of career is the evolving sequence of a person's work experiences over time." (p.8).

However, Schein has an even broader approach where he integrates both the internal and external elements in an evolutionary concept in career theorising.

Schein found that until a person had work experience within an organisation, neither the individual nor the organisation could assess whether the person's abilities were commensurate with the present and future requirements of the job and their potential

career. Nor do individuals know how they will like the work or how their own values will fit with those of the organisation. Schein (1978) therefore, concluded that “The early career can therefore be viewed as a time of mutual discovery. Through successive trials and new job challenges, each learns more about the other.” (p.125)

Delong (1982a) supports Schein in this view stating that “Only through work experience can one collect the information that is necessary to determine one's actual career anchor.” (p.51).

Erwee (1990) agrees with Schein in noting that,

“One can not predict a person's career anchor at the outset of his or her career, as this career anchor evolves as a result of interactions between the individual and his or her work environment in the early stages of the person's career.The individual therefore gradually discovers his or her career anchor.” (p.5).

Van Maanen & Schein (1977) plotted the internal and external career formation in tabular form to illustrate that the stages in career development can be shown to mature more or less in tandem. (p.54-57).

Delong (1982b) argued that the career anchor model was not unique in its use of the developmental approach to career development. He referred to the work of Super and Bohn (1970), Gould (1978) and Thompson (1977), among others, who adopted a developmental approach to career related issues.

4.1.3 The Self-Concept

Schein (1978) linked the experience of the growth of a self-concept in an individual to his evolutionary development of the internal career.

“ the new employee gradually gains self-knowledge and develops a clearer occupational self-concept. This self-concept has three components, which together make up what I will call the person's ‘career anchor’.” (p.125)

Schein's research suggests that as an employee's career evolves, a career anchor is gradually formed which then begins to stabilise and guide that career. In this process the employee develops a clearer self-concept which displays three components arrived at through work experience. (Schein, 1978, 1987; Delong, 1982; Slabbert, 1987; Erwee, 1990). The three self-perceived components are :

- (i) talents and abilities - based on actual successes in a variety of work settings.
- (ii) motives and needs - based on opportunities for self-tests and self-diagnosis in real situations and on feedback from others .

- (iii) attitudes and values - based on actual encounters between self and the norms and values of the employing organisation and the work setting.

It is this self-concept which nurtures the development of a career orientation and the resultant career anchor. Erwee (1990) refers to this as “the self-image that a person develops around his or her career”. (p.5).

Schein (1993) acknowledged his indebtedness to “the seminal research of Donald Super” (p.85). Super's (1963) essays on the place of the self-concept in vocational development and the relevant research at the time, reflect the attention given by numerous scholars to understanding the many faceted concept of the ‘self’. It was this field of study on which Schein was able to draw when he launched his initial study in 1963.

Super (1963) explains the link between the self and vocational preference.

“In expressing a vocational preference (Super 1951), a person puts into occupational terminology his idea of the kind of person he is; that in entering an occupation, he seeks to implement a concept of himself; that in getting established in an occupation he achieves self-actualization. The occupation thus makes possible the playing of a role appropriate to the self concept.” (p.1).

Super (1963) adopted Sarbin's (1954, p.244) definition of the self. “The self is what the person is. The role is what the person does.” For Super (1963), “A self concept is the individual's picture of himself...” (p.18). He goes on to explain that, “The self concept system is made up of the various self concepts, the pictures which the individual has of himself in different roles and different kinds of situations”.(p.19).

Schein in his concept of a career orientation and the resultant career anchor develops the self concept in a pragmatic format in the work situation.

4.1.4 The Career Anchor

The development of a self-concept in relation to vocational experience in the work situation, for Schein, creates forces ‘inside’ the individual which drive or constrain career decisions and choices.

It is this ‘internal career’ development on which Schein chooses to focus and which he believes influences important working life decisions. He explored the development of this internal career by means of identifying what he described as a person's ‘career anchor’. In this he proceeds much further than Super.

To establish the career anchor of an individual Schein, together with Delong (1982), developed and tested a "Career Orientation Inventory" questionnaire. By means of this

instrument a “career orientation” may be arrived at which in turn, in conjunction with a guided interview, could assist an individual in identifying his/her ‘career anchor’.

This internal career anchor can assist individuals to gain an understanding of where ‘they are coming from’ in their career decisions.

This internal dimension is an integral part of the process of the development of a self-concept which finds expression in the career anchor and can play an important role in career decisions.

“Our self-concept begins to function more and more as a guidance system in the sense of constraining career choices. We begin to have a sense of what is ‘me’ and what is ‘not me’.” (Schein, 1993, p.23)

It was this growing sense of self, “this is me, and this is not me”, which lead Schein to refer to this concept of self as the career anchor. (1987, p.159)

Schein (1987) believes that in reviewing their career choices, people often talk of being ‘pulled back’ to something when trying to figure out what they ‘really want to do’ or when trying to ‘find themselves’. (p.158). He suggests the strong influence of the career anchor in situations of important choice.

“The career anchor, as defined here, is that element in our self-concept that we will not give up even if forced to make a difficult choice.” (p.158).

For Schein (1987) the career anchor has an enduring quality that can remain stable even though not being called into use.

“The career anchor is the self-image, and it can remain remarkably stable even if there is no opportunity whatsoever to exercise it, as in the case of the starving artist who is driving a cab.” (p.158).

Schein (1978) summarised his concept of career anchors.

“Career anchors clearly reflect the underlying needs and motives which the person brings into adulthood, but they also reflect the person's values and, most important, discovered talents. By definition there can not be an anchor until there has been work experience, even though motives and values may already be present from earlier experience The career anchor is a learned part of the self-image, which combines self-perceived motives, values, and talents.” (p.171)

Derr & Laurent (1989) as a result of their own research saw Schein's contribution as a breakthrough in career theorising. “The career anchor concept is a conceptual

breakthrough in assisting career orientations.” (p.454).

4.2 The Career Orientation Inventory

As a means of establishing a person’s career anchor Schein, with the assistance of Delong, developed a “Career Orientation Inventory” and a system of scoring the measure. In the interests of continuity in the presentation on career orientation the actual “Career Orientation Inventory” is discussed here. The presentation on Data Gathering Instruments (Section 7.1.1) will refer back to this section.

4.2.1 Its Origin and Development

Schein's concept of a career anchor evolved out of his in depth study of Sloan School of Management alumni, which he commenced as a longitudinal study in 1961. He assessed the interaction of personal values and career events in the lives of the respondents, postulating that as an individual progressed through the various career stages, he (as the initial respondents were all male) gradually gained self-knowledge and thereby developed a clearer occupational self concept.

In 1973, ten to twelve years after graduation, Schein discovered a pattern of responses emerging from in-depth interviews which lead him to formulate his concept of career anchors. He found that although there was little consistency in the actual job histories of respondents, there was remarkable consistency in the reasons given for career decisions. This pattern he found was not at first obvious to the respondent, “but would see it once it was pointed out” (1978, p.127).

In 1978 Delong (1982a), through an iterative process with Schein, attempted to validate and refine the definition of Schein's career anchor model. This validation process used a questionnaire to pinpoint and measure specific career anchors. Schein had used in-depth interviews to collect original data on self perceived talents, but the questionnaire he used was in the form of an inventory, the purpose of which was to measure values, attitudes and career ends rather than self perceived talents. The questionnaire (the Career Orientation Inventory) was linked to a half hour interview on career history and future career aspirations. The Inventory went through various versions in the early 1980s with assistance from different researchers. (Schein: 1993, p.vii).

Delong's (1982a) re-examination of Schein's career anchor model, substantially justified Schein's claim, and supported the use of the Career Orientation Inventory (COI) which they had both worked on jointly. It is this version (Schein, 1993) that is used in this study and which comprises 40 questions, a self-scoring instruction followed by an interview to identify the predominant career anchor. Prof Schein (1998) granted permission for the application of this version (1993) to be used in this study with the request that, in light of the nature of the study as described by the researcher, the study use the overall term “career orientation” rather than the “career anchor”. It is for this

reason that the term “career orientation” appears in the application of the concept in this study.

Prof Schein in email correspondence (10/8/1998) stressed the importance of recognising that the COI was not a forced choice and as a result “people tend to give their idealized view and not necessarily what their career really reflects”. He gave the researcher permission to use the COI with the suggestion that where an interview was not used the term ‘career orientation’ be applied. This understanding has been followed in this research.

The Career Orientation Inventory used in this study, its instructions and scoring sheet may be found in Appendices A , B , and C.

4.3 Types of Career Anchors

4.3.1 The Eight Categories

Based on a longitudinal study related to career-history interviews of several hundred people in various career stages, Schein finally settled on eight career anchor categories. (1987). Initially, he had identified five categories.(1978). Delong (1982) in his early assessment identified nine categories, but following subsequent testing in conjunction with Schein (1993), accepted eight categories. These are:

- (i) technical/functional competence
- (ii) general managerial competence
- (iii) autonomy/independence
- (iv) security/stability
- (v) entrepreneurial creativity
- (vi) service/dedication to a cause
- (vii) pure challenge
- (viii) lifestyle

A broad outline of each of these eight categories is found in Appendix C which forms part of the material made available to each respondent for self assessment purposes. For ease of reference, the same document is placed within the text as Table 4.1.(p.87 -88)

The eight categories are not pure types. Each person according to Schein (1993, p.26) is concerned to a greater or lesser extent with each of the eight categories. However, it is the career anchor that is identified as most dominant that will indicate, “an area of such paramount importance to a person that he or she would not give it up.”. (p.26).

Each person defines his or her own basic self image in terms of their major orientation which, for Schein (1993), becomes an overriding issue at every stage of their career. (p.26).

Table 4. 1

CAREER ORIENTATION CATEGORIES

<p align="center">TECHNICAL / FUNCTIONAL COMPETENCE (TF)</p>	<p align="center">ENTREPRENEURIAL CREATIVITY (EC)</p>
<p>If your career anchor is competence in some technical or functional area, what you would not give up is the opportunity to apply your skills in that area and to continue to develop those skills to an ever higher level. You derive your sense of identity from the exercise of your skills and are most happy when your work permits you to be challenged in those areas. You may be willing to manage others in your technical or functional area, but you are not interested in management for its own sake and would avoid general management because you would have to leave your own area of expertise. Your inventory score in this area is in the first column of the scoring sheet under TF.</p>	<p>If your career anchor is entrepreneurial creativity, what you would not give up is the opportunity to create an organisation or enterprise of your own, built on your own abilities and your willingness to take risks and to overcome obstacles. You want to prove to the world that you can create an enterprise that is the result of your own effort. You may be working for others in an organisation while you are learning and assessing future opportunities, but you will go out on your own as soon as you feel you can manage it. You want your enterprise to be financially successful as proof of your abilities. Your inventory score on this dimension is in the fifth column of the scoring sheet under the letters EC.</p>
<p align="center">GENERAL MANAGERIAL COMPETENCE (GM)</p>	<p align="center">SERVICE / DEDICATION TO A CAUSE (SV)</p>
<p>If your career anchor is general managerial competence, what you would not give up is the opportunity to climb to a level high enough in an organisation to enable you to integrate the efforts of others across functions and to be responsible for the output of a particular unit of the organisation. You want to be responsible and accountable for total results and you identify your own work with the success of the organisation for which you work. If you are presently in a technical or functional area, you view that as a necessary learning experience; however, your ambition is to get to a generalist job as soon as possible. Being at a high managerial level in a function does not interest you. Your inventory score in this area is in the second column of the scoring sheet under GM.</p>	<p>If your career anchor is service / dedication to a cause, what you would not give up is the opportunity to pursue work that achieves something of value, such as making the world a better place to live, solving environmental problems, improving harmony among people, helping others, improving people's safety, curing diseases through new products, and so on. You pursue such opportunities even if it means changing organisations, and you do not accept transfers or promotions that would take you out of work that fulfils your values. Your inventory score on this dimension is in the sixth column of the scoring sheet under the letters SV.</p>

Source: Schein (1993), p 76-79.

Table 4.1 (cont.)

<p style="text-align: center;">AUTONOMY / INDEPENDENCE (AU)</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">PURE CHALLENGE (CH)</p>
<p>If your career anchor is autonomy / independence, what you would not give up is the opportunity to define your own work in your own way. If you are in an organisation, you want to remain in jobs that allow you flexibility regarding when and how to work. If you cannot tolerate organisational rules and restrictions to any degree, you seek occupations in which you will have the freedom you seek, such as teaching or consulting. You refuse opportunities for promotion or advancement in order to retain autonomy. You may even seek to have a business of your own in order to achieve a sense of autonomy; however, this motive is not the same as the entrepreneurial creativity described later. Your inventory score on this dimension is in the third column of the scoring sheet under the letters AV.</p>	<p>If your career anchor is pure challenge, what you would not give up is the opportunity to work on solutions to seemingly unsolvable problems, to win out over tough opponents, or to overcome difficult obstacles. For you, the only meaningful reason for pursuing a job or career is that it permits you to win over the impossible. Some people find such pure challenge in intellectual kinds of work, such as the engineer who is interested only in impossibly difficult designs; some find the challenge in complex, multifaceted situations, such as the strategy consultant who is interested only in clients who are about to go bankrupt and have exhausted all other resources; some find it in interpersonal competition, such as the professional athlete or the salesperson who defines every sale as either a win or a loss. Novelty, variety, and difficulty become ends in themselves; and if something is easy, it becomes immediately boring. Your inventory score on this dimension is in the seventh column of the scoring sheet under the letters CH.</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">SECURITY / STABILITY (SE)</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">LIFESTYLE (LS)</p>
<p>If your career anchor is security / stability, what you would not give up is employment security or tenure in a job or organisation. Your main concern is to achieve a sense of having succeeded so that you can relax. The anchor shows up in concern for financial security (such as pension and retirement plans) or employment security. Such stability may involve trading your loyalty and willingness to do whatever the employer wants from you for some promise of job tenure. You are less concerned with the content of your work and the rank you achieve in the organisation, although you may achieve a high level if your talents permit. As with autonomy, everyone has certain needs for security and stability, especially at times when financial burdens may be heavy or when one is facing retirement. People anchored in this way, however, are always concerned with these issues and build their entire self-images around the management of security and stability. Your inventory score on this dimension is in the fourth column of the scoring sheet under the letters SE.</p>	<p>If your career anchor is lifestyle, what you would not give up is a situation that permits you to balance and integrate your personal needs, your family needs, and the requirements of your career. You want to make all of the major sectors of your life work together toward an integrated whole and you therefore need a career situation that provides enough flexibility to achieve such integration. You may have to sacrifice some aspects of your career (for example, a geographical move that would be a promotion but would upset your total life situation), and you define success in terms broader than just career success. You feel that your identity is more tied up with how you live your total life, where you live, how you deal with your family situation, and how you develop yourself than with any particular job or organisation. Your inventory score on this dimension is in the eighth column of the scoring sheet under the letters LS.</p>

The two categories selected for special attention in this study, viz., “general managerial competence” and “service/dedication to a cause” are reviewed here. The content of these two categories rely heavily on Schein (1993, p.311 - 38, 45 - 46). The other six are presented in less detail in Table 4.1.

4.3.2 General Managerial Competence

General Management Competence describes those whose interest is to rise to general management within their organisation where they will be responsible for major policy decisions. They want to make a success of the organisation by their own efforts. Key values and motives of this group are advancement up the corporate hierarchy to higher levels of responsibility, opportunities for leadership, contribution to the success of the organisation and higher income.

They recognize that to reach the top they will need skills in three basic areas, viz.,

- (i) analytical competence to identify, analyze and solve problems;
- (ii) interpersonal and intergroup competence to influence, supervise, lead, control people at all levels in the organization to achieve organizational goals;
- (iii) emotional competence to be stimulated rather than debilitated by issues which make emotional demands through interpersonal or other emotionally conflictual situations, such as retrenchment and labour conflict, which can be absorbed without the person becoming emotionally stressed out.

Such managerially anchored persons may reveal characteristics of other categories, such as technical competence, security/ stability, and challenge, but are subjugated rather to the stronger influence to obtain general management status.

4.3.3 Service/Dedication to a Cause

Service/Dedication to a Cause describes those who enter occupations because of the central values they want to embody in their work. They are orientated more towards such values than towards the actual talents or areas of competence involved. Their career decisions are based on the desire to improve the world in some way. Typically these features may be seen in the so-called helping professions, such as nursing, social work, teaching, religious ministry.

Persons with this career anchor may be found also in business or organisational contexts as human resource practitioners, labour lawyers, environmentalists, medical drug researchers or in other occupations which allow them to fulfil an inner need to be of service in their function..

Values such as working with people, serving humanity and helping one's nation may be powerful anchors in the careers of certain persons.

Schein (1993) recognises that,

“Not everyone in a service oriented occupation is motivated by a desire to serve. Some doctors, lawyers, ministers, social workers may be anchored in technical/functional competence or autonomy or security; some may want to become general managers. Without knowing which anchor is actually operating, one will not know what the career occupant really wants.” (p.45).

Persons with a service anchor want to influence their organisation or its social policies in the direction of their values. For them money is not the central issue and promotion is for them an opportunity to obtain greater influence and recognition for their concerns. When frustrated they may move to more autonomous occupations, such as consulting, which may allow greater opportunity to promote their cause.

4.4 Some Conceptual Comparisons

To broaden the understanding of Schein's career anchor concept three comparisons are offered. The first two being theoretical concepts and the third, a research based testing of Schein's career anchor self-concept model.

4.4.1 Maccoby's Psychological Types

Schein (1978) made brief reference to Maccoby's (1976) classification of managers into 'types'. Maccoby in his study of 250 managers in 12 major companies in the USA following lengthy interviews, arrived at “four main psychological types in corporate technostructure”.(p.45). Maccoby made this classification on the basis of “dynamic character traits.... in terms of the individual members overall orientation to work, values and self identity” .(p.45).

These three means of classification are similar to the elements Schein and Delong utilised in their approach to establishing the career anchor self-concept.

Maccoby (1976, p.46-49) arrived at four types:

- (i) the craftsman: interested in the process of making things, holds traditional values - work ethic, respect for people, concern for quality and thrift;
- (ii) the jungle fighter: with the goal as power, where life and work are a jungle and the winners destroy the losers;
- (iii) the company man: the typical organization functionary who identifies with the

organization, has a feeling for people, enjoys the security of a large company;

- (iv) the gamesman: the 'new man' interested in challenge, competitive activity where he can prove to be winner, responds to life and work as a game, enjoys new ideas.

These four are "ideal types in the sense that few fit the type exactly and most are a mixture of types." (p.45)

Schein was not able to locate accurately the four types with his eight categories, but saw sufficient reason to make a broad identification. The 'gamesman' appeared most aligned with 'managerial competence'; the 'craftsmen' was most akin to the 'technical functional' category; the 'company man' may be identified with the 'security' anchored group. Schein did not attempt a further aligning. (1978, p.145).

4.4.2 Holland's Personality Traits

Holland (1985) presented an approach to career theory based on personality trait factors. His central postulate was that vocational satisfaction, stability and achievement depended on the congruence between one's personality and the environment in which one worked. As a leading exponent of the trait theory he argued that most persons could be categorized into one of six types:

- * realistic (related to outdoor and technical interests)
- * investigative (intellectual, scientific)
- * artistic (creative, expressive in literature, artistic, musical or other areas)
- * social (interest in working with people)
- * enterprising (interest in persuasion, leadership)
- * conventional (enjoyment of detail, computational activity, high degree of structure)

These six types, Holland postulated, can each find congruence in working environments which resemble the characteristics of oneself. He went further to claim that people actively search for such compatible work environments. "People search for environments that will let them exercise their skills and abilities, express their attitudes and values....." (p.4)

As a background principle Holland maintained that "the choice of a vocation is an expression of personality." (p.7).

Betz, Fitzgerald & Hill (1989), in reviewing trait-factor theories, observed that there could be identified a 'match' between the individual and the environment in these theories which implied that ".....vocational adjustment ... is directly proportional to the 'match' of 'goodness of fit' between characteristics of the worker and of the

environment.”(p.27).

The element of ‘goodness of fit’ may be observed as a feature in Schein's theorising.

4.4.3 Nordvik’s Testing of Career Anchors in Relation to Vocational Personality Types

Nordvik (1991) tested Schein's career anchors concept in relation to what he perceived may be a similar concept of vocational personality types by researching the relationship between the two concepts. He tested Holland's vocational personality classification with Schein's career anchors to establish whether it was possible to reduce person-work relationships to a number of ‘prototypes’. (p.165).

Nordvik (1996) observed that “Holland assumed that persons obtain satisfaction by performing the particular kind of work activity that most closely fits their personality”. (p.263). Holland had established that there were six vocational personality types that appeared to correspond to six vocational categories. Nordvik found that vocational personalities and career anchors are distinct concepts and that deciding on the type of career activity that one prefers is a task that can be distinguished from the task of deciding one’s career goal. (p.166). “Persons' career anchors cannot be derived from the assessment of their vocational personality, and vice versa”. (p.175).

Nordvik's (1996) summarised his findings by suggesting that,

“Although Schein did not hypothesize relations between career anchors and occupational groupings, these results indicate that career anchor variables were reasonably related to the occupations of the participants”. (p.267).

Email correspondence with Nordvik (2/8/99) provided guidance in the research design of this thesis. Unfortunately, for the current study, Nordvik's (1996) research did not include HR Practitioners in the occupational categories, thus depriving the current study of useful comparative data.

4.5 Some Practical Applications of the Career Anchor Model

The Schein career anchor model has been tested variously over an extended period. In 1982 a series of applications were carried out by 16 Sloan School of Management, MIT, Masters students whose findings were analysed and utilised by Schein (1987) to reinforce his earlier findings. Some other research applications are considered below.

4.5.1 Business and Professional Women in South Africa

Erwee (1990) in South Africa applied the model to a sample of business and professional women and noted that “service was the most dominant career anchor among these

business and professional women” (p.11). She reported on an unpublished paper by Schein (1982a) where he had made an earlier observation that the “service” anchor occurred frequently among members of the helping professions. Most of the women in her sample comprised personnel specialists, executive secretaries, managers, public relations personnel, lecturers and some entrepreneurs. (p.11).

4.5.2 Male MBA/MBL Graduates in South Africa

Slabbert (1987) in a South African study of 992 male MBA/MBL graduates, found the highest profile to be “managerial competence” (mean 4.7), but also elements, among others, of a “service” anchor (mean 3.7 and ranked 5 out of 9 categories). Erwee (1990) observed that no direct comparison could be made between the male managers in Slabbert's study and the females in her study.

It should be noted that Slabbert worked from an earlier version of Schein's anchors which included “variety” as a category, which Schein subsequently removed. In the 1993 model used in this study, only eight categories are employed.

Significant for this study is Erwee's (1990) observation in regard to “personnel specialists” that their “dominant career anchors were Service, Variety and Security” (p.11) which, she states, confirms Schein's (1982a) comment about the helping professions being service anchored and Slabbert's (1987) similar finding in regard to male management graduates.

4.5.3 Police Careers in the USA

Van Maanen (1977), in an attempt to extend the concept to a quite different context other than graduate managers, analysed police careers based on career anchors. He related the five Schein categories (the number Schein had identified at that time) to the careers of policemen.

The five categories were: managerial competence; technical/functional competence; security/stability; creativity; autonomy/independence. Van Maanen's research showed that his respondents could be identified in each category despite coming from a career not previously tested.

Commenting on Van Maanen's findings, Schein (1978) noted that the career anchor approach had the added benefit of providing a solid basis for career guidance. (p.164-165).

4.6 The Place of Career Orientation in the Study Project

There are four reasons for selecting and applying Schein's career anchor self-concept to human resource practitioners in this study.

- (i) to identify the dominant career orientations of HRP so as to establish their main career inner drive as a source indicator to work related stress;
- (ii) to establish the strength of the relationship between career orientation and both role stress and burnout so as to assess whether there are any significant links between career orientation and various forms of work related stress,;
- (iii) to assess whether there is any relationship between career orientation and respondent response to contemporary strategic human resource management;
- (iv) to identify any significant relationships between career orientation of HRPs and certain biographical features of the respondents.

CHAPTER FIVE

5 : ORGANISATIONAL STRESS

Introduction and Terminology

This chapter provides a perspective on individual stress which may be attributed, first, to the role people play within their organisation and, second, to the nature of the work they undertake. The stress under discussion in this study is specifically work-related. The nature of individual stress discussed and analysed is described as “organisational stress” as it rises and is nurtured from within organisational life. This work-related organisational stress is dealt with from two specific perspectives.

The first is the concept of **Role Stress**, which is discussed in terms of its well researched significance within organisations. Role stress is perceived as a specific concept..

The second is the concept of **Burnout**, which in this study is conceived as a particular interpretation of the more general field of work-related stress. Burnout is perceived as a specific concept. To maintain the perspective on work-related stress, the manner of reference from time to time will be ‘work-related stress’ or ‘burnout’, depending on the context of the discussion. Reasons for this usage will be provided in the section on “Burnout” (Section 5.1.4)

The chapter provides a review of three fundamental concepts basic to this study, with literature review and related comments :

- * **stress**
- * **role**
- * **role stress**

The order of review is deliberate. It was found that a more coherent approach was achieved by first reviewing stress, followed by an analysis of relevant role and role stress literature.

The review and the study do not address ways of treating or managing work related stress. The study focusses on identifying certain sources and levels of organisational stress and recognising its relation to human resource practitioners (HRPs) within South African organisations and to the contemporary practice of human resource management.

As indicated in the introductory section of this dissertation, the experience and perception of work-related stress in HRPs has not been the subject of much research. The only located relevant research relates to ‘Personnel’ Directors in Great Britain.

(Giles, 1987). The British Institute of Personnel Development (IPD, previously IPM, and now the Chartered Institute of Personnel Development [CIPD]), conducted a journal search in their extensive HRM library in London and were unable to locate additional material on stress specific to HRPs, other than the Giles's (1987) study. (IPD Librarian email correspondence, 6/2/2000). Other studies of 'personnel' professionals, eg., Watson (1977) and Ritzer and Trice (1969) raised issues of role theory, role stress and occupational stress, but not as the central focus of the study. Giles (now Murray) is unaware of any further research into role stress or burnout among HRPs since her initial study. (Email correspondence with this researcher dated 7/5 2002 and 15/5/2002)

The study focuses on the role of the HRP in the work context in South Africa, in an endeavour to establish linkages between career orientation, role function and identifiable levels of burnout. The study is concerned with establishing whether role stress factors in HRPs can be shown to act as an intermediate variable, ie., an intervening or mediating variable between career orientation factors and burnout. (See Section 6.1.3.4 for a discussion on the concept of an intermediate variable). The study does not endeavour to identify personality variables within the individual that may suggest other conditioning factors in stress levels.

The concept of "role stress" is used in preference to "job stress" or "occupational stress", which terms are less precise in defining specific elements of the work environment. The emphasis in the study is on the role function of the HRP and levels of burnout that may be associated with that role. The study hypothesises that increased role stress in HRPs may be associated with higher levels of measurable burnout.

5.1 THE CONCEPT OF STRESS

Stress is a normal experience in human life which commences from the moment of birth and is an element of life until death. This section outlines three of the most common perspectives on stress that have bearing on burnout. A review of the concept of burnout is included in light of this study's use of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) instrument. The MBI and its conceptual base are discussed in detail in Section 5.1.4 and in Chapter Seven: 7.1.3.

This section on the concept of stress deals with:

- * perspectives on stress
- * the significance of perception
- * the place of personality types
- * the concept of burnout

5.1.1 Perspectives on Stress

Three perspectives on stress are presented to assist in more closely identifying the

concept.

5.1.1.1 Stress as Response

One interpretation views stress as a response.

Selye (1956), often regarded as the 'founding father' of the concept of stress, is credited with introducing the concept of stress into medicine in the 1940's. He defined stress as "the non specific response of the body to any demand made upon it". His theory is essentially physiological. The stress producing demands (the stressors), whether healthy or harmful, elicit a similar pattern of adaptation by the body. A brief note on Selye's "general adaptation syndrome" (GAS) explanation of stress is called for due to its classical contribution in stress theorising

Selye's original model shows the organism undergoing three stages and is summarised by Organ & Hamner (1978, p.194)). First is the alarm reaction where there is temporary impairment of physiological functioning, eg., headaches. Second is resistance where the body's defences rally to protect the organism. The third stage of exhaustion occurs when the stress continues past a point where the body succumbs to stress and may collapse or die. (Figure 5. 1, p.118)

Newton(1995, p.23-27) in his discussion on the contribution of Selye noted that the Selye later began "to wrap the GAS in implicit psycho-social explanations of stress". This understanding has influenced other researchers to interpret this response based concept, in psychological and behavioural terms.

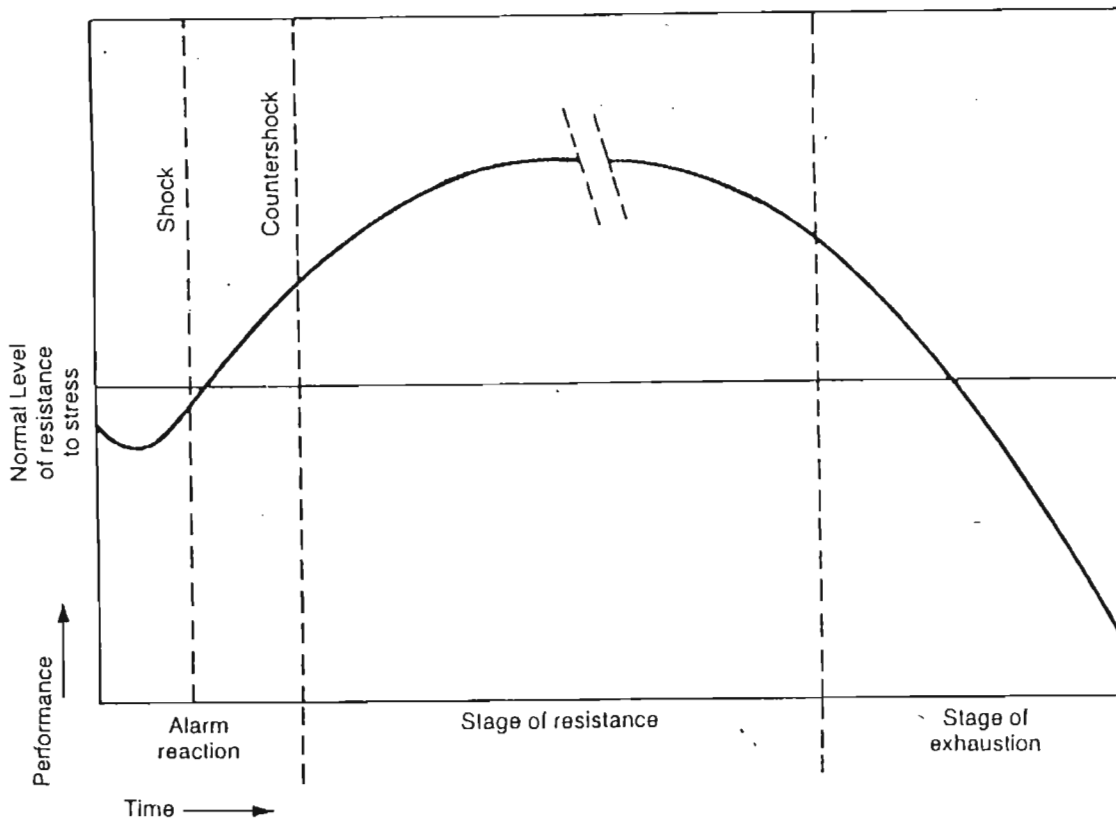
Tozi, Rizzo & Carroll (1994), following Selye's original theory, provide a concise summary of how a person adapts to stressors which are perceived to be a threat.

"First, there is an alarm reaction. When a person experiences a stressor, physiological changes warn the body it is under pressure. Adrenalin flow increases, blood pressure rises, and muscles begin to tense. Next is the resistance stage, in which the body tries to restore its balance, expending physical and psychological energy to seek this equilibrium. Different physiological, psychological and biological responses may be ways that a person responds to stress. The final stage is exhaustion. If the resistance is not successful, the person simply wears out. Over time, the stressors may use up all the person's psychological and physiological energy. When a person reaches the exhaustion stage, both physical and mental illness may occur." (p.279)

Organ and Hamner (1978, p.194 -195) suggest that the individual's response to psychological stress follows much the same pattern as Selye's three stage model. "The initial reaction to psychological stress is a temporary lapse before there is an emotional

Figure 5.1

REACTION TO A STRESSOR



{Following Selye: Source: Strumpfer (1983, p.381)}

Explanation of Figure 5.1:

The first phase is the alarm reaction, when the general resistance to the stressor falls below the normal reaction. During the next phase, the stage of resistance, there is sharp increase in the capacity to resist to considerably above the normal level. This mustering of the body's resources is akin to the so-called 'fight or flight' response. It could be the same response or of longer duration.

A break is indicated at the top of the curve. This represents a plateau in which the person could continue functioning at that level for a reasonably long period. When this occurs in response to job demands (rather than in response to a pathogenic, illness-inducing stressor) it may allow the person to perform at a peak level. The rising part of the curve and the plateau may refer to Selye's concept of "eu-stress" as against the harmful "dis-stress".

If the demands continue too long the person may enter the final stage where the curve drops and exhaustion occurs as the person's resources are overtaxed and the demands become disruptive and unhealthy. The person becomes physically fatigued and exhausted and may exhibit psychologically dysfunctional signs, eg., difficulty in concentrating, going off 'half-cocked', pessimistic, etc., The drop on the curve could be quite sharp and quick.

arousal which acts to rally various coping mechanisms to defend against the stress". These coping mechanisms according to Organ and Hamner (1978), "are learned from past experience in handling stress, and may be either functional or dysfunctional for problem solving." If they are functional, the resistance stage may bring forth the development of new skills, creative insights, and enhanced self-esteem and self-confidence. If the stress is unremitting and chronic, and all forms of coping behaviour are of no avail in reducing it to manageable proportions, the exhaustion stage is reached.

The relationship of **stress and burnout** is discussed more fully in Section 5.1.4, but an observation is called for at this point.

Maslach and Schaufeli (1993) identify the concept of burnout as being the result of prolonged job stress and that the exhaustion phase described by Selye is reached before the individual has consciously noticed the preliminary phases. They maintain stress and burnout are difficult to separate. "Stress and burnout can not be distinguished on the basis of their symptoms, but only on the basis of the process." (p.10)

The final stage may result in depression, physical illness to the point of incapacity, apathy, or profound sense of futility. This pattern matches Moch's Curve (2000) and Maslach's (1981, 1986, 1996) approach to burnout (see also Section: 6.1.3). Strumpfer (1983) in his recognition of burnout in executives and Schlebusch (2000) in his general explanation of stress, support this interpretation. The significance of these studies for this research is that the detrimental effect of stress is seen as a process, potentially leading to the debilitation of the person. The Maslach Burnout Inventory is used as an instrument in this study to establish the level of burnout in a sample of HRPs. The degree of work related stress registered may be used as a signal to HRPs of their potential vulnerability to breakdown.

Not all stress is debilitating. A feature of the later Selye theorising was that not all stress was unpleasant, bad or "dis-stress", but that some stress may be described as "eu-stress" or pleasant or positive, and in fact may have creative benefits. Moerdyk (1983) { quoting Selye (1978) }, perceived stress as a form of arousal and that the relationship of stress to performance follows the inverted U function of classical arousal models. "That part of the curve that shows a positive relationship with performance is termed 'eu-stress'". (p.23).

The emphasis in the literature, as it is in this study, is to view stress as the negative (right hand) portion of the inverted U curve, where an increase in stress leads to a decrease in performance.

One of the difficulties with the response based approach to stress is that similar responses may be experienced by an individual due to very different stimulus conditions. For instance, the heart rate may increase as a result of sudden exertion or sudden fright. The use of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) is a self report test and is not based on

physical symptoms, such as headaches and heart rates. The test for physical symptoms was not used in this study after the pilot programme indicated that the results were too general to be useful interpretable data.

5.1.1.2 Stress as Stimulus

A second interpretation views stress as a stimulus

Using the engineering analogy, stress is interpreted as an external force exerting pressure on the system. An external force may induce strain or deformation in an object to the extent where overloading may crush or tear the object apart, depending on whether the stress pushes or pulls. ‘Stress’ thus gives rise to a stress reaction or ‘strain’ within the individual. “Stress is seen as consisting of factors in the person’s environment which stimulate reactions which are likely to be unhealthy or deficient.” (Strumpfer, 1983, p.374). See also, Caplan ,et al: (1975); French and Caplan (1972); Schlebusch (2000). The classic role stress study by Kahn, et al., (1964) followed the stimulus perspective. (Kahn (1980).

Strumpfer (1983) argues that for the stressor (the stimulus in the environment) to have its effect, certain conditions need to be present.

“The stressor has to be perceived and appraised by the individual before it will have any effect, and this internal, psychological experience will be referred to as *stress*.” (p.374).

The implication is that it is not objective stimuli impinging on the person that causes the observed behaviour. Rather it is suggested that there are intervening cognitive structures between the stimulus and the response. The perception process allows for interpretation that in turn leads to a particular outcome or behaviour. This outcome equally depends upon the nature of the individual. The whole process is thus complex.

This ‘perceived stress’ may lead to external effects such as physical or mental ill health, behavioural consequences, such as heavy smoking, low productivity, etc., These consequences are referred to as strains or symptoms of stress.

There are difficulties with stimulus based definitions. What criteria does one use to identify what is and what is not stressful in certain life situations? The engineering analogy suggests that an undemanding situation is stress free, but there are work situations which precisely, because they are undemanding, stimulate stress. Watts (1985) argues that because individuals react differently to situations, no uniformity is achievable in response. What may be stressful to one may not be stressful to another .

5.1.1.3 The Interactive Nature of Stress

A third interpretation views stress in interactive terms.

The interactive approach sets the concept of stress within the dynamic and complex interaction between the individual and his or her environment. It may be described as a relational concept as it involves factors in the environment combined with factors within the individual. In terms of this understanding, the origins of stress lie within the mismatch between the nature or demands of the environment and the nature and ability of the person to cope with those environmental demands. The interactive stress theory draws on both the stimulus and responses interpretations to understand the experiences of individuals. Proponents of this interactive approach include Van Harrison (1978); McMichael (1978); Organ and Hamner (1978); Marshall and Cooper (1979); Moerdyk (1983); Watts (1985).

McMichael (1978) views stress

“... as the product of a dynamic mismatch between the individual and his/her physical or social environment. This interactive view holds that situations are not inherently stressful; rather, it is the combination of the particular situation and an individual, with his specific personality, behavioural pattern and life-situation circumstances, that results in a stress producing imbalance.” (p.128).

This interactive approach finds expression in the “**person-environment (P-E) fit**” interpretation of the source of stress. The P-E fit reflects an ongoing interaction between the two elements of the individual and the environment. It is the ‘fit’ or ‘congruence’, or lack thereof, between the two factors that determines the level of strain suffered by the individual.

“It is the *goodness of fit* between the demands of the job and the abilities of the person which will determine the amount of strain. Similarly, the goodness of fit between the needs of the person and the degree to which these needs are satisfied in the job environment will also affect the strain.”(French & Caplan, 1972, p.33)

Within the work environment two kinds of ‘fit’ between the individual and the job environment may be identified. French, Caplan and Van Harrison (1982) researched this feature among 23 occupations. They report that one kind of fit is the extent to which the person’s skills and abilities match the demands and requirements of the job, eg., whether the individual can cope with the quantitative or qualitative work load. If not, a mismatch may take place resulting in role strain through the inability to cope with the requirements of the job. A second kind of good fit is the extent to which the needs of the person (eg., money, supportive people, opportunities to achieve) are supplied in the job environment. If not, a mismatch may take place.

“The basic assumption of the theory is that when person-environment misfit of either kind threatens the individual’s well-being, stress will occur and manifestations such as job dissatisfaction, anxiety, depression and physiological problems will follow.” (McMichael, 1978, p.128).

The P-E fit theory predicts only that some form of strain occurs with misfit and that the magnitude of the strain will be proportional to the degree of misfit.

McMichael (1978) explains that within the work environment there are many potentially stressful circumstances (stressors). Different individuals may react differently to these many stressors. This creates a complex set of factors which may present different symptoms in different people. To complicate the matter further, one person may find a situation stressful whereas another may not.

Stress occurs when the abilities of the person are incongruent with the demands of the job environment, or where clear obstacles exist to fulfilling strong needs or values. In such situations, there is a bad ‘fit’ between the individual and his environment.

The element of PE-fit is taken into account in two ways in this study. The first is the role of the HRP in the broad contextual framework of strategic human resource management. The second is in the narrower context of the career orientation of the HRP. The study attempts, *inter alia*, to establish whether these factors contribute as sources of stress among HRPs..

5.1.2 The Significance of Perception in Understanding Stress

As shown above, different individuals react differently to the same work environmental conditions, some finding them comfortable and rewarding and others experiencing them with varying degrees of stressfulness. “An individual perceives and interprets his environment on his own terms.” (McMichael, 1978, p.143). It depends on how the individual perceives the situation. To this extent, stress may be ‘in the eye of the beholder’.

5.1.3 The Place of Personality Types

An added dimension to the complex interpretation of stress is that the experience of stress and its felt level, may depend upon the type of person undergoing the stress event. Research into this aspect has resulted in attention being directed to the so-called type A and type B personalities. (See Vecchio, 1988) Other research has investigated the apparent ‘hardy’ personality and the greater ability of such persons to withstand the effects of stress. See Kobasa (1979, 1982a & b); Kobasa, Maddi and Kahn (1982) It is not within the scope of this study to include this personal psychological analysis.

5.1.4 The Concept of Burnout

The concept of burnout is the construct underlying the Maslach Burnout Inventory applied in the research model. A discussion on burnout is introduced at this stage in the presentation on stress to provide an integrated approach to the topic of stress as a whole. Work related stress in the form of burnout, in terms of the structure of this study, is treated as a separate variable and defined accordingly. Burnout is a specifically described concept of stress.

This section :

- * clarifies the nature of burnout
- * explains burnout's applicability to HRPs
- * describes burnout and its relation to the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI).

5.1.4.1 Defining the Concept of Burnout

The term "burnout" was used first by Freudenberg (1974), a clinical psychologist familiar with stress responses in clients. The earliest research in burnout focussed on those who had high people interaction in the course of their daily work. Pines (1982) identified burnout within its original people involvement format as:

"...as a state of physical, emotional and mental exhaustion that results from long-term involvement with people in emotionally demanding situations." (p.189).

Carroll and White (1982) extended the definition of burnout in the work environment and described work related burnout in broad psychobiosocial terms which lead to a failure of the person's coping resources to deal with stress.

"Burnout is a construct used to explain observable decrements in the typical quantity and quality of work performed by a person on the job. Presumably the people who are burning out are experiencing psychobiosocial distress or dis-ease as a consequence of their exposure to stressors and frustrations that exceed their tolerance and resources for successfully coping with stress and frustration." (p.41).

Pines and Aronson (1988) also broadened the definition from the 'people involvement' category, in keeping with burnout's broader functional inclusion in popular debate, to understanding burnout as:

".....characterised by physical depletion, by feelings of helplessness and hopelessness, by emotional drain, by the development of negative self-concept and negative attitudes toward work, life and other people." (p.15).

They maintain that all the various personal and environmental factors that generate stress and frustration for humans should be considered as potential causes of burnout. Their understanding of work related burnout is that other environments or ecosystems impinge, creating a complex set of relationships and conditions leading potentially to burnout.

Maslach's (1993) multidimensional concept of burnout which she established near the commencement of her research in the mid 1970's is more functionally restrictive and is described as:

“..... a psychological syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who work with other people in some capacity.” (p.20).

This three dimensional definition of Maslach is fundamental in the use of the MBI and interpretation of MBI results.

Maslach (1982) had earlier debated the value of broadening the definition of burnout beyond her original focus on those whose job it was to enter more or less intense personal interactions with those with whom they worked. She concedes that,

“Burnout has now expanded beyond these original borders and is now considered applicable to many other sorts of occupations, and not just a problem exclusive to service providers.” (p.33).

Maslach acknowledges that burnout could occur “in all occupations, for anyone at any level.” (p.33). Her concern with widening the construct was that it may lead to loss of the already specifically identified burnout features among professionals whose work was highly people orientated.

“The question here is whether ‘burnout’ is actually the same phenomenon when it is transferred to these other occupations..... I must admit I have some doubts about the wisdom of viewing burnout as a general job phenomenon rather than a more specific one.” (p.31).

Maslach's concern needs to be understood in light of the specific three factor construct which she and other researchers have used and which form the basis of ongoing interpretation arising from tested empirical research for more than two decades. She and those that support her construct do not deny the validity of other research but wish to retain the integrity of the three dimensional approach.

Maslach's stance is supported by Schaufeli, Enzmann and Girault (1993).

“Most instruments are designed to assess levels of burnout in human services professions. They should not be applied in other occupational contexts

because it can not be assumed that the structure of the burnout syndrome is identical across different occupational groups.” (p.212).

5.1.4.2 Burnout as a Process in a Work Environment

Stress research has shown that the continued presence of stress does not lead inevitably to burnout, but as Cox, Kuk and Leiter (1993) maintain, the causation of burnout lies largely in its stress origins and a link can be established.

“The dominant view in burnout research is that a causal chain exists in which the experience of stress contributes to the etiology of burnout...” (p.185)

Maslach and Schaufeli (1993) understand burnout in terms of a work related environment with the condition emerging from long term stress exposure which they define as due to :

“.... prolonged job stress, ie., demands at the work place that tax or exceed an individual’s resources. This longer time period is also implied in the terminology: burning out (depleting one’s resources) is a long term process.” (p.9).

Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) see burnout in the context of occupational stress where:

“Burnout is a special type of prolonged occupational stress that results particularly from interpersonal demands at work (p.8) and (where)..... demanding interpersonal relations are considered to be a specific antecedent of burnout.” (p.9).

Cordes and Dougherty (1993) in their review of burnout related research conclude that

“.....burnout represents a particular type of job stress, in which a pattern of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and diminished personal accomplishment (strains) result from a variety of work demands (stressors), especially those of an interpersonal nature.” (p.625)

Their review supports Maslach’s construct that burnout comprises more than just emotional exhaustion, but is a complex phenomenon which integrally includes depersonalisation and a damaging sense of reduced personal achievement.

Maslach and Schaufeli (1993) understand this ‘burning out’ process to be similar to that described by Selye in his GAS, where the depletion stage is reached as part of a latent process. “Typically, the exhaustion phase is reached before the individual consciously has noticed both preliminary phases” (p. 10). They go on to argue that “stress and burnout can not be distinguished on the basis of their symptoms, but only on the basis of the

process.”(p.10).

Thus burnout may be interpreted as the product of a process of prolonged stress in the work environment. This is in keeping with the findings of Hobfoll and Freedy (1993) in their review of three burnout research models, namely, Maslach (1982), Pines, Aronson and Kafry (1981) and Cherniss (1980). “These models share the view that burnout is the consequence of stressful work conditions.” (p.116). Quoting Cherniss (1980), Hobfoll and Freedy (1993) note that “his (Cherniss) model of burnout suggests that burnout is the last stage of the failed coping process.” (p.116).

This causal link does not imply that all stress will lead inevitably to burnout, but where the final stage of burnout is reached, its causes will largely be found in prolonged stress.

Some cope with everyday stress better than others and may never become “burned out”, but will present with stress symptoms to a lesser or greater extent.

5.2 THE CONCEPT OF ROLE

This section provides a comment on role theory as background to a review of relevant literature on role stress and three of the factors of role stress. This section includes:

- * defining the role concept
- * role terminology
- * implications for human resource practitioners

5.2.1 Background to Role Theory

The concept of role has a history dating back to the mid 1800's (Thomas & Biddle, 1966). Role theory has developed since, in keeping with changes in society. The concept of role owes much to theatre, where human behaviour is portrayed by actors who play out certain roles. In its broadest context of a social role, certain expectations assist in attaching the individual to the broader society or organisation. In the society within which a person lives, common expectations attach to someone who is a father, a policeman, a doctor, a teacher, a factory worker, a manager or a human resource practitioner. This structuralist approach attributes expected behaviours to social positions. In keeping with the theatre analogy, any one actor may play a number of different social roles according to the varying contexts of their activities, eg., mother, saleslady, shop steward. (Giddens, 1990, p. 731).

Within work organisations, roles are specifically allocated, eg., machine operator, maintenance fitter, human resource manager, managing director. Each role has anticipated behaviours attached either formally or informally. In business organisations individuals at all levels are linked into coherent patterns of activities and relationships so that the organisation may achieve its objectives.

5.2.2 Defining Role

Mullins (1993) defines role as:

“..... the expected pattern of behaviour associated with members occupying a particular position within the structure of the organisation. It also describes how a person perceives their own situation” (p.186).

Here role is defined specifically to include not only the role sender's expectations but, also, the expectation the individual has of him/herself. A further definition of role includes the expectations of role senders beyond the borders of the organisation. Van Sell, Brief & Schuler(1981) define role as:

“..... a set of expectations applied to the incumbent of a particular position by the incumbent and by role senders within and beyond an organisation's boundaries.” (p. 43).

This concept of role provides a structured orderliness which enables individual members to have reasonable expectations of the behaviour of other members of their organisation or society and of what behaviour is expected of them as individuals. It is this required structuring which may be seen to lead to role stress.

“The concept role is likely to be of relevance in attempts to explain the sort of regularity and patternedness that organizations reveal.. In this way the behaviour, say, of a policeman or doctor or bureaucrat can be explained in terms of the nature of their work roles.” (Salaman, 1980, p.129).

Here the concept of role suggests that role performance may be achieved in two possible ways. First, by internalising the standards and expectations of a particular role, the individual conforms because they personally consider such behaviour as meritorious and correct. Or, second, through pressure to conform with expectations which may be backed by the threat of sanctions, the individual conforms..

An alternative concept to a structuralist view above is an interactionist approach, which understands a role to be the result of interactions between the differing and conflicting interests and capacities of the members of that particular society. Such interpretation understands role in terms of,

“.....a constantly changing negotiated product of interactions of different purposes and priorities within a framework of rules and constraints. Such priorities do not derive simply from the organization, or its objectives and goals, but from the personal identities and values of the people involved.” (Salaman, 1980, p.130).

This view suggests that organisations may be viewed as arenas of constant conflict, negotiation and compromise, where individuals attempt, with greater or lesser success, to strive to achieve their own objectives. In its pure expression, this could create too much uncertainty. What is suggested is some form of integration between the structuralist and interactionist interpretations of role.

5.2.3 Role Terminology

Some common role theory terms used are provided and follow those used in the classical Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn and Snoek (1964) organisational stress study. These elements may play a part in creating the experience of role stress.

Role Set:

Each member of an organisation is directly associated with a greater or lesser number of other role playing persons. These include the superior, subordinates and colleagues within the work organisation, but may include a variety of persons outside the organisation. Gowler and Legge, (1975) define role set as, "All the role relationships that a person has with the people in other roles with whom he interacts in the performance of his role". (p.38).

Role Expectations:

Due to the nature of an organisation, those in the role set possess expectations of each other because they have a stake in the performance of each member. They develop beliefs and attitudes about what the others should and should not do.

Sent Role:

These expectations are "sent" to the focal person. The members of the role set are referred to as "role senders" and the "focal person" is the receiver of those expectations. The "sent role" denotes their expectations as to the behaviour of the focal person.

Received Role:

Each member of an organisation responds to a sent role at different levels. First, in terms of their perceptions of what the organisation expects. Second, this "received role" is subject to the individual's perceptions of what was sent by the role senders. It is the received role which is the most direct influence on the focal person's behaviour and a source of his or her motivation to perform the expected role. How closely the received role corresponds to the sent role is a matter for each focal person and his/her individual perception and cognition of what was sent.

Role Pressure:

The content of role sending is not merely informational communication, but contains attempts to bring the focal person into conformity with the expectations of the role senders. Such influencing is referred to as role pressure.

Role Force:

The sent role pressure creates in the focal person psychological forces which are intended to force the person to comply and may arouse strong resistance which may result in the person behaving differently to that intended.

Role Behaviour:

The outcome of the above role processes is behaviour which conforms to expectations of the role set. It may not be necessarily congruent in all respects with the sent role. The reception of the sent role is subject to the focal person's perception and acceptance of the role expectations.

Not all the expectations arise from the role set. They may come from other sources external to the organisation which could have a significant impact on the role receiver, hence conditioning behaviour somewhat differently.

5.2.4 Role Implications for Human Resource Practitioners

The various role elements identified above apply to the role and function of the HRP. The role set is extensive for one whose function is invariably the full spectrum of the organisation, as well as having a relation to external role senders. The role pressure on the HRP is equally extensive with many and varied role senders. Role force can be diverse, coming as it does from many sources. The role behaviour of the HRP is subject to all the forces at play and is influenced by forces outside of the organisation. In this regard the additional implication of a professional status has a bearing on what is anticipated and acceptable behaviour.

Human resource practitioners, as professionals with specific knowledge and skills in human resource management, undertake a role around which certain expectations arise. These expectations arise, both in others as well as within the individual HRP. This role status creates pressure on the HRP to deliver according to those two sets of expectations of their professional role.

Into this professional role function, the HRP brings his or her own career orientation and own value system, both of which have to be integrated into the values of the organisation.

5.3 THE CONCEPT OF ROLE STRESS

The concept of role stress is reviewed in this section with focus on:

- * role stress research
- * the three factors of role stress

5.3.1 Role Stress Research

In the 1970's and early 1980's, considerable research was conducted into role stress in an attempt to explain stress associated with membership in work organisations. The seminal research that spawned that academic activity was the classic study of Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn & Snoek (1964) and published as "Organizational Stress: Studies in Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity".

The studies that followed focussed on such issues as the relevance of the concepts to specific occupational groups, the measures used, related organisational issues, especially in relation to the outcome of role stress, eg., in the form of job dissatisfaction, anxiety level, propensity to resign. These studies included: Rizzo, House and Lirtzman (1970) and House, Schuler and Levanoni (1983) (testing of the measures); Hamner and Tosi (1974) and Berkowitz (1980) (the effect of occupational level differences); Miles (1975) (effect of role perceptions); Rogers and Molner (1976) (top level administrators); Dornstein (1977) (chief executives in state business enterprises); Greene (1978) (professionals); Giles (1987) (personnel executives); Shenkar and Zeira (1992) (chief executive officers in international settings); Miles (1976) (the effect of role requirements); Tracy and Johnson (1981) and Harris (1991) (testing construct validity of the measures). Bluen and Barling (1987) (relation of role stress on a specific organisational process, viz., industrial relations).

Following the publication of many research investigations, a number of meta-analysis studies were undertaken on role conflict and role ambiguity by Fisher and Gitelson (1981), Van Sell, Brief and Schuler (1981) and Jackson and Schuler (1985). These studies summarised and analysed the findings of the researchers, providing an invaluable record of the considerable commitment that had gone into investigating what was seen as an important field of research.

Newton (1995, p.35-36) criticised the Kahn et al's.,(1964) version of role theory as "rather idiosyncratic" because its primary concern was the psychological environment as perceived by the individual rather than the importance of the social structure. Newton believed the pressing social and political issues relating to race, gender, age and income needed to be incorporated in any meaningful interpretation of role stress. Newton (1996) continued his criticism of Kahn, et al.,(1964) and those who followed their theoretical framework, for choosing a "very particular Lewinian concept of role" (p.34), where what mattered was what the subject perceived and experienced.

The social structuralist notion of role theory supported by Newton (1996) maintained that "the concept of role provided a means of looking at the way social relations were structured, on the basis of the social status that someone occupied." (p.34). That approach is in contrast to the school of researchers followed in this study, where the emphasis in understanding role stress is on the inner psychological perceptions and experiences of respondents surveyed. However, the current study does take into account the significance

of age, gender, ethnic origin, length of work experience and level in the organisation, as potential influences in the experience of role stress and work related stress/burnout.

Research interest in role stress subsided in the 1990's. However, research and comment on the broader concern of understanding work related stress grew. This study utilises the well tested concepts first explored by Kahn, et al., (1964). Those relevant to this study are outlined here, namely, role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload..

Two of the meta-analysis studies reveal the extent of the literature contributed in the earlier period. Fisher and Gitelson (1983) analysed 43 published studies on Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity. Jackson and Schuler's (1985) search revealed 200 published articles on Role Ambiguity and Role Conflict in work settings.

The ongoing validity of these concepts may be observed in their inclusion in more recent texts, eg., Tozi, Rizzo & Carroll (1994) and current ongoing international research by Peterson and Smith (1995) of University of Sussex. Prof Smith's advice was obtained in structuring the Role Stress Questionnaire for this study.

5.3.2 THREE MAJOR FACTORS IN ROLE STRESS

Kahn, et al., (1964) believed that role pressures create role forces within the individual which lead to the person experiencing psychological conflict. (p.19). The theory of role dynamics developed by Kahn, et al.,(1964) focussed on the existence of stress arising from conflicting, incompatible or unclear expectations. Their research identified two major factors in role stress, namely: role conflict and role ambiguity. Each of these will be discussed in turn. For the purposes of this study, role overload is included as a third factor in role stress due to its prominence and in keeping with a number of studies which separated role overload from role conflict for analytic purposes, such as,. French and Caplan, (1972); Organ and Hamner (1978); Kahn (1980); Pines (1982); Giles (1987); Tozi, Rizzo and Carroll (1994); Peterson and Smith (1995); Ross and Altmeier,(1997)

Three role stress factors are investigated in this section:

- * role ambiguity
- * role conflict
- * role overload

5.3.2.1 Role Ambiguity

Role ambiguity is a kind of role strain.

For the purpose of this study Mullin's (1993) definition of role ambiguity is used:

“Role ambiguity occurs when there is a lack of clarity as to the precise

requirements of the job and the person is unsure what to do. The person's own perception of their role may differ from the expectations of others. This implies that insufficient information is available for the adequate performance of the role." (p. 190)

Role ambiguity may thus result from a lack of formally prescribed expectations or, in some situations, informal expectations, which create uncertainty in the focal person. Mullins further draws attention to the possibility of role ambiguity arising at times of constant change where uncertainty often relates to such matters as the extent of the person's authority and responsibility, standards of work and the evaluation and appraisal of performance. These are matters of direct relevance in a time of organisational transformation in contemporary South Africa.

Role ambiguity may be divided into two sub-categories.

- (i) **Task ambiguity:** This uncertainty relates to actual work requirements, for instance, when there is lack of clarity in the definition and parameters of the job and its objectives. For instance, when a Managing Director fails to state sufficiently clearly to the new HR Manager what level of participative management he will accept within the organisation, or where the Chief Executive Officer does not state what authority the HR Director has when it comes to decisions when negotiating wages and benefits on behalf of the company.
- (ii) **Social-emotional ambiguity:** This may arise due to uncertainty over how one is evaluated or valued for one's work. eg., an Industrial Relations Officer has inadequate guidelines provided by the HR Manager to enable the IR officer to know whether he/she is effectively resolving employee grievances, or where the IR Officer receives little or no feedback on his/her performance in dealing with disciplinary issues.

Research Findings on Role Ambiguity have significance for this study. Numerous studies, both experimental and longitudinal, into the effects of role ambiguity have demonstrated that lack of clarity over behavioural expectations results in various problems, such as., lower job satisfaction, lowered productivity, increased tension and anxiety. There is evidence that those with higher levels of role ambiguity suffer from depression, lowered self esteem and physical symptoms.

In their meta-analysis, Jackson and Schuler (1985) noted that features such as autonomy, tenure, age, initiating structure, participation, were more strongly related to role ambiguity than to role conflict. (p.33). They also noted that higher level employees experienced more role ambiguity and that job tenure was negatively correlated with role ambiguity (p.37). Hunsaker and Cook (1986) found that the incidence of role ambiguity is greater among managers than among other occupations because managerial tasks are

often hard to define, and a high degree of freedom and autonomy goes with the job. (p.242). In contrast, Schuler (1975) found that employees who were in the higher levels of an organisation were better able to continue to perform their functions when role conflict and role ambiguity were present, than were those in lower levels. (p.687). Shenkar and Zeira (1992) found role ambiguity was significantly lower for chief executive officers with more years of education (p.66).

Other observations concerning role ambiguity are included in the review of role conflict research findings where joint observations were made, involving both role conflict and role ambiguity. (Section 5.3.2.2)

Research has shown definite links between **role ambiguity and burnout**. Maslach and Jackson (1986b) found emotional exhaustion was associated with role ambiguity among nurses. It was higher among those who received little feedback on the results of their work. Nurses who received little feedback scored higher on depersonalisation. Where minimal feedback was provided nurses were found to score low on feelings of personal achievement.

Other studies reviewed by Cordes and Dougherty (1993) found that role ambiguity affects self-efficacy and one's feelings of personal accomplishment or when there is ambiguity concerning performance feedback. They noted that it is difficult to develop strong feelings of efficacy when one feels unsure of what is expected of one's performance. Their survey found that an individual's sense of personal accomplishment may be undermined by ambiguity induced sub-optimal performance, whether real or imagined. Further confirmation of the relationship between role ambiguity and burnout is provided in Section 5.3.2.2.

Important for this study is the significance of the link between **role ambiguity and the human resource practitioner**. Ambiguity is a feature of HRM, as explained in Chapter Two. Ritzer and Trice (1969) and Watson (1977) use terms such as conflict, tension, ambiguity and ambivalence to describe the context within which HRPs operate. Tyson (1992) maintained that "role ambiguity seems to be inherent in personnel management." (p.61). Legge (1995) believes that the contradictions and ambiguities brought on by the nature of capitalism aggravate the role ambiguities of the HRP. She thus sets the issue within the total societal context, and sees "personnel managers as victims of ambiguity". (p.23 -28).

These research findings on role ambiguity are relevant to the role of the HRP in contemporary South Africa. Role ambiguity has particular relevance within the experience of HRPs in South Africa in the country's ongoing era of transition. The HRP is required to play a central role in the interpretation and implementation of the concept of transformation within organisations. Where there is inadequate guidance and objective setting on the issue of transformation from within the organisation, uncertainty of expectations may occur, leading to role stress for the HRP.

Black HRPs may be at the receiving end of conflicting expectations. First, from black employees who believe that because the HRP is black, he or she should contribute to speeding up the process of transition. Second, from white employees whose expectation may be that because the HRP is black, he or she will give less attention to their job security needs. Third, from superiors who send conflicting signals as to what is required.

Alternatively, white HRPs, especially older ones, are faced with white employee expectations. Black employees may feel the white HRPs are slowing down the process of transformation, and white employees may feel that they are speeding it up irresponsibly.

5.3.2.2 Role Conflict

Role conflict is another type of role strain.

For the purpose of this study the Tozi, Rizzo & Carroll (1994) definition of role conflict is used .

“Role conflict occurs when a person is in a situation where there are pressures to comply with different or impossible demands. If the person complies with one demand it is difficult or impossible to comply with other demands.” (p.283).

Role conflict classically has been divided into four sub-categories.

- (i) Intra-sender role conflict: [IAS] This arises from a conflict between the availability of time, resources or capability of the focal person and the expected role behaviour, eg., a Production Manager calls on the Training Manager to provide literacy training for his factory workers without agreeing to time off during working hours.
- (ii) Inter-sender role conflict: [ISR] This occurs when two or more different individuals or groups (role senders) place incompatible demands on a person. Here the focal person is expected to fill two or more roles in the organisation which compete with each other., eg., an Industrial Relations Officer may be expected by workers to represent their needs to company management and at the same time be expected by management to represent the interests of the company in wage negotiations. Meeting one set of expectations makes it difficult or impossible to meet with other expectations.
- (iii) Person-role conflict: (PRC) This occurs when organisational demands come into conflict with an individual's own internal standards and values, eg, a HR Manager is required by the organisation to retrench an employee whom the HR Manager knows has not been fully informed of the facts by his line manager

and, if he was given these facts by the HR Manager on the principle of integrity, the retrenchment of the unwanted employee could not go through.

- (iv) Inter-role conflict: [IRS]. Where a person holds two or more positions simultaneously, the role pressures associated with membership in one group is in conflict with pressures stemming from membership in one or more other groups, eg., a HR Officer who is the member of a Trade Union is required by her organisation to participate in the selection of members of her trade union for retrenchment.

Two significant **sub-elements** in role conflict are noted and commented upon as relevant to the role of the HRP.

The first has been described as being “**caught in the middle**”. Kahn (1980) noted that almost half of respondents in his research reported being ‘caught in the middle’ between two conflicting persons or factions, more or less frequently. (p.424). Those involved were either internal superiors or outside the organisation. Cooper and Marshall (1978) noted that the most frequent manifestation of role conflict is when a person is “caught between two groups of people who demand different kinds of behaviour or expect that the job should entail different functions.” (p.86). The traditionally ambiguous role of HRPs places them in the middle between parties and persons.

The second is described as “**boundary crossing**”. Various commentators include “boundary crossing” (boundary-spanning) as a source of role conflict and thus of role strain. This relates to organisational territoriality and external contacts. Theoretically, each time a person moves out of his/her own department or section they move into the territory of some one else and may be perceived as “invading” that territory.

This interface is a potential cause of conflict. Persons involved in such activities “must maintain a delicate system of linkages across differentiated systems or sub-systems and this linking function is viewed as a major source of strain or conflict in complex organisations.” (Miles, 1976, p.173).

Kahn, et al (1964) reported that “68% of the focal persons in company boundary positions are above the median on the index of objective role conflict.”(p.102), suggesting high potential for chronic role conflict. (Miles, 1976, p.173). French and Caplan (1972) reported that “those who are located on either the external or internal boundaries of the organisation have substantially more role conflict.”(p.46). Rogers and Molnar (1976) in a study of top-level administrators in public service agencies in what was classified as a boundary spanning position, observed two features. ‘Intraorganisational’ (internal) contacts were noted to feature role ambiguity rather than role conflict. ‘Interorganisational’ (external) contacts were likely to “increase the more stressful aspects of the role,” possibly due to the less structured nature of external relations where less power and influence is available, thus creating more uncertainty. (p.607-8).

Miles (1976), in a study of research and development professionals, observed that, "Boundary relevance of the role occupied by the focal person was found to be the best predictor of role conflict, especially inter-sender role conflict." (p.177). Van Sell, Brief and Schuler (1981) maintain that the best documented correlates of role conflict are 'boundary spanning requirements' arising from such sources as role senders being located in separate social systems and by the sheer diversity of role senders. (p.56).

Strumpfer (1983) noted that company executives constantly work at the 'boundary spanning' interface with a range of other persons and organisations, such as suppliers, consumers, union officials, employer associations, which may provide greater or lesser strains.

HRPs, particularly generalists, find themselves constantly in boundary crossing situations as the nature of the job calls for company wide exposure and company wide policy implementation.

Research findings on role conflict have significance for this study. Research has identified various unfavourable personal and organisational outcomes of role conflict, such as job dissatisfaction and work related tension. These have been documented amongst a variety of occupations.

Rizzo, House and Lirtzman (1970) showed role conflict to be positively associated with stress and anxiety. Jackson and Schuler (1985) noted that there were positive correlations between role conflict and role ambiguity with tension, and other physiological reactions. This may be the main reason why research on conflict and ambiguity is categorised as 'stress' research. Jackson and Schuler (1985) found no theoretical basis for suggesting age was correlated with role conflict or role ambiguity. They also found that job tenure was unrelated to role conflict.

One study targeted HRPs. Giles (1987) investigated stress levels amongst Personnel Directors in 12 large British companies where she identified and classified stressors in their work environment. Giles' qualitative study analysed responses, inter alia, in terms of role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload. Research contact was made with Giles to confirm her methodology.

Research has shown links between **role conflict and burnout**. Pines (1982), in assessing whether it was possible to achieve a work environment without the possibility of burnout, noted from a number of research studies that the more conflicting the role demands imposed by the work environment, the more the burnout. Burnout is seen as the end result of ongoing work related stress. One of the studies which comprised American managers revealed a correlation between conflicting demands and burnout of $r = .31$ ($p < .05$) (p.209).

Cordes and Dougherty (1993) in their survey of relevant research on burnout reported

various degrees of relationship between the role stress factors of role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload. In a sample of teachers it was found by Schwab and Iwanicki (1982) that both role conflict and role ambiguity as variables accounted for a significant amount of variance in the emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation dimensions. Brookings, et al., (1985) found statistically significant relationships between role conflict and role ambiguity with the three burnout components among female human service professionals. Jackson, et al., (1986) found, among a sample of teachers, that role conflict was significantly associated with emotional exhaustion, but not with personal accomplishment or depersonalisation.

Leiter and Maslach (1988) found role conflict to be significantly related to emotional exhaustion among a sample of nurses. Jackson, et al., (1987) found role conflict to be related to emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation among public service lawyers. Fimian and Blanton (1987) found role conflict and role ambiguity related to total burnout among a sample of first year teachers and trainees. (p, 630 - 631).

Cordes and Dougherty (1993) observed from the studies being reported on, that the findings across these investigations show a “very consistent” relationship between role conflict and role ambiguity with burnout. They maintain that:

“Because role conflict and role ambiguity are not limited to human service professionals, the relationship between these role variables and burnout would be expected to be equivalent in corporate and industrial settings as well.” (p.631).

It is one of the purposes of this study to investigate the impact of the three factors of role stress as intermediate variables on the three components of burnout in a sample of HRPs. This specific focus is not known to have been undertaken previously. The above findings support the current study’s assumption of positive relationship findings.

Important for this study is the link between **role conflict and the human resource practitioner**. Ritzer and Trice (1969), in one of the few in depth studies of “personnel specialists”, utilised role theory as the conceptual and theoretical framework of their investigation and noted the conflictual and ambiguous nature of the function. In examining the personnel specialist’s response in role conflict situations of ‘dual loyalty’, they found that these personnel specialists “tended to act independently and professionally” when confronted with ‘dual loyalty’ decisions. It is noted that these observations were made at a time prior to the advent of current SHRM, which today may create different role pressures.

Watson (1977), in his qualitative study of “personnel managers”, observed that in dealing with retrenchments the personnel manager experienced the real effect of role conflict of being ‘the man in the middle’, where ‘he’ (sic) was caught “between the treatment of people as resources and the individual’s personal needs and difficulties.”

(p.103). Watson also identified value conflicts (person-role conflict) prevalent among personnel managers, which forced them “to operate in terms of the more calculative criteria associated with the utilisation of human resources - treating people as means rather than ends.” (p.107)

Giles (1987), in her qualitative analysis of stress in ‘personnel directors’, utilised the role stress factors of role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload in her assessment. In regard to role conflict she found, for instance, the mediating role required in industrial relations often leads to a major source of stress for personnel directors where, for example, the board were calling for a confrontational approach with the unions. (p.27).

5.3.2.3 Role Overload

Role overload is treated in this study as another kind of role strain.

Role overload is included by Kahn, et al., (1964) as an element in inter-sender role conflict. A number of subsequent researchers and commentators chose to treat role overload as a separate factor due its potential significance as an element in role stress in the work environment. (See introduction to this section). This study has followed this separation to highlight role overload as an identifiable factor in role stress and to test the relationship between role overload and work related stress among HRPs.

Mullins (1993) defines role overload.

“Role overload is when a person faces too many separate roles or too great a variety of expectations. The person is unable to meet satisfactorily all expectations and some must be neglected in order to satisfy others. This leads to a conflict of priority” (p.190).

The focal person cannot complete all the requirements of the job within the time constraints and the quality requirements. The environmental demands on the role exceed the capability of the person occupying it. The overload may take the form of a conflict of priorities.

Role overload may also be a conflict between the quantity of work required and the quality demanded.

French and Caplan (1972) explain the distinction:

“Quantitative overload lies on a continuum running from ‘too little to do’ to ‘too much to do’. The continuum for qualitative overload runs from ‘too easy work’ to ‘too difficult work’ (p.40)

Quantitative role overload may occur when the individual does not have enough time to

complete the required work. A HRP may have been given enhanced regional responsibility following a company merger and restructuring, but with no additional assistance. **Qualitative role overload**, may occur when the individual lacks the skills and knowledge to meet the demands of the job. For example, a HRP is required to lead company wage negotiations with the union and lacks the necessary conceptual, intellectual and communication skills. (Ross and Altmeier, 1997).

Research findings on role overload have significance for this study. Kahn (1980) reported that both quantitative and qualitative overload was related to job tension, eg., quantitative overload was found to be related to tension and low self-esteem among administrators; qualitative overload was found to be related to tension among professors and related to low self-esteem among administrators; qualitative overload was found to be related to low self-esteem among scientists who like professors, did not find their self-esteem threatened by mere quantity.

French, Caplan and Van Harrison (1982), in their study of 23 occupations, found that “qualitative demands of the job represent one of the strongest sets of independent predictors of psychological strain.” (p.106). They found, also, that quantitative aspects of the work were an important source of stress.

Research has shown links between **role overload and burnout**. Pines (1982), commenting on research studies, noted that role overload was repeatedly found to correlate positively with burnout. “The more overload in the work environment (both quantitative and qualitative), the more likely were individuals to burnout.” (p.195). eg., in a sample of 725 human service professionals, the correlation was $r = .35$ ($p < .05$).

Maslach and Jackson’s (1984) original concept of burnout was based on a belief that it resulted partially from qualitative and quantitative work overload.. Cordes and Dougherty (1993) observed from their review that empirical investigations focussed mainly on the effects of quantitative overload on burnout scores which showed consistent positive findings. They noted that the failure to deliver required results was associated with negative feelings of personal accomplishment.

Important for this study is the link between **role overload and the human resource practitioner**. Giles (1987) found that work overload figured high on the list of stressors among Personnel Directors.

5.3.2.4 Role Underload

Some studies include role underload as a role stress factor. Where job expectations fall short of the focal person’s own perception of his/her role or the role is perceived as not demanding enough, a sense of strain is experienced, potentially leading to a form of role stress.. This element was not included in the study as it was believed that there would be minimal significance for the study on the basis of the known role functioning of HRPs.

5.4 Organisational Stress Model

Figure 5.2 (p.142) - Organisational Stress Model- provides a summary of the main elements of organisational stress relevant to the research undertaken in this study. The model does not attempt to provide a comprehensive review of organisational stress, but restricts the diagrammatic representation to the narrower parameters established for this research project. Broader models can be found in Cooper and Marshall (1978, p. 83), Moerdyk (1983, p.20), Tozi, Rizzo and Carroll (1994, p. 275), Newton (1996, p. 88).

The concept of the study's organisational stress model is constructed on a process format. The inputs are the work-related elements, perceived as sources of stress, including certain testable biographical features. The HRPs are the centre in which the perceived stress is processed. The outcomes are the stress symptoms which are registered at the end of the process.

The diagrammatic presentation has been placed at the end of the review in this chapter for three reasons. First, as a means of drawing attention to essential elements in organisational stress that affect the HRP. Second, to present a dynamic process model where inputs and outputs are shown as being processed through the person of the HRP. Third, the process model draws together relevant features of organisational stress referred to in this section.

There are three phases in this process model.(Figure 5.2)

The first phase reflects the **input variables** seen as potential sources of work-related stress and identifies four major sets utilised in the study. The first, deals with role stressors in organisations and reflects the four factors taken into account when considering sources of role stress, viz., role ambiguity, role conflict, role overload and role underload. . The second, acknowledges the unique part organisational climate plays in the form of contemporary strategic HRM and management style, and, in South Africa, the significance of the requirement for 'transformation' within organisations and its impact on the function of HRPs . The third, allows for the assessment of the influence of career orientation (an independent variable) in the overall model. Lastly, biographical features of participants is included to gauge whether factors , such as age, service, gender and ethnic origin of HRPs, have an influence as a contributor to stress.

In the second phase, the HRP, as the focus of the study, provides the **person-related, processing** element in this stress-process model. The individual is conceived as processing the stress inputs in two suggested ways. The first, is via the HRP's own perceptions which determine responses to a perceived stressor. For example, stress perception is influenced by how much of a threat a perceived stressor is to the individual. What is very threatening to one person, may not be as much of a threat to another. This feature is not investigated in this study, but is mentioned in order to provide a more holistic organisational stress model. **Personal response** to the perception of stress

within the work environment is conditioned by numerous elements within individuals. Some individuals have higher interactive ability. Certain researchers have referred to this as the 'person-environment fit'. This school of thinking understands that stress is not a characteristic of either the environment or the individual, but is the outcome of the interaction between the two. The reaction may also be determined by the personality make up of the person in terms of the so-called Type A or Type B personality. Further, some individuals have greater tolerance of ambiguity. For HRP's who are called upon to be 'specialists in ambiguity', their ability to live with ambivalence and contradictions in the work situation is an important part of their coping skills. In addition, the personal value systems of HRP's may add to their dilemmas, resulting in raised stress levels arising from the pressure on their internal, non-negotiable values..

The third phase are the **outcomes**. The processing of the source inputs of stress have outcomes based on the ability of the person to process the inputs and the intensity of the pressures. These outcomes may be observed in physiological, psychological and behavioural stress symptoms. The study has focussed on measurable psychological outcomes in terms of identifiable burnout symptoms of emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and the impact of a lowered sense of personal accomplishment. The physiological and behavioural outcomes have been included as examples of other outcomes to provide a more holistic view of the fact of other outcomes but which are not investigated in this study.

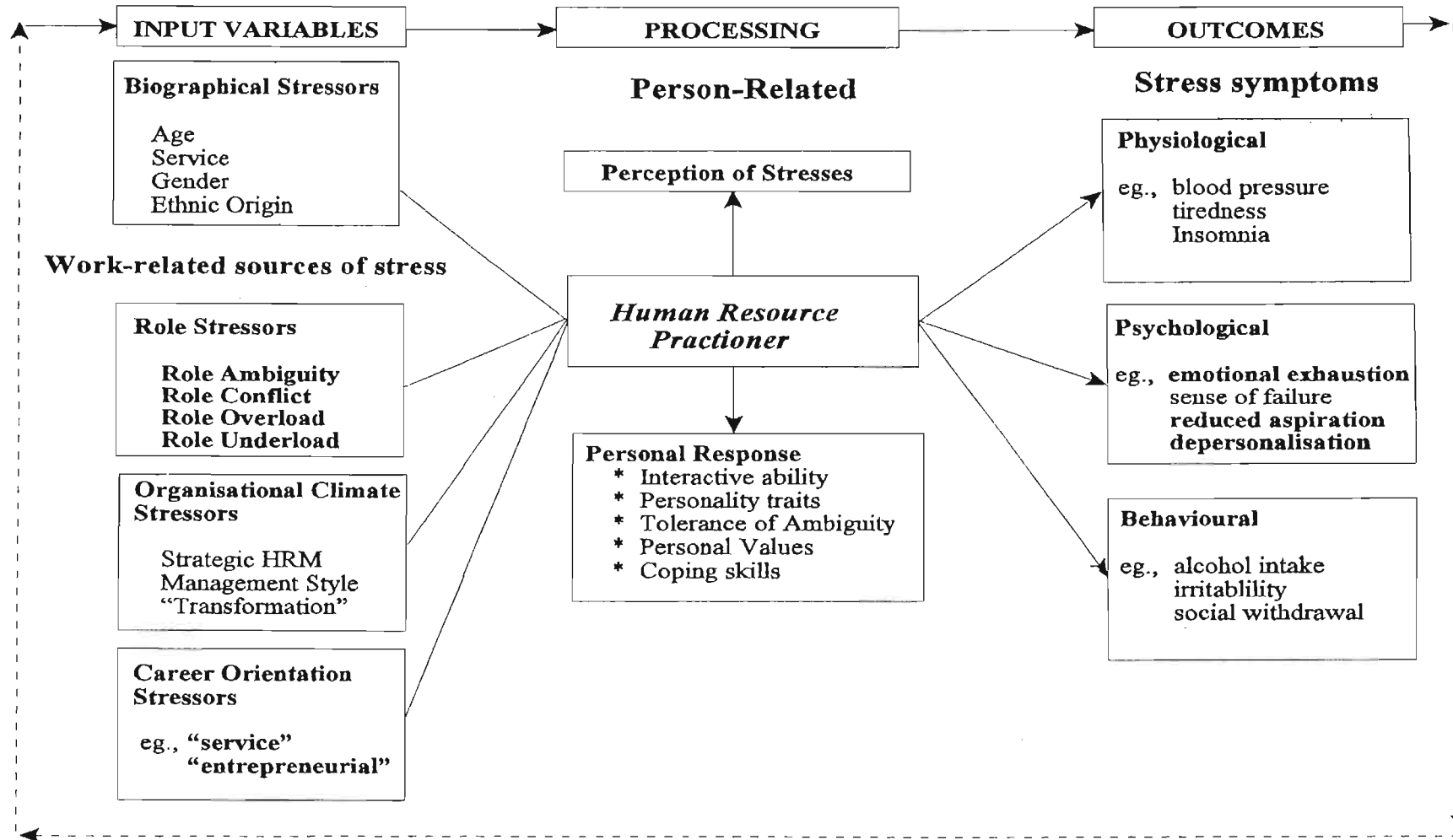
A feature of this process model is its ongoing dynamic. Outcomes feed back into 'inputs'. This feedback either, pushes the person further down the curve and thus worsening the stress level or, if the encounter with stressors is adequately or creatively handled, to provide a personal response that allows the individual to maintain a productive working life.

A relationship between the **Organisational Stress Model** (Figure 5.2, p.142) and the **Theoretical Model** (Figure 6.1, p.149) may be observed by superimposing the organisational stress model over the theoretical model of the study (Figure 6.1). The two models (Figures 5.2 and 6.1) may then be seen to have certain features in common.

The locus of the study is the HRP who is central to both models. The 'input variables' in the stress model are identified with the role stress factors of the 'intermediate variable' of the theoretical model. The 'organisational climate stressors' may be observed to relate to the total context out of which HRP's practice their profession, mostly notably the current perception of strategic HRM and its application in contemporary South Africa. The biographical stressors are a common feature. The career orientation stressors are the same as the 'independent variable' categories. The 'outcomes' of the stress process in regard to the psychological symptoms are identified with the burnout sub-scales of the 'dependent' variable.

Figure 5.2

Organisational Stress Model



5.5 Conclusion

This review has attempted to describe the nature of organisational stress and work-related stress issues. It provides the necessary context for an investigation into the effect of role stress and burnout on HRPs working within the environment of strategic HRM in contemporary South Africa.

CHAPTER SIX

6: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the research methodology applied in this study. For convenience it is divided into two divisions. The first part presents the research problem, the hypotheses, research design, together with a theoretical model of the research project and the research subjects. The second part presents the research theory, reviewing the quantitative and qualitative approaches employed, together with an explanation of the use of a triangulation methodology

6.1 RESEARCH PROBLEM AND RESEARCH DESIGN

6.1.1 THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

6.1.1.1 The Nature of the Problem

Most professions today are confronted with members maintaining they are 'taking strain' and experiencing work related stress. Human resource practitioners (HRPs) are affected to a greater or lesser degree, by the same phenomenon, although there may be those who would prefer not to admit to "being stressed". Considerable research has been undertaken into causes and ways to remedy this pervasive condition of current work life and modern existence. This research seeks to identify sources of stress among HRPs within certain theoretical parameters.

There is a paucity of research into this specific area and little is written on the subject of a category of professionals who are required to play an important part in the transformation of organisations within the South African context.

The study is structured to test links between the career orientation of HRPs and work related stress in the form of role stress and burnout. Work stress occurs within a complex context of inter-related factors and forces. This research seeks to identify some of these influences by attempting to establish whether there is a significant relationship between the career orientation of HRPs and the level of role stress and burnout experienced from a sample of them.

6.1.1.2 The Context of the Problem

The review has shown that for HRPs the experience of work related stress is part of a complex context within which the HRP fulfils his/her professional role. In practice there exists an interactive process between the individual as a person and the total environment within which that person operates. The process is iterative and dynamic

and allows for the person to adapt to changing conditions.

HRPs operate within such a work context and their function is influenced by a range of pressures which have been addressed in the review. Four are referred to below.

- (i) Two addressed the inherent ambiguity of HRM which is aggravated by the more current interpretation of strategic HRM . The fundamental ambiguity for the HRP is that of meeting, on the one hand, the needs/demands of the individual employee, and on the other, the needs/demands of the organisation driven by its requirement to deliver profits or services, by which the organisation's success is determined. This inherent ambiguity can create unique problems for HRPs in their work . The study identifies the dilemmas created for the professional HRP who operates from within the concept of SHRM and attempts to isolate those elements in SHRM which contribute to the level of role stress and burnout within HRPs.
- (ii) Chapter Three addressed the historical developments in HRM, notably in the South African context. It was noted that in the current period requirements are placed on HRPs to be in the forefront of meeting demands for the rapid 'transformation' of their organisations into ones which would conform to the image of the 'new South Africa'.
- (iii) Chapter Four revealed that individual HRPs bring to their job their own commitment to their career orientation and that this may have implications for the person concerned. The study attempts to assess the impact of this commitment on role stress and burnout among HRPs.
- (iv) The three influences note above impact on the role of the HRP and aggravate role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload, thereby increasing role stress and ultimately burnout. Chapter Five showed that roles can create varying degrees of role stress and that HRPs are no exception . For example, the HRP's own values and career orientation may add to the role stress experienced. They need to be seen to be persons of integrity and thus credible in their interactions with people in their own organisations.

The HRP who works in this complex environment experiences, to a greater or lesser degree, role stress and burnout.

6.1.2 THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Given the context described in Sections 6.1.1.1 and 6.1.1.2, hypotheses were formulated for testing to investigate the problem.

6.1.2.1 Background to the Research Hypotheses

The historical background of HRM and the traditional role of the HRP creates an expectation that the function ought, above all else, provide a 'caring service' for employees. (Chapter Three). Traditionally, there was the anticipation that the 'good' HRP was there for the benefit of employees to assist them when they needed help, and to act to improve their working lives. The more current, and dominant expectation, is that the 'effective' HRP is there in the first place, to ensure the success of the organisation, even if it is at the cost of employees. These two idealised and opposing perceptions form part of the model developed to further this research. The two contrasting perceptions illustrate a significant dilemma for HRPs in their interpretation of their professional role.

HRPs who may be more inclined to the traditional 'caring/ helping' role may arguably be more comfortable with earlier concepts of HRM. It is posited for this research that such HRPs would most likely find themselves being identified as 'service/dedication to a cause' orientated after completing the Career Orientation Inventory .

On the other hand, those HRPs who accept the contemporary role required of them by SHRM, may identify with a career orientation associated more with 'general management competency'.

The research seeks, within the parameters of the study, to identify sources of work-related stress amongst HRPs. The purpose is to establish whether there is a relationship between the career orientation of HRPs and role stress and burnout. The objective is to explore these relationships, using well tested research instruments.

Due to the nature of contemporary SHRM, with its harsher business, bottom line orientation, it is hypothesized that those who are more 'service/caring' orientated will suffer greater role stress and burnout. This hypothesis is based on the view that 'service' orientated HRPs will undergo greater internal conflict due to the frustration of their more natural instincts to be caring towards employees, humanitarian in their orientation and 'service' directed. This interpretation suggests that they will experience greater role conflict and role ambiguity and higher possibilities for burnout.

Alternatively, those who are more 'general management' orientated, that is, who identify more readily with the demands of the tougher side of the business, will be more at ease with the business environment and be less stressed about non-delivery on the more human, softer side of the operation. Such HRPs, it is posited, will suffer less role conflict and role ambiguity which will lower the possibility for burnout

In addition, it is posited that those HRPs who have career orientations which rank "service" and "general management" either first or second may be expected to encounter higher levels of roles stress and burnout. Such higher levels of work-related stress being attributable to the greater ambivalence which these HRPs would experience in grappling

with the tension created by the presence in their working lives of two contending orientations. This tension is perceived to arise from the nature and requirements of Human Resource Management.

6.1.2.2 The Hypotheses

In light of the above propositions, four hypotheses were formulated :

Hypothesis One:

The more “service” orientated the human resource practitioner (HRP) in the context of the current practice of strategic human resource management (SHRM) in contemporary South Africa, the greater the level of role stress.

Hypothesis Two:

The more “general management” orientated the human resource practitioner (HRP) in the context of the current practice of strategic human resource management (SHRM) in contemporary South Africa, the lower the level of role stress.

Hypothesis Three:

HRPs with “general management” and “service” orientations ranked either first or second may be expected to encounter higher levels of role stress.

Hypothesis Four:

The greater the level of role stress, the greater the possibility of burnout; and the lower the level of role stress, the lower the level of burnout.

6.1.2.3 The Purpose of the Hypotheses

The purpose of the hypotheses was:

- (i) to establish how strong was the existence of the traditional “service” orientation among HRPs within the context of current SHRM in South Africa;
- (ii) to establish to what degree this “service” orientation impacted on the level of role stress and burnout experienced;
- (iii) to establish whether those HRPs who were more “general management” orientated experienced lower levels of role stress and burnout within the context of current SHRM in South Africa;.

- (iv) to establish whether HRPs with both “general management” and “service” as their foremost career orientations experienced higher levels of role stress and burnout;
- (v) to establish whether other career orientations amongst HRPs had significant influence on their level of role stress and burnout within the same context, and if so for what reason/s.

6.1.3 THE RESEARCH DESIGN

In keeping with the nature of the perceived problem as outlined above, and the proposed research hypotheses, a research plan was designed to meet its specific requirements. The variables in the study were compiled into a theoretical model which is represented in diagrammatic form in Figure 6.1.(p.149). An explanation of the model is provided in Section 6. 2.1.

This section explains:

- * the variables involved
- * the measuring instruments selected to collect the necessary data
- * the type of data to be collected
- * the statistical analytic methods to be applied
- * the selection of the research sample
- * the quantitative and qualitative methodologies applied in the study
- * the triangulation methodology applied to enhance the findings.

An introduction to the various variables involved in the study is given in this section in order to provide an integrated explanation of the broad framework of the study. Detailed explanation of the variables is provided in other relevant sections of the presentation.

6.1.3.1 The Classification of the Study Variables

The study endeavours to establish linkages between the career orientations of HRPs, the role stress outcomes of their role function, and the resultant level of burnout experienced by these HRPs. To achieve this objective, a theoretical model (Figure 6. 1, p.149) was designed to provide for career orientation (as the independent variable) acting on burnout (the dependent variable) through the intermediary of role stress (the intermediate variable).

The intermediate variable model follows Page and Meyer (2000, p.66 - 67) and is depicted diagrammatically in Figure 6. 2.(p.150).

Figure 6.1

Theoretical Model

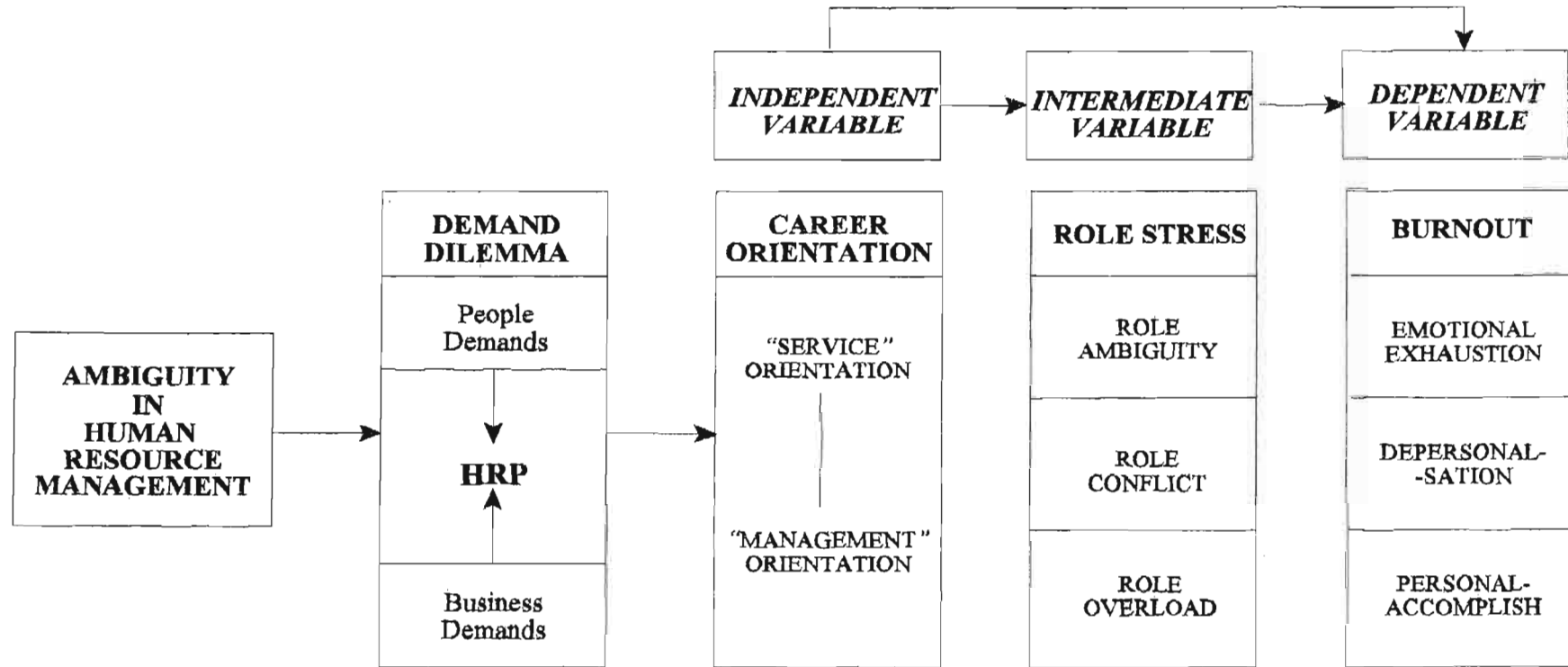
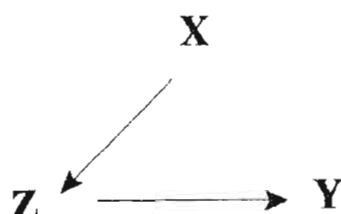


Figure 6.2

Diagrammatic Representation of Intermediate Variable Model

X is the independent variable (career orientation) and Y is the dependent variable (burnout), with Z being the **intervening** variable. Page and Meyer (2000) understand intervening variables to perform an “intermediary and mediating” function in that they provide a causal link between X and Y. They define an intervening variable as one which “transmits the effect of another variable. Put another way, variable X may have no direct effect on variable Y by itself, unless variable Z intervenes in the X - Y relation to produce an effect.” (P.66).

This approach finds support with Schwab (1999, p.79) who perceives intervening or mediating variables as coming between an independent and a dependent variable in a causal chain. “If a mediator is present, then some or all the influence of the independent variable operates indirectly on the dependent variable through the mediator.” (P.79). Schwab asserts that “mediator variables are often used to help explain why an independent variable influences a dependent variable”. He further maintains that such variables are chosen by researchers on the grounds of the “understanding they seek.” (p.79) and that the construct may be used by researchers in a manner which fully or partially mediates between the two main variables. This concept of an intervening variable finds support in Cooper and Schindler (1998, p.47) and Cavana, Delahaye and Sekaharan (2001, p 88 - 90).

The study utilises this concept of an “intermediate” variable to provide the intervening or mediating function in the study model. The direct link between career orientation (X) and burnout (Y) can not be assumed, as career orientation is an inner conviction about one’s professional career, in this instance, of HRPs. Burnout is perceived as the outcome of professional activity of human service providers. Role stress (Z) is the outcome of the role activity of HRPs fulfilling the professional requirements of HRM. This role activity generates greater or lesser levels of role stress which in turn has an outcome in creating greater or lesser levels of burnout among HRPs.

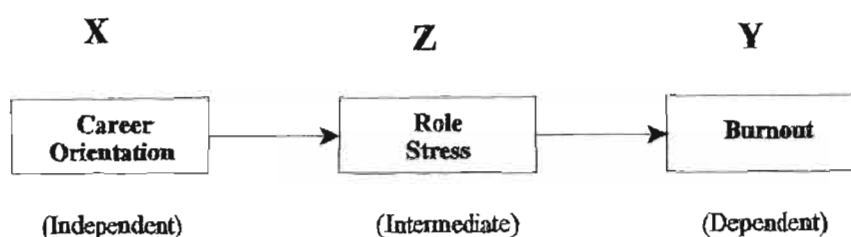
The study posits the view that career orientation requires the intermediary function of role stress to establish to what degree the career orientation of HRPs influences the level of burnout.

The simplified model (Figure 6.3), depicts the function of the variables in the study's theoretical model. (Figure 6.1, p.149).

The study model implies that some or all of the influence of the independent variable operates on the dependent variable through the intervening or mediating factor of the intermediate variable.

Figure 6.3

Diagrammatic Representation of Study Variable Model



6.1.3.2 Strategic Human Resource Management

Although not a variable, the current concept of strategic human resource management (SHRM) creates the context and the paradigm within which professional HRPs operate. This environment impacts significantly on the decisions, experiences and emotions of HRPs, creating the climate within which role stress and burnout may result.

The nature of SHRM and its inherent ambiguities impact on the value systems of HRPs. As noted in the statement of the Research Problem (Section 6.1.1), the ambiguities come into focus with the issue of the perceived inherent tension between employee needs/demands and organisational needs/demands. The research measuring instruments explained in this chapter were selected to take this need - demand setting into account.

Issues involving ambiguities in the practice of SHRM are incorporated in the qualitative interviews, thereby providing opportunity to gather perceptions and experiences of ambiguity presented by practising HRPs. The qualitative methodology applied in this research is presented in Section 6.2.2.

6.1.3.3 Career Orientation

The study sets out to establish to what extent career orientation influences the level of

role stress and burnout in HRPs. The best available and ready made instrument was Schein's Career Orientation Inventory (1993). Chapter Four provides an outline of this method of establishing career orientation and an explanation of its theory and practice. The Career Orientation Inventory and related documents are found in Appendices A, B, and C.

Career orientation is formulated as the independent variable in the study.

The qualitative interviews provide an opportunity for respondents to confirm or question their identified career anchor, ie., their 'career orientation' for the purposes of this study, and for them to articulate the relevance of that career anchor in relation to their work as HRP. The qualitative questionnaire may be found as Appendix D.

Statistical tests would establish whether the biographics of age, gender, ethnic origin and length of work experience have an influence on the identified career orientation..

6.1.3.4 Role Stress

A recurring dilemma for HRPs within the context of the ambiguities in SHRM is the role the HRP is required to play in the organisation and his/her reaction to that prescribed role. Role stress arising from tensions related to the fulfilling of a role in an organisation needs to be explored and a level of role stress established.. To achieve this it was decided to utilise the three traditional factors of role stress, viz., role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload, to assess the level of role stress. The Rizzo, House and Lirtzman (1970) questionnaire was adapted for this purpose.

Section: 7.1.2 outlines the adapted Role Stress instrument and discusses its theory and application. The questionnaire may be found as Appendix E.

Role stress is introduced as an intermediate variable to assist in understanding the complex relationship between career orientation and burnout within the context of strategic HRM . The reason for this introduction is based on the perception that the explanation of the relationship between career orientation and burnout is not conceivable on a simple straight line, one on one basis. The study calls for an additional dimension or mediating variable to assist in the exploration of as complex a condition as work stress. Role stress has been formulated as an intermediate variable in the relationship between career orientation and burnout.

The introduction of an intermediate variable follows Schwab (1999). Schwab recognises the importance of what he refers to as a 'mediator or intervening variable' which comes between "an independent and a dependent variable in a causal chain". This mediating variable for Schwab plays a recognisable and measurable role as "some or all the influence of the independent variable operates indirectly on the dependent variable through the mediator". (p.79). Cooper and Schindler (1998) support the introduction of

an intervening variable but believe that it assists where the observed phenomenon cannot be seen or measured. (p.47).

The Role Stress measure is based on a Likert type scale producing ordinal data. Role stress and its three factors are conceptualised as a continuous variable ranging from low to high.

The qualitative interview provides opportunity for the practising HRP to identify specific issues arising from the three Role Stress factors of role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload. The interview questions are structured to provide both supplementary and complementary perceptions to some of the items in the quantitative Role Stress questionnaire. The qualitative questionnaire may be found as Appendix F.

Statistical tests will establish whether the demographics of age, gender, ethnic origin and length of work experience have an influence on the level of role stress.

6.1.3.5 Burnout

Work related stress is recognised as a common phenomenon in current work environments. An aim of the study was to distinguish between role stress, as one form of work related stress, and burnout as the ultimate expression of the damaging effect of stress. The study was designed to relate these expressions of stress within the context of SHRM. To achieve this it was decided to use the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) (1981) as an appropriate measuring instrument. A detailed explanation of the nature of burnout, the MBI as a means of establishing the level of burnout, reasons for its selection, relevance to HRPs and its theory and application, are provided in Section: 7.1.3. The questionnaire may be found as Appendix G.

Burnout is formulated as a dependent variable.

Burnout is specifically defined in Section 5.1.4. For the purposes of this study, burnout is conceived as an expression of work-related stress with special conceptual connotations defining it as burnout.

The burnout measure follows a Likert type scale producing ordinal type data. Burnout is conceptualised as a continuous variable, ranging from low to moderate to high of experienced levels of feeling. It is not viewed as a dichotomous variable, which is either present or absent. Specific features of the sub-scales are dealt within the actual statistical analysis.

The qualitative interviews are designed to obtain the perceptions of HRPs based on their experience of work related stress on issues covered by the study and which would complement and supplement the quantitative questionnaire. The concept of burnout would not be introduced by the researcher in the interview situation because of its

potential to skew responses due to possible negative perceptions related to 'burnout' in the minds of some respondents. . The qualitative questionnaire refers to stress only in general terms and may be found as Appendix H.

Statistical tests would determine whether the demographics of age, gender, ethnic origin and length of work experience contribute to the level of burnout.

6.1.3.6 The Relationship between Career Orientation and Role Stress

The research is directed, *inter alia*, at determining the potential relationships between the eight career orientation categories (the independent variables), and the three role stress factors (the intermediate variables) and to identify what level of role stress is generated by a pre-determined career orientation. To achieve this, a series of correlational tests would be run between the variables to ascertain levels of statistical significance. The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation and regression analyses would be applied. A conventional 5 % level of probability would be considered acceptable.

This process is described in Section 6. 2

The qualitative data collected in the interviews will be analysed on the basis of the factors that had been used in drafting the questions. These questions were based on seeking experiences and perceptions of HRPs from their work context where links between career orientation and role stress could be identified. The responses would be analysed thematically to provide a summary of the perceptions and experiences of the respondents. These findings would then be assessed to ascertain whether the data collected provided complementary or supplementary support for the quantitative findings. In this way a more holistic understanding of the relationship between career orientation and role stress amongst HRPs may be measured..

6.1.3.7 The Relationship Between Career Orientation and Burnout

The research seeks to determine the potential relationship between the eight separate career orientation categories (as the independent variables), and the six burnout sub-scales (as the ultimate dependent variables). To achieve this, the same statistical process is followed as outlined in Section: 6.1.3.6.

The qualitative data collected in the relevant part of the interview related to career orientation and burnout would be analysed in the same manner as described in Section 6.1.3.6.

6.1.3.8 The Relationship between Role Stress and Burnout

The research seeks to determine the relationship between Role Stress and its three factors (the intermediate variables) and the six burnout sub-scales (the dependent variables). To

achieve this, the same statistical process was to be followed as outlined in Section: 6.1.3.6.

The qualitative data collected in the relevant parts of the interview related to role stress and burnout would be analysed in the same manner as in Section: 6.1.3.6.

6.1.3.9 The Relationship of Biographical Items and the Main Variables

Statistical testing would establish whether the biographical variables of age, gender, ethnic origin and length of work experience influence the degree of burnout when linked to either the eight career orientation categories and the three role stress factors.

6.1.4 THE RESEARCH SUBJECTS

The selection of research subjects is divided into two sections. The first section explains the process of selection of the survey sample for the quantitative study. The second builds on the formula developed in the first section and details the selection of the interviewees for the qualitative study.

6.1.4.1 Quantitative Methodology: The Selection of the Survey Sample

The research selected to focus on a defined level of Human Resource Practitioners in the geographical area covered by the membership boundaries of the KwaZulu Natal Coastal Branch of the Institute of People (previously Personnel) Management (IPM). It was believed such sample would provide a balanced representation of HRPs in South Africa.

The issues of selecting the sampling frame and achieving an adequately representative sample are presented in this section. The process of determining the sampling frame required a series of stages to be completed to achieve acceptable parameters from which to proceed. These stages are described below. The selection process is influenced by the study definition of a HRP. Table 6. 1 (p.156) depicts the process of determining the final sampling frame. The numbers relate to the years 2000 -2001, depending on the available source.

Permission was obtained to access the membership list of the **KwaZulu Natal Coastal Branch of the IPM**. It was believed that the membership list represented a fair cross section of the target population of HRPs in South Africa.

Although not a comprehensive list of HRPs in the region, it was found to provide a sufficiently large number of practising HRPs who fitted the defined level of HRP required for the purposes of the study. (After many years of experience on the IPM Branch Committee, the researcher was aware that not all HRPs in the region were members of the IPM). It was also known that historically there had been resistance on the part of

Table 6.1

Determining the Sampling Frame

National (HSRC)	36 933 (estimate-all HRP's)
National (IPM)	6 304 (all members)
Regional (IPM-KZN)	574
Qualifying	253
Extended	297
Final Sample	119

some black HRPs to joining the IPM and that the use of the list may have thus been skewed against black representivity. It was believed the list provided a basis from which to obtain an adequate sample response of reasonable representivity.

Access to the IPM list was obtained by special permission from the IPM National Office in light of the researcher's previous broader research interests into the history of the IPM and the acceptance of the validity of the current research project.

No other more comprehensive list of HRPs in South Africa is known to exist. The South African Board of Personnel Practice (SABPP) lists less than 3000 names of registered practitioners in South Africa and is exclusive, with strict qualification and registration requirements applying, resulting in a very much more restricted list of names. The IPM list thus became the essential starting point for this research. It was also believed that with the researcher's previous association with the IPM, a better mail response would be achieved than otherwise would have occurred. The same sentiment applied to responses for personal interviews with HRPs.

The defined geographical boundaries for the IPM branch extend from the Tugela River in the north in the region of Mandini, to the Mtamvuna River in the south in the region of Port Edward. In the west, the border is Cato Ridge.

In studying the IPM Coastal Branch membership list, a number of anomalies emerged which needed to be eliminated to comply with the study's definition of a human resource practitioner (HRP). (See "Definitions and Usage" for definition and usage of a human resource practitioner in this study). The application of this definition of a HRP to the

IPM membership list necessitated the deletion of numerous names from the list.

Stage 1: Removal of Anomalies

Anomalies were removed in two phases. The first phase deleted those:

- * on maternity leave
- * working outside the defined geographical boundaries
- * who had left the given address (usually the company address) and whose new address could not be traced
- * where the name of the employing company was not given
- * where the company functionary was listed as the member, eg., "the HR Manager", without the actual name of the person being provided.

The second phase dealt with the application of the definition of a 'human resource practitioner' to the listed member. This interpretation required that the potential respondent:

- (i) should be practising within an organization, eg., not be a consultant from an outside organisation where work dynamics and relationships are very different to that of the corporate HRP
- (ii) should be at a level of responsibility which required the application of a sophisticated knowledge of HRM and a level of competence which would normally only be attained after some years of practising as an HRP
- (iii) should have as their full-time function within the organisation the application of human resource management theory and practice.

Those excluded from the list who did not qualify within this interpretation were:

- (i) Consultants: identified as independents who provide consultancy services to organisations from outside the organisation. Members who were described as "internal" consultants were not automatically excluded. Some organisations apply this title to those who may only be working at what was traditionally referred to as a junior HR (Personnel) Officer level. These by definition were excluded
- (ii) Educationalists: lecturers, academic staff and members of state education departments not involved in the actual implementation of HRM as their main function
- (iii) Managers and administrators: a variety of managers and administrators are IPM members but whose chief function was not the specialist application of HRM practice
- (iv) Lower level functionaries: Secretaries, HR clerks and a variety of lower level assistants were perceived not to be operating at a sufficient level of HRM

sophistication to warrant inclusion.

Stage 2: Comparison of resulting “Qualifying Sampling Frame (QSF) with starting Regional Sampling Frame (RSF)

The outcome of this process of exclusion resulted in an original regional list of 574 being reduced to a list of 253 qualifying as HRPs who conformed to the definition of a HRP as required by the study. The two lists are referred to as Regional Sampling Frame (RSF) and the Qualifying Sampling Frame (QSF) respectively.

Table 6. 2 outlines the effect of the reduction by comparing the impact on gender and ethnic origin.

Table 6. 2

Comparison of Ethnic Origin and Gender in the Qualifying Sampling Frame (QSF) and Regional Sampling Frame (RSF)

	Qualifying Sampling Frame		Regional Sampling Frame	
	Number	% of total	Number	% of total
Asian Male	11	4.3%	26	4.5%
Asian Female	10	4.0%	30	5.2%
Black Male	44	17.4%	78	13.6%
Black Female	8	3.2%	42	7.3%
Coloured Male	1	0.4%	3	0.5%
Coloured Female	1	0.4%	2	0.3%
White Male	112	44.3%	214	37.3%
White Female	66	26.0%	179	31.3%
Total	253	100.0%	574	100.0%

From Table 6.2 it may be observed that the process of exclusion did not significantly alter the ethnic group percentages. However, black male representation increased (13.6 % to 17.4 %) at the cost of black female reduction (7.3 % to 3.2 %). Similarly, White male percentage increased (37.3 % to 44.3 %) at the cost of white females (31.3 % to 26.0 %).

The increase of black male over black female was 27.9 %, whereas the increase of white male over white female was 18.8 %. The percentage reduction for both black and white females may be accounted for by the more junior functions being occupied more by females than by males. The decrease for black females of 56.2 %, albeit on a smaller

base, may be accounted for by the greater number of black females in the lower level positions. The reduction for white females was 16.9 %, which suggests that the white female may have a slight advantage, position wise, over black females.

Stage 3: Analysis of Qualifying Sampling Frame

Three analyses of the 253 qualifiers in the Qualifying Sampling Frame (QSF) revealed the following:

(i) By Organisational Classification

The number of organisations by industry/business is shown in Table 6. 3

Table 6. 3

Organisation Classification in the Qualifying Sampling Frame (QSF)

Classification	Number of Organisations
Manufacturing	53
Retail	21
Other	18
Financial	13
Hotel/Entertainment	8
Parastatal	6
Local Government/State	5
Agriculture	4
TOTAL	128

On average there were nearly two representatives per organisation. The figure may be misleading as the large organisations included their subsidiaries, branches or subdivisions, eg, a sugar industry or a large multi-national. However, the purpose of the analysis was to ensure a diversity of business operation. The dominance of manufacturing industry is noted as realistic. The proportional representation by industry is observed to be a fairly accurate reflection of industry and business in the area. An adequate representative spread of industry was regarded as important for balance of HRM interpretation within organisations. It was suspected that certain industries tended to adopt 'tougher' approaches on the application of their HRM policies, for example, more hard nosed attitudes on industrial relations issues. Such approaches impact on

how the HRP interprets his or her role within that particular company. The spread of organisations was perceived as an acceptable balance.

(ii) By Ethnic Origin, Gender and Function

The ethnic origin, gender and function classification of HRPs with generalist/specialist identification within the Qualifying Sampling Frame (QSF) as compared with the Regional Sampling Frame (RSF) is shown in Table 6. 4, (p.161)

Table 6. 4 indicates a 19 % level (48) of specialist function within the Qualifying Sampling Frame (QSF) (253), which is estimated to be about average for the HRP function. The table reveals a removal of 55.9 % of names from the Regional Sampling Frame (RSF) (574) to the Qualifying Sampling Frame (QSF) (253). Black males increased their level of representivity in the QSF by 3.8 %, whereas black females reduced their representivity by 4.1 %. White males increased their representivity the most with a 6.9 % increase, whereas white females had their level of representivity decreased by 5.1 %. Females are observed to be most affected by the study sampling criteria. The reductions are explicable on the grounds that males occupy the more senior positions and that females generally are observed to hold lower graded jobs, with the whites females least affected and black females the most influenced by this historical overhang. A similar influence leads to more white male moving into the QSF with the criteria reflecting more white males still holding the more senior HR positions.

(iii) By Job Title

The job title classification is shown in Table 6. 5 (p.162). The common titles in Table 6. 5 incorporate other lesser used titles, but with broadly similar functions at a similar level in an organisation. These more common titles have been selected, to reduce a diverse number of titles found in the membership list, to a manageable number for analytic purposes. For example, "Executive" has been classified as "Director", "Personnel" as "HR". The term "Consultant" in the generalist category, where the level was appropriate, has been included with the "Officer" level.

The depiction in Table 6. 5 indicates that 186 (73.5 %) of the 253 HRPs are classified as management or higher in the Qualifying Sampling Frame (QSF). Subsequently, a request in the biographical section of the survey questionnaire did not produce sufficient information to classify respondents by grade. The study can be seen to be heavily weighted in favour of those classified as "management".

Table 6.4

Comparison of Ethnic Origin, Gender and Function Classification within the Qualifying Sampling Frame (QSF) and Totals Comparisons with Regional Sampling Frame (RSF)

Qualifying Sampling Frame					Regional S F	
	Generalist	Specialist	Total	% QSF	Total	% RSF
Asian Male	9	2	11	4.3%	26	4.5%
Asian Female	8	2	10	4.0%	30	5.3%
Black Male	33	11	44	17.4%	78	13.6%
Black Female	4	4	8	3.2%	42	7.3%
Coloured Male	1	-	1	0.4%	3	0.5%
Coloured Female	1	-	1	0.4%	2	0.3%
White Male	92	20	112	44.3%	214	37.3%
White Female	57	9	66	26.0%	179	31.2%
TOTAL	205	48	253	100.0%	574	100.0%

Key:

"Generalist" is defined as those responsible for or providing a broad spread of HRM services.

"Specialist" in this categorisation includes industrial relations, training and development and specialist administrative functions.

"Asian": the term Asian is used in the national IPM figures by the organisation. For this study, based as it is in Durban, the more usual term "Indian" is used in classification and discussion. However, the term Asian as a national categorisation is used in the study.

The Qualifying Sampling Frame as outlined above had **two shortcomings** in achieving a sufficiently representative sample.

First, a potential sample survey list of 253 was considered to be too small for a mailed survey. It was estimated that a postal response of 30 % would be a reasonable expectation. This would provide 75 responses which would be inadequate for the purposes of the study. On the basis of the need for a sample of at least 100 usable responses, additional qualifying potential respondents were required for the qualifying sample frame to be considered adequate

Second, the list provided a relatively low percentage of black HRPs. In terms of affirmative action and the need to report adequately on black perspectives,

Table 6.5

Classification of Job Titles in Qualifying Sampling Frame (QSF)

Generalist		Specialist	
HR Director	19	Training & Dev Man	20
HR Manager	108	HR Admin Manager	5
Region/Div HR Man	28	IR Manager	6
Senior HR Officer	14	Snr Training Officer	3
HR Officer	36	Training Officer	8
		Training Consultant	4
		IR Officer	2
TOTAL	205	TOTAL	48
QSF TOTAL 253			

consideration was given to looking specifically for additional potential black respondents to create an improved balance. It was decided not to attempt to rectify this perceived imbalance artificially as such action may have skewed the reality of the sample and artificially influenced the study. The percentage of black to white HRPs probably reflected the actual situation in the corporate business environment at the time.

Stage 4: Extension of Qualifying Sampling Frame QSF: Introduction of a Judgement Sample for Increasing the Qualifying Sampling Frame

To obtain an extended sampling frame (referred to as the Extended Sampling Frame - ESF) for reasons outlined above, it was decided to utilise the concept of a **judgement sample** as a valid technique. It was important to maintain the same criteria that had been used to screen the initial IPM regional membership list. This approach conformed with that outlined by Ghauri, Gronhaug and Kristianslund (1995: p.73-74), Cooper and Schindler (1998: p.245) and Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998, p.73-77), who find such purposive sampling an acceptable method of non-probability sampling. This approach was based on attempting to select potential respondents from a population the researcher believed conformed to the agreed criteria.

Labovitz and Hagedorn (1976, p.50-51) accept judgement sampling as a nonrandom (non-probability) sampling procedure where "the researcher has a large amount of experience or knowledge of a problem and a population." They explain that, "Such judgemental samples may be used by researchers who truly know which types of people are typical

of the population in question.” It was accepted that the researcher had extensive exposure to and knowledge of, the population in KwaZulu Natal and nationally.

It was known that there were numerous HRP's in the region who were not members of the IPM. Exactly how many qualifying HRP's were working in the area was unknown, but from the researcher's past experience it was a significant enough number to enable an extension of the sample frame to be achieved without violating the original criteria for selection.

Medium sized companies in the Durban-Pinetown area whose names had not been identified as employing already identified HRP's, were chosen on an ad hoc basis following the researcher's previous knowledge of business and industry in the area. These companies were telephoned requesting the name of their HR Manager. This procedure yielded a further 44 names which raised the final mailing list to 297. To have attempted to extend the exercise to the broader defined IPM geographical territory, would have been too demanding on available time and may not have provided a substantial additional number of names. It was plausible to accept that the additional list would conform adequately to the criteria of selection for inclusion in the new sampling frame. The extension described above thus became the Extended Sampling Frame. (ESF).

Stage 5: Comparison of Qualifying Sampling Frame (QSF) with Extended Sampling Frame (ESF)

The effect of extending the sampling frame as described above was assessed for skewing of the ethnic origin and gender balances. These two elements were potential weaknesses in the emerging structure of the expected sample, where the ratio of black to white, male to female, could be shown not to reflect the actual employment profile in the area. As can be seen in Table 6. 6 (p.164), balances increased in favour of white males and white females.

The increase in white representation in Table 6. 6 is illustrative of a high level of white management in corporate business and industry. The IPM membership list suggests that in State and Parastatal appointments, at more senior levels, the replacement of whites by Black and Indian persons has taken place to a greater extent. An increased skew in favour of whites in the extended sample may be attributed to the specific targeting of HR managers in corporate operations. Here the process of affirmative action may not have developed to the same extent as in the State and Parastatal operations. An added practical problem emerged, where it was found to be much more difficult to obtain names and participation within State departments and Parastatals. What was identified may be a reflection of reality in terms of existing appointments in corporate existence

Table 6. 6

Comparison of Ethnic Origin and Gender in the Qualifying Sampling Frame (QSF) and Extended Sampling Frame (ESF)

	Qualifying Sampling Frame (QSF)	Extended Sampling Frame (ESF)
Asian Male	11	11
Asian Female	10	10
Black Male	44	48
Black Female	8	9
Coloured Male	1	2
Coloured Female	1	1
White Male	112	143
White Female	66	73
TOTAL	253	297

Stage 6: Comparison with National IPM Membership Figures

A comparison was made between the IPM regional membership and the IPM national membership classifications to ascertain whether the regional sampling frame was a reasonable reflection of the national profile. This was undertaken to ensure that plausible assumptions could be made at a national level following findings from the study at a regional level. To this end the available national IPM membership was considered against the regional IPM membership list. The comparison is not exact as the national figures include corporate membership which the regional list does not do and it also includes an "unknown" element. The national membership of the IPM was recorded as 6304 (National Office - Membership Profile Statistics - email 23/5/2000).

Table 6. 7 (p.165) compares the proportions of different ethnic groups in the National, Regional, Qualifying and Extended Sampling Frames.

The higher percentage of Asian members in the region is accounted for by the large Indian population in this area, and the largest concentration of persons of Asian origin when compared with other geographical regions in South Africa.

The reason for the very large discrepancy between numbers of white and Indian HRPs, despite the Indian population of the Durban area being greater than that of whites, may be accounted for on two grounds. Firstly, whites traditionally dominated the HR

Table 6.7

Percentage Comparisons of Ethnic Groups in the Various Sampling Frames

	National	Regional	Qualifying	Extended
Asian	2.1%	9.8%	8.3%	7.1%
Black	24.6%	20.9%	20.6%	19.2%
Coloured	1.6%	0.8%	0.8%	1.0%
Unkown	6.8%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
White	64.9%	68.5%	70.3%	72.7%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

profession. Secondly, since the early 1970's, increasing numbers of black HRPs were recruited, albeit at the lower levels, in preference to Indians, as a way of improving communication with the predominantly black workforce in industry and agriculture.

The difference between national and regional percentages for white and black members may be accounted for by the historical emergence in the 1970's of the Black Personnel Management Association, lead by prominent black HRPs who opposed the IPM and who later became prominent HRP personalities holding leading HR positions. This opposition and apathy towards the IPM continued into the 1990's, and the non-acceptance in KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) of the IPM by significant black HRPs may account partly for the discrepancy. This historical feature is discussed by the researcher in a separate unpublished research document, as well as by Nzimande (1991) from an ideological perspective

As there are no available figures reflecting the total numbers of HRPs either nationally or regionally, there is no indication as to what would reflect a more accurate proportion of black to white HRPs who would fall within the definition required by the study. The researched figures at national level do not provide a breakdown by race and gender. The 1991 figure for all persons classified as "Personnel Practitioners" was given by the Human Sciences Research Council as 33756, which was projected to 2001 as 36933. (van Zyl and Albertyn, 1995, p.24):(The Supply and Demand of Personnel Practitioners in South Africa). The only other source of numbers and trends was obtained from the Human Sciences Research Council's South African Graduate Statistics (1999). To establish a trend, the number of graduates qualifying in Human Resource Management in 1998 and the period 1991 - 1998 is provided in Table 6. 8. (p.166).

Table 6. 8

Graduate Trends in HRM

	1998	% of Total	1991-98	% of Total
Asian Male	-	-	-	-
Asian Female	-	-	-	-
Black Male	29	51.8%	137	19.4%
Black Female	16	25.8%	81	9.1%
Coloured Male	-	-	4	0.6%
Coloured Female	2	3.2%	8	0.9%
White Male	27	48.2%	564	80.0%
White Female	44	71.0%	805	90.0%
Total Male	56		705	
Total Female	62		894	
TOTAL	118	100.0%	1599	100.0%

Stage 7: Graduate Trends as an Indicator

The graduate trend over the eight year period 1991 -1998 indicates a proportionate increase in black graduates over white graduates and a proportionate reduction in the number of white graduates. However, white graduates still predominate, which is counter to the trend of jobs on offer to white graduates. Large corporates have over the past two decades targeted black graduates for selection on the basis of scarcity of supply. An unusual feature is the non-existence of Indian graduates which suggests a weakness in the study

Stage 8: Gender Trends as an Indicator

Table 6. 8 significantly indicates an upward trend in female graduates in HRM. However, this trend would not be reflected in any marked way in the study sampling frame as these new female graduates would not have made it through to the level required by the criteria of work experience for inclusion in the Extended Sampling Frame .(ESF).

Using the available information, Table 6. 9 (p.167) provides gender comparisons between the National, Regional , Qualifying and Extended Sampling Frames.

The percentages in Figure 6. 9 reveal that there is reasonable comparison between the National and Regional percentages. The roughly 5:4 differential between male and female can be explained historically as a narrowing gap as more women move into HR functions

Table 6.9

Comparison of Gender in the Various Sampling Frames

	National	Regional	Qualifying	Extended
Male	53.8%	55.9%	66.4%	66.0%
Female	41.9%	44.1%	33.6%	34.0%
Unknown	4.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
TOTAL	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

It may be estimated that equivalence could emerge in the near future.

The wider differential of roughly 6:3 between the Qualifying and Extended Sampling Frames may be accounted for by the screening process where the study definition of an HRP was applied, resulting in a reflection of the actual situation in the work place, where the more senior positions are more often occupied by males. The final Extended Sampling Frame (ESF) does reflect a slight over representation of males and slight under representation of females.

Stage 9 : Representivity of the Sample in Relation to Extended Sampling Frame (ESF)

Due to the limited size of the sampling frame finally arrived at, it was necessary to target the whole sampling frame that had been decided upon, rather than a randomly selected sub-sample within it. The reason for this was to obtain the best possible level of representativeness in the sample, given the smallness of the sampling frame. Table 6.10 (p.168) depicts the level of the representivity of the sample in relation to the sampling frame.

A total of 119 acceptable responses was received, which included the thirty who were part of the qualitative study. This result comprises a 40.1 % response rate which is considered a good return for a mail survey. The higher percentage return may have been influenced by the advantage of the inclusion of the responses of the interviewees who were approached personally. Table 6.10 reflects the representivity relationships between the Extended Sampling Frame and the actual sample.

From the Table 6.10 it may be observed that the Asian response was the highest. The Coloured sector was negligible and is a reflection of the region. The Black response was the lowest with 35.4 % for males and 33.3 % for females. The total black sample of 57 as against the 216 of the white sector is cause for some concern in the current climate of affirmative action and the need to adequately reflect black perceptions and

TABLE 6. 10

Representivity of Sample Result in Relation to Extended Sampling Frame (ESF)

Category	Ext. Sampl. Frame (ESF)	% of Total	Sample Result	% of Total Sample
Asian (M)	11	3.7%	6	5.1%
Asian (F)	10	3.4%	5	4.2%
Coloured (M)	2	0.7%	1	0.8%
Coloured (F)	1	0.3%	1	0.8%
Black (M)	48	16.2%	17	14.3%
Black (F)	9	3.0%	3	2.5%
White (M)	143	48.1%	57	47.9%
White (F)	73	24.6%	29	24.4%
TOTAL	297	100.0%	119	100.0%

experience in the study. The black sample reflects 19.2 % of the sampling frame, as against the white sample of 72.7 %. Given the constraints and definitions laid down for the study and the explicable reasons for the differences as discussed above, it was accepted at the time of designing the sampling frame that it would be reasonably reflective of the actual situation. In accepting the sample outcome it was decided that the dynamic of the rapidly changing profile of HRP's at management level would be given appropriate attention when the study conclusions were being drawn.

Table 6. 10 further indicates the percentage variations of ethnic origin and gender categories between the actual sample result and the Extended Sampling Frame. (ESF). The Asian category reveals the highest percentage level of return. For the white category the percentage of sample result to the Extended Sampling Frame (ESF) was less than 1 % and for the black males 1.9 %. In general, the sample to sampling frame ratio reveals an acceptable level of consistency.

Stage 10: Implications of the Mail Survey

Given the geographical spread of the study, a mail survey was utilised as the most practical and effective means to obtain responses from the 297 names falling within the Extended Sampling Frame (ESF). Where mail was returned, the company was contacted to establish the new address of the potential respondent and the survey questionnaire was re-directed if the potential respondent was still working within the study's defined geographical limits. If a mailee had not responded within six weeks a reminder letter was sent (Appendix L).

Concluding Comments on Sampling for the Quantitative Exercise

The Extended Sampling Frame (ESF) as outlined and analysed above was accepted as the most achievable representation of HRPs in terms of the definitions laid down for the study. Ideally and technically, a larger sample result would have been desired. Given the parameters of the study a 40.1% return was a reasonable return. The concern over the lower number of black HRPs was accepted in light of there being no evidence available to suggest a greater number in the sampling frame. As a result it was believed that the ratio of black to white was a reasonable reflection of the situation in the corporate work place at the time. No estimate was possible of the ratio of black to white in State departments and Parastatals, where affirmative action policies were known to have been more aggressively implemented over recent years. To attempt to artificially manipulate the figures to provide a different profile was perceived as unjustified interference with the process of arriving at an acceptable sample.

6.1.4.2 Qualitative Methodology: Selection of Interviewees

This section deals with the selection of human resource practitioners for interviewing for the qualitative data collection for the study.

The identification of interviewees followed the formula applied in the analysis of the screened IPM membership list used in the selection of the sample for the quantitative study. (Section:6.1.4.1).

It was calculated that **thirty respondents** would provide a representative sample. This number was calculated on the basis of 10 % of the total number of the mailed quantitative survey. The seven HRPs who were part of a pilot project were included in the thirty interviewees as the data collected from them was found to be acceptable as valid material for analysis and interpretation. The selection of the pilot project interviewees had followed a similar formula outlined below, hence their inclusion. (Section : 6.3 : The Pilot Project).

To obtain a balanced spread of candidates across the different organisations and industries represented in the area, the percentages from the analysis of the IPM list was applied.

The eight industrial sub-divisions were used to identify potential candidates by noting companies and organisations whose names were included as addresses of members in the membership list. This ensured that a cross-section of participants was obtained. A matrix was prepared listing potential respondents by company against the eight industrial sub-divisions. This procedure avoided the possibility of having the larger industries and companies being over represented. Possible unwarranted bias from any one company or industry was reduced by this method.

Asian, black and white candidates were randomly identified from the screened membership list according to the formula previously applied. Coloured candidates could not be identified as the membership list did not provide this information.

The male - female percentage breakdown previously applied was utilised.

Following the IPM list analysis, a ratio of 4:1 of generalist to specialist practitioner was attempted, but only five specialists were found to conform to the criteria applying to the level of seniority previously used in selection.

First contact with potential interviewees was by introductory letter sent to thirty one HRPs selected according to the formula. The letter explained the study and requested opportunity for a brief discussion to outline the study. (See Appendix I). The letter was followed by a telephone call to arrange the first meeting. At the initial meeting the survey was handed over with the explanation that it would be collected at the time of the interview. The value of the first meeting was that it allowed for the interviewer and interviewee to get to know each other prior to the interview. In some cases the two parties already knew each other from past association. The interviews were then conducted, at the request of the interviewer, in the respondent's working environment. This was seen as an important feature in aiding the researcher to obtain a feel for the total context in which the respondent worked. The breakdown below in Table 6.11 indicates the high level of positive responses to the request for an interview.

Table 6.11

Interview Acceptances

Category	Number Approached	Number Interviewed	Comment
Asian Male	1	1	
Asian Female	2	0	2 declined: 1 replacement declined
Black Male	10	9	No declines. 1 left the area.
Black Female	3	1	2 declined. No substitutes.
White Male	10	12	1 declined. 3 substitutes.
White Female	5	7	1 declined. 3 substitutes.
TOTAL	31	30	

Notes on Table 6. 11:

- (i) A suitable replacement candidate for the Asian female category proved difficult. This resulted in no Asian females being interviewed.

- (ii) Suitably experienced substitute black females were not located and were replaced consequently by white females who were more numerous and contactable. The final outcome was unavoidably skewed towards white females.
- (iii) The initial intention to seek parity between white and black males was conceded in order to move in the direction of statistical reality as observed in the IPM membership list with more white than black males being interviewed.

6.2 RESEARCH THEORY

The discussion on Research Theory as applied in this study is divided into three main sections.

- * Quantitative Analysis
- * Qualitative Analysis
- * Triangulation

6.2.1 QUANTITATIVE METHODOLOGY

The overall theoretical model for the research is found in Figure 6.1.(p. 149). This section now follows that model and outlines the methodology used and the tests applied to the specific types of research data obtained from the survey questionnaires .

6.2.1.1 Background to Quantitative Methodology

The data for this study were obtained from the results of 119 responses to questionnaires returned from a sample of HRPs in the greater Durban area. The four part questionnaire includes a section for reporting on participant's biographical information.

The four parts are:

- * The Career Orientation Inventory
- * The Role Questionnaire
- * Perceptions of Stress Questionnaire
- * Biographical Information

The structure, usage and purpose of the three instruments used are presented and discussed in detail in Chapter Seven - Data Gathering Instruments.

The three main measures were designed and tested by well known researchers and have been applied over lengthy periods in many and various contexts. Due to this feature, it was felt unnecessary to run tests to check the reliability and validity of the instruments,

other than with the Role Questionnaire where a reliability test was run and the reason for this is explained in the section discussing the measure .

All three measures are based on Likert-type attitudinal scales. These tests produce ordinal type data for statistical analysis, with the recorded values signalling order from highest to lowest or lowest to highest. However, it is argued that the type of data generated by the conducted tests opens a debate over the most appropriate statistical technique to apply in processing the data. The debate arises out of the need to obtain the best interpretation of the collected data and that this depends upon how it is classified in terms of the levels of measurement.

Among social researchers there is debate over the most suitable statistical procedure to adopt for a particular type of data presented. Lord (1995), found support for an approach which allowed for flexibility in interpreting the level of classification of certain types of data in Willemsen (1973), Kerlinger and Pradahur (1973) and (Emory and Cooper (1991).

Bryman and Cramer (1990, with support from Labovitz (1970), maintain that ordinal variables can be treated as interval variables (p.66). They follow a practice which treats multiple-item measures as though they were interval scales. Here the distance between the values recorded is seen to be meaningful. They classify interval data into two kinds. The first, where the categories are associated with a variable which can be rank ordered, as with ordinal variables, but where the distance between the categories is equal, as with age or income levels. The second, allows for the wider interpretation and is adopted in this study. Here, variables are strictly speaking, ordinal, but have a large number of categories, such as in multiple-item questionnaires. These variables are assumed to have similar properties to 'true' interval variables. This latter interpretation is followed in this study.

6.2.1.2 Selection of Statistical Procedures

The decision described in Section 6.2.1.1 to treat ordinal data as interval data, determined the statistical procedures to be used to test the study's hypotheses. These are outlined below.

- (i) Correlational analyses to establish the strength (magnitude of the relationships) between the selected variables and the level of significance.
- (ii) Regression analyses to establish the influence and direction of the hypothesised independent variables on the hypothesised dependent variables

Leedy (1993) draws attention to the importance of allowing the nature of the data to govern the selection of the correlational procedures which are appropriate for the processing of the particular data. (p.278). The data generated by the main variables were all of a continuous nature. The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation, being the most

commonly applied statistical procedure for correlating continuous variables, was believed to be the most appropriate for this study. The response of one hundred and nineteen HRP's was large enough to apply the Pearsonian method.

The statistical procedures were executed by means of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS: version 8.0.1) software.

The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation is applicable to interval data for which the SPSS package was used for calculation of statistics for analysis. The application of this procedure allowed for the establishment of the extent of the relationships between the three main variables and their sub-categories. The resultant coefficient of correlation, "r", measures the magnitude and intensity of the relationship between the variables. The "r" indicates the degree to which the variables move in unison or in opposition. It measures the relatedness of two or more variables. It cannot distinguish linear from non-linear data. It does not signify causal relatedness and thus no assumption may be made as to one variable "causing" an effect on the other. The accompanying sign provides the direction in which the relationship moves. The direction (either positive or negative) indicates whether large values on one variable are associated with large values on the other. As one increases, the other increases (positive), or as one increases, the other decreases (negative). (Cooper and Schindler:1999: p. 516 - 520).

The size of the coefficient is indicated by the "r" reading. These readings occur over a range of +1 through 0 to -1, the +1 indicating a perfect positive relationship and the -1 a perfect negative relationship. The 0 indicates no relationship between the variables. Table 6.12 shows the conventional strengths attributed to the "r".

Table 6. 12

Strengths of "r"	
.80 - 1.0	very high correlation
.60 - .79	high correlation
.40 - .59	moderate correlation
.20 - .39	slight correlation
.10 - .19	very slight correlation

Readings between .40 and .59 would indicate a moderate correlation. The size of the correlation of, say, + .40 is the same as the size of the correlation of - .40. The sign indicates nothing about size, but the reading shows the degree of correlation which is moderate. (Cooper and Schindler,1999).

The coefficient of correlation "r" is a useful indicator, but Leedy (1993) reminds us it is

“merely a signpost”. (p.277). He draws attention to the need to recognise that a correlation is not a static entity but a field of dynamic forces which needs to be recognised when interpreting a statistic and drawing conclusions. To discover the statistical level of significance of ‘r’, the SPSS calculates the probability “P” by means of two-tailed tests of significance.

This additional statistical information in the form of probabilities of the “r” establishes to what degree the “r” is a chance deviation. The correlations were conventionally tested at the 1 % and 5 % level of significance. The 1 % level of significance indicates that any factor that causes more than a 1% variability in 99 % of the data is considered to be as the result of some influence other than mere chance. The 5 % level relates to a 95 % confidence limit. However, as Leedy (1993) indicates, “Whatever exceeds these limits, is considered to be the result of some determinative factor other than chance, and so the influence is considered to be a significant one”. The resultant “P” readings of .050 and below were treated as calling for comment in the interpreting of the statistics that the software provided. Two additional bivariate correlations were run as back up for the Pearson. The Spearman Rank-order Correlation, rho, and Kendall’s Correlation between Ranks, tau-b, were calculated with the SPSS as non-parametric support for the Pearson findings.

Correlation provides no evidence of cause and effect between variables. **Regression analysis** assists by increasing the understanding of the relationship between independent and dependent variables by providing two statistical outcomes. First, it produces a coefficient of determination, r-square (RSQ), capable of measuring the degree and direction of the influence of an independent variable on a dependent variable, where one variable is identified as independent and the other as dependent. Second, regression analysis generates a regression equation to predict an unknown value of the dependent variable based on a known value of the independent variable.

In the first element, the coefficient r-square values range from 0 to 1. The r-square value is an indication of how much influence the independent variable has on the dependent variable. A value of 0 indicates the independent variable has no influence on the dependent variable. A value of 1 indicates that the value of the dependent variable could be predicted exactly if the value of the independent variable is known. The r-square value is thus an indication of how much influence the independent variable has on the dependent variable. The r-square value obtained by regression is always positive.

In the second element, the regression equation consists of a constant and the regression coefficient. The constant in the regression equation is the value of the dependent variable scale when the independent variable is 0 (zero). The regression equation is the formula for computing a predicted value for the dependent variable, based on the value of the independent variable. When the regression coefficient is positive, the relationship is

direct and the slope (when diagrammatically displayed) is upward and to the right. When it is negative, the relationship is inverse and the slope is downward to the right. (See Alreck and Settle: 1985, Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill; 1997)

Regression analysis was selected as the appropriate technique for processing the study data. It provides a regression equation which was designed to produce the best prediction of a dependent variable from several independent variables. The theoretical model for the study provided for the independent variable, career orientation and its eight categories to be correlated with one another, and the dependent variable, burnout, with its three sub-scales. The tests would allow for the incorporation of the function of the intermediate variable, role stress. All the variables met the requirement for multiple regression by being continuous in nature. Section 6.2.1.1 discussed the classification of the study data as interval type.

A stepwise backward elimination multiple regression technique was then employed to analyse the data. (Section 8.5.1.2). Linear regression was thus employed to measure the degree and direction of the influence of the study independent variables on the dependent variables. The data was processed by means of the SPSS software package.

A one way analysis of variance was used as part of the regression analytic procedure. This analytical technique was employed to measure the statistical significance of the differences in mean values. It has two uses. First, when the difference between only two mean values needs to be assessed. Here the statistical *t test* can be used where only two distributions are involved. Second, it may be used to measure the association of two or more values. The differences between the means are represented by an F ratio. When the means are significantly different it is represented by a large F ratio with a probability of less than 0.05. The SPSS package generates an F ratio value, and an indication of the degrees of freedom associated with it as well as the significance of differences in the mean value. The backward selection starts with all the variables in the equation and gradually deletes poor performance on the basis of whether the F values are less than the critical value.

Multiple Regression techniques were thus selected to establish the best predictors of burnout in keeping with the hypothesised model of the study. The same original data as applied in the correlation tests were used. Multiple regression tests were run in relation to:

- (i) Role Stress and its three sub-factors by loading the eight Career Orientation sub-categories
- (ii) Burnout and its sub-scales by loading the eight Career Orientation sub-categories

- (iii) Burnout and its three sub-scales by loading Role Stress and its three sub-factors together with the eight Career Orientation sub-categories

Initial tests suggested that a **path analysis** would add little value to the study. It was found that career orientation as the independent variable had slight impact on the intermediate (intervening) variable, roles stress. It was established further, that the independent variable had only slight impact on the dependent variable, burnout. However, the strong correlations between the intermediate variable, role stress, and the dependent variable, burnout, suggested a different set of possibilities which could make a significant contribution to the study. It was thus decided not to follow the customary path analysis. Path analysis would have been appropriate if measuring the contributions made by a number of independent variables to the value of a single dependent variable. The path analysis would then have been used to measure the relative strengths of the relationships between the variables. This in turn would have enabled the establishment of the strength of the causal path and a clearer interpretation of the statistical information would have been achieved.

6.2.2 QUALITATIVE METHODOLOGY

This section outlines the relevant elements in qualitative methodology for this study and covers:

- * some background to qualitative methodology as an analytical technique
- * the nature of qualitative research
- * the relevance of qualitative techniques for this research
- * the process of qualitative analysis

The explanation is offered in light of the ongoing debate accompanying the emergence of qualitative techniques as a credible research methodology.

6.2.2.1 Background to Qualitative Methodology

The earlier predominance of quantitative methodology in evaluation research lead to a reaction which the literature suggests “stems from a dissatisfaction with the style of quantitative evaluations”(Filstead, 1979, p.45) and its relevance to many research situations . Silverman (1997) reminds us that “the critique of purely quantitative research has a long history, beginning in the 1950's.” (p.13).

The greater acceptance of qualitative methods in social and business research literature appears to have begun to gain momentum in the 1960's .(Filstead, 1979, p.33). The debate in support of qualitative methods developed in the 1970's, with numerous books and journal articles explaining and propagating its validity as a legitimate evaluation research tool.

Filstead (1979) noted that,

“The blanket acceptance of the quantitative paradigm as *the* model for evaluation research is being seriously questioned by the evaluation research community. The question has given rise to a changing climate.” (p.39).

By the 1990's there had emerged a greater consensus of acceptance of the contribution of qualitative methods. {See Strauss & Corbin (1990), Dey (1993), Miles & Huberman (1994), Ghauri, Grondhaug and Kristianslund (1995), Yin (1995) and Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (1997)}.

The ongoing debate lead many researchers to agree that the nature of the topic of research should determine the methodology applied. “Which methods and techniques are most suitable for which research depends on the research problem and its purpose.”(Ghauri, et al., 1995, p.83).

In accordance with the principle of applying the best methods and technique/s to the specific nature of the problem being researched , a triangulation of both quantitative and qualitative methods was decided upon for this research.

In light of the ongoing debate over methodologies and the perceived need to continue to justify the use of qualitative methods, a section on qualitative methodology has been included. This section thus outlines relevant parts of the debate with special reference to those elements of qualitative methodology that are applied in this study.

6.2.2.2 The Nature of Qualitative Research

Qualitative methodology is not readily defined as Van Maanen, (1979) explains.

“The label qualitative methods has no precise meaning in any of the social sciences. It is at best an umbrella term covering an array of interpretative techniques.” (p.520)

Orpen (1987) supports this view that it is difficult to produce a definition that captures the ‘essence’ of qualitative research, due to the “the variety of techniques” which have been employed “by researchers who believe they are doing qualitative as opposed to quantitative research.” (p.250). .

Most researchers note that qualitative methods use diverse techniques such as ethnography, case studies, role playing, in-depth interviews, unstructured or semi-structured interviews, group discussion, participant observation. {See Van Maanen

(1979), Miles (1979), Reichardt and Cook (Eds) (1979), Orpen (1987), Ghauri, et al., (1995) and Saunders, et al., (1997)}.

Much of the debate around qualitative approaches has focussed on contrasting quantitative and qualitative methods in order to explain the nature of the qualitative approach and where its use was applicable.. The debates are illustrated in Denzin (1973), Reichardt and Cook (Eds) (1979), van Maanen (Ed)(1979), Filstead (1979) and Orpen (1989).

Various contributors to the debate list different numbers of contrasts they have identified between the two methods, eg, Guba (1978) noted fourteen, Reichardt and Cook (1979) list eleven, Ghauri, et al., (1995) list nine, Saunders, et al., (1997) provide only three.

The Ghauri, et al., (1995) list is illustrative of a substantial number of contrasts commonly listed. See Table 6.13.(p.179)

There are advantages in clearly identifying the contrasts:

- (i) The contrasts help in establishing recognisable differences between the two approaches.
- (ii) The inherent differences are made clearly distinguishable, thereby aiding would be researchers in choice of method.
- (iii) They provide a convenient set of terms summarising key issues of perceived difference.

There are disadvantages in over-emphasising the contrasts:

- (i) By identifying the qualitative largely in relation to the quantitative too much concession may be made to the predominance of the quantitative, thereby implying an inferior status for the qualitative.
- (ii) The contrasts approach tends to create distinctions that are too categorical, which in turn may limit the opportunity for a more encompassing perspective through which improved results may be achieved.
- (iii) It over simplifies the debate, as can be seen in the Reichardt and Cook's (1979, p.10-15) questioning of the implications of the contrasts which suggested that one must choose one or other paradigm.

Table 6. 13

Qualitative and Quantitative Contrasts

<i>Qualitative methods</i>	<i>Quantitative methods</i>
* Emphasis on understanding	* Emphasis on testing and verification
* Focus on understanding from respondents point of view	* Focus on facts and/or reasons of social events
* Interpretation and rational approach	* Logical and critical approach
* Observations and measurements in natural setting	* Controlled measurement
* Subjective “insider view” and closeness to data	* Objective “outsider view” distant from data
* Explorative orientation	* Hypothetico-deductive: focus on hypothesis testing
* Process oriented	* Result oriented
* Holistic perspective	* Particularistic and analytical
* Generalization by comparison of properties and contexts of individual organism	* Generalization by population membership

Reichardt and Cook (1979, p.12-15), in discussing the contrasts, argue that it is not necessary to accept one or other paradigm (ie., a qualitative or a quantitative stance) when choosing a research method. They conclude that the “attributes of a paradigm are not inherently linked to either qualitative or quantitative methods.” (p.16). For them the choice of research method should depend on the demands of the research situation at hand and argue that it may be important to use both methods (p19). This stance is supported in principle by Denzin (1973), Miles (1979), Strauss and Corbin (1993), Dey (1993) and Ghauri, et al., (1995). Further support for this position is discussed in Section: 6.2.3.

The debate over the two methodologies in the evaluation of research is seen by some to be more a matter of paradigms, than one of techniques and methods.

Guba’s (1990) definition that a paradigm simply stated is a “basic belief system” (p.18), betrays its complexity in relation to evaluation research, which is suggested when he states that, “...all such belief systems, or paradigms are *human constructions*, and hence subject to all the errors and foibles that inevitably accompany human endeavours.” (p.19).

Filstead (1979), following Kuhn (1962), understands a paradigm to be “..... a set of interrelated assumptions about the social world which provides a philosophical and conceptual framework for organized study of that world.” (p.34).

The debate over the two paradigms, it is suggested, involves deeper historical and philosophical issues which deal with the nature of the social order. Herein lies an important distinguishing feature of the quantitative and qualitative approaches.

“At the heart of the distinction between the quantitative and qualitative paradigms lies the classic argument in philosophy between schools of realism and idealism.” (Filstead 1979, p.34).

Filstead (1979) thus perceives the realism of the quantitative paradigm’s approach to social life as one which “employs the mechanistic and static assumptions of the natural science positivist model”, whereas, the idealism of the qualitative paradigm has the “decidedly humanistic cast to understanding social reality of the idealist position which stresses an evolving, negotiated view of the social order.” (p.35).

Silverman (1997), reflecting a more pragmatic current view, believes that “there are no principled grounds to be either quantitative or qualitative in approach. It all depends what you are trying to do.” and, that “....there is no agreed doctrine underlying all qualitative social research.” (p.14). In the social sciences, however, it may be necessary to check quantitative data with qualitative data to ensure that the content used for theory building is valid on the level of meaning. This understanding is discussed further in Section 6.2.3 under Triangulation Methodology. Guba’s (1990) discussion on the recognition of alternative paradigms is important in that it was part of the ongoing debate to create a sounder, academic foundation for a greater acceptance of approaches other than the traditional positivistic model.

6.2.2.3 Relevant Features of Qualitative Methods for this Study

Some significant features of the qualitative approach are noted as relevant in explaining the rationale involved in constructing the qualitative methodology for this research. Three of these are provided.

(i) Contextualising

An important element in analysing the qualitative data is an in-depth understanding of the context out of which HR practitioners function. This holistic approach is important for the present study in order to understand the relationship of career orientation, role stress and work stress/burnout. To understand behaviour in organisations, and in this case stress levels among HR practitioners, a more holistic approach was called for. Qualitative researchers, according to Orpen (1987), argue that two important features need to be dealt with when trying to understand a complex situational phenomenon.

First, a recognition that one is dealing with a complex, situational phenomenon. Second, that qualitative techniques are applied that enable the researcher to get closer to the data, to recognise the context, and to come to know the individual in relation to his/her context.

For Filstead (1979), the “qualitative paradigm includes an assumption about the importance of understanding situations from the perspective of the participants in the situation”. (p.36). Filstead quotes Glaser and Strauss (1967), where they note that the basic starting point of the qualitative paradigm is an understanding of the everyday events that characterise the life of the respondents. Often it is important to obtain this view in the words of the subjects themselves. This study called for such a contextual understanding of the three variables identified in the theoretical and conceptual formulation of the research.

The interviews conducted in this study were thus to be structured to obtain from the respondents in their own words, their experiences of the pressures, dynamics and dilemmas as HR practitioners working within the context of strategic human resource management

(ii) Flexibility

Orpen (1987) describes qualitative research as moving “backwards and forwards in a way that quantitative research does not” (p.251). There is a flexibility which allows for a “circular process” whereby, after initial data collection and the developing of early hypotheses, it allows for a returning to the data, or turning to new data, which in turn permits reformulation of hypotheses, and re-evaluation from a different perspective.

This study does not follow that circular pattern. The in-depth interviews did not allow for reformulation of hypothesis and re-testing. However, the flexibility feature is noted in terms of the triangulation methodology where opportunity is provided for an interaction between the quantitative and qualitative process. The construction of the qualitative data questions was built on the quantitative measures. The triangulation methodology allows for an interaction between the two sets of data and, as a result, allows for a more creative and flexible interpretation of data.

(iii) Deductive-Inductive Perspective

It is suggested by some commentators that both the deductive and inductive perspectives may be used in qualitative methodology. It depends whether the researcher starts from a deductive or inductive perspective. Saunders, et al., (1997) maintain that where a researcher commences a research project,

“.... from a deductive position you will seek to use existing theory to shape the approach you will adopt to the quantitative research process and to aspects of data analysis. On the other hand where you commence from an inductive position, you will seek to build a theory which is adequately grounded in a number of relevant cases.” (p.348)

Yin (1994) notes two analytical strategies for qualitative research based on this understanding of the deductive-inductive perspective.

The first commences with a theoretical framework. Yin (1994) proposes that where in qualitative research use is made of existing theory to formulate research questions and objectives from a deductive perspective, those same propositions may be used to frame and direct data analysis. This approach allows for theory to frame qualitative research in preference to the more classical expression, where the theory emerges from the research effort. Yin (1994) understands this approach to be an explanatory one.

This structured approach is not favoured by those who believe that prior specification has the danger of prematurely inhibiting thorough investigation of the issues. However, {Saunders, et al., (1997), Miles and Huberman,(1994) and Yin (1994)} support this use of a theoretical or descriptive framework on the basis that there has been proper advance identification of the main variables, themes and issues, together with the predicted or anticipated relationships between the different components.

Taking into account the shortcomings of this methodological approach, this research project utilised existing theory to structure the qualitative approach where support or contradiction may be found for the quantitative findings. The qualitative findings would be used to assist in a joint analysis and interpretation of the data.

The alternative, and more classical approach, is to commence collecting data and then to explore that data to discover which issues or themes to concentrate on. [Glaser and Strauss (1967), Strauss and Corbin (1990) and Yin (1994).] This approach, which includes the initial exploratory purpose, requires the data to be analysed as it is collected. From this data a conceptual framework may be constructed to guide further work. These procedures are designed to develop a theory, not to test an existing theory (Saunders, et al., (1997).

This strategy is referred to by some commentators as “*grounded theory*” . As Filstead (1979) explains:

“This grounding of theory in dataenhances the ability of the researcher to understand and to perhaps ultimately devise an explanation of the phenomenon which is consistent with its occurrence in the social world. By attempting to ground the theory, the researcher attempts to find out what explanation schemes are used by the subjects under study to make sense of the social realities they

encounter; what theories, concepts and categories are suggested by the data itself.” (p.38)

For Strauss and Corbin (1990) there are four important features to grounded theory:

- * it is an inductive approach
- * theory emerges from the process of data collection and analysis
- * research is commenced without a defined theoretical framework
- * relationships are identified between the data, for which questions and hypotheses are developed to test these relationships.

This grounded theory approach was not used in the study, but comment on the theory has been included to provide a more comprehensive review of qualitative methods.

6.2.2.4 Qualitative Data Analysis

The theoretical model for structuring the qualitative analysis in this study follows the broad outline suggested by Saunders, et al., (1997).

It was understood from the start of the study that the complexity of qualitative methods was partly due to the recognition that “there is no standardised approach to the analysis of qualitative data” (Saunders, et al., 1997) and that these different approaches lead to different strategies in dealing with qualitative data.

Miles (1979) noted that one of the weaknesses in the texts on qualitative research up to that time was the lack of suggestions as to how to conduct the actual data analysis. More recent commentators, such as Yin (1989), Miles and Huberman (1994), Saunders, et al., (1997) and others, have attempted to correct this shortcoming..

For this study the **choice of qualitative method** was found to lie somewhere between two view points as identified by Ghauri, et al., (1995).

First, there are those who believe in principle that all data can be classified and measured. From this perspective, even when data is collected through qualitative methods, it should be coded and refined in such a way that it allows for categorisation and quantification. Ghauri, et al., (1995), refer to this view as the “*positivistic*” orientation. The significance of this approach is that it extends to qualitative analysis the benefits of quantification.

The second viewpoint comes from those who argue that individual cases can be meaningful in their own right and who resist categorising or coding their data, preferring to allow the study of their transcripts to speak for themselves. With this method of interpretation, it is not necessary to have data that allows for categorisation and quantification on some kind of scale. Ghauri, et al., (1995) refer to this stance as the

“*phenomenological*” orientation.

Saunders, et.al., (1997, p.340-345) propose a four stage format for analysis of qualitative data. This approach was adopted in this study .

Stage 1: Categorisation

The first stage is to categorise the raw data as found in the transcripts of interviews. Saunders, et al., (1997) suggest three main sources from which categories may be derived. These are: those devised by the researcher; those coming from terms used in existing theory and literature; or, those based on terms used by the participants (*in vivo* codes) .

In qualitative theory it is suggested that the categories arise from a study of the data transcripts. In this study a combination appeared to best meet the needs of the project. Some of the categories came from existing theory and literature and others were devised by the researcher from previous personal understanding of human resource practice.

The questions used in the interviews with the qualitative sample were structured on the basis of the sub categories in the three main variables in the quantitative scales. These questions were supplemented by questions designed to elicit the understanding of interviewees on selected issues critical to understanding the context and perceptions of those interviewed. A framework of variables and sub-categories was thus already in place prior to the interviews. This approach meant that a number of issues had to be clarified and appropriate attention given to them to ensure they did not unduly influence responses.

- (a) Would this pre-categorisation inhibit, skew or predetermine responses of interviewees? It was argued that even with impersonal quantitative questionnaires, respondents had a tendency to predetermine the way they would like the outcome of their responses to be perceived. It would depend to a large degree on the structure of the questions and the skill of the interviewer.
- (b) Would this structured approach produce data more dubious than that which may be obtained by case study or observation techniques? It was argued, as with all qualitative methods, that much depended upon the skill of the interviewer. It was believed that the researcher was sufficiently experienced in interviewing and counselling techniques to ensure that an interview climate could be created which would facilitate obtaining relevant data.
- (c) Would the interviewer influence the discussion to solicit those responses that would support already decided upon hypotheses? It was argued that the integrity and the experience of the interviewer would be relied upon to play an important place in avoiding unethical or unintentional interference in the process.

- (d) Would the prior categorisation of questions limit the data to simply supporting or negating the findings of the quantitative survey? The purpose of the qualitative approach was to establish from a different research methodology, supplementary, complementary or contradictory data which could bring an important dimension to interpreting the data that emerged. It was believed that the specific operational definitions used in the qualitative analysis needed further confirmation, that could come only from triangulating the research.

Alreck and Settle (1985) and Foddy (1994) provided guidance for the construction of questions for interviewing and interviewing skills.

It was important that the objectives of the interviews were kept in mind at this stage. These objectives were first, to contextualise the data within the concept of strategic human resource management; second, to allow the interviewees to respond from within their own organisations; and third, to allow the respondents to offer their own understanding of some of the critical issues raised in the questions, thereby allowing the interviewees to illustrate from their own working environment. It was believed this strategy would allow for an enhanced and richer set of data to emerge and to offer a source of qualitative validation to the quantitative findings. It was believed that this contribution to the study would outweigh the subjective elements incurred in the qualitative approach.

Stage 2: “Unitising” of Data

The second stage involves the attaching of ‘units of data’ to appropriate categories. By definition these ‘units’ could be words, expressions, phrases, even sentences. This stage follows Saunders, et al., (1997) whereby the typed interview transcripts were subjected to a manual search to identify significant words, expressions, phrases or sentences which respondents used to describe their experiences and perceptions.

To achieve this the interview transcripts are read and re-read a number of times. In practice, the first reading took place at the time of the transcribing of the scripts by the researcher immediately after the interview. The second reading was accompanied by the highlighting of what appeared as significant and as usable comments and insights. At the third reading, key words were identified and ringed and then listed on each of the interview transcripts. The common or recurring concepts or expressions which had been highlighted or ringed were then transferred to a master list which was designed as a matrix with the name of each interviewee listed vertically. Each transcript was then scrutinised again and the listed ‘units’ were entered onto the matrix against the name of the interviewee, if such interviewee was recorded as having commented on that particular ‘unit’. A simple counting process was used to establish how often a particular unit was referred to either negatively or positively.

It was decided not to use any of the available computerised programmes to scan the transcripts, as this approach did not meet the needs of this particular research and because of the structure of the interview format and responses.

As categories and factors had already been decided upon in the quantitative concepts and operational definitions, they provided the backcloth for the of analysis of the data. The purpose of the exercise was to ascertain whether new insights could be obtained from the qualitative data and to ascertain whether qualitative data supported or contradicted the findings from the quantitative analyses.

Stage 3: Recognising Relationships and Developing Categories

The third stage of analysis is a process of searching for relationships between the emerging patterns of information. It is a process which Mintzberg (1979) likens to "detective work". It is the tracking down of patterns and consistencies. "One searches through a phenomenon looking for order, following one lead to another. But the process itself is not neat." (p.584). In this study the iterative process continued until an intelligible and supportable pattern emerged which contained identifiable concepts or perceptions, not previously observed. These were then related to the original hypotheses. {See Saunders, et al., (1997), Dey (1993), Yin (1994) and Miles and Huberman (1994).

Stage 4: Developing and Testing Hypotheses

This is the final stage in the qualitative analytical process. The approach adopted in this study differed from that suggested by Saunders, et al., (1997). Basing their process on the inductive approach, they state, "It is important to test the hypotheses which inductively emerge from the data by seeking alternative explanations and negative examples which do not conform to the pattern or relationship being tested." (p.344). They found support for this approach in Marshall and Rossman (1989).

The approach in this study is an adaptation of standard quantitative hypothesis testing against statistical findings, and an adapted version of qualitative contextual testing of the originally stated hypotheses as suggested by Yin (1994).

In the more usual form of the final stage of qualitative analysis, the validity of the researchers' conclusions would be supported by their ability to withstand alternative explanations and the nature of negative cases. (Saunders, et al., 1997, p.345). In this study the original hypotheses are tested in the light of the qualitative findings to assess the validity of those hypotheses. The final outcome of the study was to follow the principle of Saunders, et al., (1997) by "rigorously testing your propositions and hypotheses against your data, looking for alternative explanations and seeking to explain why negative cases occur, you will be able to move towards the development of valid and well-grounded conclusions." (p.345).

Stage 5: Conclusion: An Iterative Process

The process of data collection, data analysis and the development and verification of relationships and conclusions are seen as an iterative or interactive process.. This iterative element reflects the relative flexibility which the qualitative approach permits. The acceptance of this feature allows for the identification of themes, patterns and relationships as the data is being collected. In this study, as more interviews were concluded and written up, certain recurrent themes, perceptions and issues began to emerge that had distinct bearing on the original hypotheses. The process thus allowed for insights to be obtained that were not achievable through the standardised quantitative questionnaire analyses.

In the application of these insights, the interviewer was able to increase focus during the discussion around certain questions in interviews with subsequent respondents. Although the deeper understanding did not allow for the original hypotheses to be amended as may have been possible if this research had been undertaken within the principles of grounded theory, it did provide for the opportunity to obtain improved insights. However, the format of the study did allow for an element of flexibility which will be observed in the detailed analysis of the interviews.

6.2.3 TRIANGULATION METHODOLOGY

This section presents:

- * triangulation as a multi-method analytical approach
- * identifies the growing support in the literature for mixed methodologies
- * an explanation for the use of triangulation in this study

6.2.3.1 Definition of Triangulation

Triangulation as used in this study is a way of combining methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon. It is a way to improve the outcome of a study by collecting and interpreting data through different techniques and methods to enable the one to assist the other. The original term *triangulation* refers to a survey/nautical process in which two points (and their angles) are used to determine the unknown distance to a third point.

Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) following Denzin (1978) discuss four types of triangulation.

- (i) Data triangulation - the use of a variety of data sources in a study
- (ii) Investigator triangulation - the use of several different researchers
- (iii) Theory triangulation - the use of multiple perspectives to interpret the results of a study
- (iv) Methodological triangulation - the use of multiple methods to study a research problem.

Methodological triangulation is applied in this study

6.2.3.2 The Multi-Method in Evaluation Research

In the social sciences, the use of multi-methods can be traced back to Campbell and Fiske (1959, p. 81-105) who tested and proposed a multitrait-multimethod matrix to be employed in the validation process, thereby providing academic credibility for multi-method approaches. The term “triangulation” is attributed to Webb, et al., (1966).

Denzin (1973), recognizing the limitations of a single method, maintained “that no single method will ever permit an investigator to develop causal propositions free of rival interpretations”. He argues that “because each method reveals different aspects of empirical reality, multi-methods of observation must be employed.”(p.26). Denzin’s understanding of triangulation extends from methodology into a complex of interactions from triangulated sampling, data collection, multiple investigators, and theory formulation. For him, “triangulation of method, investigator, theory and data remains the soundest strategy of theory construction.” (p.301).

Triangulation has become, with its increased acceptance, use and recommendation by numerous researchers, a means of improving evaluation research. {See Jick (1979), Reichardt and Cook (1979), Coldwell (1981, 1985), Orpen, (1987), Ghauri (1995) and Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998)}.

Denzin (1973) states that “Methodological triangulation can take many forms, but its basic feature will be the combination of two or more different research strategies....”(p.308). Methodological triangulation can take two forms for testing reliability. The “within-methods” version is felt by both Denzin (1973) and Jick (1979) to have shortcomings. The version of interest to this study is the “between- methods”. Jick (p.603) follows Denzin (p.308) who regards the “between-methods or across-methods” approach as “a much more satisfactory form of method triangulation” as it combines dissimilar methods to measure the same unit.

“The rationale for this strategy is that the flaws of one method are often the strengths of another, and by combining methods, observers can achieve the best of each, while overcoming their unique deficiencies”. (Denzin, 1973, p.308).

For Jick (1979) triangulation adds validity to findings:

“It is largely a vehicle for cross validation when two or more distinct methods are found to be congruent and yield comparable data through use of multiple methods to examine the same dimension of a research problem.” (p.602).

Bloor (1997), although supporting Denzin in his general acceptance of the value of triangulation from his own research, finds several grounds for not agreeing that triangulation provides a means of validation.(p.39). . He contends, and finds support in Emerson (1981) that, “Validation techniques are not tests, but opportunities for reflexive elaboration.” (p.41).

“Neither technique (*his research into ‘member validation’ and triangulation*) can validate findings, but both techniques can be said to be relevant to the issue of validity, in so far as both techniques may yield new data that throw fresh light on the investigation and provide a spur for deeper and richer analyses.” (Bloor, 1997, p.41).

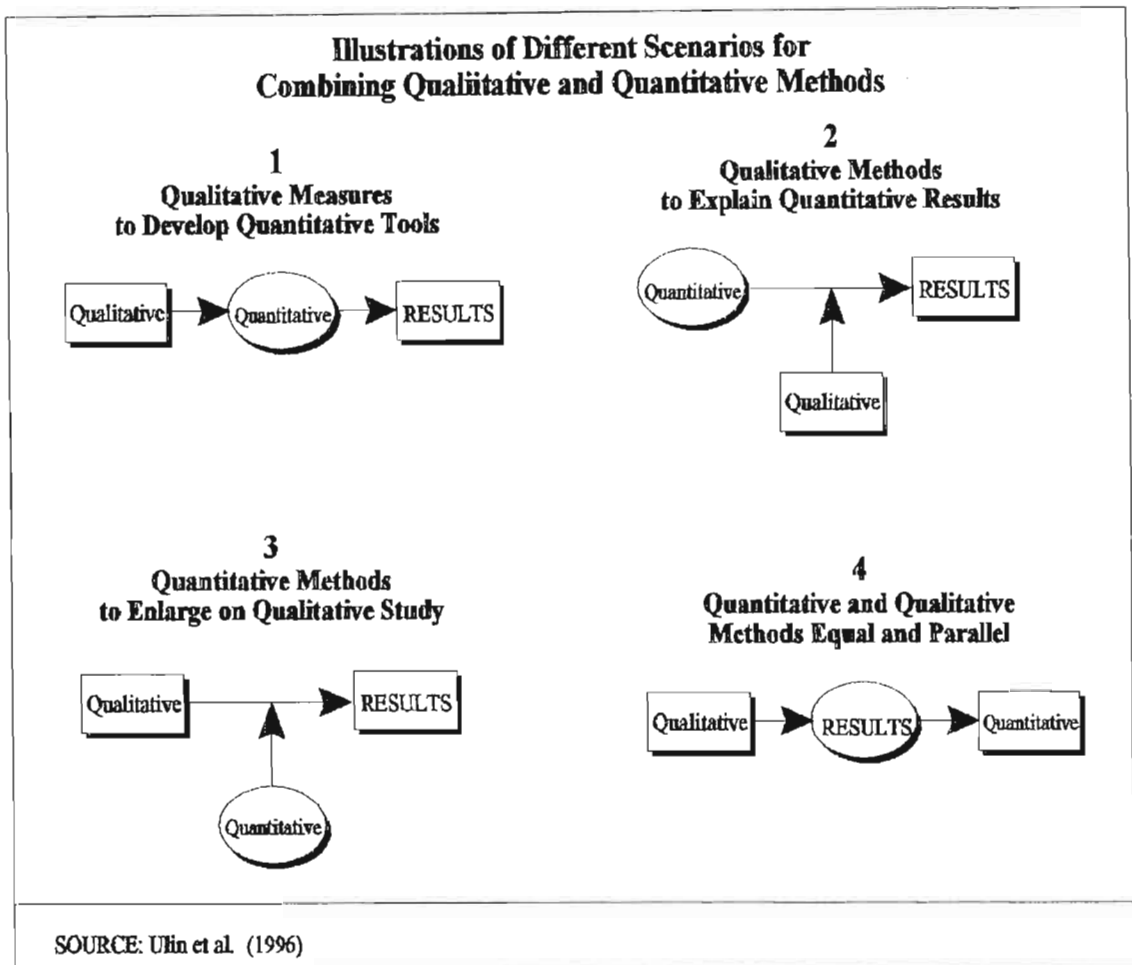
Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) provide a diagrammatic representation of four possible scenarios for combining qualitative and quantitative methods. The diagram source is an unpublished paper by Ulin, Waszack and Pfannenschmidt (1996) and is reproduced in Figure 6. 4, p.190. The diagram illustrates four combinations:

- (i) Qualitative measures to develop quantitative tools
- (ii) Qualitative methods to explain quantitative results
- (iii) Quantitative methods to enlarge on qualitative study
- (iv) Quantitative and qualitative methods equal and parallel.

In Figure 6.4, item (ii), “qualitative methods to explain quantitative results”, presents the closest description to the approach adopted in this study where the qualitative interviews and associated questions are designed to enhance the understanding which would arise from an analysis of the quantitative results. However, this representation has limitations in its association between the quantitative data and the qualitative data. The study approach goes further, in so far as it tests the validity of the quantitative analyses to corroborate or otherwise the findings. It uses both sets of data to generate a more complete explanation, not simply to explain quantitative results.

Figure 6.4

Qualitative and Quantitative Methods



The qualitative element in triangulation is seen as the “critical counterpoint” by Jick (1979), who believes that qualitative data, arising as it does out of personal encounters of the researcher, is more vivid and holistic, and in this sense is able to create better meaning and understanding in the total research study. (p.609).

Coldwell (1981, 1985) takes this approach further in an attempt to arrive at the “level of meaning” which exists in the minds of those participating in a particular study. Coldwell maintains that a dialectical methodology, using the Hegelian formula of thesis, antithesis and provisional synthesis, provides a valid foundation for empirical research. On this basis he argued that, “the methodologies of positivism and phenomenology are necessarily

complimentary and can not be understood except in relation to each other.” (1985, p, 180). On such grounds each single methodology, that is, the quantitative (positivist) or qualitative (phenomenological), would only provide a partial explanation. Coldwell’s approach seeks to corroborate causal adequacy (quantitative) with a more intense level of meaning (qualitative).

This relationship is portrayed in the Weberian analogy of a being from outer space observing the act of chopping wood. The movement of the axe is seen to cleave the wood (causal), but the purpose or use for a fire is unknown (the meaning), without a more complete investigation. The entire context is required to achieve explanations which are both causally adequate in the level of meaning. For Coldwell, triangulation should seek to expose the ‘meaning’ aspect within human beings of their actual behaviour and experience, with causal references discovered at the quantitative level of analysing. For instance, do participants in their own minds, relate their experience of emotional exhaustion with role ambiguity in the work situation. In this way causal adequacy(quantitative) may be corroborated by adequacy at the level of meaning (qualitative). Figure 6.5 (p.192) offers an adapted diagrammatic representation of Coldwell’s dialectical methodology.

In terms of this model the findings of the qualitative element are introduced to corroborate the findings of the quantitative element and thereby assisting to validate and support the initial quantitative findings. Coldwell (1981, p.15 -16) argues that the movement in the diagram may be from B to A and then to C for the synthesis, or in the opposite direction, whereby the move could be from A to B and then to C. Either way the dialectical process is designed to offer a more complete explanation..

Researchers are warned, by Jick (1979), against simply using the multi-method approach as window dressing.

“If the research is not clearly focussed theoretically or conceptually , all the methods in the world will not produce a satisfactory outcome”. (p.609)

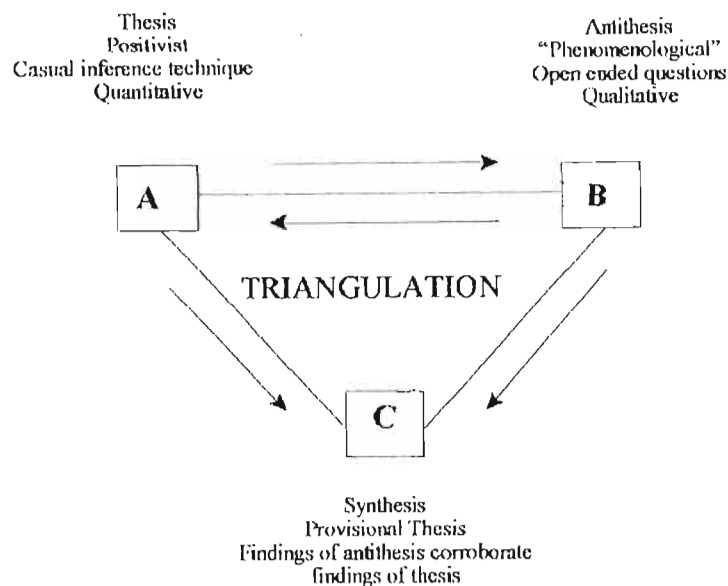
6.2.3.3 The Benefits of Triangulation

Certain benefits have been identified by researchers in their application of one or other form of triangulation methodology.

- (i) When a hypothesis can survive confrontation of a series of complementary methods of testing, it contains a degree of validity unattainable by one tested within the more constricted framework of a single method. (Denzin, 1973).
- (ii) Triangulation can produce a more complete, holistic and contextual portrait of the object under study. (Ghauri, 1995).

Figure 6.5

Diagrammatic Representation of the Dialectical Methodology



- (iii) Two or more method types can build upon each other to offer insights that neither one alone could provide. Multiple view points allow for greater accuracy. (Jick, 1979).
- (iv) Since different methods have different biases, when used in tandem, each can be used to check on and learn from the other. (Reichardt and Cook, 1979).
- (v) Researchers can be more confident of their results. This is the overall strength of the multi-method design. (Jick, 1970).
- (vi) Triangulation offers an approach that can generate explanations that are both causally adequate and adequate on the level of meaning. (Coldwell, 1981)

6.2.3.4 Problems with Triangulation

Certain problems have been found to accompany the application of triangulation methodology.

- (i) Different methods can come up with contradictory results which makes validation impractical. (Bloor, 1997). However, it is argued that even if results are different, triangulation leads to better understanding, or to new questions for further research.

- (ii) Issues of additional expense and time spent on doubling up the exercise need to be weighed against potentially enhanced findings.
- (iii) Added skill is required from interactive and observer roles for qualitative methods, but these can be learned if time is available.
- (iv) It is exceedingly difficult to replicate a triangulated study and thus comparative studies become problematic.

6.2.3.5 Triangulation in Practice

Jick (1979) maintained that those who advocate triangulation mostly “fail to indicate how this prescribed triangulation is actually performed and accomplished.” (p.602).

To illustrate the application of triangulation Jick, referred to a study he conducted on the effects of a merger on employees (1979, p.606-608). Recognising the pitfalls of the various options in a study characterised by high levels of anxiety and job insecurity in the survey population, he adopted a research strategy based on triangulation. The research “package” included the use of a random sample of survey questionnaires, unobtrusive and non-participant observation, use of archival information, self reports, co-worker observation and interviews. This complex of research data was cross referenced and integrated systematically. A unique aspect was that the quantitative results were used to supplement the qualitative data rather than the reverse. Jick’s (1979) findings, after using different methods, produced both convergent and divergent results.

The discrepancies resulting from this multi-method approach required that the researcher should reconcile the differences somehow. This in turn was an opportunity for explanations that were richer than would otherwise have occurred. These various techniques and instruments, according to Jick, generated a rich and comprehensive picture of job insecurity and anxiety, which would not have been attainable by a conventional one method approach.

6.2.3.6 The Grounds for Use of Triangulation in Current Study

Triangulation methodology is used in this study for a number of reasons:

- (i) It was important to obtain an understanding directly from HRPs how they were experiencing important aspects of their job in relation to the main variables in the study. The quantitative questionnaire would not have revealed the concerns and perceptions of operational HRPs. The shortcomings of subjective responses would be balanced by the more objective responses recorded in the data of the quantitative questionnaire.

- (ii) The Career Orientation Inventory, when used as a career guidance tool, calls for a discussion with the respondent to clarify understandings and agree on a career anchor. With this study the thirty interviews (25% of total respondents) allowed opportunity for discussion with the individuals regarding their agreement with the outcome of the scoring and with the career category which emerged. The feedback from these interviews provided the opportunity to obtain invaluable response to the credibility of the measuring instrument which otherwise would not have been possible.
- (iii) In light of the potential for denial in studies on stress and burnout and the complications created by organisations in which stress is treated with caution, the opportunity to discuss sensitive issues around role stress and work related stress (burnout) in a face to face context, was seen as an important source of feedback for the researcher. The subjective elements in such encounters could be balanced with the objective findings from the quantitative results.
- (iv) The qualitative interviews provided the opportunity to discuss with respondents their perception of inherent ambiguities in HRM and the implications for them personally of having to operate within this context in contemporary South Africa. This data provided essential current experiences and perceptions not otherwise obtainable.

6.2.3.7 Concluding Comment on Triangulation

In the context of this study, it was believed that triangulation had the advantage of heightening the value of the quantitative methods through the use of qualitative methods. By utilising a method which was both complementary and supplementary, greater credibility could be demonstrated in the ultimate findings. Such approach does require greater creativity on the part of the researcher in both collecting and interpreting the data. Jick (1979, p.610) maintains that it is this challenge which is in the interests of evaluation research.

CHAPTER SEVEN

7 : DATA GATHERING INSTRUMENTS

This chapter contains three sections.

Section 7. 1 presents a detailed explanation of the three quantitative measures applied in the research and the biographical questionnaire.

Section 7. 2 discusses the qualitative questionnaires and the rationale for the specific questions.

Section 7. 3 outlines the Pilot Test Run and its outcomes for the study.

7.1 QUANTITATIVE MEASURES

This part provides a detailed analysis of the data gathering instruments employed in the quantitative study. These measuring instruments are extensively discussed in order to provide a comprehensive understanding of their use. The instruments are all well tested and have been frequently applied in research internationally. The section concludes with an explanation of the biographical data sought in the quantitative questionnaire. The following comprise the main components of Section 7.1.

- | | |
|---|------------|
| * The Career Orientation Inventory | Appendix A |
| * The Rizzo, House and Lirtzman Scales (as adapted) | Appendix E |
| * The Maslach Burnout Inventory | Appendix G |
| * The Biographical Questionnaire | Appendix I |

7.1.1 CAREER ORIENTATION INVENTORY

To establish the career orientation of HR practitioners, the most effective known instrument to apply is Schein's (1993) Career Orientation Inventory (COI). Chapter Four on Career Orientation detailed the theory and relevance of the application of the concept of career anchors. Chapter Six provided the Research Methodology within which the concept of career orientation was applied.

This section explains the measuring instrument in terms of the questionnaire and the scoring method.

7.1.1.1 The Structure of the Career Orientation Inventory

The inventory is in the form of forty questions using Likert-type scale responses. The response options to the forty statements provide for four categories, being, "Never true for me"; "Occasionally true for me" (with two options); "Often true for me" (with two options); "Always true for me". In total, scoring options from 1 to 6 are available. The respondent places the appropriate number into the scoring box at the end of each statement. Schein has explained that the questions are not based on forced choice. (personal correspondence with the researcher. (email, 10/8/1998)

The questions are structured to elicit responses that follow the eight identified categories. These categories with their codes are:

- * Technical/Functional Competence (TF)
- * General Management Competence (GM)
- * Autonomy/Independence (AU)
- * Security/Stability (SE)
- * Entrepreneurial Creativity (EC)
- * Service/Dedication to a Cause (SV)
- * Pure Challenge (CH)
- * Lifestyle (LS)

7.1.1.2 Scoring the Inventory

Once the questionnaire is completed respondents are requested to look over their answers and select three items that seem most true for them and then to add four points to each of the scores of those three items. This method provides a simple weighting system. The scores are then entered onto a score sheet provided, which contains a matrix of eight columns matched against the relevant numbers of the questions. The columns represent each of the eight categories. The scores are then transposed onto the matrix, including the three with the weighted scores. The columns are then totalled and divided by five to produce an average score. The dominant category then can be identified as the apparent career anchor. (see Appendix A for the questionnaire).

The COI has a unique feature in that it offers respondents the opportunity to self score.

The approach adopted in the study was to offer this provision to respondents. Accompanying the mailed questionnaire was a sealed envelope containing the score sheet and instructions, together with a summarised explanation of the eight career anchors. (See Appendices B & C). Respondents were requested not to open the envelope until the questionnaire had been completed and then to undertake a self score and identification of their apparent career anchor.

The opportunity to self score was explained in the covering letter which invited the

recipients to participate in the study. The offer was introduced as an incentive to allow respondents to receive immediate feedback on their participation, as against waiting for a lengthy period to obtain a generalised interpretation of the study.

Schein (1993) recommends that opportunity be given to respondents to discuss their scores with some other person. He provides a set of questions for such person to follow with the purpose of assisting the respondent to think through the outcome and then to decide how true the outcome is. It does not require a qualified interpreter. The objective is to help the respondents articulate their own perceptions in a supportive environment and, through the question and answer process, to establish the validity of the scoring as a fair reflection of where that person 'is coming from'.

Most studies are unable to achieve this level of confirmation. However, the present study created opportunity within the qualitative study to enter into a discussion with the selected respondents to obtain confirmation or otherwise of the scoring outcome. This exercise allowed for assessment of the reasonableness of the responses from the main survey respondents.

7.1.1.3 Reliability and Validity Testing

In light of the tried and tested nature of the COI, it was decided that running trials would be unnecessary. The COI had been used in a variety of work contexts with different employment categories over a lengthy period during which it had been proved to be a reliable measure.

7.1.1.4 Statistical Analysis

For statistical analysis purposes, the scores are not aggregated but remain as eight independent items. Using the SPSS software, these scores were captured and stored in a data base for correlation with the scores of the other variables.

7.1.2 THE ROLE STRESS MEASURE

To test for Role Stress, it was decided to apply a slightly adapted version of the **Rizzo, House and Lirtzman (1970)** measure for role stress.

This section provides:

- * a background to the Rizzo, House and Lirtzman measure for role stress
- * the measure's structure, adaptation and reasons for its selection.
- * a discussion on the inclusion of the Role Overload factor
- * information on the outcome of the adapted measure reliability test

7.1.2.1 Background

The concept of Role Stress was discussed in Chapter Five: Section 5.3 and is the necessary introduction to the explanation that follows. Reference was made in that discussion to research into role stress with special attention to role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload, three of the factors in a work environment that this study measures.

Most studies referred to in Chapter Four applied their role stress measurement instruments within a context of organisational and/or role theory, in order that they may establish a relationship between the organisational environment and individual or organisational outcomes, whether negative or positive. Most studies have identified the dysfunctional effects of role conflict and role ambiguity. The Rizzo, House and Lirtzman (1970) measure and findings are based on organisational and role theory.

In this study, the three role stress factors referred to have been hypothesised as intermediate variables, contributing to an overall outcome of measurable burnout. The theoretical background of the study is founded on what is argued to be the inherently ambiguous nature of human resource management as presented in Chapters Two and Three, together with a perspective on role and stress theory described in Chapter Five.

Miles (1975) reported on later research by House and Rizzo (1972), which treated role conflict and role ambiguity as intervening variables. Their results provided weak support for role conflict and moderately strong support for role ambiguity as intervening variables between the organisational context and personal outcomes. Part of the aim of this current research was to investigate the three role stress factors as intervening variables resulting in measurable burnout.

7.1.2.2 The Structure of the Role Stress Questionnaire

The original **Rizzo, House and Lirtzman (1970) Measure** was adapted for the purposes of the study and the details of the adaptations are provided.

The Rizzo, et al.,(1970) thirty item questionnaire provides most of the items used in the construction of the measure for this investigation. Their role conflict and role ambiguity scales “are the most commonly used instrument for measuring these two variables in work settings, and the use of these scales seems to be growing.” (Tracy and Johnson.1981,. p.464). Their question list contained fifteen role conflict and fifteen role ambiguity orientated items on a seven point scale.

On the basis of the well tested history of the Rizzo, et al., (1970), scales it was decided to use them with certain adaptation. The adaptations were made on the basis of the tested application by a number of researchers. It was believed it would not be necessary to engage in factorial and other tests as Rizzo, et al., and other researchers had engaged in thorough statistical analyses and it was unnecessary to duplicate work already undertaken.

The section on Role Stress in Chapter Five: 5.3.2, referred to some of the numerous studies undertaken into role conflict and role ambiguity using the the Rizzo, et al., (1970) scales, or adaptations thereof, for testing in a variety of work contexts. As mentioned earlier, no study was found which specifically tested HRPs.

In developing the measure for this study, account was taken of a number of studies into the actual wording of the Rizzo, et al., (1970) items. Tracy and Johnson (1981) reported on a factor investigation into the Rizzo, et al., (1970) scales whereby the apparent bias in wording, either towards a 'stress' or a 'comfort' orientation, was tested. The outcome did not detract from the value of the measure. House, Schuler and Levanoni (1983) later also tested the negative/positive wording of the items. They questioned whether the outcome of the Rizzo, et al., (1970) tests was an artifact of wording rather than being related to reality. Their findings indicate that the wording did not appear to influence the outcome. "These new role conflict and role ambiguity factors were highly correlated with their original counterparts" (p. 337).

Harris (1991), following Tracy and Johnson (1981) and House et al., (1983), and other researchers, re-investigated the construct validity of the Rizzo, et al., (1970) measures on role conflict and role ambiguity. Although finding grounds for widening the factors of role conflict and role ambiguity with sub-scales, the validity of two factors remained.

It was decided to use the original Rizzo, et al (1970) measure, on the basis of its proven status, with certain **adaptations** which would better meet the requirements of the current study. These adaptations are discussed below.

(i) Removal of Items

Four items were removed from the Rizzo, et al., (1970) list that appeared to confuse the reader, especially in a South African, non-American environment, following the pilot run. Those omitted were, "I have to 'feel my way' in performing my duties."; "I am uncertain as to how my job is linked."; "I am corrected or rewarded when I really don't expect it."; "I receive assignments without adequate resources and materials to execute it". (The reference to 'materials' was considered inappropriate in relation to HRPs). The item worded "I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it" was accepted as more direct and could avoid duplication.

(ii) Improvement of Wording

The problem of 'americanisms' was addressed and corrected where applicable. The term "buck" was provided with an interpretation 'bend' or 'break'. Other minor improvements to the wording were made to ensure the meaning was conveyed and understood. Rewriting of the wording in more contemporary terminology was not attempted lest the tested implication of the item was distorted and other meanings introduced.

(iii) Comparison with Two Other Studies

Comparison with the wording of two other measures, which followed and adapted the Rizzo et al., (1970) wording, was undertaken.

Rogers and Molnar (1976) used a format comprising eleven role conflict and eleven role ambiguity items applied to top level county administrators, reflecting the standard inter-sender, inter-role, intra-sender and person-role conflicts, and using a five point scale ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. Their focus was on inter-organisational and intra-organisational contexts in which the roles were performed, which had relevance for the role of the HRP. This study was of interest as the role of the top level administrator had some parallels with the role of the HRP, which was not the same with many of the other studies where role comparisons were minimal.

Peterson and Smith (1995), in their 21 nation study into role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload, developed a 31 item measure by adapting the House, Schuler and Levanoni (1983) study to their purposes, using a five point scale ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. They adapted the wording of some items for international applicability and included six specific role overload questions. There were twelve role conflict and thirteen role ambiguity items. This study was of interest as it was contemporary and international and thus of particular value.

7.1.2.3 The Design of the Measure

The measure for this study was compiled to provide a balance between the role conflict and role ambiguity factors, together with a set of items which would adequately assess the role overload factor. The role conflict scales comprised thirteen items, role ambiguity comprised twelve items and role overload, eight, making a total of 33 items, measured on a five point scale ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. Role conflict items allowed for a balance between the four elements of inter-sender, inter-role, intra-sender and person-role conflict.

The eight role overload items allowed for both quantitative and qualitative elements to be tested. The Peterson and Smith (1995) scales influenced the final selection with four of their items being adopted. These were: "My work load is too heavy"; "There are unreasonable pressures for better performance"; "I have been given too much responsibility"; "I feel overburdened in my role".

In light of the current study's focus on work related stress/burnout and the part that the work load and role overload may play in the level of stress experienced, it was believed important to include a section on role overload in the testing format.

The Rizzo et al., (1970) measure included what may be identified as role overload items within role conflict. But following Peterson and Smith (1995), it was decided to include those Rizzo role conflict items within the role overload factor, viz., “I have enough time to complete my work”; “I have just the right amount of work to do”. (This was reduced to read: “My work load is just right”)

One Rizzo item, “I perform tasks that are too easy or boring”, implies role underload, but was retained on the basis of inclusion in the Rizzo measure.

The scales used in this study are scored from 1 to 5 points, or 5 to 1 points, depending on whether the wording is positive or negative.

A feature of the Rizzo, et al., (1970) scales is the nature of how the items are worded as orientated either towards “stress” (negative) or towards “comfort” (positive), with role ambiguity having more “comfort” related items and role conflict having more stress related items. The Table 7.1 (p.202) reflects a comparison of this study with the Rizzo, et al., (1970) and two other studies of the “stress” and “comfort” count. The wording of the measure developed for this study has fifteen positively worded items and eighteen negatively worded items. The role conflict factor comprises four positive and nine negative worded items. The role ambiguity factor has eight positive and four negative worded items. The role overload factor has three positive and five negative worded items. This mix compares almost exactly with the Rogers and Molner (1976) measure where role conflict had three positive and nine negative worded items, and role ambiguity had eight positive and four negative worded items. Peterson and Smith (1995) did not follow the ratio and both the role conflict and role overload reflect distinct bias towards “stress” orientated items.

The final wording for the Role Stress measure applied in the study is found in Appendix E and titled ROLE QUESTIONNAIRE. It was applied as part of the research test procedures.

7.1.2.4 The Reliability of the Adapted Role Stress Questionnaire

Once the questionnaire had been applied to the sample of HRPs, a Cronbach Alpha test was run to assess the internal consistency of the sub-sections of the questionnaire. ‘Internal consistency’ refers to “the homogeneity of a set of items that constitute a particular (sub) scale.” (Schaufeli and Enzmann, 1998, p.45). A high Cronbach alpha coefficient value of 0 .80 and above is regarded as indicating a good degree of internal consistency and suggests that the set of items is homogenous. A value of 0 .70 is considered to be sufficient. Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) indicate that alpha depends upon the number of items included so that the shorter scales are likely to have lower alpha values. (p.45).

Table 7.1

Stress and Comfort Wording Comparisons

	Role Conflict		Role Ambiguity		Role Overload	
	Stress	Comfort	Stress	Comfort	Stress	Comfort
This Study	9	4	4	8	5	3
Rizzo, et al., (1970)	9	6	6	9	(1)*	(2)*
Rogers & Molnar (1976)	8	3	4	7	-	-
Peterson & Smith (1995)	10	1	6	8	6	0

* The bracketed figures represent items that may be subtracted from the role conflict factor and included under role overload. They are indicated for comparison value.

Strong internal consistency was shown in regard to Role Ambiguity (See Appendix 7.1) with 0.86 from 112 responses recorded for the twelve items in the questionnaire. Role Conflict (See Appendix 7.2) also reflected strong internal consistency with 0.81 from 113 responses from thirteen items in the questionnaire. Role Overload (See Appendix 7.3) showed a lower level of consistency of 0.62. One item appears to have influenced the lower outcome. Question number 7 (RO 24): "I perform tasks that are too easy or boring", if removed, would reflect an alpha reading of 0.70. It was decided not to delete the item but rather to acknowledge its possible negative influence. The wording is reflective of underloading. In the original Rizzo scales, overload and underload elements were classified as falling within Role Conflict. The Role Overload factor was specifically identified and included as a factor to be measured as explained in the previous section. In terms of the study it was accepted that the Role Overload factor was adequately served by the questionnaire, other than the one item mentioned.

Lee and Ashworth (1996) undertook a meta-analytic examination of the correlates of Maslach's three dimensions of job burnout including what they described as the "major demands of work" (p.123), which specifically included role ambiguity, role conflict and heavy work load. Their weighted mean reliability figures are of interest as they are comparable with those of this study. Role ambiguity, 0.78: Role Conflict 0.79: Role Overload, (Workload), 0.76.

7.1.3 THE MASLACH BURNOUT INVENTORY

To test for burnout it, was decided to apply the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI)(1981) in its original format, but not to use the more recent MBI-Human Services Survey (1996) (MBI-HSS) version. An explanation for this decision is provided in this section. The concept of burnout which the MBI measures is described in Chapter Five: 5.1.4.

The MBI questionnaire can be found as Appendix G

This section explains:

- * the universality of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI)
- * structure of the measure and its sub-scales
- * the reasons for the adoption of the MBI in this study
- * the scoring system of the MBI
- * Certain wording amendments

Prof Catherine Maslach of the University of California, Berkeley, Ca., began her research into stress related “burnout” in the early 1970's. She is acknowledged as one of the pioneers in “burnout” research, especially as it relates to professionals whose work involves intense relationships with other people. The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), which she designed and tested with Jackson, attempts to measure the level of experienced burnout amongst professionals who “spend considerable time in intense involvement with other people”.

7.1.3.1 Universality of the Maslach Burnout Inventory

The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) is a means of measuring the level of burnout. The instrument was introduced in the early 1980's by Professors Maslach and Jackson. A second edition was published in 1986 and the third in 1996.

Cox, Kuk and Leiter (1993) maintain that the MBI “is the most commonly used multidimensional instrument for measuring burnout.”(p.180). According to Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) it “is almost universally used as *the* instrument to assess burnout.” (p.50). They report that in doctoral dissertations between 1975 and 1996, the MBI as a research instrument was used 91 % of the time and out of 498 publications, eg., journal articles, 93 % refer to the use of the MBI. (p.71). The MBI is the predominant test instrument for burnout.

The MBI is based on a multidimensional format which is recognised as being more complicated to interpret than other similar but unidimensional studies. Maslach (1993) disagrees with those who attempt to reduce and simplify the burnout concept. She argues that “the empirical evidence provides more support for a multifaceted conception of burnout than it does for a single, unitary one.” (p.27).

Although designed for professionals who work in ‘people related’ fields from health care to prison warders, it has been tested in non-occupational roles, such as family settings. Its most effective application lies in its original intention to measure burnout in the people focussed professional occupations.

7.1.3.2 The Structure of the MBI

The MBI (1981), now referred to as the MBI-HSS (Human Services Survey), is designed to assess three aspects of the burnout syndrome:

- * The emotional exhaustion sub-scale assesses feelings of being emotionally overextended and exhausted by one’s work. This sub-scale comprises nine items.
- * The depersonalisation sub-scale assesses the unfeeling and impersonal response towards recipients of one’s service, care, treatment, instruction or involvement. There are five items.
- * The personal accomplishment sub-scale assesses feelings of competence and successful achievement in one’s work with people. There are eight items.

Each sub-scale has two dimensions in the original 1981 format:

- * Frequency: which indicates how often people have these feelings expressed in the above three sub-categories.
- * Intensity: which indicates the strength of these feelings expressed in the three sub-categories.

The MBI is structured into 22 statements covering the three sub-scales, each requiring responses to measure frequency and intensity separately, thus providing 44 separate responses measured on increasing levels of frequency or intensity of the experience. Frequency, identified as “how often”, is measured from ‘never’ to ‘every day’. Intensity, identified as “how strong”, is measured from ‘never’ to ‘very strong’.

The six resultant sub-scale scores are not aggregated, but treated independently.

7.1.3.3 Recent MBI Developments

Maslach, Jackson and Leiter (1996) have produced two user specific focussed Inventories.

The first, the MBI-Educators Survey (MBI-ES), was introduced in the mid 1980's to identify burnout levels of individuals who work in school settings. The 22 statements are identical with the MBI-HSS, except the term student is introduced to make the survey more specific for teachers/educators and scores are interpreted within a school context.

In introducing the second, the MBI - General Survey (MBI-GS), Maslach, Jackson and Leiter (1996) acknowledged that, “almost from the original release of the MBI-HSS, researchers used the scale, modified or unmodified, with occupational groups other than public human service providers.” (p.19). This ultimately led to the formulation and testing of the MBI-GS for general occupations and is structured differently with only 16 statements. It was decided by the researcher that, for the purposes of this study, the focus of the MBI-GS was too general and too little tested. It was believed that the original 1981 version would better apply to HRPs who may have closer affinity with human service occupations than to engineers, accountants, general workers and other more broadly defined occupations. This decision finds support in Golembiewski, Muzenrider and Carter (1983) who tested the MBI-HSS in a commercial setting from the chief executive down the ranks (n=296) and found support for the applicability of the MBI in a setting other than human service providers.

7.1.3.4 The Six Sub-Scales of the Maslach Burnout Inventory

The original MBI (1981) utilised the two elements of frequency and intensity, with each measuring the three components of burnout as in the explanation above and creating six sub-scales listed below.

<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Intensity</i>
Emotional exhaustion frequency (EE)	Emotional exhaustion intensity (EE)
Depersonalisation frequency (DP)	Depersonalisation intensity (DP)
Personal accomplishment frequency (PA)	Personal accomplishment intensity (PA)

This six sub-scale structure has been used in the questionnaire of this study. Maslach's latest MBI format (1996) excludes the *Intensity* element. The *Intensity* element was removed according to Maslach, “...because of the redundancy between the frequency and intensity ratings” (1993, p.26).

Gaines and Jermier (1983), focussing on the emotional exhaustion factor, found that “the frequency and intensity of emotional exhaustion do not warrant separate analyses in the future. The scales were strongly correlated and analysis of intensity contributed little to understanding the sources of emotional exhaustion.” (p.583).

The reasoning is acknowledged by Schaufeli, Enzmann and Girault (1993) in their evaluation of the MBI. "Because the frequency and intensity ratings appear to be highly correlated ($r > 0.80$), only the frequency scoring is recommended." (p.208).

This rationale was noted by Cordes and Dougherty (1993) in their review of research on job burnout. They quote three further research findings between 1984 and 1986 which supported dropping the intensity element. (p.626).

However, despite the reported close correlation between the frequency and intensity subscales, Cordes and Dougherty (1993) also noted that there were an equal number (four) researchers between 1986 and 1989 who continued to use the intensity sub-scale. (p.626).

It was decided for this current research to retain the *Intensity* component of the earlier (1981) format as an additional measure in the event of possible variation in the results, in light of the broader application to HR practitioners.

Some researchers have suggested that, due to the strength of the Emotional Exhaustion (EE) component, it should be separated from Depersonalisation (DP) and Personal Accomplishment (PA), as emotional exhaustion is clearly the defining feature of burnout.

Cox, Kuk and Leiter (1993, p. 180 -182), in their review of research findings on the MBI, confirm the centrality of emotional exhaustion in the burnout concept. They found that emotional exhaustion correlates most strongly with other global measures of burnout and that emotional exhaustion is more closely associated with depersonalisation than with personal accomplishment. They also suggest from their review that "emotional exhaustion can be most readily generalized across different work groups" (p.182). As far as the depersonalisation component is concerned they saw it as "unique to human service work". (p.182).

7.1.3.5 Confirmatory Support for the MBI

Various reliability and validity tests have given confirmatory support to the Maslach Burnout Inventory

(i) Reliability

Schaufeli, Enzmann and Girault (1993, p.208-210) analysed numerous studies which applied the three MBI scales to a range of sub-groups. They found the internal consistency of the three scales to be "satisfactory", with Cronbach's alpha values ranging from 0.71 to 0.90 in a normative sample of 11 000 subjects. Internal consistency coefficients were found occasionally to be lower than 0.70 with the depersonalisation scale in non-human services samples, such as gifted students and university students. They speculate that this may be due to the meaning of depersonalisation being different in such samples, or to the shorter length of the scale because the value of the alpha coefficient depends upon the number of items. (p.208). Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998)

(p.44-51) and Lee and Ashworth (1996) (p123-133) provide similar support.

The test-retest coefficients were found to range from 0 .60 to 0 .80 across short periods of up to a month. Certain sub-groups, such as teachers, were found to have slightly lower coefficients over longer periods. Schaufeli, Enzmann and Girault (1993), in their examination of the various studies using the MBI, found that “emotional exhaustion appeared to be the most stable burnout dimension, whereas depersonalization was the least stable dimension” of the three sub-scales (p.209). Significantly, they believe that the high correlations found in their examination suggest burnout as a chronic rather than a transient state of mind.

(ii) Factorial Validity

The factorial validity of all three versions of the MBI has been confirmed by a number of studies using advanced statistical techniques. Maslach, Jackson and Leiter (1996) (p.11) noted six such studies, including Golembiewski, Muckenrider and Carter (1983). Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) (p.52) refer to four studies reporting positive results.

Some commentators have observed a closer correlation between emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation, but not so strong an association with personal accomplishment. Various reasons are provided which are not relevant to this discussion as they relate to issues of the structure of the questionnaire and theoretical construction of the MBI. (See Schaufeli, Enzmann and Girault (1993)). The identified differences are important, however, when interpreting the findings of this research as will be discussed in the interpretation of the data from the study.

These authors also mention that factorial validity studies had suggested that the questionnaire item: “I feel very energetic”, should be deleted from the MBI since it not only loads on the intended Personal Accomplishment dimension, but also on Emotional Exhaustion. (p.213). Again, this issue is noted for its potential value in interpretation of the findings of this study. Maslach’s (1996) position on this issue indicates her belief that it does not have serious impact on the overall scoring, and thus the existing 22 statement structure should be left intact as it would “maintain consistency with the large body of research using the MBI-HSS..... with its established scoring structure.” (p.11).

(iii) Convergent Validity

Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) reported that studies had shown that the MBI scales measured the same construct as do other burnout instruments. Correlations of emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation with other self-report indicators are high, with “*r*” exceeding 0 .50, whereas correlations with personal accomplishment are somewhat lower, with “*r*” around .30. (p.53-54). Maslach, Jackson and Leiter’s (1996) own studies support these findings. (p.12-13).

(iv) Discriminant Validity

Maslach, Jackson and Leiter (1996) argue that various studies by other researchers have shown that the MBI has the ability to distinguish between burnout and other psychological constructs, eg., that burnout is nothing more than dissatisfaction with one's job. (p.15). They maintain that the MBI has the ability to differentiate between burnout and depression, which they perceive as a common misreading as, in their understanding, they are not the same construct. They argue that:

“Depression is global, pervading every aspect of a person's life, whereas burnout is more a quality of the social environment of work. As such, these two concepts are clearly different psychologically.” (p.16).

7.1.3.6 Cross-National Validity of the MBI

The cross-national validity of the MBI has been assessed with positive results. For instance, Golembiewski, Scherb and Boudreau (1993) report on an analysis of samples from six countries where results were compared with one another. Their findings suggested that “respondents to the MBI ‘see’ substantially the same dimensional universe despite the underlying differences between national loci, work settings, and probably cultures.” (p.229), implying a congruence cross-nationally. These researchers quote Kilpatrick's (1986) cross national literature review report, where it was found that there was “evidence about cross- national congruence of the three sub-domains of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (1986).” (p.218).

Schaufeli, Enzmann and Girault (1993) suggest that further valid research is required as no attempts have been made to calibrate the MBI for different nations. (p.214). However, subsequently Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) refer to studies between United States and the Netherlands across five occupational fields where their findings reflect considerable consistency, leading them to support the belief that the MBI is applicable across nations. (p.63-65).

Moch (2000), using two samples, one of 49 nurses and the other of 68 business executives and nurses within the South African context, found significant levels of correlation between his Moch Stress Curve (MSC) and its five sub-scales and the three sub-components of the MBI.. He found the highest correlations occurred with Emotional Exhaustion (EE). He notes that “The EE component of the MBI is the most important for comparative purposes in the present study as it has been found to be the most predominant scale”. (p.19). This confirms Maslach's own findings and that of other researchers using the MBI..

Moch found the following correlations between his MSC zones and the MBI:

- * EE - strong positive correlation: ($r = 0.5919$; $p < 0.0001$; $n = 49$)
- * PA - lower but still significant correlation: ($r = .2861$; $p < 0.018$; $n = 49$)
- * DP - moderate but highly significant correlation: ($r = 0.3277$; $p < 0.006$; $n = 49$)

Moch (2000) suggests the establishment of a significant correlation with all three components of the MBI. "A statistical relationship has therefore been demonstrated which is indicative of a consistency between the MSC and each component of the MBI". (p.21).

7.1.3.7 The Choice of the Maslach Burnout Inventory for the Study

Although Maslach is not reported to have tested her inventory specifically on HR practitioners, Maslach and Jackson (1986a) state that, "burnout ... is a potential hazard for any 'people-work' occupation, including human services, education and personnel work." (p.228). A considerable portion of the work of most HRPs falls within the category which the authors define. The skill and performance of HRPs is to a degree measured by their ability to cope in intense people-focussed situations. They are often required to work in highly ambiguous contexts characterized by strongly charged emotions - for instance, within retrenchments, disciplinary cases, dismissals, wage and other negotiations, strike situations. The MBI is thus regarded as applicable to HRPs, and was found to be the most suitable from among other available measures which are referred to at the end of this section.

Maslach's approach is that of a social psychologist who attempts to understand individual behaviour in a social context. In the selection of the MBI for the current research, it was important to recognise her starting point in any interpretation of the study's findings as this would assist in maintaining the conceptual integrity of the MBI. Maslach(1993) explains that "... my social psychology analysis of burnout is that it is an individual stress experience embedded in a context of complex social relationships." (p.28). For HRPs, there is the group and organisational context. The HRP, as a professional, works both in one to one relationships and within group and organisational dynamics.

The purpose of the study is to establish the extent and significance of the relationship between burnout and Career Orientation categories and Role Stress factors amongst a sample of HRPs.. The decision to use the MBI was based on its proven ability to obtain a stress level reading which could be computed and measured against other computed variables in the study.

A number of other possible stress measuring instruments were considered but not accepted. These were:

Watts' (1985) Stress Indicator, comprising 40 statements describing potentially stressful work conditions, was designed for emerging black managers in South Africa.

(p.493-500) The test had the advantage of being peculiarly South African, but its wording was too specific to a particular sub-group of managers and thus limiting as far as other specific sub-groups of HRPs, albeit in the same geographical area. Some of her respondents may well have been HRPs, but not exclusively. Her findings are, however, useful references for this study.

Schlebusch's (2000) Checklist of General Symptoms of Unhealthy Stress comprises 87 statements in three categories of Physical, Psychological and Behavioural Reactions, (p.70-71). This checklist offers a comprehensive and generally applicable instrument, also tested within the South African context. It was believed to be too long when set alongside two other tests being applied and would have asked for too much time of busy managers. Consequently, it would have reduced the response rate.

7.1.3.8 Scoring the Maslach Burnout Inventory

The administration and scoring of the MBI is provided for in the back-up material that is part of the published documentation.

(i) The Sub-scale Structure

The scores for each of the six sub-scales are considered separately and are **not** combined into a single total score. Similarly, the FREQUENCY and INTENSITY scores for each sub-scale are considered separately.

Thus six scores are computed for each respondent. In summary, the higher the degree of experienced burnout, the higher the scores on the first four sub-scales (Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalisation), and the lower the scores on the last two sub-scales (Personal Accomplishment)

Similarly, the *Frequency* and *Intensity* scores for each sub-scale are considered separately. Thus six scores are computed for each respondent.

The complexity of this scoring system is seen as part of its richness by Leiter (1993):

“.....the complexity of the three component definition of burnout has provided a conceptual richness that more than justifies the problems people encounter thinking about the construct. It is my view that to some extent the vitality of the research activity regarding burnout is due to the complexity of the MBI. A unidimensional burnout measure would provide convenience at the cost of conceptual accuracy.” (p.239).

(ii) Interpreting the Scores

Burnout as conceptualised by Maslach (1981, p.3), is a continuous variable ranging from low to moderate to high degrees of experienced feelings. It is not viewed as a dichotomous variable which is either present or absent. This is registered as follows:

- * A high degree of burnout is reflected in high scores on the Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalisation sub-scales and in low scores on the Personal Accomplishment sub-scale.
- * A moderate or average degree of burnout is reflected in moderate scores on the three sub-scales.
- * A low degree of burnout is reflected in low scores on the Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalisation sub-scales and in high scores on the Personal Accomplishment sub-scale.

Scores are considered high if they are in the upper third of the normative distribution, moderate if they are in the middle third, and low if they are in the lower third.

This categorisation can be viewed diagrammatically as in Table 7.2.

Table 7.2

MBI: Categorisation of Norms

	<i>High BO</i>	<i>Moderate</i>	<i>Low BO</i>
<i>High Upper 1/3</i>	<i>EE DP</i>		<i>PA</i>
<i>Moderate Middle 1/3</i>		<i>EE DP PA</i>	
<i>Low Lower 1/3</i>	<i>PA</i>		<i>EE DP</i>

Key: EE - Emotional Exhaustion
 DP - Depersonalisation
 PA - Personal Accomplishment

The normative distribution figures have been amended by Maslach, et al., (1996) from the 1986 categorisation to the 1996 version, following the inclusion of a much larger set of responses. These figures, for convenience of reference, are incorporated in the Chapter Eight on the Analysis and Interpretation of the data.

Maslach and Jackson (1986b) draw attention to the need to recognise that the categorisation of the three levels of *high, moderate* and *low* “is intended primarily as feedback for individual respondents.” (p.5). They make it clear that “neither the coding nor the original numerical scores should be used for diagnostic purposes” (p.5) as there is insufficient evidence to support such a position. Researchers are directed to use the original numerical scores rather than the categorisations of low, average and high for statistical purposes.

Schaufeli, Enzmann and Girault(1993) in their assessment of the MBI, state that “no empirical basis exists yet for employing the MBI as a diagnostic tool for individual assessment.” (p.211). They warn that the division into 33.3 % equally sized groups is based on an arbitrary assumption that one third of subjects will experience a high degree of burnout, another third - average burnout, and the final third a low level of burnout. (p.210). They quote Einsiedel and Tully (1982), who indicated that there is no clinically valid reason for using the thirds division and that medians and means preferably should be applied. (p.210).

The MBI scores for a group of respondents may be treated as aggregate data. Comparisons can then be made with other national or group norms, as has occurred in the USA.

Means and standard deviations for each sub-scale have been computed by Maslach, et al., (1996). The 1986 version of the MBI provides such figures for both Frequency and Intensity elements. The 1996 version publishes only the Frequency means and standard deviations, albeit for a much larger number of respondents, and reflects lower means and standard deviations. Tables 7.3 (p.213) and 7.4 (p.213) provide comparative figures from Maslach’s earlier study and are included here as this study utilised both the Frequency and Intensity elements of the earlier MBI.

The MBI norms in Table 7.3 (p.213) are used and discussed in Chapter Eight.

The MBI scores are also correlated with other data, such as that obtained from the biographic and demographic questionnaire. This demographic data on HRPs is correlated with the six sub-scales in the interpretation and analysis, viz., length of service, age, gender, race.

7.1.3.9 Amended Wording of the MBI Questionnaire

For the purposes of this study, certain wording of the questions in the MBI was

Table 7.3

**Categorization of MBI Scores:
Range of Experienced Burnout**

	Low B/O	Moderate B/O	High B/O
MBI Subscale	lower third	middle third	upper third
Emotional Exhaustion			
Frequency	≤17	18 - 29	≥30
Intensity	≤25	26 - 39	≥40
Depersonalization			
Frequency	≤5	6 - 11	≥12
Intensity	≤6	7 - 14	≥15
Personal Accomplishment			
Frequency	≥40	39 - 34	≤33
Intensity	≥44	43 - 37	≤36

Source: Maslach (1981)

Table 7.4

Mean and Standard Deviations for MBI Sub-Scales

	Emotional Exhaustion	Depersonalization	Personal Accomplishment
<i>Frequency</i> (No = 1400)			
M	24.08	9.40	38.01
SD	11.88	6.90	6.93
<i>Intensity</i> (No = 1938)			
M	31.88	11.71	39.70
SD	13.84	6.09	7.66

Source: Maslach (1986)

amended to make the statements more appropriate to the human resource management profession, without altering the meaning of the scale. This is the principle used by Maslach in rewording the Inventory for teachers/educators.

Question 3: “and have to face another day on the job” amended to “ and have to go to work” as more appropriate to the management level.

Questions 4, 7 and 15: “my members” was amended to “people I work with”; question 17 to “those with whom I work”; and question 22 to “people” as more all-inclusive of a management level function.

Question 10: “more callous toward people since I took this job” reduced to “more callous toward people in this job” as being equally direct but more all-encompassing for a HRP

Question 20: “end of my rope” amended to “end of my tether” as a more apt colloquialism for the South African context. Golembiewski, Scherb and Boudreau (1993) quote similar problems when translating the questionnaire for use in a Japanese context.

Schaufeli, Enzmann and Girault (1993) draw attention to surveys where question wording had been slightly altered. to allow for closer identification with the profession of the respondents. They show that this can take place without altering the meaning of the scale concerned. For example, they quote the research of Iwanicki and Schwab (1981) where in a sample of 469 teachers, terms were slightly altered to be more appropriate to their specific profession without the meaning of the scale being affected

7.1.4 BIOGRAPHICAL DATA COLLECTION

The quantitative measures were prefaced with a request for biographical and other data pertinent to the respondents, which provide essential information for the interpretation of the data gathered from the respondents. The questionnaire, with its ten questions, may be found as Appendix H.

7.1.4.1 The Biographical Data Questionnaire

The ten questions are listed with the rationale for their inclusion.

1. Years in Human Resource Management: The years of experience in HRM provide a measure to assess what impact experience of the discipline may have on a range of variables.

2. Years of Work Experience: The years of work experience are a quantifiable measure for establishing whether there is a relationship between length of work experience and role stress and burnout
3. Job Title : A job title provides information on the nature of the job and its organisational level. The title may also suggest how an organisation views the function of the HRP. The job title is also important for the study as it assists in confirming whether the respondent does fall within the parameters of the research.
4. Job Grade : Whereas titles may vary, an evaluated grade provides more concrete evidence of level in the organisation.
5. Age : The age of the respondent is an important measure when assessing the level of work related stress in the form of role stress and burnout.
6. Gender : Comparisons between the gender of respondents is an important feature in organisational life today. This element has taken on greater importance in contemporary South Africa with its equity legislation.
7. Ethnic Origin : Race has highly significant comparative importance in South Africa and can have significance for a study of HRPs.
8. Academic Qualifications : Academic achievements are a means of establishing a respondent's level of knowledge and understanding of HRM. Although academic qualifications are not necessarily a guarantee of ability, they do offer an indication of the respondent's intellectual level.
9. Industry : It is important to know the industry out of which the HRP is operating for two reasons: first, to assess whether an appropriate balance has been achieved between the various main industries in the geographical area identified; second, because HRPs may be conditioned by their industry culture to perform according to the norm for that industry.
10. Membership of the IPM : As the sample is drawn from the IPM membership list, this information will provide the opportunity to ascertain whether the sample parameters are being met.

7.1.4.2 The Application of the Data

Years of Service, Age, Ethnic Origin and Gender were correlated with the main variables in the study to assess whether these biographical variables in any way influenced the outcomes of the relationships between the main study variables.

7.2 QUALITATIVE DATA COLLECTION

Introduction to Qualitative Data Collection

Qualitative data collection was to be achieved through interviews with a sample of thirty HR practitioners . For the selection of these thirty respondents see Chapter Six: 6.1.4.2.

The questions posed in the interview situations were based on the three main variables in the study, viz., Career Orientation, Role Stress and Burnout. It would be explained to the interviewees that the discussion would follow a broad format indicated by the quantitative questionnaires.

The three divisions would be identified to the interviewee as Career Orientation, Role Perceptions and Stress Perceptions. The latter two items were given somewhat innocuous titles, rather than Role Stress and Burnout, to lessen the possibility of responses being conditioned by the more emotive titles belonging to these two variables. This follows Maslach's (1996) recommendation in relation to the application of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), where she urges that the MBI be introduced to respondents as as "Human Services Survey" in order to minimise the reactive effect of the concept of burnout.

This section explains:

- * the objectives of each of the three main sections of the interview
- * the structuring of the questions
- * an explanation of the rationale behind each question
- * the sub-categories applying to each question
- * the structuring of the interview

The actual question formats used are found in the Appendices:

Career Orientation - Appendix D
 Role Perceptions - Appendix F
 Stress Perceptions - Appendix H

The questions under each of the three variables were designed to allow respondents to comment on issues related to elements in the sub-categories of each of the three main variables. Where applicable, the interviewee was requested to provide critical incidents which would illustrate descriptively the issue under focus, and thus provide concrete evidence of the respondent's perceptions.

7.2.1 CAREER ORIENTATION

7.2.1.1 The Objectives of the Interview

The objective of the first part of the interview dealing with career orientation was:

- (i) to confirm or otherwise the score assessment of the respondent and its categorisation
- (ii) to establish how closely the interviewee identified with his/her career orientation
- (iii) to explore whether the career orientation significantly influenced their approach to their work as a human resource practitioner
- (iv) to establish whether the identified career orientation had an influence on the perceived level of role stress or work-related stress (burnout) experienced by the participant.

7.2.1.2 The Questions and their Rationale

The questions and their rationale are presented below.

Confirmation (C): (Question 1).

“How closely does the career category arrived at match your own perception of your career orientation? Is this how you understand yourself?”

Confirmation or otherwise of the score assessment is sought. The average score is applied. The question allows for applying Schein’s recommended procedure of discussing with respondents their perception of their highest score as being most true for them in their own understanding of their career orientation. (Schein (1993, p.57). This procedure enables the respondent to consolidate their understanding of their “career anchor”. (See 7.1.1)

Influence (I): (Question 2).

“Do you think this career orientation has an influence on your work? Can you illustrate?”

It is important to establish whether respondents felt that the career orientation agreed upon had influence on their work and whether this could be illustrated.

Career Choice (II): (Question 3).

I am interested in what influenced you to choose HR as a career. What makes you want to be a HR practitioner? (This is broader than your career orientation).

Establishing why the individual was a human resource practitioner was designed to discover whether there was a connection between the career orientation and the present career of the individual. The assumption was that it need not necessarily be so.

Motivation (M): (Question 4).

“What do you most enjoy about your work as an HR practitioner? Can you illustrate with incident/s?”

Finding out what was most enjoyable in their work was a means of establishing how strong was their commitment to HRM as a career choice and the motivation for being a human resource practitioner. It could be that the choice of HRM was not motivated by specific interest in HRM and that this may influence perspectives in their career orientation.

Future career plans (MM): (Question 5).

“Do you see yourself moving out of HR management? If so, in what direction would you be wanting to move?” What is your long term career goal?

This question builds on the previous question. Establishing whether respondents intend remaining in HR practice or plan to move on at some convenient time, is a means of associating this intention with their career orientation. The purpose is to establish a relationship between career orientation and a sense of actual career fulfilment.

7.2.2 ROLE PERCEPTIONS

7.2.2.1 The Objectives of the Interview

The objective of this part of the interview dealing with role perceptions was:

- (i) to obtain contextual insight into the respondent’s experience of the three role stress factors of role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload which are measured in the quantitative analysis.
- (ii) to assess the significance of personal values and the service orientation of the respondent as factors that may influence the individual’s career decisions and thus provide a possible link with the career orientation of the respondent.

7.2.2.2 The Questions and their Rationale

The questions and their rationale are presented below.

General Role Change (GR): (Question 1)

“Has the role of the HR practitioner changed for you over the past 5- 10 years? If so, in what way? (Is there a different emphasis which requires you to see your role differently?)”

The question is of a broad nature.. It endeavours to establish how respondents understood changes that had taken place in HR management in general over the last five to ten years, and whether this had impacted on the role played by them as HRPs in their current working environment. This question was structured to contextualize the role of the HRP and to attempt to identify what were the implications of such changes for the interviewee.

Role Ambiguity (RA): (Questions 2)

“Are there people in your organisation who are uncertain of the nature and purpose of your role? If so, can you identify which positions they occupy?”

“How serious an issue is this for you? Could you illustrate how it occurs?”

“When would this uncertainty occur most often?”

(Question 3)

“Do you think your boss understands what your role is? (To be asked if not dealt with in response to Question 2). How serious is this for you? Can you provide a critical incident where this occurred?”

It is important to discover how significant role ambiguity is perceived to be by respondents and for them to describe issues where role ambiguity was experienced. Also, how much of this ambiguity originated with the person’s boss. These questions relate closely to the quantitative study on role ambiguity.

Role Conflict (RC): (Question 4)

“How often do you find yourself as a HR practitioner being ‘caught in the middle’ between the different role players in your organisation who make conflicting demands on you? “ (If you meet one demand, it is difficult or impossible to meet other demands. Could be from one or more persons or groups).

“Where is this ‘in between’ status most experienced? Can you provide an incident where this was experienced?”

The question selects one specific aspect of role conflict, viz., the potential of the HRP for “being caught in the middle” between different parties or individuals in the course of fulfilling his/her role. This question relates closely to the quantitative study.

Boundary Crossing (BC): (Question 5)

“The HR practitioner moves across departmental boundaries in his/her function. Does this ‘boundary crossing’ have implications for you? If so, could you illustrate where this happens and what the implications are for you?”

As an integral part of their function, HRPs become involved in the domains of other people. This crossing into the territory of others can be a source of conflict. The question focuses on the implications of such experiences.

Work load (RO): (Question 6)

“Can we have a look at your work load? What sort of work load would you like to have?”

The question approaches the issue of work load from the perspective of an ideal work load so as to assess the respondent’s perception of an acceptable work load. Most HRPs would say they are heavily loaded. The question thus endeavours to avoid an obvious response. The question relates closely to the quantitative study.

Personal Values (PV): (Question 7)

“I would like to refer to your personal values. Have you been in a situation where your personal values clash with organisational requirements? If so, could you illustrate?”

The question endeavours to assess whether the personal values of respondents have any influence on the three role stress factors. In this way deeper insight may be obtained into the motivating dynamics of the participants.

Service Orientation (SO): (Question 8)

“What place does care/concern for people play in the role of the HR practitioner today? If it does, could you illustrate from your organisational experience?”

Based on Ulrich’s “Employee Champion”, service is conceptualised as one of the four main functions of the human resource practitioner within the context of modern strategic human resource management. The question is designed to allow respondents to comment on their own organisation and in the process to interpret their own commitment to the concept of service as a specific role function of the HRP. The question is deliberately posed in neutral terms to avoid a possible defensive response. The question endeavours to establish a possible link between organisational concern for the needs of its people and

the “service orientation” of the HRP. The question endeavours to explore the “service” hypothesis of the study.

7.2.3 STRESS PERCEPTIONS

7.2.3.1 The Objectives of the Interview

The objective of this part of the interview dealing with stress perceptions was:

- (i) to explore the experience of work-related stress (role stress and burnout) among human resource practitioners within the context of current HRM practice
- (ii) to establish perceived sources of work-related stress
- (iii) to relate work-related stress to the main variables of career orientation and the three factors of role stress, viz., role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload
- (iv) to allow human resource practitioners to comment on their perceived level of work-related stress
- (v) to establish what human resource practitioners did in dealing with recognised work-related stress

7.2.3.2 The Questions and their Rationale

The questions and their rationale are presented below.

HR Originated Stress (HR): (Question 1)

“Is your job today as a HR practitioner any more stressful than say five or ten years ago? If so, can you account for this change? What has changed? Does the emphasis on strategic human resource management contribute? If so, could you illustrate with a critical incident?”

The question is designed to establish whether respondents perceives the role of the HRP to be inherently more stressful now than five to ten years back, and whether, as a result, there is an experience of more work-related stress. The term burnout is not used for reasons explained in the introduction to this section. The question seeks to assess whether HRPs today are operating within a HRM climate within their organisations that is inherently more stressful. In gauging response content, account is taken of the implications of promotion, or other job factors resulting in increased stress being felt. The question is structured in broad terms to create a setting for more personally focussed issues to be raised subsequently. This approach was used to avoid defensiveness on the

part of those who may have been concerned about revealing experiences of work-related stress.

Sources of Stress (SS): (Question 2)

“If you had the opportunity to reduce stress in your job, where would you begin? Could you illustrate?”

The question is worded in positive terms to allow the respondent to suggest realistic possibilities for work load reduction and for the discussion to focus on practical steps to reduce stress-inducing features of the job.

Role Conflict (RC): (Question 3)

“Who would you say creates for you the most stress in your job? (boss, colleagues, subordinates, line management, workers, shop stewards, others) Could you illustrate with a critical incident?”

The question seeks to assess to what extent role conflict is a contributor to overall work related stress in terms of where the greatest source of the conflict may lie.

Career Orientation (CO): (Question 4)

“Do you feel there is any link between your ‘career orientation’ and the stress you may experience in your work? If so, can you identify the connection?”

The link between career orientation and work related stress is sought here. The question draws on the quantitative study finding.

Personal Values (PV): (Question 5)

“Have there been situations in your job which impacted on your personal values in such a way as to create additional stress for you? If so, could you illustrate with an example?”

A link between personal values and stress is sought here to establish whether the respondent experiences greater stress due to strongly held personal values.

Sources of Stress (SS): (Question 6)

“In the last year or so have there been any occasions when you felt that work stress was beginning to get the better of you? If so, could you describe the situation?”

The question has been worded in the past in such a way as to encourage respondents to identify source/s generating significant levels of work-related stress for themselves. Once again, the question is worded to steer respondents away from possible defensiveness.

Work Load (WO): (Question 7)

“Can we talk about your work load? What significance does work load play in contributing to your stress level? Could you illustrate with one or two major work load issues for you?”

Respondent are asked to think about the connection between their work load and their experience of stress in their work. The question is worded to avoid generalisations and is related to the quantitative study.

General Health (GH): (Questions 8)

“How would you describe your normal health?
Very good / good / average/poor/very poor

The respondents’ perception of their health is sought here as a means of assessing the interviewees general health condition and relating it to other related responses .

(Question 9)

“How would you rate your stress level out 10, one being very low stress and ten being very high stress?” 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Rating one’s own stress level is difficult and varies according to the work situation at the time. It may be influenced by other than work factors. However, it was decided to include the rating scale as a useful indicator of stress levels. It was recognised that there may be those who, for their own reasons, would prefer to be seen with a low stress rating. The results were to be taken in conjunction with Question 8 as a broad means of assessing the respondent,s general health level.

Stress Reduction (SR): (Question 10)

“Do you have any specific ways of reducing stress?”

Here the attempt is to establish whether respondents feels the need to take active steps to reduce or counteract stress and how seriously they address the issue. These steps could have implications for the individual’s coping skills. Although coping skills are not part of the study, some indication of how HRP’s deal with stress would offer an insight into their awareness of the level of stress with which they were having to cope.

7.2.4 Interview Structuring

The interviewees were informed at the time of making the arrangements that the interview would take one hour. The request included the preference for the interview to be held in the participant's own office. . The purpose of the request for an "in situ" venue was that it provided the interviewer with additional insight into the participant's working environment. The interview time was restricted to one hour in order to obtain the support of busy managers and executives. It was a practical decision. The questions were structured to conform to this time constraint.

7.3 THE PILOT TEST

This section outlines the manner and nature of the test run for both the quantitative and qualitative research instruments prior to implementation with the full sample. This section is presented after the full discussion on the structure of the tests and sampling as it was less cumbersome and repetitive at this stage.

7.3.1 Pre-Pilot Test Review

The documents which formed the research instruments for the study were handed to three persons each perceived to be qualified suitably to provide an informed judgement on the nature of the study and on the acceptability of the documents. They were asked to comment on their initial response to the documents on the basis of the visual impact, the content of the questions in relation to the focus of the study, and the length of the time required to complete the exercise.

These issues were deemed important, as it is a commonly held view among human resource practitioners that questionnaire-based surveys often received a poor response from potential respondents owing to their unprofessional presentation as well as to their perceived irrelevance.

Those requested to undertake the review were selected for their exposure to questionnaire completion requests, their seniority, intellectual ability and academic background. They were: a previous Regional Director of the Human Sciences Research Council; a Human Resources Director with long standing involvement with academic lecturing at Universities in KwaZuluNatal; a Human Resources Director of a large multinational company with a sound academic background and a reputation for attention to detail.

The documents provided were: the introductory letter, the three questionnaires which formed the quantitative research and the three complementary sets of qualitative questions to be used by the researcher in the interviews.

This exercise resulted in practical comment on matters related to the introduction, format, wording and significance of the study. The drafts were then amended where necessary.

7.3.2 The Pilot Test Run

A pilot run was undertaken to test the validity and reliability of the questionnaires and the interview format. Seven respondents were invited to participate in a trial run of the data collection process. The pilot run provided essential feedback on the questionnaires and the qualitative interview process. Assessment of the interview structuring, its process and the effectiveness of the open ended questions needed careful analysis. A statistical analysis of the recorded scores was undertaken using the SPSS model. Although the sample was small, it ensured that the approach was technically supportable and correlatable with the qualitative findings.

7.3.2.1 The Selection of Participants

Selection of the participants was subjective as they were known to the researcher. They understood that they were participating in a test run. It was believed that they would provide objective responses and would not allow any previous contact to influence their contribution and thus unnecessarily skew findings. It was anticipated that they would make constructive comments at the conclusion of the exercise, which might improve the application, structure and content of the questionnaires and interview format.

To obtain representivity, two black males, two white males and two white females were selected on the basis that this ratio would provide a sufficiently balanced cross section of HRP's in the greater Durban area who were familiar with the daily application of human resource management practice. An equivalent level black female could not be located in the area and a third black male was introduced. The matter of representivity of the final sample was presented in Chapter Six: 6.1.4. To ensure responses were made from an informed and experienced background, those selected held senior positions in their organisations, at least at Patterson D band or higher, and had over ten years of HRM experience.

7.3.2.2 The Data Collection Procedures

Care was taken when approaching the selected respondents to ensure that the basis of the study was adequately explained and that they saw that the findings may be beneficial to them. There were no refusals to the request for participation.

To facilitate the process, potential respondents were first contacted by telephone and the exercise explained, including the time commitment. The questionnaire was then delivered personally and the procedure again briefly explained. The researcher informed the respondents that he would telephone a week later to make arrangements to collect the

questionnaires and conduct the interview which previously had been agreed to.

The questionnaires were collected and the interviews undertaken, by design, in the person's own office, with the understanding that interruptions might occur. It was believed that this was the appropriate place for interviews to take place as it enabled the interviewer to obtain some insight into the HRP's normal working environment. Time for the interview was logged for each of the three sections.

At the conclusion of the interview, the respondent was asked for comments on the process, and for feedback on the interviewer's approach and on the format and content of the questionnaires. None of the respondents indicated that the questionnaires were too lengthy or lacked clarity. The interviews were concluded within the hour. The researcher noted that the interviews generated a level of intensity, suggesting that the issues being raised were of personal significance to the interviewee. It was sensed that one hour was the correct time allocation that should be utilized both from an emotional and a time constraint perspective.

7.3.2.3 Observations from the Pilot Test Run

The three study variables each had quantitative and qualitative measuring instruments together with procedures to be followed. All the procedures were evaluated and are commented upon.

When the respondents received the questionnaires for completion, they were handed an envelope which contained the three questionnaires. The **Career Orientation Inventory** was accompanied by an envelope containing a self-scoring sheet, scoring instructions and an outline of the eight career categories, with a request not to open the envelope until after the completion of the questionnaire, and thereafter to self-score. At the time of collection of the questionnaires, prior to the interview, it was found that two of the respondents had not scored themselves. This was a signal that in the main study at least a third of respondents would not self score. In the test run, the scoring and identification of the respondent's career orientation was undertaken as part of the interview.

Prior to the start of the qualitative interview, its nature and purpose was again explained to respondents. All respondents reacted positively to the identification of their career orientation, which had emerged from the scoring exercise. In two cases there was discussion over resolving an uncertainty between the two highest scores, as to which truly reflected the underlying career anchor of the respondent. It was explained that although one category may be dominant, one or more other categories may be influential in one's life.

In the qualitative interview discussion, the respondents were asked to comment on the validity of their main career orientation and their identification with it. All indicated their agreement with the finding. It was not the intention of the exercise to undertake a

detailed discussion to clarify the "career anchor" as this was not felt to be necessary for the purpose of this study.

The method of allowing respondents to score themselves was found to add an element of immediate and informative feedback to the respondent, which served to enhance a positive and constructive environment at the beginning of the interview. The discussion at the opening of the interview concerning the validity of the finding created a built in ice-breaker to the interview situation. The Career Orientation Inventory thus provided a markedly different approach to traditional questionnaire handling and helped to lower the wariness element often accompanying the commencement of an interview. The researcher interpreted this positive climate as enhancing the quality of the discussion that followed.

From a quantitative perspective, the respondents had no difficulty with the questions in the instrument. The test run reflected the instrument's reliability and the validity of the findings. It could be applied with confidence to the larger sample of HRPs in the greater Durban area and it could be assumed it would reflect with considerable accuracy their perceived career orientation.

Respondents did not indicate any problems with completing the 33 questions in the **Role (stress) Questionnaire**. They reported no difficulty in understanding the wording and all indicated they understood the significance and purpose of the questions. This understanding may have been due to their length of service and seniority which would have exposed them over a long period to recognising the areas of stress and strain in their role as a human resource practitioner.

The qualitative interview resulted in certain questions being amended from one interview to the next in order to improve the understanding of the question. It was noted that some interviewees appeared reluctant to declare their own feelings on issues which may have reflected poorly, either on their own competence or to protect their organisation, for whatever reason. These sensitivities were noted by the researcher as matters for careful attention when undertaking the full survey.

A factor analysis of the interview record, based on key responses, revealed a set of perceptions which generally supported the quantitative analysis and, together with improved question structure, warranted confidence in the continued use of the qualitative interview format.

From a quantitative perspective the test scores were processed and analysed with the aid of the SPSS model. To establish the level of correlation between the "Career Orientation Inventory" scores and the "Role Perceptions" scores, the Pearson Product Moment Correlation was applied.

Entrepreneurial Creativity emerged as the career orientation with the most significant levels of correlation with the role stress factors. Within the 1% level of significance: role conflict, $r = 0.927$; $P = 0.008$; role overload, $r = 0.938$; $P = 0.006$, and within the 5 % level: role stress as the summation of the three factors, $r = 0.874$; $r = 0.023$ showed the strength of the correlation with role stress. The Service/Dedication to a Cause career orientation showed only a marginal level of significance when correlated with role ambiguity, $r = 0.800$; $P = 0.056$.

An early indication was thus given that “entrepreneurial creativity” would emerge as a significant impacter on role stress, rather than “service”.

A Cronbach alpha test was conducted to establish the level of reliability of the Rizzo, et al., scales. A high level of internal consistency was revealed with role ambiguity: $\alpha = 0.9088$; role conflict $\alpha = 0.7816$; role overload $\alpha = 0.7816$. The high level of internal consistency may be attributed to the scales being extensively tested and refined over a long period. (See Role Stress : Chapter Five: 5.3).

These findings, despite the small sample, warranted confidence in the adapted Rizzo, et al., measuring instrument.

A significant change was made following the application of the original third questionnaire which resulted in a change to the **Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI)**. The original questionnaire covered occupation rankings and a stress symptoms checklist in an endeavour to identify stress levels in respondents.

In the original pilot test questionnaire respondents were asked, first, to rank from 1 to 10 a list of common occupations according to their stressfulness: second, to list from 1 to 6 a list of typical HR jobs for their stressfulness. A third item provided a common list of ten stress symptoms and respondents were asked to indicate the severity of their experience of these symptoms.

Some important issues arose from the completion of that original “Stress Perceptions” questionnaire.

In the first section the list of 10 occupations was too long, with respondents having to spend too much time trying to sort through a too lengthy list. It was recommended that the list be reduced to 7 occupations. The 3 occupations with the lowest mean scores were removed from the final draft, viz., academic, accountant and educator.

The list of ten stress symptoms were all of a physical nature and appeared to be too limiting in their value as a reliable indicator of work related stress. Although the list had been applied by other researchers, an analysis of the results suggested that not sufficient credence could be extracted. The respondents were asked to rate each of the ten symptoms with a “never”, “sometimes” or “often” ranking. Of a possible 60 responses, a total of 56

selections were made by six respondents. Of this, 22 fell into the “never” category, 25 - “sometimes” and 9 - “often”. The researcher’s interpretation was that this was an inadequate measure due to its physical one dimensionality.

From the results there was no knowing that the physical symptoms were directly related to work stress. The symptoms may have been brought on by some other cause, eg., stress outside the work environment, such as, family relationships or financial problems.

Secondly, even if the list was extended to include emotional/ psychological symptoms, there was no knowing whether these symptoms were generated external to the work situation.

These considerations required the researcher to create or locate a suitable measuring instrument which would more closely measure levels of work-related stress among HRP’s. Some options were considered.

Zuckerman’s (1960) “Adjective Checklist for the Measurement of Anxiety” was considered, which scored respondents on a list of ‘anxiety-plus’ and ‘anxiety-minus’ words. Coldwell (1985) used this list effectively in his research to measure the stress level of black employees in the mining industry. However, it was felt that in light of the special nature of HRP’s interactivity with a wide variety of people, the use of Zuckerman (1960) would produce too generalised an outcome.

Cooper and Marshall’s (1979) “Job and Organizational Characteristics Questionnaire” was also considered, which attempts to measure job stress in terms of the specific Person/Environment Fit Model. Although this approach has wide acceptance, it was felt not to be a specific enough measure to meet this researcher’s objectives.

Shlebusch’s (2000) “Checklist of the General Symptoms of Unhealthy Stress”, containing 87 questions identifying physical, psychological and behavioural reactions indicative of stress, was given consideration. It was believed the checklist was too detailed, too long for respondents who would have answered already a significant number of questions, and contained questions which were inappropriate for a researcher who was not a qualified practising psychiatrist.

It was decided on balance to use the Maslach’s Burnout Inventory (MBI). (1981 version). Although this instrument was used mostly to assess ‘burnout’ among human service professionals, it was felt that it had good applicability to HRP’s whose functions involved considerable interactivity with people. The MBI was discussed in more detail in Section 7.1.3.

An added advantage from the quantitative perspective is that the MBI comes with scoring keys, three sub-scales with each of the two main categories, and a norm table which provides the researcher with a well validated instrument. The seven pilot test respondents

were subsequently asked to complete the MBI and the response was positive in all cases and its face validity was accepted.

The pilot study revealed that the qualitative interview dealing with work related stress required the researcher to establish a sound trust relationship with the respondents early in the interview to enable them to be comfortable in discussing their stress symptoms. It was found that some respondents were reluctant to admit to stress in a face to face interview. This was understood to be due partly to their concern that to acknowledge being stressed might signify weakness or incompetence which could have bearing on their future employment prospects if this was known. The researcher recognised that other denial factors may play a role.

7.3.3 The Recording of the Interviews

It was decided not to use a tape recorder during the interviews as it was felt that it would unduly influence the nature of interviewees' responses, especially on the more sensitive issues where interviewees may be hesitant to speak openly as they knew they were being recorded, or by 'playing to the audience'. (For pros and cons of the use of tape recorders in interview situations, see Schwab, 1999).

The interviews were recorded in handwriting. These notes were then typed up the same day to avoid loss of understanding of what had been said by the interviewee and to ensure that shorthand notes did not lose meaning with the passage of time.

It was acknowledged that there could be a subjective element in this method as the interviewer might become selective by recording mainly responses that supported his own perceptions or hypotheses. The written capture of responses had the added disadvantage of requiring the interviewer to concentrate on writing rather than on facilitating the interview.

It appeared that individuals differed in their reactions in the interview situation, particularly on issues where the interviewee appeared to have sensitivities. Such issues were important elements in understanding the interviewee's perception of critical incidents and thus called for careful handling on the researcher's part. It seemed that the presence of a recorder when dealing with such sensitive issues would have inhibited the response. It was decided on balance that a recorder would not be used, even if permission was obtained for its presence. This decision was further supported by a knowledge that persons usually do not wish to be seen to be negative over the presence of a recorder but, once it is in use, interviewees may become more guarded in their responses.

7.3.4 Outcomes of the Pilot Test Run

Although the pilot test was run with a limited sample, it was believed that it adequately represented a sound cross section of HRPs in the greater Durban area.

Four important outcomes emerged from the pilot testing.

- (i) Some important amendments were made to the first section of the “Stress Perceptions” measuring instruments.
- (ii) Early indication was given that the main hypotheses of the research may not be sustained. This was interpreted in positive terms as potentially providing important new perspectives on the impact of other career orientations and their significance for HRPs in terms of current practice of strategic HRM. It was believed that a useful contribution would be made to the relationship between career orientation, role stress and burnout among HRPs.
- (iii) Sufficient confirmation had been provided on the reliability and validity of the quantitative measuring instruments for them to be applied to the wider sample.
- (iv) The qualitative interview test run provided important feedback, allowing for the amendment of some questions to enable more accurate responses to be gathered. It also signalled to the researcher some interactive sensitivities which, if dealt with carefully, might free up interviewees in their responses.

The overall result, was that the researcher believed the main study could proceed with confidence in the measuring instruments.

CHAPTER EIGHT

8 : ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESEARCH DATA

This chapter provides an analysis and interpretation of the research data. The chapter is divided into three sections.

Section 8. 1 deals with the **quantitative** data.

Section 8. 2 summarises the **qualitative** data which has been placed in the APPENDICES . (See Appendix 8.1).

Section 8. 3 provides a **triangulation** of the two sets of data.

Brief comments on the findings are made as the presentation progresses.

A discussion on the analysis of the **biographical variables** is found in Appendix 8.21. This section was placed in the Appendix in light of no findings of significance emerging from the analysis, but is included for completeness of the research.

8.1 THE QUANTITATIVE DATA

This section presents an analysis and interpretation of the data obtained from the quantitative questionnaires detailed in Chapter Seven: 7.1: Data Gathering Instruments. The tests run follow the procedures outlined in Chapter Six: 6.2.1: Quantitative Methodology.

A discussion of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) mean scores is undertaken first in this analysis. This order of procedure has been chosen to allow first for the presentation and clarification of some aspects of the findings on burnout prior to analysing and interpreting correlations with other variables. This arrangement avoids unnecessary repetition.

This section will present:

- * A treatment of the mean scores from the Maslach Burnout Inventory
- * The relationship between Career Orientation categories and Role Stress
- * The relationship between Career Orientation categories and Burnout
- * The relationship between Role Stress and Burnout
- * Observations from the quantitative analysis and interpretation

8.1.1 THE MASLACH BURNOUT INVENTORY (MBI)

8.1.1.1 Comparative Mean and Standard Deviation Scores

Table 8.1 provides the mean and standard deviation scores from the six MBI sub-scales for the HRPs in the South African study. Table 8. 2 (p.234) and Table 8. 3 (p.235) offer comparisons between the MBI means and standard deviations from two international studies and the South African study. Table 8. 2 reflects the Frequency factor and Table 8. 3, the Intensity factor.

The significance of the figures in these tables are discussed in subsequent sub-sections to follow.

Table 8. 1

Burnout :

South African Study Sub-Scale Frequencies

Statistics

		SFEALL	SFPALL	SFDALL	SSEALL	SSPALL	SSDALL
N	Valid	116	116	116	115	116	115
	Missing	3	3	3	4	3	4
Mean		23.5862	34.5603	9.2155	32.6348	39.9828	14.1826
Std. Error of Mean		.8508	.5231	.4833	.9345	.5147	.6581
Median		22.0000	34.0000	9.0000	34.0000	40.0000	14.0000
Mode		13.00 ^a	32.00	8.00 ^a	26.00 ^a	41.00	17.00
Std. Deviation		9.1633	5.6342	5.2050	10.0213	5.5435	7.0569
Variance		83.9664	31.7442	27.0923	100.4268	30.7301	49.7997
Skewness		.311	.143	.533	-.158	-.031	.145
Std. Error of Skewness		.225	.225	.225	.226	.225	.226
Kurtosis		-.293	-.535	.237	-.424	-.142	-.281
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.446	.446	.446	.447	.446	.447
Range		48.00	26.00	25.00	47.00	28.00	35.00
Minimum		2.00	22.00	.00	7.00	26.00	.00
Maximum		50.00	48.00	25.00	54.00	54.00	35.00

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

Key: Frequency

Intensity:

SFEALL - Emotional Exhaustion

SSEALL - Emotional Exhaustion

SFDALL - Depersonalisation

SSDALL - Depersonalisation

SFPALL - Personal Accomplishment

SSPALL - Personal Accomplishment

Table 8. 2

Burnout (Frequency) :**Mean and Standard Deviation Comparisons**

Sub-scale	(i) Study 2000	(ii) MBI 1981	(iii) MBI 1996	(iv) Sch&Enz 1979-98
Em Exh:	(n=116)	(n=1400)	(n=11067)	(n=17841)
Mean	23.58	24.08	20.99	23.54
S Dev	9.16	11.88	10.75	11.91
Depers:				(n=17298)
Mean	9.21	9.40	8.73	8.03
S Dev	5.20	6.90	5.89	6.33
Pers Acc:				(n=17245)
Mean	34.56	38.01	34.58	11.73*
S Dev	5.63	6.93	7.11	7.75*

Key:

Columns: (i) The results of this SA study; year 2000.

(ii) Maslach's findings up to 1981 (MBI Manual :1st Ed :1981, p.5)

(iii) Maslach's findings up to 1996 (MBI Manual: 3rd Edit: 1996: Table 2, p.8)

(iv) Schaufeli & Enzmann (1998): (Normative data:1979-1998: Table 3.1, p.61-62)

Items: Em Exh - Emotional Exhaustion
 Depers - Depersonalisation
 Pers Acc - Personal Accomplishment

* Not useful for comparative purposes due to application of re-coding formula

The comparison in Table 8. 2 relates only to the Frequency element as the MBI after 1986 only included the Frequency factor in its consideration following Maslach's finding that the Intensity factor provided no additional support to that obtained by using only the Frequency counts. The explanation for this decision was provided in Chapter Seven: 7.1.3.4.

Table 8. 3 (p.235) reflects only the Intensity element. It is limited in this comparison to this study and the findings of the MBI up to 1981 following Maslach's later decision to drop the Intensity element.

Table 8.3

Burnout (Intensity) :**Mean and Standard Deviation Comparisons**

Burnout Sub-Scales	(i) Study 2000	(ii) MBI 1981
Em Exh:	(n=118)	(n=1938)
Mean	32.63	31.88
S Dev	10.02	13.84
Depers:		
Mean	14.18	11.71
S Dev	7.05	6.09
Pers Acc:		
Mean	39.98	39.70
S Dev	5.54	7.6

8.1.1.2 Comparative Observations from the MBI Scores

Table 8.1 (p.233) provides the mean scores, standard deviations and other statistics for the six sub-scales of the MBI from the test scores from the current study. Each of the study MBI subs-scale means from Table 8.1 are considered with the available comparisons from the Table 8.2 (p.234) and Table 8.3 (p.235) and are commented upon.

(vi) Emotional Exhaustion (Frequency)

The nine items in the Emotional Exhaustion (Frequency) sub-scale describe feelings of being emotionally over-extended and exhausted by one's work (MBI 1996: p.10). High scores reflect higher levels of burnout.

- (a) The South African study Frequency mean for Emotional Exhaustion of 23.58 compares closely with MBI (1981) of 24.08 and Schaufeli and Enzmann (1979-98) of 23.54. This finding appears to support the decision to apply the MBI- HSS as a valid test for HRP's in the South African context as explained in Chapter Seven: 7.1.3.3
- (b) The lower mean for the MBI (1996) of 20.99 as compared to the Schaufeli and Enzmann (1979-98) mean of 23.54 has been commented on by the latter.

Schaufeli and Enzmann(1998) suggest that the higher level in their mean of 23.54 may be due to the influence of the increase in overall job demands over the decade under review and that this is being reflected .(p.63). Maslach and Leiter (1997) support this observation. “In the current climate burnout thrives in the workplace....Increasingly we work in job settings in which human values place a distant second behind economic ones.”. (p.9). If this is a valid observation in the USA, then the SA job environment may be reflecting a similar trend. The study suggests this direction.

Table 8. 4

Burnout**Categorisation of MBI Scores - Numerical Cut-offs:****Range of Experienced Burnout**

	Low	Moderate	High
MBI Sub-Scale	lower third	middle third	upper third
Emotional Exhaustion Frequency	≤16	17 - 26	≥27
Depersonalisation Frequency	≤6	7 - 12	≥13
Personal Accomplishment Frequency	≥39	38 - 32	≤31

Source: Maslach, C and Jackson, S E. (1996). Maslach Burnout Inventory Manual. Calif: Consulting Psychologists Press.(p.6)

Note: Numerical Cut-offs for Categorisation:

Table 8. 4 provides Maslach’s (1996) recommended cut-offs for the categorisation of levels of burnout which follows the use only of the Frequency element. The figures show slight variation on the 1981 figures shown in Table 7.3 (p.213)

(ii) Depersonalisation (Frequency)

The five items in the Depersonalisation (Frequency) Sub-Scale describe an unfeeling and impersonal attitude to the recipients of one’s service. Higher mean scores indicate

higher degrees of experienced burnout. (MBI 1996, p.10).

- (a) The MBI (1981) mean of 9.40 was the closest to the South African study mean of 9.21. The other comparisons are below the study mean.
- (b) The higher level of depersonalisation in the study may be explained on two grounds. The HRP is not solely involved with one on one interactions, but also carries other administrative and organisational functions which distances the HRP from people which may lead to becoming less caring. A second reason may be due to the number of retrenchments that HRPs have had to process over recent years. This may have taken its toll in that HRPs may have had to hardened themselves to the often tragic consequences for the retrenched. This consequence is identified in the qualitative survey analysis.
- (c) Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) comment in their findings on the profession that exhibits the highest level of depersonalisation, viz., police officers at 12.48. They observe that this “may reflect their occupational socialization that is characterised by objectiveness and distance” (p.63). Alternatively, they observe that it is an occupation generally dominated by men and that “men experience more depersonalization than women.” (p.63).
- (d) With HRM now more integrated into strategic business processes, HRPs find themselves increasingly representing the hard needs of the business rather than the softer needs of the employee. In this new mode HRPs may be distancing themselves from the employees and finding themselves having to treat employees as depersonalised costs and statistics. The study suggests that there may be present now an underlying sense of a more unfeeling approach to employees as HRPs are called upon to identify themselves with the more objective elements of the management of the organisation. It is suggested that a more impersonal approach has developed within HRM practice in recent years. Further, the study sample comprising 66 % males, may have contributed to this higher level of depersonalisation in the study.

(iii) Personal Accomplishment (Frequency)

The eight items in the Personal Accomplishment (Frequency) sub-scale describe feelings of competence and achievement in one’s work with people. Lower mean scores in this sub-scale correspond to higher degrees of experienced burnout and reflect a sense of reduced personal accomplishment.

- (i) The mean of the South African study sample at 34.56 is similar to the MBI (1996) at 34.58. The earlier MBI (1981) is the highest at 38.01. The Schaufeli and Enzmann (1988) figure at 11.73 is low and reflects a third of the MBI norm. The Schaufeli and Enzmann (1988) figure is not useful for comparative

purposes due to their use of a re-coding formula.

- (ii) However, the Schaufeli and Enzmann(1998) comment on Personal Accomplishment is useful. Their interpretation of the means of the more highly trained professionals, viz., physician and psychologist, signal a strong sense of accomplishment in their jobs. (p.63). Whereas nurses reflect a contrary perspective. Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) attribute this difference to the probable place that decision making may play in respect of physicians but which is lacking in regard to nurses who are required to follow instructions provided by physicians rather than having the sense of self- fulfilment from making their own decisions in relation to each patient..
- (iii) A sense of personal accomplishment is an important component in the make up of a manager. Pines and Aronson (1988) in their analysis of the causes of burnout among managers observed that success at work was seen as personally very important to them and that continued frustration in achieving success was a cause of burnout. “When such frustration is chronic, and especially when it leads to failure, the result is burnout.” (p.59). As a manager the HRP is no less subject to this need to find self-fulfilment through personal accomplishment at work. The study scores reflect the presence of this element among the sample of HRPs. Current strategic HRM in theory indicates that HRPs are to take the initiative in decision making. The reality in organisational practice may reveal that HRPs are frustrated by their inability to achieve a significant level of decision making.

In each of the **Intensity Sub-Scales** in Table 8 .3 (p.235) it is noted that the mean scores were higher than in the Frequency ratings. For example, the mean for Emotional Exhaustion: Frequency is 27.58 as against 32.63 for the Intensity reading. It would appear that where the element is experienced it is at a more intense level..

8.1.1.3 Inter-Correlations Between Burnout: Frequency and Intensity Sub-scales.

Pearsonian correlations were run between the six Burnout sub-scales to establish the relative strength of their association. (Table 8. 5, p.239). The recorded scores are commented upon in this section.

Three observations may be noted from the relationships provided by the data in Table 8. 5 (p.239) :

- (i) Emotional Exhaustion: Frequency, was observed to correlate highly at less than the 1% level for both Depersonalisation sub-scales of Frequency, with high magnitude, and Intensity with slight magnitude. This finding confirms that of Schaufeli, Enzmann and Girault (1993) who with other researchers

Table 8.5

Burnout :

Study Sub-Scale Inter-Correlations

		SFETOT	SFPTOT	SFDTOT	SSETOT	SSPTOT	SSDTOT
SFETOT	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.027	.662**	.717**	-.089	.376**
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.	.773	.000	.000	.344	.000
	N	116	116	116	115	116	115
SFPTOT	Pearson Correlation	.027	1.000	.050	-.054	.594**	-.133
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.773	.	.594	.563	.000	.155
	N	116	116	116	115	116	115
SFDTOT	Pearson Correlation	.662**	-.050	1.000	.444**	-.143	.629**
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.594	.	.000	.127	.000
	N	116	116	116	115	116	115
SSETOT	Pearson Correlation	.717**	-.054	.444**	1.000	.039	.650**
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.563	.000	.	.680	.000
	N	115	115	115	115	115	115
SSPTOT	Pearson Correlation	-.089	.594**	-.143	.039	1.000	.009
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.344	.000	.127	.680	.	.927
	N	116	116	116	115	116	115
SSDTOT	Pearson Correlation	.376**	-.133	.629**	.650**	.009	1.000
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.155	.000	.000	.927	.
	N	115	115	115	115	115	115

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Key:

SFETOT: Emotional Exhaustion: Frequency

SSETOT: Emotional Exhaustion: Intensity

SFPTOT: Personal Accomplishment: Frequency

SSPTOT: Personal Accomplishment: Intensity

SFDTOT: Depersonalisation: Frequency

SSDTOT: Depersonalisation: Intensity

have noted a closer correlation of Emotional Exhaustion with Depersonalisation and not so close with Personal Accomplishment. The close correlation of the Frequency and Intensity coefficients supports the research findings in the USA, which was the reason for removing the Intensity sub-scales from the later version of the MBI (1996) as being superfluous. The latest MBI in test environments relies solely on the three sub-scale Frequency scores.

- (ii) The absence of a significant correlation between Emotional Exhaustion and Personal Accomplishment maybe interpreted as representing different problem areas and thus little linkage may be observed. Significant correlation would be dependent upon negative correlation due to the reverse scoring for Personal Accomplishment which would indicate a lowered sense of personal achievement

or failure. The correlation with Depersonalisation links into personal values and a feeling that one's inner self is being undermined by one's work and that one is becoming callous, thick skinned and not as caring as one would wish to be. This experience may occur more often in the current environment, eg., with HRPs committed increasingly to the bottom line and/or increased involvement with retrenchments, many of which have tragic implications for the victims of retrenchment.

- (iii) Personal Accomplishment is not seen to relate strongly to Depersonalisation in either the Frequency or the Intensity factors suggesting little significant relationship between these sub-scales. This may be ascribed to these sub-scales relating to different features of burnout. The reverse scoring for Personal Accomplishment may have had bearing on this outcome. A stronger relationship would have been associated with a negative score for Personal Accomplishment.

8.1.2 RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN CAREER ORIENTATION CATEGORIES AND ROLE STRESS FACTORS

The Pearson Product Moment test for correlational significance between the eight Career Orientation categories and the three Role Stress factors of, Role Ambiguity, Role Conflict and Role Overload. was applied. The three factors were aggregated to provide a comparable set of scores to enable a Role Stress factor to be established in similar fashion as the three factors in order to provide an overall "role stress" element.

First, an analysis was undertaken to obtain rankings for comparative purposes of the eight Career Orientations using a frequency table.

8.1.2.1 Career Orientations : Ranked Statistical Comparisons of Respondents

To establish a rank order for the career orientations of the respondents a frequency table was created using the eight career orientation categories. Appendix 8.2 provides statistical frequency comparisons and is used to rank the eight categories from highest to lowest following the frequency table. Table 8.6 (p.241) ranks the categories on the basis of the statistics. The purpose of the ranking is to provide a measure for later comparison with levels of role stress and burnout so as to identify which career orientation categories appear as most susceptible to role stress and burnout.

The mean rankings are significant in representing the spread of career orientations among HRPs in South Africa.. No one category appears to dominate. Within the Schein model this indicates that the HRPs within the study have the full range of career anchors and do not cluster around a limited number of career orientations. These results reveal where HRPs are coming from in terms of their orientations. However, Technical/Functional Competence (C10) and Pure Challenge (C16) emerge as slightly more prominent career orientations among the 118 HRP

Table 8. 6

Career Orientation Categories :

Ranking of Mean Scores and Related Frequencies (N = 118)

Rank	Career Orientation	Mean	Median	Mode	Std Dev	Range	Min	Max
1	C10 Tech/Funct Comp	4.633	4.600	4.40	1.051	5.20	2.00	7.20
2	C16 Pure Challenge	4.400	4.400	4.60	1.045	4.80	2.00	6.80
3	C17 Life Style	4.380	4.400	4.40*	1.265	6.40	1.80	8.20
4	C12 Auto/Independ	4.270	4.100	4.00	1.204	5.40	2.00	7.40
5	C15 Service/Dedication	4.122	3.800	3.80	1.446	6.40	1.80	8.20
6	C14 Entrepren. Creativ	3.815	3.600	3.60	1.412	7.00	1.00	8.00
7	C13 Security/Stability	3.592	3.400	2.40	1.249	5.20	1.00	6.20
8	C11 Genl Mgt Comp	3.563	3.500	3.60	1.297	6.00	1.00	7.00

* Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

respondents. General Management Competence (C11) ranks lowest Service/Dedication to a Cause (C15) is observed to emerge as fifth out of eight categories. Security/Stability (C13) ranks low at seven.

An observation of importance for the study is that neither 'Service' nor 'General Management' rank among the more prominent categories. These two categories were identified as the focus for the study hypotheses. (See Chapter Five . 5.1.2.2). Their lower ranking does not invalidate their hypothetical importance for the study as they provide the focii for the study in an attempt to isolate sources of stress among HRP's.

8.1.2.2 Inter-correlations of Career Orientation Categories

It is useful to observe which Career Orientation categories are more closely correlated with each other. These correlations enable a more informed commentary to be made when the final explanations are offered on the study findings. Table 8.7 (p.242) summarises those categories most closely correlated with each other. The full set of correlations are found in Appendix. 8. 3.

Inter-correlation affinities may be noted in Table 8. 7 between certain categories. Technical/ Functional Competence (TF) and Security/Stability (SE) ($P = 0.002$) show an affinity within the 1 % level of significance is not readily explicable. The relationship may arise among those who strive for technical/functional competence as a means to enhance their security in their work situation, ie., the most competent are the least likely to lose their jobs.. The relationship of Technical/Functional with Pure Challenge (CH) within the 1 % level may be due to the need of technically orientated people to rise to the challenge of situations calling for 'technical' solutions.

Table 8.7

Career Orientation categories : Inter-Correlations

Category	C10 TF	C11 GM	C12 AU	C13 SE	C14 EC	C15 SV	C16 CH	C17 LS
C10	n/a			r = 0.277 P = 0.002			r = 0.298 P = 0.001	
C11		n/a	r = 0.259 P = 0.005		r = 0.236 P = 0.010		r = 0.414 P = 0.000	
C12			n/a	r = - 0.233 P = 0.011	r = 0.431 P = 0.000		r = 0.294 P = 0.001	r = 0.185 P = 0.044
C13				n/a				
C14					n/a		r = 0.255 P = 0.005	r = 0.202 P = 0.028
C15						n/a		r = 0.189 P = 0.040
C16							n/a	
C17								n/a

Key: C10: Technical/ Functional Competence C14: Entrepreneurial Creativity
C11: General Management Competence C15: Service/Dedication to a Cause
C12: Autonomy/Independence C16: Pure Challenge
C13: Security/Stability C17: Life Style:

The relationship between General Management Competence (GM) and Autonomy/Independence (AU) and Pure Challenge (CH) both within the 1 % level of significance, may be ascribed to the strong element of autonomy and the high need to respond to challenge found in general management. The strong relationship at less than the 1 % level with Entrepreneurial Creativity (EC) (P = 0.000) may be ascribed to the recognition within general management of the need for creative expression in the interests of modern HR operational demands. General Management is one of the two career orientation categories which were selected for the construction of the study hypotheses. Its strong correlational links with three other categories is thus noted.

The negative relationship within the 5% level of significance between Autonomy/Independence (AU) and Security/Stability (SE) may be explained by the expectation that there may be little in common between autonomy and security / stability. However, the strong relationship at less than the 1% level between Autonomy/Independence and Entrepreneurial Creativity (EC) (P = 0.000) may be anticipated due to the affinity between the need for a level of autonomy and independence to allow for entrepreneurial creativity to take place. The high correlation with Pure Challenge (CH) (P = 0.001) within the 1 % level suggests certain commonalities between autonomy and challenge. The relationship between Autonomy and Lifestyle is within the

5 % level is not readily explicable. Having autonomy in one's job may be related to an aspect of personal freedom that would allow for the possibility of balancing one's work life with one's leisure activity or family life.

The relationship between Entrepreneurial Creativity (EC) and Pure Challenge ($P = 0.005$) may be ascribed to an affinity with the challenge aspects of entrepreneurial creativity. The relationship with Lifestyle ($P = 0.028$) is not readily explicable.

The relationship between Service/Dedication to a Cause (SV) and Lifestyle (LS) within the 5 % level is not readily explicable. It is noted that 'service' appears to have little affinity with other categories. It appears thus to stand alone and being one of the two career orientations selected for special focus is important for the study.

The relationship between certain career orientation categories may explain why some respondents find it difficult to score themselves and then when their career orientation is established they find that they may have more than one dominant orientation or that the orientations are very closely scored. This issue will be considered in the final chapter when the whole exercise is evaluated especially the significance of the part played by career orientation.

8.1.2.3 Correlations: Career Orientation Categories and Role Stress Factors

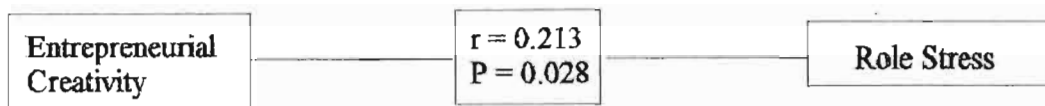
Pearsonian correlations were run to establish what relationships existed between the eight career orientation categories and the three role stress factors. Significant correlations are summarised in Table 8. 8. (p.246). Detailed correlations are found in Appendixes 8. 4 (1-8). Figure 8.1 (p.244) depicts the outcome of the tests within the 5 % level of significance.

No significant correlations are observed between the eight Career Orientation categories and role ambiguity at the 5 % level. There were three borderline correlations within the 10 % level, all of a negative nature, which were too tentative and the correlations too small to warrant comment, but are noted in the summary Table 8. 8. (p.246) No significant correlations are observed between the eight Career Orientation categories and role conflict at the 5 % level. A borderline positive correlation within the 10 % level was observed between those who are **entrepreneurial creativity** orientated and role conflict ($r = 0.178$, $P = 0.058$, $n = 115$). Role overload is not significantly correlated with any of the eight Career Orientation categories at the 5 % level. However, it is observed that there is a positive correlation within the 10 % level between those who are **entrepreneurial creativity** orientated and role overload. ($r = 0.158$, $P = 0.089$, $n = 116$)

Role Stress is constructed as an aggregate of the three factors of role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload. A positive correlation is observed within the 5 % level of significance between those who are **entrepreneurial creativity** orientated and role stress ($r = 0.213$, $P = 0.028$, $n = 107$) and depicted diagrammatically in Figure 8.1.

Figure 8. 1

**Diagrammatic Representation of Significant Correlations
Between Career Orientation Categories and Role Stress Factors**



This would suggest that those HRPs who are entrepreneurially orientated suffer greater role stress. This entrepreneurial creativity category was noted above in relation to both role conflict and role overload within the 10 % level. It is reasonable to assume that these two factors add to the correlation reflected in the aggregated role stress factor and suggest an accumulation of stress arising from the combined pressures of role conflict and role overload.

Some plausible **explanations** may be given for the appearance of the association between **entrepreneurial creativity and role stress**.

- (i) Those who possess a strong entrepreneurial drive may be frustrated by the limitations imposed by the normal constraints of organisational tradition and bureaucratic requirements. The natural inclinations of these HRPs, for example, to innovate or introduce experimental methods of communication, creative means of remuneration or productivity incentive schemes, may be found to lead to conflict with superiors, company board, staff and trade union or other role players.
- (ii) One of the reasons why the correlation with role stress was not detected as strongly among the three roles stress factors, may be that its cumulative effect is being registered in this finding.
- (iii) An influence in creating this higher level of role stress among entrepreneurially creative HRPs may be that some management consultants, convention speakers, and journal articles signal that in today's business world, creativity and innovation is what grows a business, but such HRPs are frustrated in their efforts to introduce their creative ideas into their organisations. Tom Peters, conference speaker and writer of popular management advice books is illustrative of the dilemma for HRPs. (See Fontyn, p.60)

- (iv) For frustrated HRP's to launch out on their own as an escape from the restrictions they feel and to seek an opportunity to express their creativity, is a risky business. They may have to postpone such a move, which results in a build up of frustration while they await the correct timing to start their own entrepreneurial venture. Hence the possible build up of role stress.
- (v) To innovate within an organisation requires sound knowledge of the business, high levels of persuasion and influence. Many HRP's may not possess sufficient skill or weight to achieve significant creative changes within an organisation. This too, may lead to a build up of role stress for them.

Kets de Vries (1980) in his study of the complex nature of the entrepreneurial personality maintains that "The entrepreneur is a man (sic) under a great deal of stress." He further believes that "..... it is extremely hard, if not impossible, for individuals with an entrepreneurial disposition to integrate these personal needs with those of organizations." (p.124). This understanding would appear to support the interpretation of the study finding of the probability that HRP's with an entrepreneurial creative orientation will suffer role stress. The significance of these observations will be discussed further in the concluding chapter

8.1.2.4 Correlations: Identifying which Career Orientation Categories Reflect Higher or Lower Levels of Role Stress.

In order to test the career orientation effect on role stress more rigorously, additional Pearson correlations were run to identify which career orientation categories reflect higher or lower levels of role stress, on the basis of the mean scores of the role stress factors. The significant correlations only are provided in Table 8. 9. (p.247) The detailed test scores are found in Appendix 8. 5.

Table 8. 10 provides the mean scores applied in these tests, rounded to the nearest whole number. (Appendix 8. 6 provides the full range of statistics)

Table 8. 10

Role Stress Mean Scores

Role Stress Factor	Mean Scores
Role Ambiguity	29
Role Conflict	34
Role Overload	24
Role Stress	90

Table 8. 8

Career Orientation Categories and Role Stress Factors :

Significant Correlations

	C 10 Technical/ Functional	C 11 General Managemen	C 12 Autonomy/ Independen	C 13 Security/ Stability	C 14 Entrepreneu Creativity	C 15 Service/ Dedication	C 16 Pure Challenge.	C 17 Life Style
ROLEAMB	r = - 0.175 P = 0.065*	r = - 0.178 P = 0.064*					r = -0.179 P = 0.060*	
ROLECONF				r = - 0.162 P = 0.084*	r = 0.178 P = 0.058*			
ROLEOVER					r = 0.158 P = 0.089*			
ROLESTRE					r = 0.213 P = 0.028			

KEY:

ROLEAMB: Role Ambiguity
 ROLECONF: Role Conflict
 ROLEOVER: Role Overload
 ROLESTRE: Role Stress

* Denotes within the 10% level of significance

Table 8. 9

Career Orientation Categories and Role Stress Factors :

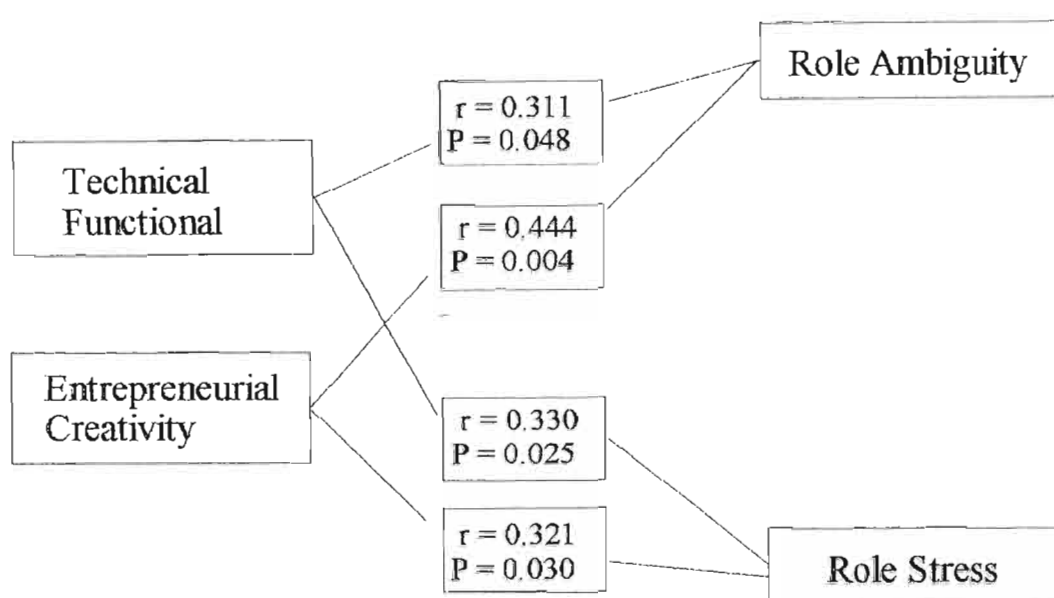
Significant High and Low Correlations

	C 10 Technical/ Functional	C 11 General Managemen	C 12 Autonomy/ Independen	C 13 Security/ Stability	C 14 Entrepreneu Creativity	C 15 Service/ Dedication	C 16 Pure Challenge.	C 17 Life Style
High Role Ambiguity	r = - 0.311 P = 0.048				r = 0.444 P = 0.004			
Low Role Ambiguity								
High Role Conflict								
Low Role Conflict						r = 0.321 P = 0.015		
High Role Overload								
Low Role Overload								
High Role Stress	r = - 0.330 P = 0.025				r = 0.321 P = 0.030			
Low Role Stress				r = - 0.352 P = 0.008				

Figure 8. 2 depicts the outcome of the tests for high correlations only, within the 5 % level of significance

Figure 8. 2

**Diagrammatic Representation of Significant Correlations
Between High Career Orientation Categories and Role Stress**



When tested for higher role ambiguity levels above the mean of 29, two results of significance were observed.

- (i) Technical/Functional Competence showed a negative correlation within the 5 % level with Role Ambiguity ($r = -0.311$, $P = 0.048$, $n = 41$). This suggests that those who are technical/functional competence orientated are less likely to perceive role ambiguity. This could mean that those HRPs who are more confident, less uncertain with their technical/functional skill may consequently experience less role ambiguity or that those who are technically orientated see their HR role more single mindedly as being of a technical and functional focus.
- (ii) Entrepreneurial Creativity showed a positive correlation within the 1 % level with Role Ambiguity ($r = 0.444$, $P = 0.004$, $n = 41$). This suggests that those who are

entrepreneurial creativity orientated may be more likely to perceive role ambiguity and to experience higher levels of role stress. This supports the finding reported on in Section 8.1.2.3. Its significance will be discussed in the concluding chapter.

When tested for lower role ambiguity levels below the mean of 29, no results of significance within the 5 % level were detected.

When tested for higher role conflict levels above the mean of 34 no results of significance within the 5 % level were detected. This suggests that higher levels of role stress brought about by role conflict are not directly related to any of the categories of career orientation.

However, when tested for lower role conflict levels, one result of significance was observed. Service/Dedication to a Cause showed a positive correlation at less than the 5 % level with Role Conflict ($r = 0.321$, $P = 0.015$, $n = 57$). This suggests that those who are 'service' orientated are least likely to be affected by role conflict issues in the work place. This observation is important as it is contrary to the study hypothesis that those HRPs who were 'service' orientated would experience greater role stress.

When tested for higher and lower role overload levels above and below the mean of 24, no results of significance were detected within the 5 % level.

When tested for higher levels of role stress above the mean of 90, two results of significance were observed.

- (i) Technical/Functional Competence showed a negative correlation within the 5 % level with Role Stress ($r = -0.330$, $P = 0.025$, $n = 46$). This suggests that those who are technical/functional competence orientated are less likely to experience higher levels of role stress. This result supports the finding in relation to role ambiguity discussed above.
- (ii) Entrepreneurial Creativity showed a positive correlation within the 5 % level with Role Stress ($r = 0.321$, $P = 0.030$, $n = 46$). This suggests that those who are entrepreneurial creativity orientated are likely to suffer higher levels of role stress. The result supports the finding in relation to role ambiguity discussed above. This element is commented upon further in the General Observations in Section 8.1.2.5.

When tested for lower levels of role stress below the mean of 90, one result of significance was observed. Security/Stability showed a negative correlation within the 1% level with Role Stress. ($r = -0.352$, $P = 0.008$, $n = 56$). This suggests that those who are security/stability orientated are least likely to be affected by role stress.

8.1.2.5 General Observations on Career Orientation and Role Stress

Three observations are made:

- (i) Two of the study hypotheses of the investigation thus far find only partial support from the quantitative data analysed. The initial hypothesis that those HRPs who were more “service” orientated, would suffer greater roles stress, has not been supported at this stage. The hypothesis that those who were more “general management” orientated, would suffer less stress, also finds no significant support. This issue will be discussed in the concluding chapter.
- (ii) However, the two sets of correlations run and reported on above suggest entrepreneurial creativity as a potential source of role stress. In an era when SHRM calls for entrepreneurial and creative effort on the part of HRPs to meet the business challenges of competition, and especially global competition, it is significant that HRPs who are entrepreneurial creativity orientated should be the one’s who register higher levels of role stress. The observations recorded in Section 8.1.2.3 have relevance here. Explanations for these findings will be explored in the concluding chapter.
- (iii) The third hypothesis concerning the potential effect of the “service” and “general management” orientation link on increased work-related stress in the form of role stress and burnout has not been established at this stage. The hypothesis will be tested with the multiple regression analysis.

8.1.3 RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN CAREER ORIENTATION CATEGORIES AND BURNOUT SUB-SCALES

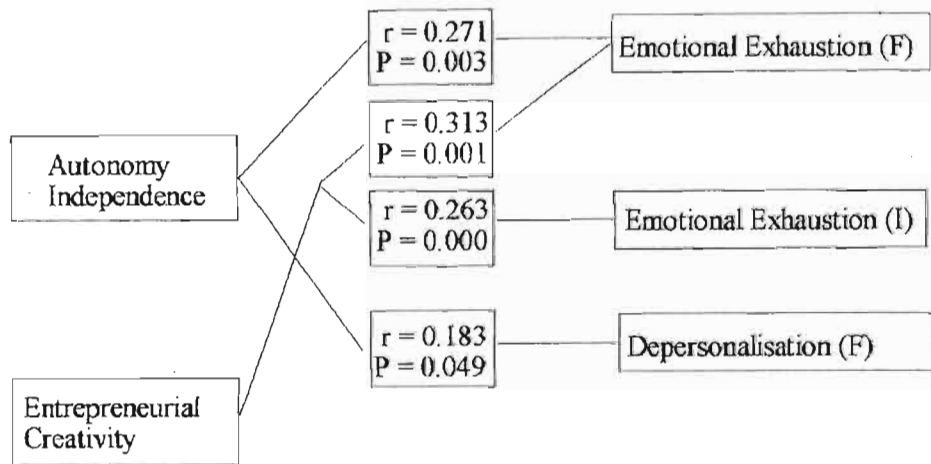
Pearsonian correlations were applied to the eight Career Orientation categories and the six MBI Burnout sub-scales. The significant correlations only are summarised in Table 8.11 (p.252). Detailed correlations are found in Appendices 8. 4.(1-8)

8 1.3.1 Correlations: Career Orientation Categories and Burnout Sub-Scales

Figure 8.3 (p.251) depicts the outcome only of the tests which fall within the 5 % level of significance. In Figure 8.3 a correlation is observed at less than the 1 % level between those who are Autonomy/Independence orientated (Table 8.11,p.252) and the Emotional Exhaustion: Frequency sub-scale (SFEALL) ($r = 0.271$, $P = 0.003$, $n = 116$). This suggests that those who are autonomy/independence orientated may experience raised levels of emotional exhaustion which in turn may add to their level of burnout.

FIGURE 8. 3

**Diagrammatic Representation of Significant Correlations
Between Career Orientation Categories and Burnout Sub-Scales**



Autonomy/Independence is observed to correlate with the Depersonalisation: Frequency sub-scale (SFDALL) within the 5 % level ($r = 0.183$, $P = 0.049$, $n = 116$). This suggests that those who are autonomy/independence orientated may experience a sense of depersonalisation arising through the development of uncaring attitudes towards those to whom they offer a service which in turn may contribute to their level of burnout.

Pines and Aronson (1988) from their research found that bureaucratic organisations promote three causes of burnout, viz., overload, lack of autonomy and lack of reward. They found that lack of autonomy was linked to lack of control over the work environment, and that the need for autonomy, if frustrated, could have negative consequences. "Frustration resulting from lack of autonomy is a particularly common cause of burnout in bureaucratic organisations." (p.105). Gowler and Legge (Eds) (1975) in their study into managerial stress support the belief that one of the sources of stress among managers is related to a lack of control and autonomy.

Most of the HRP in the study are at middle management level, where autonomy and independence of decision making is often restricted to interpretation and implementation of policy or proposals to board level. HRP's who identify themselves as autonomy/independence orientated may find themselves frustrated in their roles unless their jobs are specially structured to allow for greater decision making powers.

Table 8. 11

Career Orientation Categories and Burnout Sub-Scales :

Significant Correlations

	C 10 Technical/ Functional	C 11 General Managemen	C 12 Autonomy/ Independen.	C 13 Security/ Stability	C 14 Entrepreneu Creativity	C 15 Service/ Dedication	C 16 Pure Challenge.	C 17 Life Style
SFEALL			r = 0.271 P = 0.003		r = 0.313 P = 0.001			
SFDALL			r = 0.183 P = 0.049					
SFPALL		r = 0.251 P = 0.007	r = 0.190 P = 0.042				r = 0.331 P = 0.000	
SSEALL					r = 0.263 P = 0.000			
SSDALL.								
SSPALL.		r = 0.230 P = 0.013					r = 0.251 P = 0.007	

KEY:

Frequency:

SFEALL: Emotional Exhaustion

SFDALL: Depersonalisation

SFPALL: Personal Accomplishment

Intensity:

SSEALL: Emotional Exhaustion

SSDALL: Depersonalisation

SSPALL: Personal Accomplishment

Table 8. 12

Summary Table

High and Low Correlations :

Career Orientation Categories and Burnout Sub-Scales (Frequency)

	C 10 Technical/ Functional	C 11 General Managemen	C 12 Autonomy/ Independen.	C 13 Security/ Stability	C 14 Entrepreneu Creativity	C 15 Service/ Dedication	C 16 Pure Challenge.	C 17 Life Style
High Emot. Exhaustion								
Low Emot. Exhaustion								
High Deper- sonalisation							r = - 0.282 P = 0.043	
Low Deper- sonalisation			r = 0.325 P = 0.014		r = 0.423 P = 0.001			r = 0.273 P = 0.040
High Person Accomplish.		r = 0.329 P = 0.012					r = 0.358 P = 0.006	
Low Person Accomplish.								

Where a HRP is autonomy/independence orientated, it may be anticipated that under current circumstances there is the likelihood that he/she would experience a raised level of burnout.

Correlations are observed at less than the 1% level between those who are Entrepreneurial/Creativity orientated and the Emotional Exhaustion: Frequency (SFEALL) sub-scale ($r = 0.313$, $P = 0.001$, $n = 116$) and Emotional Exhaustion: Intensity (SSEALL) sub-scale ($r = 0.263$, $P = 0.004$, $n = 116$) (Table 8.11, p.252). This suggests that those who are entrepreneurially orientated experience higher levels of emotional exhaustion. The discussion in Section 8.1.2.4 (ii) has relevance and adds to the suggestion that there is a link between those who are entrepreneurial creativity orientated and emotional exhaustion which may add to their experience of burnout.

No significant correlations were observed between Technical/Functional Competence, Security/Stability, Service/Dedication to a Cause and Pure Challenge career orientations and the three burnout sub-scales

8.1.3.2 Correlations : Identifying which Career Orientation Categories Reflect Higher or Lower Levels of Burnout

Pearsonian correlations were run to identify which career orientation categories reflected higher or lower levels of burnout on the basis of the means of the three Burnout Sub-Scales. The significant correlations are summarised in Table 8. 12 (p.253). The detailed correlations are found in Appendix 8. 8.

A decision was made not to test the Intensity levels of the burnout sub-scales as it had emerged that these results were adding little to the overall findings in relation to burnout. This decision follows the Maslach decision after 1986 to no longer test for Intensity as it did not provide additional data of consequence. Only the Frequency scores were utilised. (See Sections 7.1.3.4 and 8.1.1.1)

Table 8. 13 (p.255) provides the means applied in these tests and rounded to the nearest whole number. (Appendix 8. 7 gives the full range of statistics.).

When tested for higher and lower levels of Emotional Exhaustion (HSFALL & LSFALL (Table 8. 12, p.253) within the 5 % level above and below the mean of 23, no significant results were detected.

When tested for higher levels of Depersonalisation (HSFDALL) above the mean of 9, one result of significance was observed. Pure Challenge showed a negative correlation within the 5 % level with Depersonalisation ($r = - 0.282$, $P = 0.043$, $n = 52$). This

Table 8. 13

Burnout Sub-Scale Mean Scores

Burnout Sub-Scales (Frequency)	Mean Score
Emotional Exhaustion (SFEALL)	23
Depersonalisation (SFDALL)	9
Personal Accomplish. (SFPALL)	34

suggests that those HRP's who are pure challenge orientated may not be finding their work depersonalising.

When tested for lower levels of Depersonalisation (LSFDALL) below the mean of 9, three results of significance were observed. Autonomy/Independence showed positive correlation within the 5% level with Depersonalisation ($r = 0.325$, $P = 0.014$, $n = 57$). This suggests that those who autonomy/independence orientated are not overly affected by feelings of depersonalisation. Entrepreneurial Creativity showed positive correlation within the 1% level with Depersonalisation ($r = 0.423$, $P = 0.004$, $n = 57$). This suggests that those who are entrepreneurial creativity orientated are not overly affected by depersonalisation. Life Style showed positive correlation within the 5% level with Depersonalisation ($r = 0.273$, $P = 0.040$, $n = 57$). This suggest that those who are life style orientated are not overly affected by depersonalisation.

The significance of the relationship between depersonalisation and these three career orientation categories at the lower level, and the negative finding in relation to Pure Challenge calls for comment, as there may be similarities. People who enjoy "challenge" and are "independent" and "creative" and who balance their work with an appropriate amount of leisure (Lifestyle), might be expected to feel lower levels of depersonalisation at work.

When tested for higher levels of Personal Accomplishment (HSFPALL) above the mean of 34, two results of significance were observed. General Management Competence showed a positive correlation within the 5% level with Personal Accomplishment ($r = 0.329$, $P = 0.012$, $n = 57$). Due to the reverse scoring this finding suggests that those who are general management orientated do not experience a reduced sense of personal accomplishment in their work. This finding would support the study hypothesis which predicted less role stress and burnout for those with a general management competency orientation. Pure Challenge showed a positive correlation within the 1% level with Personal Accomplishment ($r = 0.358$, $P = 0.006$, $n = 57$). This finding would suggest that those who are pure challenge orientated

do not experience a reduced sense of personal accomplishment in their work..

When tested for lower levels of Personal Accomplishment (LSFPALL) below the mean of 34, no results of significance within the 5 % level were detected.

8.1.3.3 General Observations on Relationships Between Career Orientation Categories and Burnout Sub-Scales

The tests reveal more numerous correlations of significance for the relationship between Career Orientation categories and Burnout sub-scales, than was noted with the Role Stress factors. This suggests a stronger relationship between some career orientation categories and burnout sub-scales, than that between career orientation and role stress.

Some specific observations are noted:

- (i) The study hypothesis in relation to General Management Competence received partial support where the sense of personal accomplishment is recorded on the higher scale. No association is noted with emotional exhaustion or depersonalisation.
- (ii) Autonomy/Independence is observed to be a potential contributor to burnout
- (iii) Entrepreneurial Creativity is observed to be a potential contributor to burnout in addition to its potential contribution to role stress as reported on in Section 8.1.2.5
- (iv) Personal Accomplishment was observed not to appear as a source of burnout for HRPs

8.1.4 RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN ROLE STRESS FACTORS AND BURNOUT SUB-SCALES

Pearsonian correlations were run to measure the relationship between role stress factors and burnout sub-scales. Summary Table 8.14 (p.257) reveals strong correlations between the variables. Detailed correlations are found in Appendix 8.4 (1 - 8.)

The focus in the role stress factors is on the actual nature of the role being fulfilled and the specific kind of stress experienced by the HRP in carrying out the specific HRM function in his or her own organisation.

Table 8.14

Summary Table

Correlations :
Role Stress Factors and Burnout Sub-Scales

	Role Ambiguity	Role Conflict	Role Overload	Role Stress
SFEALL	r = 0.469 P = 0.000	r = 0.456 P = 0.000	r = 0.609 P = 0.000	r = 0.630 P = 0.000
SFDALL	r = 0.346 P = 0.000	r = 0.388 P = 0.000	r = 0.202 P = 0.030	r = 0.383 P = 0.000
SFPALL	r = -0.302 P = 0.001	n/a	n/a	r = -0.244 P = 0.012
SSEALL	r = 0.340 P = 0.000	r = 0.466 P = 0.000	r = 0.475 P = 0.000	r = 0.544 P = 0.000
SSDALL	n/a	r = 0.359 P = 0.000	n/a	r = 0.270 P = 0.005
SSPALL	r = -0.347 P = 0.000	n/a	n/a	r = -0.282 P = 0.003

Key:

Frequency:

SFEALL: Emotional Exhaustion

SFDALL: Depersonalisation

SFPALL: Personal Accomplishment

Intensity:

SSEALL: Emotional Exhaustion

SSDALL: Depersonalisation

SSPALL: Personal Accomplishment

The focus in the Burnout sub-scales is on assessing the person's inner feelings of being emotionally over-extended and exhausted by one's work, by being depersonalised through one's work contacts, and suffering a damaging sense of reduced personal accomplishment in one's job.

Additional tests were run to confirm the correlational validity, by applying both the Kendall tau b and Spearman rho correlations. Both additional tests were found to be supportive of the Pearsonian correlations, providing additional confidence in the

significance of the scores. These supporting correlations are indicated in Appendix 8.9 (1 - 4), with summary tables in Appendices 8.10 and 8.11.

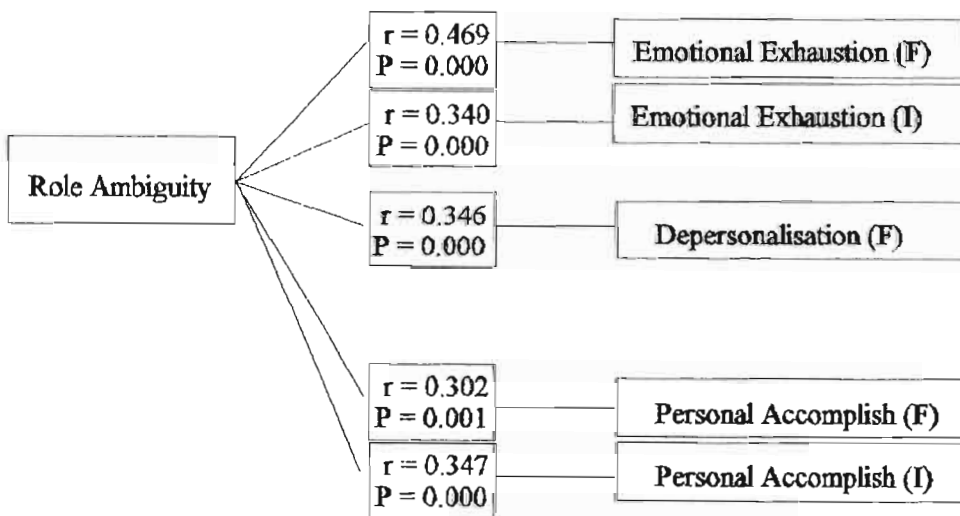
8.1.4.1 Role Ambiguity

Figure 8.4 depicts the outcome of the tests which fall within the 5% level of significance and reflects the strength of the relationships.

Figure 8.4

Diagrammatic Representation of Significant Correlations

Between Role Ambiguity and Burnout Sub-scales



(i) Role Ambiguity and Emotional Exhaustion

Role Ambiguity is observed to correlate at less than the 1% level with both Emotional Exhaustion: Frequency ($r = 0.469$, $P = 0.000$, $n = 111$) and Emotional Exhaustion: Intensity ($r = 0.340$, $P = 0.000$, $n = 110$) (Table 8.14, p.257). This suggests that role ambiguity has an influence on the level of emotional exhaustion experienced. The Kendall and Spearman correlations support this observation.

Maslach and Jackson (1986) noted that

“Ambiguity has been cited as a major cause of both poor performance and psychological stress by researchers with diverse interests. Ambiguous job settings - settings in which there is a perceived lack of relevant information - induce feelings of tension and anxiety.” (p.237).

They note that ambiguous job settings are characterised by a lack of information on two key issues, viz., information about tasks a person is expected to perform and information how others evaluate the performance by way of feedback. These are some of the classic sources of experienced role ambiguity. Beehr (1998) makes an important distinction in dealing with role ambiguity between the source in the work environment and the individual's response.

“Role ambiguity sounds a good deal like uncertainty itself, but if it is truly a stressor, it must be a characteristic of the work environment rather than a reaction of the person such as inability to determine a perceived probability. Role ambiguity would occur when the situation lacks sufficient information or contains ambiguous information regarding what is expected of the employee. Uncertainty is the employee's response or cognitive reaction to the environment.” (p.11).

Following Beehr, ambiguity for the HRP stems from the structural source pertaining to issues of a HRM nature with which the individual HRP is faced. There are two potential sources of this role ambiguity. The first is the inherently ambiguous nature of human resource management as discussed in Chapters Two and Three, with HRPs potentially being, in Tyson's understanding, “specialists in ambiguity”. The second, which is linked to the first, are the normally understood role ambiguity issues in the job created by lack of clarity within the organisation which impact upon the HRP. This leads to the need for clarity as to how the HRP directs his/her efforts in order to perform well and for clarity as to how those efforts will be measured and rewarded.

These issues will be dealt with further in the concluding chapter.

(ii) Role Ambiguity and Depersonalisation

Role Ambiguity is observed to correlate at less than the 1 % level with the Depersonalisation: Frequency sub-scale ($r = 0.346$, $P = 0.000$, $n = 111$) (Table 8.14, p.257). This suggests that role ambiguity has an influence on the level of depersonalisation being experienced. The Kendall and Spearman correlations support this observation.

Depersonalisation reflects the unfeeling and impersonal responses to recipients of one's work, which may arise through inadequate feedback, non acceptance of the HRPs contribution, or uncertainty over what actually is required. There can be a close relation between disillusionment and an ensuing negative attitude to those to whom one provides a service. The

qualitative analysis reflects cynicism and disillusionment that may follow the non acceptance of the contribution of the HRP.

Those scoring highest on the instrument would feel less of a person and their sense of self-worth would be diminished if the service they provided was found not acceptable to the recipients of their service. For HRPs who perceive themselves as 'people orientated' there is an ever present ambiguity as they endeavour to adjust that belief to the current demand for HRPs to be 'bottom line' orientated.

Where the HRP becomes a manipulator of people, a skilful politician, called on to spin doctor situations in favour of the organisation, where people become objects of manipulation, there is the possibility of depersonalisation of the HRP who perceives that he/she is meeting organisation needs rather than people needs, which reflects the fundamental dichotomy of HR management as suggested by this study.

The matter of role ambiguity and depersonalisation will be discussed further in the concluding chapter.

(iii) Role Ambiguity and Personal Accomplishment

Role Ambiguity is observed to correlate negatively at less than the 1 % level with both Personal Accomplishment: Frequency ($r = -0.302$, $P = 0.001$, $n = 111$) and Intensity ($r = -0.347$, $P = 0.000$, $n = 111$) (Table 8.14, p.257). This suggests that role ambiguity may be associated with a lowered sense of personal accomplishment amongst HRPs in their work. The Kendall and Spearman correlations support this observation.

8.1.4.2 Role Conflict

Figure 8.5 depicts the outcome of the tests which fall within the 5 % level of significance and indicates the strength of the relationship.

(i) Role Conflict and Emotional Exhaustion

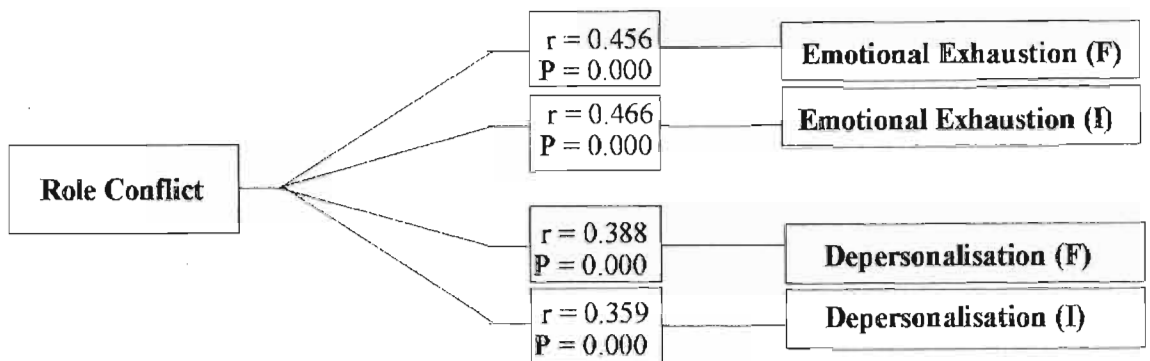
Role Conflict is observed to correlate at less than the 1 % level with both Emotional Exhaustion: Frequency ($r = 0.456$, $P = 0.000$, $n = 114$) and Intensity ($r = 0.466$, $P = 0.000$, $n = 114$) (Table 8.14, p.257). This suggests that role conflict has an influence on the level of emotional exhaustion being experienced. The Kendall and Spearman correlations support this observation.

Role Conflict is a constant feature of the work of HRPs as often they are under pressure to comply with conflicting pressures when they are called upon to mediate or negotiate their

way around incompatible demands. For example, how does a HRP respond to an aggressive union demand to remove a line manager who is strong on discipline, for whom there is no adequate replacement, and if redeployed would result in lower departmental productivity.

Figure 8. 5

**Diagrammatic Representation of Significant Correlations
Between Role Conflict and Burnout Sub-scales**



It may be argued that for HRPs, especially for those with industrial relations responsibility and those exposed to volatile work environments, role conflict is an inevitable or inherent feature of the job. On this basis emotional exhaustion and the possibility of burnout is present.

Pines (1982) reported in a study of 724 human service providers and another of 87 managers, that role conflict played a significant part in the level of experienced burnout where conflicting demands were high in work environments..

(ii) Role Conflict and Depersonalisation

Role Conflict is observed to correlate at less than the 1 % level with both Depersonalisation: Frequency ($r = 0.388$, $P = 0.000$, $n = 114$) and Intensity ($r = 0.359$, $P = 0.000$, $n = 114$). This suggests that role conflict has an influence on the level of depersonalisation. The Kendall and Spearman correlations support this observation.

Part of role conflict for the HRP could be the challenge to his/her personal values. For example, where a principled decision is called for the HRP is confronted with having to implement an unprincipled expedient course of action. The HRP may be required not to disclose relevant information in a retrenchment negotiation to ensure the exercise is concluded. The retrenchees concerned are sacrificed to expediency and in the interests of the company. The depersonalising implication for the HRP is whether his/her treatment of the retrenchees as disposable assets becomes part of an ongoing dehumanising process. The HRP becomes hardened to the harsh implications for retrenchees whom he/she is required to render jobless. The qualitative analysis reflects this experience for some HRPs. Greenberg (1996) refers to this as “attitudinal exhaustion” (p.71).

Phillips and Lee (1980) in discussing role stress among teachers, identify the teacher’s relation to value re-orientation taking place in society, as a source of role conflict for teachers and a cause of stress. “Teaching has a moral orientation and is concerned with the transmission of values.” (p.97). HRPs have a not dissimilar role within their organisations. Phillips and Lee (1980) extend this concept which draws attention to the HRP role.

“In the United States and many other advanced industrial nations there has been a deterioration in the value consensus. The teacher is in a ‘confrontation’ position with the reorientation of values developing in many such cultures, and these circumstances serve as a source of increased stress for teachers.” (p.97).

HRPs are at the interface of the modern business culture where traditional values, such as life time employment and the psychological contract are being replaced by short term contracts and casualisation. The HRP is in the ‘confrontation’ role where there is a re-orientation of values taking place. This role conflict for HRPs, between, eg., organised labour and management, may be a source of burnout, especially as it is of a prolonged, ongoing nature. For example, a black HRP who traditionally identified with black working class ideals finds him/herself in a management position having to oppose worker/ union appeals against a management decision which is not in the interests of the working class, but in the interests of the company, and against worker expectations of his/her assistance. Such role conflicts may have a depersonalising effect on the HRP and may become part of the accumulation of work stress leading to a level of burnout.

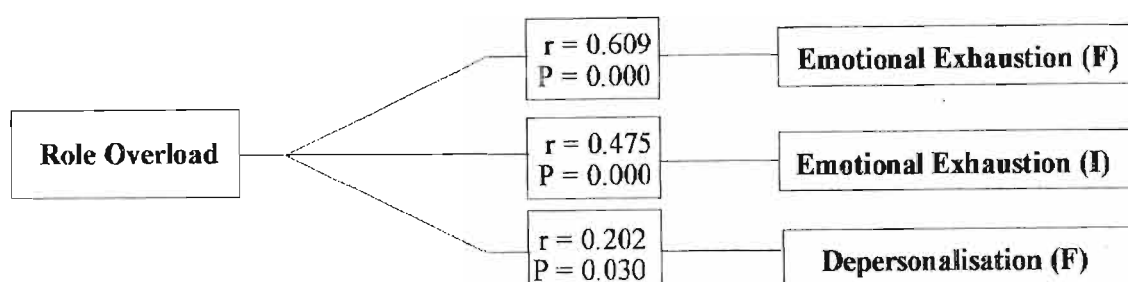
No significant association is observed between Role Conflict and **Personal Accomplishment**

8.1.4.3 Role Overload

Figure 8. 6 (p.263) depicts the outcome of the tests which fall within the 5 % level of significance and indicates the strength of the relationship.

FIGURE 8.6

**Diagrammatic Representation of Significant Correlations
Between Role Overload and Burnout Sub-Scales**



(i) Role Overload and Emotional Exhaustion

Role Overload is observed to correlate at less than the 1 % level with both Emotional Exhaustion: Frequency ($r = 0.609$, $P = 0.000$, $n = 115$) and Intensity ($r = 0.475$, $P = 0.000$, $n = 114$) (Table 8.14, p.257). This suggests that role overload has an influence on the level of emotional exhaustion being experienced. The Kendall and Spearman correlations support this observation.

Role Overload as discussed earlier (Chapter Five: Role Stress: 5.3) has been categorised into two parts: qualitative and quantitative overload. Individuals experiencing qualitative overload feel they lack the basic skills or talent necessary to complete their jobs or specific tasks effectively. Quantitative overload refers to the individual's perception that there is inadequate time to complete their work in available time.

The analysis of interviews with HRPs in this study will reveal a feeling of quantitative overload. HRPs generally regard themselves as "very busy", are frustrated by what they regard as unnecessary administrative work which hinders their doing work for which they regard themselves as more qualified to undertake, and that administrative work often has to be done at the end of the day or at home, when they are no longer interrupted by meetings or dealing with one on one people issues. This depiction is not unique to HRPs but is a recognised feature of their jobs. Despite the expression of frustration, the overload is generally accepted as "going with the territory". Quantitative overload is probably a normal condition for most HRPs. The HRPs do not suggest that they suffer from qualitative overload. Competence in their work was implied.. Whether there was qualitative overload was not tested. However, the work stress/burnout implications of overload may not be sufficiently acknowledged by HRPs. The strong correlation between overload and emotional exhaustion

is thus not surprising.

The reverse of Role Overload, **Role Underload**, although not tested for in this study, is included in some analyses, because underloading may be stress creating. The underloading is implied in the problematic item in the questionnaire previously commented upon: "I perform tasks that are too easy or boring".

(ii) Role Overload and Depersonalisation

Role Overload is observed to correlate at the 5 % level with Depersonalisation: Frequency subscale ($r = 0.202$, $P = 0.030$, $n = 115$). This suggests that role overload may have an influence on the level of depersonalisation.

It is noted that the Role Overload - Depersonalisation element is not as strongly correlated as Role Overload with Emotional Exhaustion. It does suggest that overload has an impact on depersonalisation. The 'very busy' HRP involved with prioritised, broader strategic HRM organisational issues, has less time under current conditions to give adequate attention to dealing with an individual employee's specific problems. The employee may be perceived as someone else's responsibility, dispensable and 'referable' to someone else. The result for the HRP is that a less than caring syndrome develops with a cumulative depersonalising effect, especially on HRPs who may still believe that they need to play a caring role vis-a vis individual employees. As a HRP moves higher in the hierarchy less time is given to interaction with individuals and their specific needs and the distance element may contribute to a less caring attitude. This in turn may translate into depersonalisation and become an element in work stress.

Role Overload is not observed to correlate significantly with **Personal Accomplishment**.

8.1.4.4 Role Stress

Role Stress, as a summation of the three factors of Role Ambiguity, Role Conflict and Role Overload, is correlated at the 1 % level of significance for five of the six Burnout sub-scales and thus presents a significant observation.

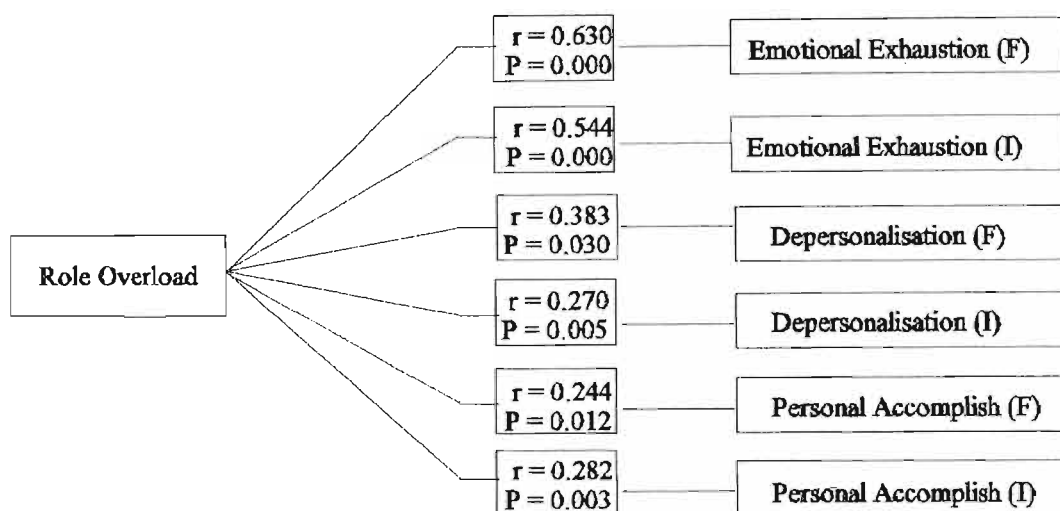
Figure 8.7 (p.265) depicts the outcome of the tests which fall within the 5 % level of significance.

(i) Role Stress and Emotional Exhaustion

Role Stress is observed to correlate at less than the 1 % level for both Emotional Exhaustion: Frequency ($r = 0.630$, $P = 0.000$, $n = 106$) and Intensity ($r = 0.544$,

Figure 8. 7

**Diagrammatic Representation of Significant Correlations
Between Role Stress and Burnout Sub-scales**



$P = 0.000$, $n = 106$) (Table 8.12, p.253). This suggests that Role Stress has an influence on the level of emotional exhaustion being experienced.. The Kendall and Spearman correlations support this observation.

The observations made above in regard to each of the three Role Stress factors and Emotional Exhaustion, apply to Role Stress and support the overall suggestion that Role Stress influences the level of emotional exhaustion amongst HRPs

It is observed further, that the MBI Frequency norm (1981) for Emotional Exhaustion (Table 8.4, p.235) provides a range of 18 -29 for moderate burnout. The study mean of 23.58 is around the midpoint within the moderate range. This range suggests that most HRPs experience 'moderate' emotional exhaustion which may be extended to moderate burnout as 'emotional exhaustion' is a strong determinant of the level of overall burnout. Those HRPs in the study who scored 30 and higher are thus in the high burnout category. (See Table 8.13, p.255)

The finding of a strong correlation between role stress and emotional exhaustion is significant. The qualitative study will suggest that HRPs are not always willing to acknowledge that they may be affected by burnout. The qualitative study addresses this issue. However, it is opportune to comment on the tendency to play down 'stress'. Some explanations may be

offered:

- (a) Some HRPs perceive that Role Stress (role ambiguity, role conflict, role overload) “goes with the territory” and that they expect to work constantly within a climate of role stress which is seen as normal
- (b) Some HRPs enjoy the adrenalin stimulation that comes with the experience of stress. For them it is ‘eu-stress’, beneficial to their work, stimulating and not destructive in the short term. In the longer term, or due to changed circumstances, role stress may create ‘dis-stress’ with detrimental health results and negative consequences for the performance of their job.
- (c) Some HRPs are reluctant to concede to being ‘under stress’ as their organisation’s culture would perceive such concession as weakness, a disqualification for promotion and an indication that they may crack under pressure at a critical time.

(ii) Role Stress and Depersonalisation

Role Stress is observed to correlate at less than the 1% level with both Depersonalisation: Frequency ($r = 0.383$, $P = 0.000$, $n = 106$) and Intensity ($r = 0.270$, $P = 0.005$, $n = 106$) (Table 8.14, p.257). This suggests that Role Stress has an influence on the level of depersonalisation. The Kendall and Spearman correlations support this observation.

The observations made above concerning Role Ambiguity (Section 8.1.4.1) and Role Conflict (Section 8.1.4.2) in relation to Depersonalisation apply to Role Stress and support the overall suggestion that Role Stress influences the level of depersonalisation amongst HRPs

It is observed that the MBI (1981) Frequency: Depersonalisation norm (Table 8.4, p.236) for average burnout is 6 - 11. The study mean is 9.21 which is around midway. This suggests that for many in the study sample, depersonalisation is a feature leading to a moderate level of burnout. Those in the study who score 13 and above will be experiencing higher levels of burnout. (Table 8.13, p.255)

(iii) Role Stress and Personal Accomplishment

Role Stress is observed to correlate negatively within the 5 % level with Personal Accomplishment: Frequency ($r = -0.244$, $P = 0.012$, $n = 106$) and negatively within the 1 % level with Intensity ($r = -0.282$, $P = 0.003$, $n = 106$) (Table 8.14, p.578). This suggests that Role Stress has an influence on a sense of reduced personal achievement among the respondents. The Kendall and Spearman correlations appear to support this observation.

It is observed that the MBI (1981) Personal Accomplishment : Frequency norm Table 8.4, p.236) for average burnout for Personal Accomplishment is 39 - 34. The study mean is 34.56 which is at the top end of the range for personal accomplishment, due to the method of reverse scoring. This suggests that within the South African sample there may be a sense of a reduced personal achievement, which may add to a heightened possibility of burnout.

8.1.4.5 General Observations: Role Stress and Burnout Sub-Scales

The observations made above in Sections 8.1.4.1 - 8.1.4.4 consistently reveal significant correlations between Role Stress factors and the Burnout sub-scales of Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalisation. The findings at this stage suggest that there is evidence to support a strong possibility that higher levels of role stress influence higher levels of burnout. It would begin to appear that the higher the role stress levels, the higher the possibility of the level of burnout. These findings would be in line with international research.

Cordes and Docherty (1993) in their review of burnout literature draw attention to a number of studies where the relationship between role stress and burnout have been considered. Schwab and Iwanicki's (1982) study of a sample of 469 teachers found that role ambiguity and role conflict accounted for a significant amount of variance in emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation. Role ambiguity was found to account for a significant, though smaller amount of variance in personal accomplishment. Brookings and colleagues (1985) reported statistically significant relationships between perceived role ambiguity and role conflict and all three burnout components among 135 human service professionals. Jackson and colleagues (1986) found role conflict to be significantly associated with emotional exhaustion, but not with depersonalisation and personal accomplishment, and role ambiguity was found to be significantly related to personal accomplishment, among 248 teachers.

The Cordes and Docherty's (1993) conclusion is that the findings on the effects of role ambiguity and role conflict on burnout are consistent. They state further,

“Because role conflict and role ambiguity are not limited to human service professionals, the relationship between these role variables and burnout would be expected to be equivalent in corporate and industrial settings as well.” (p.63)

The findings are also important for the study as they reveal a different set of influences to that envisaged in the study hypotheses. It suggests that contrary to the hypotheses, that Role Stress may be acting as an independent variable on Burnout, rather than as a moderating or mediating variable between Career Orientation categories and Burnout

8.1.5 ESTABLISHING PREDICTOR RELATIONSHIPS

To identify the best predictors of Role Stress, as the intermediate variable, and Burnout as the dependent variable, from among the eight Career Orientation categories, a series of multiple regression tests were run using the SPSS software. Due to the strength of the intermediate variable (Role Stress) on the Burnout sub-scales, additional regression analyses between these two variables was undertaken. Role Stress emerged as a strong predictor of the three Burnout sub-scales which warranted additional tests.

Before running the linear regression tests a series of tests was run to ensure that the pre-requisites for multiple regression had been met.

The findings of these preliminary tests are reported on below This explanation is followed by a presentation on the multiple regression analyses, which investigates the predictor relationships between Career Orientation and Role Stress, between Career Orientation and Burnout, and then between Role Stress and Burnout.

8.1.5.1 Assumption Testing

Prior to introducing multiple regression analysis a number of pre-requisites were tested following Coakes and Steed (2001, p167-168). Chapter Six Section 6.2.1.2 reported on the acceptability of the ratio of cases to independent variables which is part of the assumption testing for data. A further preliminary check involved ascertaining whether multicollinearity was present among the independent variables, and if so, to what extent. Table 8. 7 (p.242) summarises the most significant correlations, which were commented upon in Section 8.1.2.2. Although a degree of multicollinearity was present among a number of the variables, viz., C16 and C12, and C16 and C14, the magnitude was not large and was not considered to be at a level which may distort the outcome of the regression exercise.

The data was subjected to a preliminary set of tests to establish whether the data complied with the necessary assumptions for multiple regression analysis. These tests were designed to:

- (i) assess the impact of outliers (identifiable in a scatterplot) to assess whether these outliers are of such a nature as to impact on the regression solution
- (ii) establish the existence of multicollinearity and singularity where high correlations among independent variables or where perfect correlations among these variables, respectively, may affect the interpretation of any relationships between predictors (independent variables) and the dependent variable

- (iii) establish the normality, linearity, homoscedasticity and independence of residuals. It is assumed that the difference between the obtained and predicted dependent variable scores will be normally distributed and that the residuals have a linear relationship with the predicted dependent variable scores and that the variance of the residuals is the same for all predicted scores.

The observations from the tests and from the two charts (the Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residuals and the Scatterplot) are discussed below in relation to the different sets of variables tested. These sets of variables are listed, followed by relevant observations.

- (i) Career Orientation as the independent variable and Role Stress as a dependent variable: The decision to treat Role Stress in a cumulative manner resulted from the very limited relationships that emerged during the correlational tests between the eight career orientation categories and the three separate role stress factors.
- (ii) Role Stress as the independent variable and each of the three Burnout sub- scales as separate dependent variables. The burnout construct requires that each sub-scale be dealt with independently. Therefore, Emotional Exhaustion (SFEALL), Depersonalisation (SFDALL) and Personal Accomplishment (SFPALL) are each tested separately as dependent variables. The reason for treating Role Stress as a independent variable emerged during the correlational tests where Role Stress was found to be more of an independent variable in relation to the Burnout sub-scales than as originally designed as the intermediate or mediating variable. It is also noted that it was decided only to test the Frequency element of Burnout in keeping with the latest Maslach Burnout Inventory format.
- (iii) Career Orientation as the independent variable and each of the three Burnout sub-scales as dependent variables.

In each of the tests, and on examination of the residual scatterplots, it was found that the difference between the obtained and predicted dependent variable scores was normally distributed. In all five tests although outliers were present, they were not sufficiently influential to suggest abnormality. All the tests showed the plots fairly well clustered. The scatterplots revealed only slight evidence of homoscedasticity in the tests. The interpretation of residuals using linear regression plots with the Durbin-Watson test, although revealing slight deviation, was not problematic. The residuals were found, in each case, to have a linear relationship with the predicted dependent variable scores and that the variance of the residuals was similar for all predicted scores. In certain instances slight deviations from linearity was observed but was not perceived to seriously affect the overall acceptable trend.

8.1.5.2 Career Orientation as Predictor of Role Stress

The purpose of the analyses in this section was to establish the best predictors of Role Stress from amongst the eight Career Orientation categories.

A stepwise backward elimination multiple regression technique was used to identify the best predictors in relation to each of the three Role Stress factors based on the scores from the same three instruments used for the correlational tests.

Summary Table 8. 15 (p.271) reports the significant findings of the multiple regression analysis. The detailed workings are found in Appendices 8. 12 (1 - 40).

Figure 8. 8 (p.272) depicts the relationships tested between the Career Orientation categories and the Role Stress factors, identifying only those where significant association was found to exist. Three predictor associations were identified as seen below and each is discussed separately, namely Role Ambiguity, Role Conflict and Role Overload.

(i) Career Orientation and Role Ambiguity

The best solutions for Role Ambiguity as a dependent variable, in terms of R square (RSQ), significance of t , and significance of F , were obtained in Step 6 of the analysis.

In Step 6 just over 9 % of the variation of Role Ambiguity scores was explained by General Management (C11) and Entrepreneurial Creativity (C14) with $RSQ = 0.092$, $RSQ\ Adj = 0.067$. Analysis of variance indicated $F = 3.664$, $p = 0.015$ for the model. The t value of the coefficient was only significant within the 5 % for C11 and C14, with $t = - 2.081$ and $p = 0.040$, and $t = 2.151$ and $p = 0.034$ respectively.

The findings in respect of Entrepreneurial Creativity (C14), as an independent variable, suggests predictability in relation to Role Ambiguity which was not as evident in the findings in the correlational analyses no significant correlation was observed within the 5 % level of significance.(Section 8.1.2.3). However, when the High/Low scores test was applied (Section 8.1.2.4) it was indicated that there was a relationship.

The findings in respect of General Management (C11) suggests predictability in relation to Role Ambiguity. The correlational tests reveal an association only within the 10 % level of significance. The detailed workings are found in Appendices 8.12 (1 - 5).

Table 8. 15

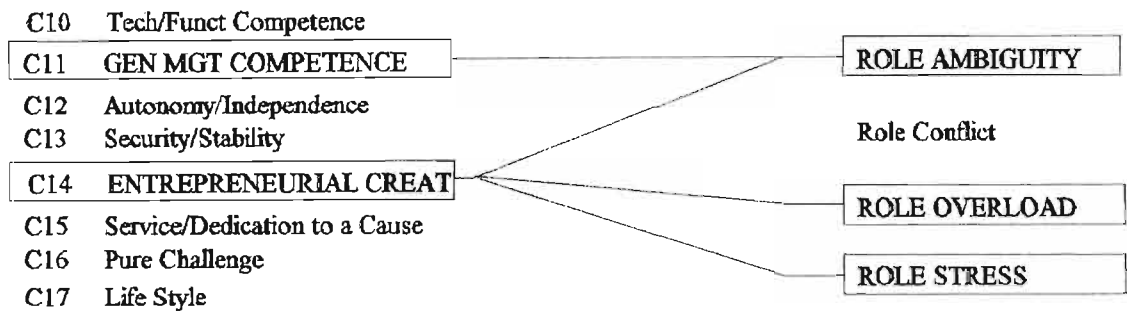
Summary Table

Multiple Regression Analysis

Career Orientation as Predictor of Role Stress

Variables	TECH FUN C10	GEN MGT C11	AUTO/IND C12	SEC/STAB C13	ENTR/CREA C14	SERVICE C15	CHALLENGE C16	LIFE STYLE C17
ROLE AMBIGUITY		RSQ = 0.092 F = 3.664 P = 0.015 t = -2.081 P = 0.040			RSQ = 0.092 F = 3.664 P = 0.015 t = 2.151 P = 0.034			
ROLE CONFLICT								
ROLE OVERLOAD					RSQ = 0.052 F = 3.079 p = 0.050 t = 2.096 P = 0.038			
ROLE STRESS					RSQ = 0.070 F = 3.909 P = 0.023 t = 2.561 P = 0.012			

Figure 8. 8

Multiple Regression Model:**Career Orientation as Predictor of Role Stress****(ii) Career Orientation and Role Conflict**

The same analytical procedures were followed in respect of Role Conflict as was undertaken with Role Ambiguity as a dependent variable. Entrepreneurial Creativity (C14) approached significance with $t = 1.883$ and $p = 0.062$, but has not been included in the summary Table 8. 15. The findings in the correlation analysis (Section 8.1.2.3) also identified a correlation approaching the level between Entrepreneurial Creativity (C14) and Role Conflict ($P = 0.058$). The detailed workings are found in Appendices 8.12 (6-10). The correlational analysis revealed no significant relationships between the variables. (Sections 8.1.2.3. and 8.1.2.4).

(iii) Career Orientation and Role Overload

The same analytical procedures were followed for Role Overload as with the previous dependent variables.

At step 7 a small percentage of variance was explained by two independent variables, Entrepreneurial Creativity (C14) and General management Competence (C11). However, only C14 falls within an acceptable 5 % level of significance. $RSQ = 0.052$ and $RSQ Adj. = 0.035$. Analysis of variance indicated $F = 3.079$ with $p = 0.050$ for the model. The t value for the coefficient was within the 5 % level of significance for C14 with $t = 2.096$ and $p = 0.038$.

(iv) Career Orientation and Role Stress

The three factors in Role Stress have been treated separately in order to identify whether any of these factors is more susceptible to prediction by any specific career orientation category. Role Stress in this study is calculated as the summation of the three factors which were dealt with in the foregoing part of this section.

The best solution for the dependent variable in terms of R square (RSQ), significance of t , and significance of F , were obtained in Step 7 of the analysis.

In Step 7, 7 % of the variation of Role Stress scores was explained by Entrepreneurial Creativity (C14) with $RSQ = 0.070$, $RSQ\ Adj = 0.052$. Analysis of variance indicated $F = 3.909$, $p = 0.023$ for the model. The t value for the coefficient was significant within the 5 % level for C14 with $t = 2.561$ and $p = 0.012$. The detailed workings are found in Appendices 8. 12 (16 - 20).

8.1.5.3 Career Orientation as Predictor of Burnout

The purpose of the multiple regression tests in this section was to establish the best predictors of Burnout from amongst the eight Career Orientation categories.

Burnout as the dependent variable in this part of the study comprises the three sub-categories of the Frequency element only, viz., Emotional Exhaustion (SFEALL), Depersonalisation (SFDALL), and Personal Accomplishment (SFPALL). The decision to run tests based only on the three Frequency elements is due to the earlier finding in the testing process that the Intensity element was not providing additional information. It thus reflects a concession to the Maslach (1996) decision to discontinue the use of the Intensity element as superfluous, as sufficient stable testable data was obtainable through the three Frequency sub-scales.

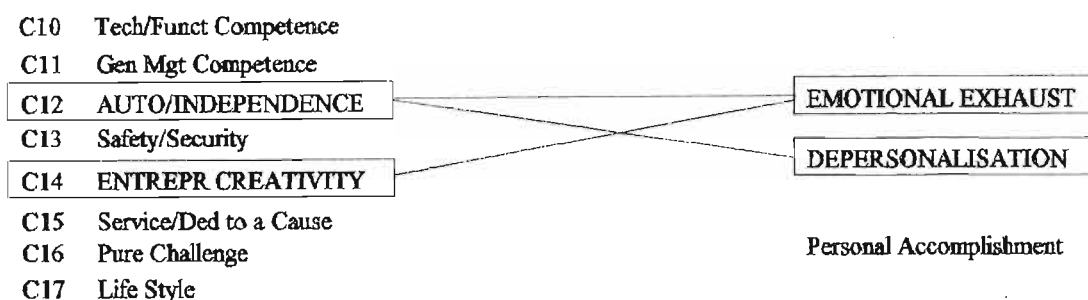
The same analytical procedure were followed as in Section 8.1.5.2. Summary Table 8. 16 (p.274) reports only the significant findings of the multiple regression analysis. The detailed workings are found in Appendices 8. 12 (21 - 24).

Figure 8. 9 (p.274) depicts the relationships tested between the Career Orientation categories and the Burnout sub-scales, identifying only those where significant association was found to exist within the 5 % level of significance. Three predictor associations were identified as seen below and each is discussed separately.

Figure 8. 9

Multiple Regression Model

Career Orientation as Predictor of Burnout

**(i) Career Orientation and Emotional Exhaustion**

The best solutions for the Emotional Exhaustion (SFEALL as dependent variable) was obtained in step 6 where Autonomy/Independence (C12) and Entrepreneurial Creativity (C14). Table 8. 16 (p.275) reveals Autonomy/Independence was marginal with $t = 11.978$ and $P = 0.050$. Entrepreneurial Creativity was much stronger and found to be the best predictor of emotional exhaustion. Table 8. 16 indicates $RSQ = 0.141$ and $RSQ Adj = 0.118$. Analysis of variance indicates that $F = 6.124$, $p = 0.001$. The t value of the coefficient was significant at less than the 1 % level ($p = 0.009$).

The regression analysis suggests that Entrepreneurial Creativity best predicts scores on the dependent variable Emotional Exhaustion (SFEALL), with Autonomy/Independence not as strong.

(ii) Career Orientation and Depersonalisation

The best solution for the Depersonalisation (SFDALL) dependent variable was obtained in step 8 where Autonomy/Independence (C12) was found to be the best predictor of depersonalisation. Figure 8. 8. depicts the summary result. Table 8. 16 indicates $RSQ = 0.033$ and $RSQ Adj = 0.025$. Analysis of variance indicates $F = 3.950$, $p = 0.049$. The t value of the coefficient was marginal within the 5 % ($p = 0.049$). The detailed workings are found in Appendices 8. 12 (25 - 29).

Table 8.16

Summary Table

**Multiple Regression Analysis :
Career Orientation as Predictor of Burnout**

Variables	TECH FUN C10	GEN MGT C11	AUTO/IND C12	SEC/STAB C13	ENTR/CRE C14	SERVICE C15	CHALLENGE C16	LIFE STYLE C17
EMOTIONAL EXHAUSTION (SFEALL)			RSQ = 0.141 F = 6.124 P = 0.001 t = 1.978 P = 0.050		RSQ = 0.141 F = 6.124 P = 0.001 t = 2.649 P = 0.009			
DEPERSON- ALISATION (SFDALL)			RSQ = 0.033 F = 3.950 P = 0.049 t = 1.987 P = 0.049					
PERSONAL ACCOM- PLISHMENT (SFPALL)								

The regression analysis suggests that Autonomy/Independence (C12) best predicts scores on the dependent variable Depersonalisation.

8.1.5.4 Role Stress as Predictor of Burnout

The purpose of the multiple regression tests in this section was to establish the best predictors of the three Burnout sub-scales separately in relation to the three Role Stress factors. The correlation exercise showed strong correlations between Role Stress, as a cumulative factor, and each of the Burnout sub-scales. (Section 8.1.4). That set of correlations also revealed Role Stress as playing a far stronger role than an intermediate or intervening variable, as hypothesised. Role Stress emerged more as an independent variable. In light of this finding, this current section endeavours to identify the strength of specific predictors from among the three Role Stress factors.

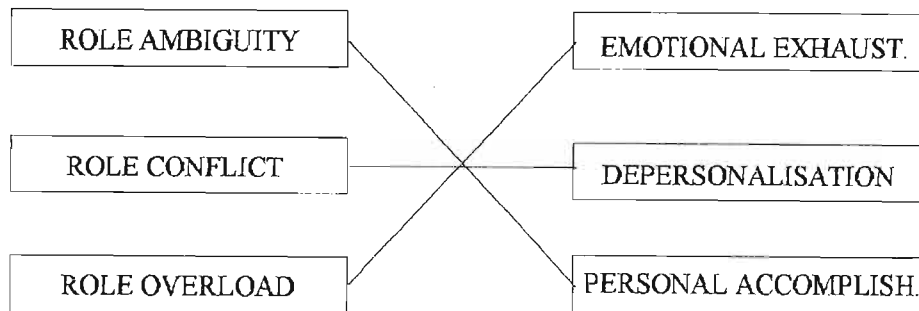
Table 8. 17 (p.277) summarises the findings and provides evidence of strong predictor associations between certain of the Role Stress factors and Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalisation and Personal Accomplishment as dependent variables. The detailed workings are located in Appendices 8. 35 - 40.

Figure 8. 10 depicts a summary of the significant relationships established between the three Role Stress factors and the Burnout sub-scales.

Figure 8. 10

Multiple Regression Model:

Role Stress Factors as Predictors of Burnout



(i) Role Stress Factors and Emotional Exhaustion

The best solution for the Emotional Exhaustion (SFEALL) dependent variable was obtained in step 2 where Role Ambiguity and Role Overload were found to be the best predictors of emotional exhaustion. Table 8. 17 indicates for Role Ambiguity : RSQ = 0.463 and RSQ Adj = .144; analysis of variance indicates $F = 45.241$, $p = 0.000$; the t value for the coefficient was significant at less than 1 % ($P = 0.000$). Role Overload was found to be an equally sound predictor.

The regression analysis suggests that both Role Ambiguity and Role Overload best predict scores on the dependent variable Emotional Exhaustion. These findings confirm the correlation exercise findings in both cases as well as in regard to Role Stress. . (See Sections 8.1.4.1 and 8.1.4.3). The comments and interpretation offered in these sections are equally applicable.

Table 8. 17

Summary Table

**Multiple Regression Analysis:
Role Stress Factors as Predictors of Burnout**

Burnout Sub-Scales	Role Ambiguity	Role Conflict	Role Overload
Emotional Exhaustion (SFEALL)	RSQ = 0.463 F = 45.241 P = 0.000 $t = 4.776$ P = 0.000	n/a	RSQ = 0.463 F = 45.241 P = 0.000 $t = 6.761$ P = 0.000
Depersonalisation (SFDALL)	n/a	RSQ = 0.152 F = 18.960 P = 0.000 $t = 4.354$ P = 0.000	n/a
Personal Accomplishment (SFPALL)	RSQ = 0.113 F = 13.471 P = 0.000 $t = -3.670$ P = 0.010	n/a	n/a

(ii) Role Stress Factors and Depersonalisation

The best solution for the Depersonalisation (SFDALL) dependent variable was obtained in step 3 where Role Conflict was found to be the best predictor of depersonalisation. Table 8.17.(p.278) indicates for Role Conflict : RSQ = 0.152 and RSQ Adj = 0.144; analysis of variance indicates $F = 18.960$, $P = 0.000$. The t value of the coefficient was significant at less than 1 % ($P = 0.000$).

The regression analysis suggests that Role Conflict best predicts scores on the dependent variable Depersonalisation. The regression does not find support for Role Ambiguity and Role Overload as separate independent variables. (See Section 8.1.4.2). The comments and interpretation offered in that section are applicable.

(iii) Role Stress Factors and Personal Accomplishment

The best solution for the Personal Accomplishment (SFPALL) dependent variable was obtained in step 3 where Role Ambiguity was found to be the best predictor of a lowered sense of personal accomplishment. Table 8.18 indicates for Role Ambiguity: RSQ = 0.113 and RSQ Adj = 0.104; analysis of variance indicates $F = 13.471$, $P = 0.000$. The t value of the coefficient at -3.670 is significant at less than 1 % ($P = 0.000$).

The regression analysis suggests that Role Ambiguity best predicts scores on the dependent variable Personal Accomplishment. This finding confirms the correlational exercise finding . Due to the reverse scoring applied to Personal Accomplishment the negative score suggests a lowered sense of personal accomplishment being experienced by HRPs who are high on role ambiguity. (See Section 8.1.4.1)

8.1.5.5 General Observations on Predictor Relationships

A number of general observations may be made at the conclusion of this section on multiple regression tests.

- (i) Entrepreneurial Creativity appears as the most consistent independent variable to influence Role Stress factors. This suggests that those HRPs who are Entrepreneurial Creativity orientated are more likely to suffer higher levels of Role Ambiguity, Role Overload and overall Role Stress than those with other career orientations.
- (ii) Role Stress factors emerge as strong predictors of scores on the three Burnout subscales: Role Ambiguity predicts on both Emotional Exhaustion and Personal Accomplishment; Role Conflict predicts on Depersonalisation; Role Overload predicts

on Emotional Exhaustion. These findings lend support to the emerging outcome that Role Stress factors act as an independent variable on the dependent variable, rather than providing an intervening or mediating function as an intermediate variable.

- (iii) A limited number of Career Orientation categories are observed to predict directly on Burnout Sub-scales. Entrepreneurial Creativity appears as a significant predictor of Emotional Exhaustion. Autonomy/Independence predict marginally within the 5 % level, on both Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalisation. It is noted that Service/Dedication to a Cause and General Management Competence do not appear as significant predictors since they do not explain a large amount of the variance. They are thus not perceived as supporting the hypothesis that a close association between the two would lead to the possibility of greater burnout.

8.3 TRIANGULATION OF QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE DATA

8.3.1 Introduction

This section seeks to establish associations between the quantitative (Quant) and qualitative (Qual) findings. The purpose is to corroborate and supplement the Quant findings through triangulation with the Qual findings. The two streams of data are by nature different and a triangulation methodology was applied to relate the different sets of data in an attempt to establish the level of association.

Triangulation theory was discussed in Chapter Six: Section 6.2.3. The Quant findings have been reported on in Section 8.1 of this chapter. The Qual findings are found in Section 8.2 and presented in detail in Appendix 8.1 as QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS. That section summarises, classifies and analyses the written transcripts taken at the time of the interviews with the thirty respondents. The data in the summary was further reduced to scores in Appendix 8.14. The reduction to scores allows for comparison with the Quant data which is reported on below.

The Qual data is used in two ways to establish association with the Quant findings.

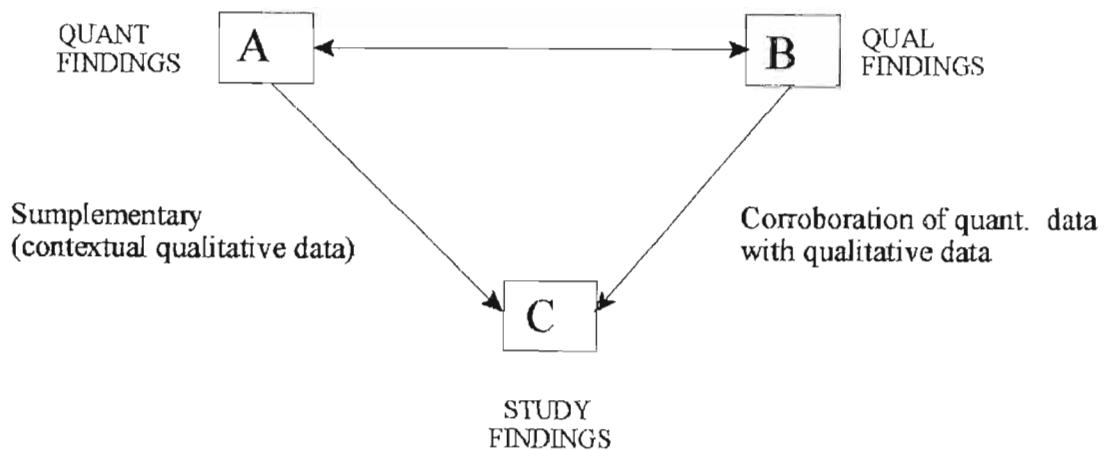
- (i) The Qual data provides corroborative support in validating the Quant findings.
- (ii) The Qual data has a supplementary role by providing the contemporary experiential insights into the activities of HRP. The Qual material is able to provide the current environmental context out of which HRPs operate. Such insight is felt to be critical in achieving a more insightful interpretation of the Quant data.

To achieve a triangulation of quantitative and qualitative data the **chi square test (χ^2)** {as applied by Coldwell (1979)} for significance, was applied to data obtained from the main study variables. The qualitative data on the Career Orientation categories did not lend itself to meaningful quantification and was thus not included in the chi square tests.

The method adopted here was explained in the Chapter Six and follows the model applied by Coldwell (1981 and 1985) and outlined in Section 6.2.3 on triangulation methodology. The model allows for a synthesis to be arrived at by providing supplementary and corroborative input into the Quant findings through the Qual influence. The methodology for this exercise is diagrammatically represented in Figure 8. 11.

Figure 8. 11

Triangulating Quantitative and Qualitative methods



This section presents a triangulation of Qual and Quant data obtained from the responses of the thirty interviewees who were a sample of the one hundred and eighteen respondents to the written questionnaire survey. The triangulation exercise involves a triangulation of:

- * the three Role Stress factors
- * the three Burnout Frequency Sub-Scales.
- * aspects of Self-Rated Work Related Stress

8.3.2. The Application of the Chi Square Test (χ^2) for Association.

The chi square test was applied to establish the strength of the association between the various sets of Quant and Qual data within both the Role Stress factors and within the Burnout Sub-Scales to assess the complementarity within the two sets of data.

To calculate the value of chi square a 2 x 2 table was used following the general model as applied by Gregory and Ward, 1967, p. 278 - 292.

CHI SQUARE FORMULA

	A	Not-A	Totals
B	a	b	c
Not-B	d	e	f
Totals	g	h	N

To calculate the value of chi square the formula applied is $\chi^2 = \frac{N(\mathbf{ae} - \mathbf{bd})^2}{\mathbf{c.f.g.h}}$

The detailed counts used in the calculations are found in Appendix 8. 13 (Quant) and Appendix 8. 14 (Qual).

8.3.3 Testing for Association within Role Stress Factors

Prior to testing the strength of the association between the Qual and Quant scores for three Role Stress factors an explanation is provided below on the manner in which both the Quant and the Qual data was processed to enable the tests to be carried out.

8.3.3.1 Processing the Quantitative Data from the Role Stress Factors

The Quant data for this exercise was obtained from the data of the thirty interviewees in respect of their responses to the Role Questionnaire instrument which covered the three Role Stress factors of Role Ambiguity, Role Stress and Role Overload. By applying the mean to the individual scores the high and low score for each respondent was obtained.. Appendix 8. 6 provides the means for each role stress factor . These are repeated below.

ROLEAMB	29
ROLECONF	34
ROLEOVER	24
ROLESTRE	90

Appendix 8. 13 provides the details of the high or low scores for each individual interviewee which were applied in the chi square formula calculations.

8.3.3.2 Processing the Qualitative Data from the Role Stress Factors

The source of the data for the Qual exercise were the transcripts of the interviews of the thirty respondents. These are the recorded responses to the open ended questions posed in the Role Perceptions questionnaire.(Appendix F). The transcripts were studied and analysed to establish the degree of subjective consciousness of the three role stress factors involved. on the part of the respondents.

The method applied is a variation of the Coldwell model which is described by Coldwell. (1985).

“It is assumed in each case that those who are subjectively aware of, and attached importance to, a particular phenomenon - such as role conflict - would mention it without specific prompting during the course of the interview. Conversely, it is assumed that those who are not aware of, and attach little or no importance to, the particular phenomenon would not mention it during the interview.” (p.194)

In the current study, due to the nature of wording of the questions possibly acting as a prompt, an adaptation to the Coldwell model was made. Where the comment, illustration or discussion suggested that the experience of the issue involved in the particular role stress factor was of such a nature that it occupied the consciousness of the respondent, it was classified as “conscious of” and given a HIGH classification..

Where the issue was not commented upon or was given only cursory attention suggesting that the matter was of little concern to the respondent, the response was classified as “not conscious” and given a LOW classification.

The method employed is not as distinct as the Coldwell application which allows for a more categorical, ‘yes’ or ‘no’. The method utilised in this study is more comprehensive and does allow for consideration of the total context of the interview to be taken into account. It provides a rational formula to arrive at a similar quantifiable outcome as the Coldwell methodology. (See earlier discussion on Triangulation Methodology - Sect 6.2.3)

Appendix 8. 14 summarises and classifies the responses and provides for categorisation of the total response to each role stress factor into a “high” or “low” status for comparative purposes. The phenomenological oriented approach applied by Coldwell (1981, 1985) allows for a holistic integration and interpretation of reliable qualitatively sourced data from the same set of respondents.

In all cases, reference was to the individual’s own subjective experience or perception of role ambiguity, role conflict or role overload. The assessment of that experience, was by nature, also a subjective process. To limit the researcher’s subjectivity and make available a wider range of responses from the interviewee, a series of questions on each role factor was employed. For Role Ambiguity three questions were posed with specific relation to experiences of role ambiguity and five questions in regard to Role Conflict. These multiple opportunities provided a broad framework for assessing the individual’s level of consciousness of important aspects of role ambiguity and role conflict. Multiple questions allowed for the failure of a question to elicit a response that was classifiable without jeopardising a meaningful response to the two role stress factors. It was believed that one question was adequate to assess the respondent’s level of consciousness of role overload or role underload

The more systematic method of applying word identification by computer processing, such as available with NUDIST, was not followed, as it was believed the methodology would not provide a more accurate or valid assessment, given the amount of data being processed.

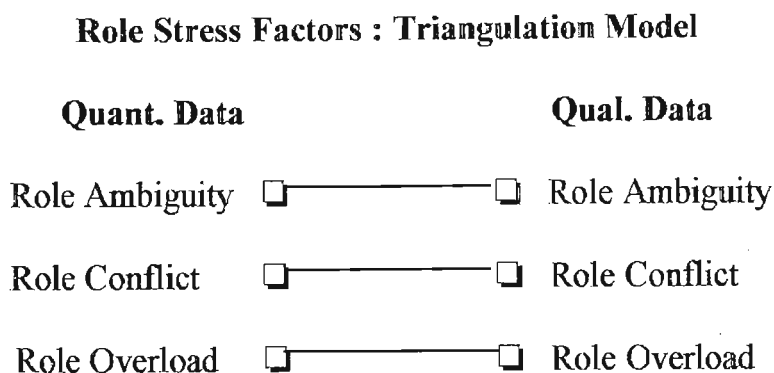
The approach outlined above was suitable for processing the qualitative data collected. It was believed that the researcher’s own extended experience as a HRP and of the industries involved, would bring a useful interpretative dimension to assessing and interpreting the qualitative material. Appendix 8.14 illustrates the method applied. The footnote to the Appendix provides information on the symbols used to sort the data. On occasions it was found that some of the material recorded in the transcripts was not usable and where this occurred it is indicated with a question mark (?)

8.3.3.3 Testing for Association within Role Stress Factors

Three tests were carried out applying the chi square formula to establish the level of association between high and low scores from the Quant data and the high and low consciousness scores emanating from the analyses of the Qual transcripts. These were applied in relation to role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload.

Figure 8. 12 (p.284) depicts the three relationships tested.

Figure 8. 12



(i) Role Ambiguity

The high and low classifications for the chi square test for Role Ambiguity and the outcome of the calculations are found in Appendices 8.13 & 14 and 8.19. respectively.

Applying the χ^2 test resulted in $\chi^2 = 6.454$. From the Chi Square Table (Appendix 8.15) it is observed that the probability level, with one degree of freedom, obtained from the chi square test of the two elements suggests they are significantly associated at the 5 % level. The Yates Correction for chi square calculations recommended by Maxwell (1975, p.21) as essential for small samples, as with this study, had a small impact on the outcome. The 0.5 correction to the scores resulted in an amended chi square result of 4.587, still within the 5 % level of significance. (See also Gregory and Ward (1967), p.291-292).

It may be concluded that the qualitative data is associated with the quantitative findings in respect of role ambiguity. This finding suggests that they are significantly associated within the 5 % level. This finding suggests that the quantitatively assessed level of consciousness of role ambiguity among HRPs finds support in the interview data. The significance of the finding will be discussed in more detail in the concluding chapter.

(ii) Role Conflict

The high and low classifications for the chi square test for Role Conflict and the outcome of the calculations are found in Appendices 8.13 & 14 and 8.19. respectively.

Applying the chi square test resulted in $\chi^2 = 6.807$. From the Chi Square Table (Appendix 8.15) it is observed that the probability level, with one degree of freedom, obtained from the chi square test of the two elements suggests that they are significantly associated at the 1 % level. The Yates Correction calculates $\chi^2 = 5.209$ and reduces the probability to an acceptable

5 % level of significance. This finding suggests that the qualitative data is associated with the quantitative data in respect of role conflict. The significance of the finding will be discussed in the concluding chapter.

(iii) Role Overload

The high and low classifications for the chi square test for Role Overload and the outcome of the calculations are found in Appendices 8.13 & 14 and 8.19 respectively.

Applying the chi square test resulted in $\chi^2 = 7.596$. From the Chi Square Table (Appendix 8.15) it is observed that the probability level, with one degree of freedom, obtained from the chi square test of the two elements suggests that they are significantly associated within the 1 % level. The Yates Correction calculates $\chi^2 = 5.460$ within the 5 % level of significance. This finding suggests that the qualitative data is associated with the quantitative data in respect of role overload. The significance of the finding will be discussed in the concluding chapter.

8.3.4 Testing for Association within the Burnout Sub-Scales

The same procedure was followed for the Burnout Sub-Scales as with the Role Stress factors using the chi square test to establish the strength of the association between the quantitative and qualitative data.

The tests were conducted in conjunction with Burnout (Frequency) sub-scales of Emotional Exhaustion (SFEALL), Depersonalisation (SFDALL) and Personal Accomplishment (SFPALL) applying the same high/ low classifications from the Quant and Qual data.

8.3.4.1 Processing the Quantitative Data from the Burnout Sub-Scales

The Quant data for this exercise was obtained from the scores of the thirty interviewees in respect of the three sub-scales from MBI Perceptions of Stress instrument. (Appendix G). By applying the mean to the individual scores, the high and low scores were separated. The mean scores applied were obtained from Table 8.1 (p.233) in Section 8.1.1.1. and are summarised below.

SFEALL	23
SFDALL	9
SFPALL	34

The summary table providing the break down of the high and low scores is found in Appendix 8.16.

8.3.4.2 Processing the Qualitative Data from the Burnout Sub-Scales

The source data for the Qual exercise were the transcripts of the interviews with the thirty respondents. These thirty transcripts are the recorded responses to the open ended questions found in the Stress Perceptions questionnaire (Appendix H). Any incidents recorded in the Role Perceptions section, which provided additional insight into the respondent's perception or experience of work related stress was considered as valid material for inclusion.

A similar process was followed as described for the Role Stress factors. (See Section 8.3.3.2). The analysis was designed to establish whether there existed in the responses a higher or lower level of work related stress.

Where it was established from the interviewee's responses that he/she was notably aware of work stress through comment or illustration which suggested elements of emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation or personal accomplishment this was recorded as "**conscious of**" and given a HIGH classification. For example, if the respondent stated that being involved in retrenchments took their toll on him/her, this would be classified as potentially "high" emotional exhaustion and may be considered as adding to work stress.

Where the respondent made no mention of an issue or regarded it as of little concern, this was recorded as "**not conscious**". The dividing line was not that the HRP was not aware of the issue, but that it was not a problem and did not occupy the consciousness to any great extent. This was given a LOW classification. For example, if the respondent made no mention of his/her job being emotionally draining in the context of a discussion on work stress, this would be classified as "low" emotional exhaustion. The term burnout was not used at any stage by the researcher to avoid the unwanted introduction of subjective influence on respondents. References to emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation were not made for the same reason.

The following guidelines were applied in respect of the three burnout sub-scales when screening for supporting indications before classifying the responses:

Emotional Exhaustion: to establish whether respondents were expressing feelings of being emotionally over extended or feeling drained by their work. What was sought was work related expressions and incidents that may contribute to the experience of emotional strain. The focus was on the work situation, but the approach could not exclude the possibility that the work strain may have been aggravated by external influences such as family or other potentially stress creating issues.

Depersonalisation: to establish whether the respondents had developed unfeeling or impersonal attitudes towards the people to whom they provided their service.

Personal Accomplishment: to establish whether the respondent had feelings of competence and successful achievement in their work with people.

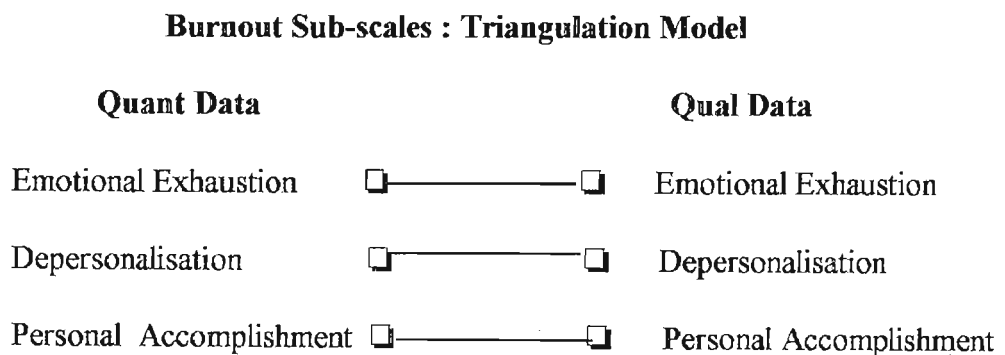
The study of the transcripts was reduced to a series of counts representing higher or lower levels of consciousness of work stress/ burnout categorised into the three sub-scales. These counts are recorded in Appendix 8. 17.

8.3.4.3 Testing for Association within Burnout Sub-Scales

Three tests were carried out applying the chi square formula to establish the level of association between high and low scores from the Quant data and the “conscious”/ “not conscious” counts emanating from the analysis of the Qual transcripts in relation to emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and personal accomplishment. The same methodology was applied as with the Ross Stress factors in Section 8.3.3

Figure 8.13 depicts the three relationships tested.

FIGURE 8. 13



(i) Emotional Exhaustion

The high and low classifications for the chi square test for Emotional Exhaustion and the outcome of the calculations are found in Appendices 8.16 and 8.20.

Applying the chi square test results in $\chi^2 = 7.200$ with a probability at the 1 % level of significance. ($P = 0.010$). The Yates Correction calculates $\chi^2 = 5.339$ and reduces the probability to an acceptable 5 % level of significance. This suggests that the qualitative

data is closely associated with the quantitative data in respect of emotional exhaustion. The significance of the finding will be discussed in the concluding chapter.

(ii) Depersonalisation

The high and low classifications for the chi square test for Depersonalisation and the outcome of the calculations are found in Appendices 8.16 and 8.20 respectively.

Applying the chi square formula results in $\chi^2 = 4.460$ with a probability at the 5 % level of significance. ($P = 0.050$). The Yates correction calculates $\chi^2 = 3.765$ which places the result very slightly beyond the table limit for χ^2 of 3.841 to achieve a 5 % acceptance level. As the difference is marginal comment will be made in the concluding chapter on the association.

(iii) Personal Accomplishment

The high and low classifications for the chi square test for Personal Accomplishment and the outcome of the calculations are found in Appendices 8.16 and 8.20 respectively.

Applying the chi square formula results in $\chi^2 = 7.033$ with a probability within the 1 % level of significance. The Yates Correction calculates $\chi^2 = 5.167$ within the 5 % level of significance. The finding suggests that the qualitative data is associated with the quantitative data in respect of personal accomplishment.

8.3 5 General Observations on Chi-Square Associations

The chi-square tests revealed a number of associations which showed support from the qualitative exercise findings for the quantitative findings.

All three Role Stress factors were supported, suggesting that the quantitative findings are significant. The Burnout Sub-scales, showed Emotional Exhaustion to be supported, Depersonalisation to be marginally supported, but not Personal Accomplishment.

CHAPTER NINE

9 : SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter provides a summary of the study, bringing together the findings, drawing conclusions and making recommendations for application or further research

9.1 Background to the Study

Work-related stress is a common subject for research and for popular commentary in the media. A vast array of studies is available. However, there is a dearth of research into work-related stress among human resource practitioners. No such research was identified in South Africa. The study set out to meet some of this shortcoming. Giles (1985), researched the nature of work-related stress among HR directors in Great Britain. The research in this current study provided for a broader category of human resource practitioners (HRPs), who were classified within a wider range of management.

9.2 The Structure of the Study

The investigation was structured around four hypotheses which had been formulated for testing. These are repeated for ease of reference. (See Chapter Six: 6.1.2.2.)

1. The more “service” orientated the human resource practitioner (HRP) in the context of the current practice of strategic human resource management (SHRM) in contemporary South Africa, the greater the level of role stress.
2. The more “general management” orientated the human resource practitioner in the context of the current practice of strategic human resource management in contemporary South Africa, the lower the level of role stress.
3. HRPs with both “general management” and “service” orientations ranked either, first or second, may be expected to encounter higher levels of role stress.
4. The greater the level of role stress, the greater the possibility of burnout; the lower the level of role stress, the lower the level of burnout.

The purpose of these hypotheses was: (Chapter Six: 6.1.2.3)

- (i) to establish how strong the existence of the traditional “service” orientation was among HRPs within the context of current SHRM
- (ii) to establish to what degree a “service” orientation impacted on the level of role stress and burnout experienced among HRPs
- (iii) to establish whether those HRPs who were more “general management” orientated experienced lower levels of role stress and burnout within the context of current SHRM in South Africa
- (iv) to establish whether HRPs with both “general management” and “service” as their foremost career orientations experienced higher levels of role stress and burnout
- (v) to establish whether other career orientations among HRPs had significant influence on their level of role stress and burnout within the same context, and if so for what reasons
- (vi) to provide a basis for drawing conclusions from the findings on sources of stress among HRPs

The Theoretical Model (Figure 6.1, p.149), formulated for the study, is repeated for convenience as Figure 9.1(p.291) The presentation follows the format of the model.

The ambiguous nature of HRM was construed as the context for the study, creating dilemmas for HRPs. Career orientation was conceived as a potential source of stress among HRPs and construed as the independent variable. Role stress was introduced as an intermediate variable, intervening in the process as a potent factor in burnout. Burnout was conceived as the dependent variable. The registered level of burnout was perceived as the end result of the work-related stress experience of HRPs operating in the South African context.

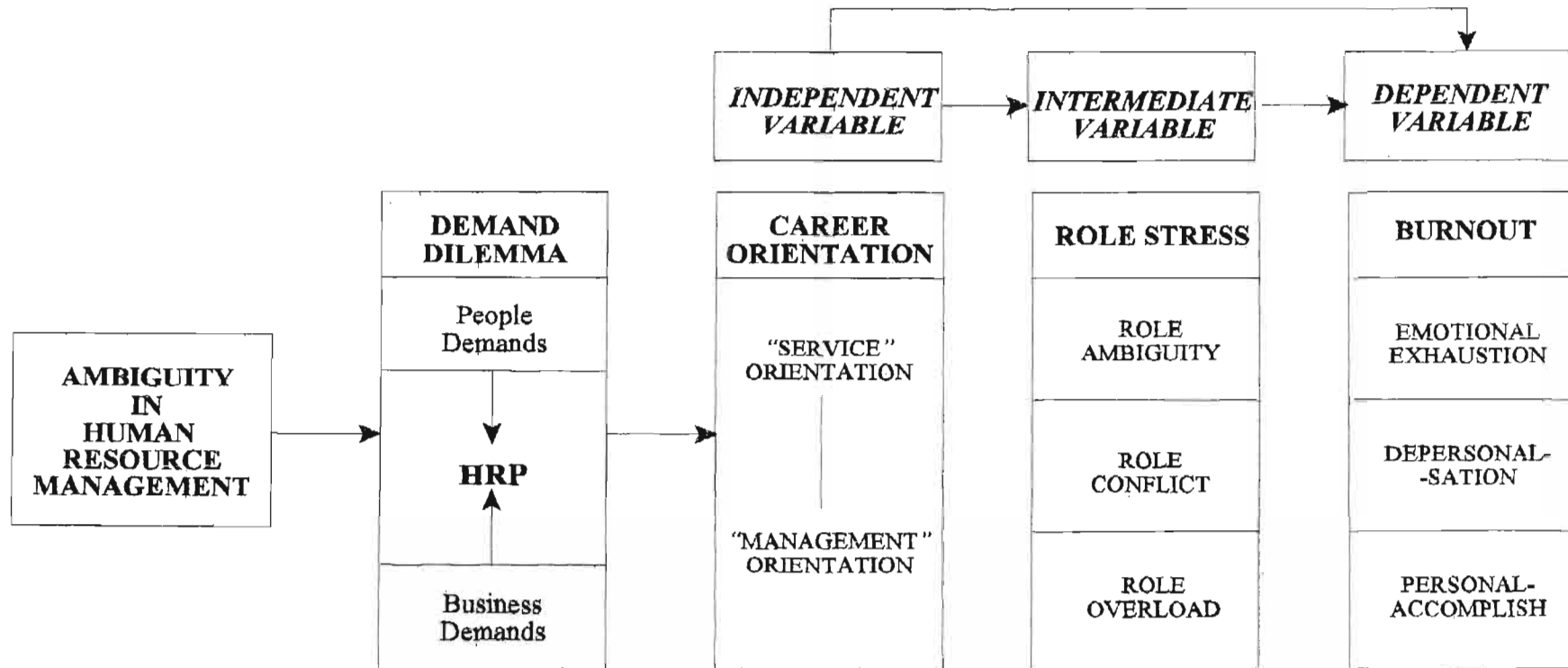
9.3 The Ambiguous Nature of Human Resource Management

The study posited the inherent ambiguity in HRM as the context which contributed to work-related stress among HRPs. (Chapter Two).

This intellectual context was presented in the review in terms of the historical mutations of HRM and its current dominant conceptualisation, strategic human resource management. (SHRM). It is from within this intellectual discipline that HRPs apply their skills

Figure 9.1

Theoretical Model



The historical review of human resource management with its inherent ambiguities, and with special reference to South Africa, provides the essential historical perspective for the investigation into the study hypotheses. (Chapter Three). This general review described the conceptual framework that guides HRPs in their work. The conceptual framework allowed for an assessment of the nature of contemporary SHRM, its relationship to the role of the human resource practitioner, and its possible contribution to identifiable levels of role stress and burnout among HRPs.

A review of the ambiguities in HRM, with special reference to South Africa, revealed the ambivalent environment within which HRPs applied their professional skills. (Chapter Three). Ritzer and Trice (1969), Watson (1977), Legge (1978), Tyson (1979), Storey (1989) and many others, all emphasise the ambiguities with which HRPs are required to work. The dilemmas for HRM have been shown to arise from a deep ambivalence originating from two diverse origins. The one, paternalistically orientated towards the welfare of employees, and the other, the need to drive the organisation to profitable success. (Thomason, 1981)

The qualitative study interviews with HRPs provided significant support for the theoretical exposition. (Appendix 8.1)

9.3.1 The Welfare Tradition

The historical origins of HRM as a welfare function and the role of welfare workers, was found to have little in common with current SHRM and the role of human resource practitioners today. The tradition of paternalistic care and concern for employees, which grew slowly from the early benevolent entrepreneurs, may have begun to fade by the 1970's. Many currently older HRPs, entered 'personnel management' believing the function offered opportunity to assist employees with their broader social and counselling needs. This role function was illustrated in White's (1946) report. That caring function no longer appears as an essential part of the role of HRPs. The 'service' career orientation was found only to rank fifth out of eight career orientation categories. (Section 8.1.2.1).

If a company still believes it should play a social welfare role for its employees, these functions often now are outsourced. HRPs reported that they do not have the time to play the role of caring social workers, even if they so wished. They reported having far more essential functions to perform. (Appendix 8.1). HRPs with thirty or more years service may have become HRPs because they had a desire to be of service to an organisation's employees. This would have been in keeping with the more paternalistic tradition of the time, but that function now is minimal, as influenced by the demands of SHRM. Watson (1986) believed that the altruism of the older welfare function does not fit with the current devotion to the pursuit of efficiency, profit and survival.

The significance of the change in focus and orientation of HRPs is important in understanding the nature of contemporary organisations, and the business culture which drives them today.

Employees who still perceive the role of the HRP to be that of some form of organisational 'social worker' to whom to turn in time of need, were reported to become resentful towards HRPs when this service was not forthcoming. A number of HRPs (13 %) expressed concern over not being in a position to play this role. In some organisations this welfare function has been translated into an 'Employee Assistance Programme' (EAP), where professional help may be arranged for a variety of personal problems, such as, alcoholism, stress, personal loans, domestic problems. Other HRPs report that because there is not the money available any more for these programmes, this assistance becomes the first victim of cost cutting. Others report that employee welfare is low on the priorities of their organisations.

One of the study hypotheses was constructed on the need to test whether, HRPs who may have a 'service' motivation, would suffer greater role stress and burnout than HRPs with other motivations when operating within the current HRM environment. A further hypothesis was constructed to extend this search for a source of role stress by testing whether HRPs with both "management" and "service" orientations closely associated, suffered higher levels of role stress and burnout.

In summary, employee welfare is not what directs HRM now. (See Appendix 8.1: Section 8.2.3.5). However, despite this move of HRM away from social welfare, the 'welfare' origins of HRM are important as they represent an ongoing counter balance to exploitative and manipulative tendencies in employers.

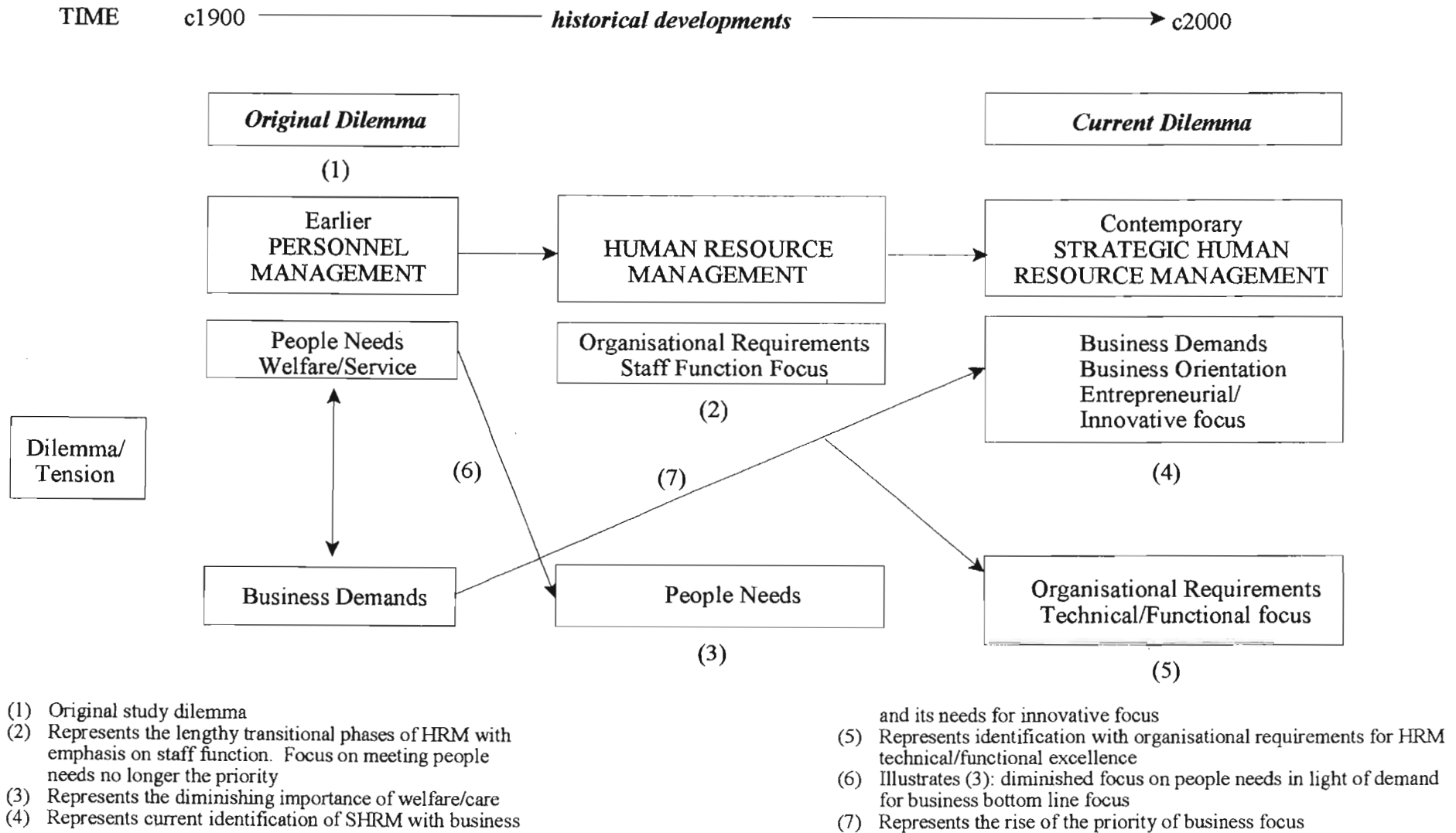
Figure 9. 2 (p.294) presents in diagrammatic form, a different perspective that appears to emerge from the study, in the form of an additional dilemma for HRPs. This new paradigm is introduced at this stage of the report following the re-evaluation of the 'welfare' concept, and as a tentative expression of one of the outcomes of the study. Subsequent stages and relationships depicted in the figure will be dealt with as the findings are evaluated and reported upon.

9.3.2 The Inherent Ambiguities in Human Resource Management

The review of HRM (Chapter Two) revealed eight identifiable ambiguities within HRM in support of the claim that HRM was inherently ambiguous. The presentation showed how succeeding generations of academics, consultants and HRPs addressed the contradictions in HRM in light of the changing circumstances of the times within which they were active. This process of adaptation is illustrated in the review of historical developments during a period of just over one hundred years. (Chapter Three).

Figure 9.2

A New Dilemma Paradigm for Human Resource Practitioners



The free enterprise market was observed to be the business environment within which HRM contradictions and ambivalences occurred. Within this paradigm the stakeholders in organisations provide the contending forces from which the fundamental dilemma for HRM arises, namely, the tension between the demands of people and the demands of the business. The study posed this dilemma as an inherent feature of HRM and that the development of the concept of strategic HRM aggravated the conflict in such a way as to increase the possibility of greater work-related stress among HRPs.

However, the study findings show that the initial paradigm needed to be adapted to meet the changes that had occurred in the experience of HRPs. This paradigm shift, while reinforcing the concept of inherent ambiguities, is expressed in terms more characteristic of the demands on HRPs within the contemporary business organisation. The grounds for this shift in paradigm are based on the study findings and are explained further in Section 9.4 and 9.5. (Figure 9.2, p.294)

9.3.3 Human Resource Management in the South African Context

The inherent ambiguities in HRM within a free enterprise system are intensified in South Africa's multicultural society with its history of racially based labour legislation and racial discrimination in employment practices. This impact is illustrated in Chapter Three. The qualitative study has revealed the implications for black HRPs, illustrating the complexity for one racial group in applying HRM, first in a pre-democratic period, and then in the new democratic South Africa after 1994. The older white male HRP was reported to feel insecure in the changed political and legal environment, controlled by new equity requirements. (Appendix 8.1: Section 8.2.3.2)

Tyson (1980) referred to HRPs as "specialists in ambiguity", whose function required them to acquire the skills necessary for their role in managing the contending forces within organisations. (Chapter Two: Section 2.2.5). Tyson's research was undertaken within the British context. The South African socio-political-economic arena is a more complex and challenging organisational environment within which to operate. (Chapter Two). To manage the employment relationship within the South African conditions, calls for technically competent, innovative and sensitive persons who are required to create opportunities for business growth through their human resource leadership. It may be argued, therefore, that the term "specialist in ambiguity" is an even more appropriate description for HRPs in South Africa. Legge (1995) referred to HRPs as being "Janus faced", which illustrates the negative perception of HRPs as appearing to be looking in two directions at the same time.

The qualitative study revealed the perceptions of the interviewees of the nature of HRM. (Appendix 8.1: Section 8.2.2.1). The concept of SHRM as the contemporary interpretation of HRM was acknowledged by the participants. HRPs are clearly under pressure to perform

within the terms of the generally accepted understanding of SHRM. It has been argued that the need to adapt and apply this understanding of HRM, creates conditions for higher levels of stress among HRPs.

9.4 The Role of the Human Resource Practitioner

The study focussed on the role of the HRP within organisations in South Africa. A comment is first called for in regard to the relevance of the biographical variables of the participants

9.4.1 Relevance of Biographical Variables of Human Resource Practitioners

Of the four biographical variables analysed (age, gender, ethnic origin and years of work experience), only age registered significance. The detailed analyses are found in Appendix 8.21.

The relationship of age to career orientation revealed that there was a negative relationship between autonomy/independence and age. The relevance of this finding was discussed in Chapter Eight: Section 8.4.1.1, but as it has no direct bearing on the main findings, it is not dealt with further.

Age was negatively correlated with emotional exhaustion. (Section 8.4.1.3). The association has significance as the finding suggests that those who are older suffer less emotional exhaustion. Overseas comparative results refer to younger persons as being more subject to emotional exhaustion. There are two possible explanations for this finding. Firstly, older HRPs, being more experienced have learned to cope better with stress producing situations and thus register lower levels of emotional exhaustion. Yet, the qualitative study revealed three of the older HRPs, nearing retirement age, had stated that the stress of the job had affected them. Two had undergone heart surgery attributed to work stress. A third, subsequent to the study, resigned and took early retirement due to the emotional strain of the job.

9.4.2 Contemporary Emphases in the Role of the Human Resource Practitioner

The qualitative study (Appendix 8.1: Section 8.2.2.1) showed that 80 % of HRPs perceived their functional priorities to be:

- * to 'add value' to the company's operations
- * to be seen to be contributing to the company's bottom line
- * to show that they are not just a cost to the organisation
- * to play the role of a 'strategic partner' by ensuring that the 'human assets' of the organisation become an ever increasingly productive asset.

These HRPs believe the changed requirements of HRM over the previous five to ten years have contributed to an increased experience of work-related stress for them.(Appendix 8.1: Section 8.2.3.2). This section and Section 9.5 explain the study findings in this regard.

9.4.3 Dilemmas Confronting Human Resource Practitioners

The study postulated a fundamental dilemma for HRPs as a tension between meeting both employee needs and organisational demands.(Figure 9.1, p.291). This dilemma exposes what has been shown to be a historically ongoing tension for HRPs. How do HRPs meet both the employees' needs for secure, safe and satisfying employment by a caring employer, and at the same time, the demands of employers for increased productivity and commitment to organisational objectives at as low a cost as possible without being exploitative?

The qualitative study revealed that all but two interviewees were conscious, to a lesser or greater degree, that their role placed them in the middle between management and employees. Half (50 %) of these found this middle role very stressful. A few (13 %), saw themselves as identified with management and as a result, did not experience this part of their role as stressful. Most interviewees acknowledged that it was the nature of the job to play an “in between” role. (Appendix 8.1: Section 8.2.2.3). Ulrich (1997) confirms this role in his concept of the HRP as both a “strategic partner” and as an “employee champion”. Interviewees (92 %) acknowledged that the fundamental dilemma existed for them in their role as HRPs and that it was an important part of their function to find a balance between employee demands and company requirements. (Appendix 8.1: Section 8.2.4.1

This inherently ambiguous situation for HRPs is further complicated by the mutations through which HRM proceeds as it accommodates itself to the changing socio-political-economic environment.(Chapter Two and Section 9.2). Although the fundamental dilemma remains, it appears that an additional dilemma has arisen. The study findings tentatively suggest a more significant dilemma may have emerged that is gaining prominence as in Figure 9.2 (p.294). The findings suggest that due to the prioritising of business goals, genuine care for employee welfare is replaced by the new approach to people as “human resources” or assets. The quantitative findings led to the construction of a new paradigm model (Figure 9.2) to replace the one proposed for the study (Figure 9.1). Those HRPs who are ‘entrepreneurial creativity’ orientated showed the highest levels of roles stress and burnout. Whereas, those who were technical/functional orientated were found to be least likely to experience raised levels of role stress and burnout. The support for this new model is offered in Section 9.5. The new model is tentative given the sample size and amount of variance left unexplained by the regression analysis.

It was observed, that some of the black HRPs interviewed, did not think that the current application of SHRM placed greater stress upon them. This may be explained in terms of their

recognition, that earlier they had carried the additional burden of dealing with their part in 'the struggle' and their need to find balance between militant and defensive positions which involved their personal values. Black interviewees generally now reflect a greater level of comfort and identification with the business than was possible ten years back.

9.5 Sources of Stress Among Human Resource Practitioners

The test model applies the concept of career orientation as a means of categorising HRPs according to their commitment to a career focus. This identification was applied as a means of investigating career orientation as a possible source of work-related stress.

9.5.1 Career Orientation as a Potential Source of Work-Related Stress

The term 'work-related stress' is used in the study to indicate the presence of role stress and burnout.

9.5.1.1 The Career Orientations of Human Resource Practitioners

The career orientation concept (Chapter Four) was applied in the study as an independent variable. This was done in order to establish whether there was an inner career orientated factor within HRPs, which contributed directly to role stress and ultimately to an increased level of burnout. Table 8. 6 revealed that the career orientation of the study sample was across all the eight categories, revealing that there was no dominant category.

The study selection of 'service' and 'general management' career orientations for testing the hypotheses, was based on historical developments in HRM. The historical changes from a welfare orientated 'personnel' function to the business orientated concept of SHRM required HRPs to adapt to the new requirements. The South African environment was shown to create an even more intense climate of change for HRPs.

The analysis revealed that the career orientations of the sample of HRPs, were spread across the eight categories. (Table 8. 6, p.241). Technical/Functional Competence (4.633) emerged as the most common orientation, followed by the other seven with only small differences between them. "Service" (4.122) ranked fifth and "General Management" (3.563), eighth. The two selected categories were found not to be among the more common ones.

This "service" finding confirmed the historical pattern over the past three decades where the emphasis on the role of the HRP has shifted from a welfare weighted function to one where "technical" competence emerges as the most prominent orientation. . There is no

historical test evidence available for HRPs with which to compare the current sample.

From the early beginnings of 'personnel management' in South Africa, black recruits were brought in to undertake welfare functions. This welfare orientation is illustrated by the recruitment of 'personnel officers' with a social science /social worker background. It was believed that such persons would 'know best how to work with people'. Personnel management of the 1960's and early 1970's still provided a welfare role for HRPs.

However, by the mid 1970's and early 1980's young black graduates were being recruited in increasing numbers, many of whom saw the HR function as an opportunity "to help my people" within industry and commerce. Many entered with a hidden political 'struggle' agenda. (Nzimande (1991) :Appendix 8.1: Section 8.2.2.3). This agenda created another dimension to the welfare concept, which was conceived within the welfare perception prevalent at the time within the 'personnel function'.

These factors suggest that the then young black HRPs had a 'service/dedication to a cause' orientation with a political motivation. However, the career orientation of the study sample, does not show a bias towards a service orientation on the part of the black respondents. Where many black graduates in the 1970's and 1980's may have held struggle credentials and were desirous of helping black workers and supporting the trade union movement as part of the 'freedom struggle', their orientation appears in the study to be towards a more management orientation.

The desire to be of 'service' and to express care and concern for employees, is still present among some of the sample, but the nature of current priorities does not allow much opportunity for practical expression of such concern. (See Appendix 8.1: 8.2.4.1). The AIDS pandemic has required employers to intervene with medical assistance programmes. Some of this HIV/AIDS assistance arises from an organisational self-interest to protect employees and reduce future costs; some, because it is politically correct to be seen to be taking action; some, out of genuine concern for employee welfare. Such intervention is reported to be costly to the business and the organisation often relies on out-sourced services to provide the assistance required.

The selection of '**general management**' as the second career orientation category for testing was based upon the emergence of SHRM as the dominant interpretation of HRM. This does not imply that all companies apply SHRM principles. But current HRPs are under pressure to maximise the contribution of the organisation's human resources in the interests of bottom line success of the business. Such persons do not appear to be driven by humanitarian concerns, but by hard business demands.

The qualitative study revealed that the black graduates of the mid 1980's, who had moved subsequently, to senior management positions, now emerged as strong exponents of SHRM

with expressed commitment to the bottom line success of their organisations. (Appendix 8.1: Section 8.2.3.2).

The study hypothesis suggests that those HRPs who are more 'general management' orientated, would suffer less role stress and burnout, because such persons would be more aligned to business concerns and not focussed on more humanitarian ideals.

The reason for the emergence of the 'technical/functional' category as the most common element, may only be speculated upon, as there is no survey data available to assist in an explanation for its presence ahead of the other categories. There are, however, plausible explanations for this prominence.

Historically, following the initial welfare role, the next stage in the development of the function of the HRP, was 'personnel' administration. This is depicted in Figure 9.2 (p.294) under Human Resource Management as "Organisational Requirements: Staff Function Focus". This function included, personnel record keeping, salary and benefit administration, recruitment and selection (including aptitude, and later psychometric, testing), company induction, job training, productivity improvement, welfare and catering services, and labour legislation. Later these functions were expanded to include manpower planning, job evaluation, training and development, performance management, and in some companies, industrial relations.

Currently, within the South African context, expertise in the complexities and application of labour law in a range of employment practices and equity, plays a significant part in the HRP function. These listed activities comprise key functions in HR management and provide the core of the HRPs technical and functional competence. A competent HRP excels in these functions and thereby proves his/her worth to the organisation. In addition the modern HRP would be required to be skilled in the application of the new technologies to human resource management. HRPs are aware today, as they were in the past, that their first requirement is to prove their technical and functional competence in these basic skills. Such HRP may conform with Ulrich's "administrative expert". This function, in its contemporary focus, is depicted in the new study model under the "Current Dilemma" as "Organisational Requirements: Technical Functional Focus".

In more recent years other skills have been included, such as organisational development, where the HRP is expected to play a leading role in organisational restructure and change. This part of the function may conform with Ulrich's concept of 'change agent'.

9.5.1.2 The Relationship Between Career Orientation and Role Stress

Two categories were identified by the study as relevant in relation to role stress, albeit from

different perspectives. These are : Entrepreneurial Creativity and Technical/Functional Competence.

Role stress in this study is conceptualised as a construct comprising the three factors of role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload. Each of these factors makes its own contribution to role stress and each is applied as a factor to assess role stress. Role stress arises from the defined role of the HRP and is a specific form of work-related stress.

(i) Entrepreneurial Creativity as Predictor of Role Stress

The only career orientation that showed a positive relationship with role stress in the correlation analysis was Entrepreneurial Creativity. (Chapter Eight: 8.1.2.3). The significance of this finding was noted in Chapter Eight: 8.1.2.3. and 8.1.2.5. The multiple regression analysis indicated entrepreneurial creativity as a predictor of role ambiguity, role overload and role stress, although the amount of variance it explained was relatively modest. (Chapter Eight: 8.1.5.2 and Table 8. 15, p.270). These results suggest that those with an entrepreneurial creativity career orientation are the most likely to experience role stress in their work as HRPs.

The ‘general management’ career orientation emerged as a predictor of role ambiguity only, again with a relatively small amount of variance explained (Chapter Eight: 8.1.5.2 and Table 8. 15), but not of role stress.

The finding in respect of entrepreneurially creative HRPs confirms Armstrong’s developmental model applied in the historical analysis of HRM. (Chapter Three: 3.2.3 and Figure 3.1), where he conceives “entrepreneurial personnel management” to be the current influence in HRM. This conceptualisation fits with the interpretation of SHRM outlined in Chapters Two and Three, and as articulated by Ulrich (1997) and others.

Current thinking suggests that enterprise success is to be found in those business operations which are creative “with companies blazing new market trails as resources are innovatively exploited.” (Vermaak, 2002, p.4). Horwitz (2000), commenting on a survey representing 45 companies in South Africa confirmed the essential part played by entrepreneurship and innovation in a report on the “The Best Companies to Work for in South Africa” As partners in the enterprise, HRPs are expected to participate in finding new ways of ‘exploiting’ the human resources or ‘human assets’ of the company. This human asset or ‘valued capital asset’, is seen by some exponents, to be the ultimate source of organisational success as these resources are manipulated to maximum effect.

The importance of “developing an entrepreneurial mindset” was identified at the annual conference in 2002 of the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) in the United States of America, as part of the changing role of the HR profession alongside that of the

impact of technology, globalisation and the need for measuring human capital.

Expressing the dilemma for HRPs of applying an entrepreneurial mindset, Vinassa commented, “Some wiseguy still has to figure out how one can be entrepreneurial in the HR department and still stay in the HR department.” (Vinassa, 2002).

Legge (1978) in her original research explored the problem of power and innovation among personnel managers. She explained why personnel managers were often ineffective. After observing their powerlessness to be innovative, she suggested ways to obtain a power base for their essential innovative activity. She suggests a tactical approach in order to obtain a power base prior to being innovative. She speaks of first being an ‘innovative conformist’ to gain acceptance by being ‘conformist’ (not rocking the boat). Once acceptance has grown, then opportunity should be sought to move to a more ‘deviant innovative’ approach. Innovative creativity is not a new call for HRPs, but innovative creativity requires a power base which has to be earned, and much skill required on the part of the HRP. Legge (1978, p.92) in a diagrammatic presentation of her model shows that stress becomes an ingredient associated with such innovative interventions

Entrepreneurially creative HRPs in the current environment would appear to be the most suited to respond to the call for innovative approaches in human resource management. This role would assist the organisation in meeting the challenges of a highly competitive world of business.

However, the finding suggests that those HRPs who are “entrepreneurial creativity” orientated, are most likely to experience higher levels of role stress than those identified by other categories.

The contemporary interpretation of SHRM calls on HRPs to lead the implementation of creative and innovative methods so as to enhance the contribution of the organisation’s “most valuable assets”, its people. It would appear to be an appropriate role for entrepreneurial types of people. Why then should such HRPs with this category of career orientation, be registering the highest levels of role stress? The significance of the presence of this entrepreneurial/innovative role of HRPs is identified with “Business Demands: Business Orientation” in the new dilemma model (Figure 9.2).

Four plausible explanations for this registered higher level of role stress may be offered.

- (a) Entrepreneurs and innovators work in uncharted territory and move out as pioneers. There is personal risk with the possibility of failure ever present, leading to their being discredited. Entrepreneurs are risk takers, but with it goes the potential for success or failure, incurring possible serious implications. There is the risk of being misunderstood and encountering aggression and conflict from a range of

stakeholders, who have an interest in the programme or project. This entrepreneurial role carries with it the cost of raised levels of role stress.

- (b) It is a widely recognised feature that change processes are the object of resistance and reaction by certain sections of the affected stakeholders. HRP's would be aware of this fact. Dealing with the resistance and aggression, that often accompanies innovation, may be extremely stressful for the innovators.
- (c) HRP's endeavouring to implement changes to be innovative, are required to be well skilled in culture change if they are to be successful in moving an organisation, to newer and more creative ways of doing things. Many HRP's in practice do not possess these skills and find their programmes are not supported adequately, leading to frustration and demoralisation.
- (d) HRP's, to be effective innovators within their own organisations, are required to be knowledgeable on the structures, processes and products of that organisation to the point "that they know what they are talking about". They need to be able to command the respect and confidence of all the stakeholders in the change process. To succeed with innovation, these HRP's require high levels of acceptance and the ability to influence others in the direction of the required change. Without this ability and standing, and in Legge's terms - having a power base, they are likely to fail, or obtain weak return on effort for their projects, becoming further frustrated and demoralised as they end up as subjects of role ambiguity and role conflict. This will produce heightened levels of role stress.

Kets de Vries (1980) explained the entrepreneurial type as a complex person, who finds it difficult to work within the slower, conservative and more bureaucratic pace of most organisations and may, as a result, become subject to role stress.(Section 8.1.2.3).

It is thus plausible to accept that HRP's with an entrepreneurial career orientation will suffer role stress.

(ii) Technical/Functional Competence

It was noted in Section 9.5.1.1 that technical/functional competence was the most prominent career orientation among the sample of HRP's tested. Those HRP's with a technical/functional competence orientation reflected a negative correlation with role ambiguity and role stress. (Chapter Eight: 8.1.2.4).

The finding suggests that those whose career commitment is located in their technical and functional competence in HRM knowledge and skills, are least likely to suffer from role ambiguity and role stress.

It is plausible to assume that a high level of technical/functional competence would be accompanied by confidence in the ability to perform well on the job and that this could be translated into lower role stress levels. Where a HRP is technically and functionally competent in his/her job, two consequences are likely to follow. First, such HRPs would usually be confident in their own ability to do the job well. Second, this confidence allows stakeholders who depend on the services of these HRPs, to feel confident in their ability to deliver quality service. The result would be improved trust among the stakeholders. Because trust leads to better acceptance and improved understanding of the role of the HRP, those HRPs are less likely to experience role ambiguity and role conflict which translates into less likelihood of role stress.

9.5.1.3 Relationship Between Career Orientation and Burnout

Two significant associations between Career Orientation and Burnout were established, namely, Autonomy/Independence and Entrepreneurial Creativity.

(i) Autonomy/Independence and Burnout

A correlation at less than the 1 % level of significance was observed between autonomy/independence and emotional exhaustion. (Chapter Eight: 8.1.3.1) The multiple regression analysis indicated autonomy/independence as a predictor of emotional exhaustion. (Chapter Eight: 8.1.5.3, Figure 8.9, p.275 and Table 8.16, p.274). These findings suggest that those who are autonomy/independence orientated may experience higher levels of emotional exhaustion. They are also likely to experience raised levels of depersonalisation as revealed in both the correlation and regression analyses. (Chapter Eight: 8.1.3.1 and 8.1.5.3, respectively). These findings suggest that those who are autonomy/ independence orientated are likely to suffer from burnout conditions.

Studies have shown, that those who have a strong drive for autonomy of expression and independence in decision making in their jobs, are liable to have raised levels of stress. {Pines and Aronson (1988); Gowler and Legge (1975)}.

Two plausible explanations may be provided for the raised burnout levels experienced by HRPs who are autonomy/independence orientated.

- (a) The opportunity for autonomy of action and independence in decision making is limited in organisational life where, by nature of hierarchical reporting structures and carefully designed policies and procedures, autonomy of action is restricted. This may become extremely frustrating for these HRPs .

- (b) The need for HRPs to create balance between different stakeholders may be problematic for those who operate from an autonomy/independence orientation. Their freedom to act independently is very restricted by constantly having to seek balance through consensus among the parties.

It would be reasonable to accept that these HRPs would experience raised role stress levels.

(ii) Entrepreneurial Creativity and Burnout

A correlation at less than the 1 % level of significance was observed between Entrepreneurial Creativity and Emotional Exhaustion. (Chapter Eight: 8.1.3.1) and supported by the regression analysis, where entrepreneurial creativity was indicated as a predictor of emotional exhaustion. (Chapter Eight: 8.1.5.3, Figure 8.9 and Table 8.16). This suggests that those who are entrepreneurial creativity orientated may experience higher levels of burnout.

This finding adds support to that reported in Section 9.5.1.2.(i), where the implications of the association between entrepreneurial creativity and role stress were discussed in terms of a paradigm shift in the dilemma facing HRPs. An added dimension is the identification of autonomy/independence as a potential source of burnout for some HRPs.

There is a plausible explanation for the autonomy/independence and entrepreneurial creativity career orientations being the only one's registering burnout potential. Traditionally, HRPs have not been innovative and independent minded. Generally, HRPs were expected to be steady appliers of the company's HRM policies and procedures. It is much more stressful to break new ground and to seek support for new ideas. There is less potential stress in sticking with the established policies and procedures in HRM.

9.5.2 The Relationship Between Role Stress and Burnout

Burnout assesses the individual's inner feelings of being emotionally over-extended, as a result of emotional exhaustion brought on by one's job, or through the added influence of a damaging sense of depersonalisation or a reduction in a sense of personal accomplishment in that job.

The quantitative analyses revealed consistently strong associations between Role Stress factors and Burnout sub-scales.

9.5.2.1 Role Ambiguity and Burnout

Role ambiguity emerged as strongly associated with all three burnout sub-scales at less than the 1 % level of significance. (Figures 8.4 and 8.10 ; Tables 8.14 and 8.17; Chapter Eight:

8.1.4.1 and 8.1.5.4, respectively). A correlation at less than the 1 % level of significance was observed between role ambiguity and emotional exhaustion. The multiple regression analysis indicated role ambiguity as a predictor of emotional exhaustion.

Maslach and Jackson (1986) and Beehr (1998) identify role ambiguity as a source of emotional exhaustion (Chapter Eight: 8.1.4.1). Role ambiguity arises from uncertainty in expectations involved in job requirements.

For HRPs, the uncertainty may arise from two sources.

- (a) Role ambiguity could arise from the lack of clarity in defining the job adequately in terms of the requirements involved in contemporary SHRM. All parties would need to understand what is required of the function and how the incumbent will be appraised and rewarded. In terms of the study findings it is suggested that role ambiguity may arise from the uncertainty surrounding those who are more entrepreneurial in orientation. On the other hand, there is probably greater clarity surrounding the performance of the more traditional HR administrative and advisory role. HRPs who are more technical/functional orientated may thus be less likely to be as affected by role ambiguity and emotional exhaustion. This explanation supports the new paradigm proposed in Figure 9.2 (p.294).
- (b) Role ambiguity is heightened by the inherently ambiguous nature of HRM. Decision making is constantly influenced by the dilemmas with which the HRP is faced. This may lead to uncertainty of role expectations and a greater probability of role ambiguity and consequent raised levels of burnout.

The correlational analysis found role ambiguity to be associated with depersonalisation at less than the 1 % level of significance. (Chapter Eight: 8.1.4.1). This finding was not supported in the regression analysis. However, in light of the strong showing in the correlational analysis it was felt important to note the implications of depersonalisation for HRPs.

Depersonalisation reflects the unfeeling and impersonal responses towards the recipients of one's work, which contributes to an increased level of burnout. This dehumanising process may be described as slow and insidious. (Chapter Five: 5.1.4). It is associated with those who work with people in some form of intensive relationship. The Qualitative study (Appendix 8.1: Section 8.2.2.3 and 8.2.3.7) illustrated how HRPs who are required to retrench employees may find this ongoing experience having a cumulative effect on them, leading to raised stress levels which provide the conditions for burnout. Some HRPs spoke of the need to protect themselves from becoming too emotionally involved and affected by the constant requirement of their job to retrench people.

The negative correlation between role ambiguity and personal accomplishment at less than the 1 % level of significance, suggests that there is a lowered sense of personal accomplishment occurring.

The association between role ambiguity and the three burnout sub-scales, suggest, that for HRP's who experience role ambiguity, there is a strong possibility that they will suffer from raised levels of burnout, especially for those who have experienced it for some period of time.

9.5.2.2 Role Conflict

Role Conflict emerged as strongly associated with burnout. A correlation at less than the 1 % level of significance was observed between role conflict and both emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation. (Chapter Eight:8.1.4.2 and Figure 8.5). The regression analysis indicated role conflict to be a predictor of depersonalisation only. (Chapter Eight: Section 8.1.5.4, Figure 8.10, p.276 and Table 8.17, p.277).

Role conflict is an identifiable condition affecting HRP's in their function, to a greater or lesser degree. HRP's are constantly under pressure to negotiate ways through the competing, and often incompatible demands, of the different stakeholders in their organisations. If they satisfy one party, they are often not in a position to satisfy another party or parties. Pines (1982) found that role conflict played an important role in the burnout of a range of managers and human service providers. The inherent ambiguities in HRM add to the range of possible role conflict situations for HRP's.

Role conflict was associated with depersonalisation which was significant at less than the 1 % level. (Chapter Eight: 8.1.4.2). A contributing factor to role conflict, is the part personal values may play when strongly held values are challenged by organisational requirements or socio-political-cultural values.

Phillips and Lee (1980) showed that when there was a confrontation for teachers between traditional values and emerging societal values, particularly in modern industrial societies, role conflict could emerge with consequent role stress. Teachers usually perceive themselves as guardians and communicators of societies values. HRP's often stand in a similar position to teachers, when they are perceived to be the moral guardians of society's values within their own organisations. Some HRP's find this role stressful, especially in the demoralising and dehumanising process (for some) of having to retrench employees who will face a bleak future where there is little by way of a welfare net to catch and assist them. Not only is the process emotionally draining, but it may also have a depersonalising effect, as it is likely to be in conflict with the HRP's own values.

The qualitative exercise revealed that 56.7 % of the interviewees felt compromised by value clashes. (Appendix 8.1: Section 8.2.2.3). Some of the stress, generated through this 'person-role' conflict, originates in the reality that most HRPs comply with organisational requirements, and thereafter live with their own consciences. In one case, the HRP resigned from her previous job due to her unwillingness to be party to an unacceptable ethical clash for her. (Appendix 8.1 : Section 8.2.2.3).

9.5.2.3 Role Overload.

Role overload emerged as associated with emotional exhaustion. A correlation at less than the 1 % level of significance was observed between role overload and emotional exhaustion. The regression analysis indicated role overload to be a predictor of emotional exhaustion. (Tables 8.14, p.257 and 8.17, p.277 and Chapter Eight: 8.1.4.3 and 8.1.5.4).

Role Overload has been categorised into two parts: quantitative overload and qualitative overload (Chapter Five:5.3.2.3). Interviewee responses showed that 73 % of HRPs felt they suffered from quantitative overload. (Appendix 8.1 Section 8.2.4.3). No indication was evident that those interviewed felt that they lacked the basic skill and competence to manage their jobs. The qualitative overload did not appear as a concern for respondents. However, from the interviews (qualitative study perspective), most HRPs reported that they were 'very busy'. A large number were frustrated by having to undertake time consuming administrative work, which they believed, lesser qualified persons should be doing.

This frustration may be interpreted as a further illustration of the new dilemma confronting HRPs. How do HRPs balance the demand within organisations to play both, a creative/innovative role and at the same time to provide the steady traditional HRM services within the time available? (See Figure 9.2, p.294)

Role overload was observed to correlate with depersonalisation at the 5% level of significance, which suggests that role overload does have an effect on depersonalisation. (Chapter Eight: 8.1.4.3) . This is understandable. The contemporary HRP is called upon to be a 'strategic partner' in the business, focussing on the broader strategic HRM issues. As a result they become 'very busy' as they try to retain their traditional function together with their new role. Under pressure of work, the traditional people orientated function loses out to the 'more important' strategic partner role.

With this pressure of work load, people become 'human resources' to be manipulated to conform to organisational requirements. The danger for HRPs, as Pfeffer (1998) has warned, is that people become contracted human assets, dispensed with when their value has expired, rather than being seen as long term assets to be valued. In this process of depersonalising people into disposable assets, some HRPs can become desensitised to people in the organisation. These HRPs do not have the time to create acceptable counter proposals, for

example, to line management's call to cut numbers through retrenchment. They are forced to comply for lack of better alternatives. Sensitive HRPs can become depersonalised in this process.

Following this process, it is plausible to accept that there is a strong association between work overload and depersonalisation and the greater probability of increased levels of burnout.

9.5.2.4 Role Stress

Role stress is registered as the combined effect of the three factors discussed above. Burnout is not treated cumulatively and each sub-scale records its own contribution to burnout. Role stress is observed to correlate significantly at less than the 1 % level, with one exception, with each of the burnout sub-scales. (Figure 8.6, p.263). The findings confirm the comments provided above in relation to each of the roles stress factors. There is one addition, which is the negative relationship between role stress and personal accomplishment. The results suggest the high possibility of the presence of burnout among a significant number of HRPs.

As noted and discussed in the preceding section, multiple regression analyses were undertaken in turn between each of the Role Stress factors, as independent variables, and each of the Burnout sub-scales as dependent variables. (Table 8.17, p.277). The results indicate that the role stress factors appear as independent variables and not simply as intermediate variables with an intervening or moderating role. This finding emerges as a significant observation from the study

The Cordes and Docherty (1993) (Chapter Eight :8.1.4.5) review, found that there was a consistent relationship between role ambiguity and role conflict and burnout. Their findings support the study findings, that there exists an association between role stress and burnout.

9.5.3 Supporting Evidence: Triangulation of Quantitative and Qualitative Data

The triangulating of data by means of chi square tests showed strong association between quantitative data and qualitative data significant at the 5 % level, providing complementary support for the quantitative findings. (Chapter Eight: Section 8.3)

9.5.3.1 Role Stress

Support was found for the quantitative findings for role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload (Chapter Eight: Section 8.3.3). No chi square tests could be conducted on the combined feature of role stress, because the combined qualitative aspect was not readily available. Only the three separate factors representing role stress were accessible. The

findings provided sufficient support to interpret them as confirmation at the role stress level. The study findings in respect of each of these factors has been addressed in Sections 9.5.1 and 9.5.2. The chi square tests show that the quantitative findings are supported by the qualitative data.

9.5.3.2 Burnout

The chi square tests conducted for the three Burnout sub-scales revealed a different pattern of support for the quantitative data. (Chapter Eight: Section 8.3.4.3). The emotional exhaustion finding was supported. The result revealed that for HRPs, the emotional exhaustion element was a significant element in their work-related stress experience.

The depersonalisation result was not supported by the qualitative data. This outcome suggests that the depersonalisation aspects of burnout for HRPs, was not as strong as that for emotional exhaustion.

The personal accomplishment outcome conformed to that reported on in Section 8.3.4.3. HRPs did not display a reduced sense of personal accomplishment. On the contrary the qualitative interviews revealed that HRPs generally appeared to find a sense of personal achievement in their jobs.

9.5.4 The Nature of Human Resource Management as a Context for Work-Related Stress

The study posited the ambiguous nature of HRM as a context which contributes to work-related stress.(Section 9.4). Although the study did not set out directly to test for an association between work-related stress and the ambiguities of HRM, ambiguity can be shown to be linked as a contributor to work-related stress. . Two supporting features emerged:

- (i) The study confirmed the nature of HRM as inherently ambiguous, although not in the manner originally conceived. HRPs operate in a field that is inherently ambiguous. The original and fundamental ambiguity posited was a demand dilemma confronting HRPs. How can the application of HRM meet both employee (people) demands and organisational demands? In contrast, the study showed that the emphasis in HRM had shifted. The HRP was now required to play a role closely linked to organisational strategising. HRM was called on to identify itself in the first place, with the strategic contribution of human resources. The weight in the dilemma had now shifted, with the HRP being required, in the first place, to think strategically about the organisation's bottom line success. The implications of this

shift have been discussed in this chapter.

- (ii) The study findings revealed a shift in the career orientation of HRPs. The original dilemma posited HRPs as more 'service' orientated, providing a service to employees as their first priority. The dilemma for these HRPs arose in relation to their meeting the needs of the employer (the organisation). This dilemma was posited as a potential source of work-related stress. The qualitative responses reported that 92% of respondents (Appendix 8.1: Section 8.4.2.1) acknowledged the chief dilemma between meeting people and organisational demands. The respondents (82 %) also acknowledged that the ambiguities and ambivalences in HRM were a source of stress for them. (Appendix 8.1: Section 8.2.4.2). The study revealed a new dilemma, more reflective of the current working environment. Figure 9. 2 (p.294) depicts this new dilemma paradigm already discussed in this chapter. The new paradigm places the dilemma between those who are entrepreneurial/creative and those who are technical/functional orientated. This dilemma arises from the experience of HRPs in their application of the current emphases in HRM.

The study does not suggest a uniform model of SHRM. But illustrations have been provided of the significant current emphases influencing HRPs, eg., bottom line focus for HRPs. It is this focus in SHRM that creates the climate inducing the new dilemma that contributes to work-related stress for HRPs. Within this dilemma context, HRPs may be perceived positively as 'specialists in ambiguity' or negatively as 'janus-faced'. Either way, they are exposed to the contradictions and ambivalences of the job. The unanswered question is, given the dualities that HRM generates, whether some HRPs are better equipped than others, to cope with the intellectual, emotional and practical consequences of the job than others.

It may be concluded that the nature of HRM today, especially in its contemporary form of SHRM, contributes to work-related stress. The study does not imply that all participants work in organisations committed to the implementation of SHRM. But, it may be claimed that SHRM is the model around which HRM is currently being shaped in organisations and thus sets the measure against which HRPs prefer to measure their contribution.

9.6 STUDY CONCLUSIONS

From the foregoing summary of the study certain conclusions arise.

9.6.1 Career Orientation

The career orientation analysis of human resource practitioners in the sample reveals a spread over the eight categories. Although 'service' is present among the sample, it is not a prominent category, suggesting that most professional HRPs are not driven by altruistic, paternalism in their work. Rather, HRPs were found to be more orientated to the traditional concept of being technically and functionally competent. The study suggests that these HRPs are least likely to experience work-related stress. In contrast, those that were orientated to entrepreneurial creativity, were found to be likely to suffer work-related stress, at a time when organisations are needing HRPs who are innovative and creative.

Although the study hypotheses have not been supported in relation to 'service' and 'general management', the findings are of sufficient significance to warrant further exploration as the finding has bearing on the contribution of the professional HRP. The finding that most HRPs are not 'service' orientated raises an important question. Has the HRP profession re-orientated itself to the 'strategic partner' role to such an extent, where HRPs are identified with management to the degree that they jeopardise the possibility of being able to play the role of the 'employee champion' ?

In addition, it may be argued, that the South African context has changed to such an extent that being 'welfare/service' orientated is of limited value. There are two reasons for this in the contemporary South African environment. The Labour Legislation outlined in Chapter Three: 3.6.4 indicates a shift in balance of power in favour of employees, where the legislation provides a wide range of protection for employee rights. When this legislation is linked to the power of the trade unions, considerable weight is provided to employees to be in a much stronger position to obtain enhanced benefits over a range of issues. These benefits include improved terms and conditions of employment, working conditions, health matters, limitations on retrenchments, and so on. Employee expectations for improved benefits and protection against employers, lies currently in South Africa, more with the power of the trade unions, than with HRPs who may wish to fulfil the role of an 'employee champion'.

9.6.2 Role Stress

Role stress was shown to be sufficiently strong to be seen as an independent variable in relation to burnout. The study indicated that the inherent ambiguities in human resource management provide the context which aggravates role ambiguity and role conflict. Any person deciding on HRM as a career ought to be aware of the implications. They will need the ability to cope with a high level of ambiguity and ambivalence in the job. If being

a 'specialist in ambiguity' is too stressful for them, it may be better to choose another career where issues are less ambiguous, and less stressful.

From the perspective of the selection of HRPs, the finding is important. The job is no longer for those who feel they would not make it elsewhere in the business operation and choose HRM as an easy managerial alternative. The study clearly indicated that the function calls for tough minded and emotionally stable individuals. Such persons require the capability of operating as business people and achieving a sound grasp of the complexities and difficulties of operating in a highly competitive, globally focussed business environment. Their task is to make a contribution to the bottom line success of the business. To have these attributes and still be sensitive to human needs and values requires, increasingly, special people.

The history of HRM in South Africa and the experience of HRPs over the past 30 years, has been one of constant change and adaptation within organisational life and structure, as organisations adjusted to new demands. These changes increase the levels of role ambiguity and role conflict, leading to role stress. Role ambiguity emerged as the most persistent of the role stress factors. This is understandable in a rapidly changing work environment, where HRP's must adjust to the new requirements of the job. Unless handled skilfully, the changing role expectations surrounding HRPs, may lead inevitably to uncertainty and confusion expressing themselves in role ambiguity.

Role conflict may be said to 'go with the job'. It is almost impossible for the HRP to satisfy all parties. What was not resolved in the study was whether those HRPs who prefer to identify themselves as clearly management representatives, are subject to more or less role conflict, than those who accept that their role inevitably places them 'in the middle' between employer and employees.

9.6.3 Burnout

The study revealed an above average indication of burnout symptoms among participants. Burnout in the study is treated as a process, rather than an end result. The end of the process is death, using the Selye model of stress. This concept, following Selye (1956) and Moch (2000), applies the inverted parabola (Figure 5.1, p.118). An above average level of burnout was registered suggesting a position somewhere on the way down the right hand side of the inverted parabola.

Emotional exhaustion emerged as the most common of the symptoms. Depersonalisation was shown to be present, but not to the same degree as emotional exhaustion. The lack of a sense of reduced personal accomplishment may well have had the effect of lessening the total impact of burnout on the respondents.

9.6.4 Work-Related Stress

The expression ‘work-related stress’ was used in the study to describe the combination of role stress and burnout. Role stress and burnout were shown to be highly correlated. The findings show that, from an analytical point of view, role stress emerges as an independent variable in relation to burnout in practical experience.

For the interviewees of the qualitative study, most accepted that, stress ‘goes with the job’. The majority of respondents had their own ways of coping with work stress. Some made half-hearted attempts to follow a programme of stress reduction. Some did nothing to deal with stress. Others, followed a more disciplined approach in a systematic regimen of tried practices in stress reduction.

The study does not suggest that HRPs experience more work-related stress than other professions. It does indicate that HRPs experience above average levels of both role stress and burnout, partly due to the nature of HRM.

9.6.5 Qualifications of Human Resource Practitioners

Three important qualifications were identified in the study. The matter of the qualifications of HRPs was an unexpected outcome. It emerged that successful HRPs needed to show or have the potential:

- (i) to combine a tough minded, business oriented approach to the job, with a sensitivity towards people
- (ii) to handle the inherently ambiguous nature of the job, and to live with the uncertainties and ambivalences that go with the function. Being a ‘specialist in ambiguity’ calls for special skills, stamina and intellectual ability.
- (iii) to be entrepreneurial within the business, by being able to introduce innovative ideas which find acceptance and buy-in by the various stakeholders in the organisation. The special skill of the HRP today was to find new ways of adding value to the business through the enhanced contribution of that organisation’s human assets. But, at the same time, to continue to provide a steady up-to-date administrative and advisory service.

It is thus suggested that any list of competences for the profession would need to include consideration of the items mentioned in items (i) - (iii) above.

9.7 STUDY RECOMMENDATIONS

The main recommendations from the findings stem from the paucity of research into the role of the HRP and the concomitant lack of research into sources of work-related stress among HRPs.

A number of recommendations for further action are provided below.

9.7.1 Research into the Personality Typing of Human Resource Practitioners

The career orientation approach in the study was an attempt to establish whether there was a connection between one aspect of motivation in HRPs, namely, career orientation, which may contribute to a greater or lesser level of work-related stress. There is a range of other individual / personal based influences which may be investigated usefully to identify other sources of work-related stress. These sources lie closer to psychological and personality typing. A study into Type A and Type B personality classifications may reveal significant diagnostic information. Such studies have been undertaken in relation to a variety of professional categories of people, but none have been located specifically among HRPs. A study of this nature could have relevance for HRPs.

9.7.2 An Integrated Organisational Approach to Role Stress Research

The research was unable to investigate in depth, the sources of role stress in the form of role ambiguity and role conflict among HRPs in specific organisations. Deeper insight could be obtained by limiting research to a case study approach in a small number of well selected organisations. In-depth interviews with a range of people who interact on a daily basis with HRPs could provide a wealth of analysable data. This more integrated, holistic approach, could reveal a deeper understanding of the impact of organisational dynamics on work-related stress in HRPs.

9.7.3 In-Depth Research into the Role of Human Resource Practitioners in South Africa

Linked to the above is the lack of in-depth research into the role of the HRP in South Africa. This shortage could be reversed through similar studies, previously referred to, as undertaken by Ritzer and Trice, Watson, Legge, Tyson and Storey and other overseas researchers. South Africa is currently in a unique transformation mode and HRPs are often in the forefront of the change process. The South African situation provides a rich area for valuable research into the role of the HRP.

9.7.4 Identification and Selection of Human Resource Practitioners in South Africa

One of the unexpected findings of the study was the emergence of criteria for the identification and selection of HRPs in the contemporary South African business environment. (See Section 9.6.5). These criteria relate, both to those who wish to choose HRM as a career, and also, to the selection process for the promotion of existing practitioners. The criteria presented should be further evaluated as a useful addition to the development of professional HRPs and to the improved contribution of HRM in South Africa.

9.7.5 Test Instruments

The MBI-Human Services Survey (MBI-HSS) was applied in the study on the basis of HRPs being 'people orientated' service providers who interact closely with people in a caring service mode. The decision to apply the MBI-HSS was deliberate. The results obtained in respect of the "Personal Accomplishment" sub-scale among the sample of HRPs, does not reflect a general lack of personal achievement resulting from their work. This suggests that "a reduced sense of personal accomplishment" does not contribute much to the level of burnout being experienced among HRPs. Following a suggestion from Prof Maslach (See email correspondence: 25/9/2000), the MBI- General Survey (MBI-GS) might be a more useful test instrument for HRPs in the current environment. Her reasoning was that the MBI-GS, "was written to be used with any occupational group". For future similar studies, it is suggested that the MBI-GS be applied. It is noted that the MBI is the most commonly used burnout survey instrument internationally and has the added advantage of allowing for comparisons at international level.

9.8 CONCLUDING COMMENT

The study provided the opportunity to explore the previously unresearched relationships between career orientation, role stress and burnout among human resource practitioners (HRPs) in South Africa. Although the original hypotheses have not been supported in the format in which the thesis was constructed, some important findings have emerged which are relevant for HRPs in the South African context.

Having shown that the "service"/"general management" career orientations are not the critical inner commitments of HRPs which lead to higher or lower work-related stress, it has been shown that "entrepreneurial creativity" is a more potent predictor of both role stress and burnout. A new model emerged reflecting a more contemporary dilemma within a business commitment, between an entrepreneurial/innovative orientation and an organisational technical/functional orientation.

A feature of the role of the HRP is that this new model is found within the contemporary South African context. On the one hand, are the demands of globalisation for market driven organisations striving for excellence. On the other hand, are the demands made on HRPs. to provide innovative human resource management leadership that is relevant to successful business performance in a social and political environment based on the requirements of a transforming society. These forces conspire to create a work climate for HRPs which is potentially highly stressful. It would be prudent for further research to be undertaken in the interests of the well being of HRPs caught up in the middle of this dynamic business context.

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APPENDICES

SOURCES OF STRESS AMONG HUMAN RESOURCE PRACTITIONERS

**A STUDY OF THE INTER-RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CAREER
ORIENTATION, ROLE STRESS AND BURNOUT : AN INVESTIGATION INTO
SOURCES OF WORK-RELATED STRESS IN A SAMPLE OF HUMAN
RESOURCE PRACTITIONERS IN KWAZULU NATAL**

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1 August 2002

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CAREER ORIENTATION INVENTORY

Please read the following statements and then using the scale below rate how true each of the items is for you and write the number from 1 to 6 in the square provided.

The sealed envelope provides information for self-scoring to be opened after completion of the questionnaire.

Never true for me	Occasionally true for me	Often true for me	Always true for me
1	2 3	4 5	6

1. I dream of being so good at what I do that my expert advice will be sought continually.
2. I am most fulfilled in my work when I have been able to integrate and manage the efforts of others.
3. I dream of having a career that will allow me the freedom to do a job my own way and on my own schedule.
4. Security and stability are more important to me than freedom and autonomy.
5. I am always looking for ideas that would permit me to start my own enterprise.
6. I will feel successful in my career only if I have a feeling of having made a real contribution to the welfare of society.
7. I dream of a career in which I can solve problems or win in situations that are extremely challenging.
8. I would rather leave my organisation than be put into a job that would compromise my ability to pursue personal and family concerns.
9. I will feel successful in my career only if I can develop my technical or functional skills to a very high level of competence.
10. I dream of being in charge of a complex organisation and of making decisions that affect many people.
11. I am most fulfilled in my work when I am completely free to define my own tasks, schedules, and procedures.
12. I would rather leave my organisation altogether than accept an assignment that would jeopardise my security in that organisation.
13. Building my own business is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position in someone else's organisation.

Never true for me	Occasionally true for me		Often true for me		Always true for me
1	2	3	4	5	6

- 14. I am most fulfilled in my career when I have been able to use my talents in the service of others.
- 15. I will feel successful in my career only if I face and overcome very difficult challenges.
- 16. I dream of a career that will permit me to integrate my personal, family, and work needs.
- 17. Becoming a senior functional manager in my area of expertise is more attractive to me than becoming a general manager.
- 18. I will feel successful in my career only if I become a general manager in some organisation.
- 19. I will feel successful in my career only if I achieve complete autonomy and freedom.
- 20. I seek jobs in organisations that will give me a sense of security and stability.
- 21. I am most fulfilled in my career when I have been able to build something that is entirely the result of my own ideas and efforts.
- 22. Using my skills to make the world a better place in which to live and work is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position.
- 23. I have been most fulfilled in my career when I have solved seemingly unsolvable problems or won out over seemingly impossible odds.
- 24. I feel successful in life only if I have been able to balance my personal, family and career requirements.
- 25. I would rather leave my organisation than accept a rotational assignment that would take me out of my area of expertise.
- 26. Becoming a general manager is more attractive to me than becoming a senior functional manager in my current area of expertise.
- 27. The chance to do a job my own way, free of rules and constraints, is more important to me than security.
- 28. I am most fulfilled in my work when I feel that I have complete financial and employment security.
- 29. I will feel successful in my career only if I have succeeded in creating or building something that is entirely my own product or idea.
- 30. I dream of having a career that makes a real contribution to humanity and society.
- 31. I seek out work opportunities that strongly challenge my problem-solving and/or competitive skills.
- 32. Balancing the demands of my personal and professional lives is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position.

Never true for me	Occasionally true for me	Often true for me	Always true for me
1	2	3	4
		5	6

- 33. I am most fulfilled in my work when I have been able to use my special skills and talents.
- 34. I would rather leave my organisation than accept a job that would take me away from the general managerial path.
- 35. I would rather leave my organisation than accept a job that would reduce my autonomy and freedom.
- 36. I dream of having a career that will allow me to feel a sense of security and stability.
- 37. I dream of starting up and building my own business.
- 38. I would rather leave my organisation than accept an assignment that would undermine my ability to be of service to others.
- 39. Working on problems that are almost unsolvable is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position.
- 40. I have always sought out work opportunities that would minimise interference with my personal or family concerns.

CAREER ORIENTATIONS INVENTORY

I. SELF SCORING INSTRUCTIONS:

- 1.1 Look over your answers and locate the items that you rated highest. Pick out the THREE items that seem most true for you and give *each* of those three items an additional FOUR (4) points.
- 1.2 Transfer the numbers from your rated answers onto the scoring sheet below. After you have transferred all of the numbers, add up the columns and divide by five (the number of items) to get your average score for each of the eight career anchor dimensions. Do not forget to add the extra four points for *each* of your three key items before you total and average your scores.
- 1.3 The resulting average is your self-assessment of how true the items in that scale are for you. Explanations of the columns follow on page 2 and 3 – identifying your “Career Anchors.”
- 1.4 The concept of “Career Anchors” follows Prof. Edgar Schein’s model developed over years of application (See Edgar Schein “Career Anchors” 1993 : Sloan School of Management, M.I.T.).

SCORING SHEET

	TF		GM		AU		SE		EC		SV		CH		LS
1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8	
9		10		11		12		13		14		15		16	
17		18		19		20		21		22		23		24	
25		26		27		28		29		30		31		32	
33		34		35		36		37		38		39		40	
TOTAL															
	÷ 5		÷ 5		÷ 5		÷ 5		÷ 5		÷ 5		÷ 5		÷ 5
AVERAGE															

Code guide for category of ‘Career Anchor’

TF	Technical / Functional Competence
GM	General Managerial Competence
AU	Autonomy / Independence
SE	Security / Stability

EC	Entrepreneurial Creativity
SV	Service / Dedication to a Cause
CH	Pure Challenge
LS	Lifestyle

Now refer to Page 2 and 3 – “Identifying your Career Anchor”.
Do not amend your scores after studying the categories.

Note: If you wish to discuss this career orientation outcome with me, please contact me.

I. IDENTIFYING YOUR “CAREER ANCHOR”:

The following 8 categories, referred to as “Career Anchors”, are the result of years of research internationally which identified the categories. An individual’s “career anchor” is best arrived at with an explanation follow-up discussion after the completion of the inventory and self-rating. Your rating will be discussed with you to assess your perception of its validity.

Briefly, a career anchor is part of our conception of ourselves and, being strongly held, is something we are not likely to give up, even if forced to make a difficult choice.

**TECHNICAL / FUNCTIONAL
COMPETENCE (TF)**

If your career anchor is competence in some technical or functional area, what you would not give up is the opportunity to apply your skills in that area and to continue to develop those skills to an ever higher level. You derive your sense of identity from the exercise of your skills and are most happy when your work permits you to be challenged in those areas. You may be willing to manage others in your technical or functional area, but you are not interested in management for its own sake and would avoid general management because you would have to leave your own area of expertise. Your inventory score in this area is in the first column of the scoring sheet under TF.

**ENTREPRENEURIAL CREATIVITY
(EC)**

If your career anchor is entrepreneurial creativity, what you would not give up is the opportunity to create an organisation or enterprise of your own, built on your own abilities and your willingness to take risks and to overcome obstacles. You want to prove to the world that you can create an enterprise that is the result of your own effort. You may be working for others in an organisation while you are learning and assessing future opportunities, but you will go out on your own as soon as you feel you can manage it. You want your enterprise to be financially successful as proof of your abilities. Your inventory score on this dimension is in the fifth column of the scoring sheet under the letters EC.

**GENERAL MANAGERIAL COMPETENCE
(GM)**

If your career anchor is general managerial competence, what you would not give up is the opportunity to climb to a level high enough in an organisation to enable you to integrate the efforts of others across functions and to be responsible for the output of a particular unit of the organisation. You want to be responsible and accountable for total results and you identify your own work with the success of the organisation for which you work. If you are presently in a technical or functional area, you view that as a necessary learning experience; however, your ambition is to get to a generalist job as soon as possible. Being at a high managerial level in a function does not interest you. Your inventory score in this area is in the second column of the scoring sheet under GM.

**SERVICE / DEDICATION TO A CAUSE
(SV)**

If your career anchor is service / dedication to a cause, what you would not give up is the opportunity to pursue work that achieves something of value, such as making the world a better place to live, solving environmental problems, improving harmony among people, helping others, improving people’s safety, curing diseases through new products, and so on. You pursue such opportunities even if it means changing organisations, and you do not accept transfers or promotions that would take you out of work that fulfils your values. Your inventory score on this dimension is in the sixth column of the scoring sheet under the letters SV.

<p style="text-align: center;">AUTONOMY / INDEPENDENCE (AU)</p> <p>If your career anchor is autonomy / independence, what you would not give up is the opportunity to define your own work in your own way. If you are in an organisation, you want to remain in jobs that allow you flexibility regarding when and how to work. If you cannot tolerate organisational rules and restrictions to any degree, you seek occupations in which you will have the freedom you seek, such as teaching or consulting. You refuse opportunities for promotion or advancement in order to retain autonomy. You may even seek to have a business of your own in order to achieve a sense of autonomy: however, this motive is not the same as the entrepreneurial creativity described later. Your inventory score on this dimension is in the third column of the scoring sheet under the letters AV.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">PURE CHALLENGE (CH)</p> <p>If your career anchor is pure challenge, what you would not give up is the opportunity to work on solutions to seemingly unsolvable problems, to win out over tough opponents, or to overcome difficult obstacles. For you, the only meaningful reason for pursuing a job or career is that it permits you to win over the impossible. Some people find such pure challenge in intellectual kinds of work, such as the engineer who is interested only in impossibly difficult designs; some find the challenge in complex, multifaceted situations, such as the strategy consultant who is interested only in clients who are about to go bankrupt and have exhausted all other resources; some find it in interpersonal competition, such as the professional athlete or the salesperson who defines every sale as either a win or a loss. Novelty, variety, and difficulty become ends in themselves; and if something is easy, it becomes immediately boring. Your inventory score on this dimension is in the seventh column of the scoring sheet under the letters CH.</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">SECURITY / STABILITY (SE)</p> <p>If your career anchor is security / stability, what you would not give up is employment security or tenure in a job or organisation. Your main concern is to achieve a sense of having succeeded so that you can relax. The anchor shows up in concern for financial security (such as pension and retirement plans) or employment security. Such stability may involve trading your loyalty and willingness to do whatever the employer wants from you for some promise of job tenure. You are less concerned with the content of your work and the rank you achieve in the organisation, although you may achieve a high level if your talents permit. As with autonomy, everyone has certain needs for security and stability, especially at times when financial burdens may be heavy or when one is facing retirement. People anchored in this way, however, are always concerned with these issues and build their entire self-images around the management of security and stability. Your inventory score on this dimension is in the fourth column of the scoring sheet under the letters SE.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">LIFESTYLE (LS)</p> <p>If your career anchor is lifestyle, what you would not give up is a situation that permits you to balance and integrate your personal needs, your family needs, and the requirements of your career. You want to make all of the major sectors of your life work together toward an integrated whole and you therefore need a career situation that provides enough flexibility to achieve such integration. You may have to sacrifice some aspects of your career (for example, a geographical move that would be a promotion but would upset your total life situation), and you define success in terms broader than just career success. You feel that your identity is more tied up with how you live your total life, where you live, how you deal with your family situation, and how you develop yourself than with any particular job or organisation. Your inventory score on this dimension is in the eighth column of the scoring sheet under the letters LS.</p>

APPENDIX (D)

CAREER ORIENTATION

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

- (i) These questions allow for elaboration on the Career Orientation Inventory outcome in a discussion format.
- (ii) Your “career orientation” is that inner sense of direction which is based upon your own value system and helps you focus your work and your career with a particular emphasis.

- 1. How closely does the career category arrived at match your own perception of your career orientation?
Is this how you understand yourself? (C)
- 2. Do you think this career orientation has an influence on your work?
Can you illustrate? (I)
- 3. I am interested in what influenced you to choose HR as a career?
What makes you want to be an HR Practitioner?
(This is broader than your career orientation). (II)
- 4. What do you most enjoy about your work as an HR Practitioner?
Can you illustrate with an incident/s) (M)
- 5. Do you see yourself moving out of HRM?
If so, in what direction would you be wanting to move?
What is your long term career goal? (MM)

PART II : SECTION 1:

ROLE QUESTIONNAIRE

Please read the following statements and cross the appropriate block that most accurately reflects your experience within your organisation.

		STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
1.	I feel certain about how much authority I have.					
2.	There are clear, planned goals and objectives for my job.					
3.	I have to do things that should be done differently.					
4.	I have enough time to complete my work.					
5.	There is a lack of guidelines to help me.					
6.	I am able to act the same regardless of the group I am with.					
7.	I perform tasks that are too easy or boring.					
8.	I work under incompatible (conflicting) policies and guidelines.					
9.	I know that I have divided my time properly.					
10.	I know what my responsibilities are.					
11.	I receive assignments that are within my training and capability.					
12.	I have to "buck" (bend or break) a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment.					
13.	I feel certain how I will be evaluated for an increase or promotion.					
14.	My workload is too heavy.					
15.	I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently.					
16.	I know exactly what is expected of me.					
17.	I am able to maintain a high quality in my work.					
18.	I receive incompatible (conflicting) requests from two or more people.					
19.	I am told how well I am doing my job.					
20.	There are unreasonable pressures for better performance.					
21.	I am given assignments without adequate resources to execute them.					
22.	I receive clear explanation of what is to be done.					
23.	There is a lack of time to complete assignments given to me.					
24.	I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others.					
25.	I have been given too much responsibility.					
26.	I have to work under vague directives.					
27.	I perform work that suits my values.					
28.	My workload is just right.					
29.	I do not know whether my work will be acceptable to my boss.					
30.	I feel overburdened in my role.					
31.	I am asked to do things which are against my better judgement.					
32.	I work on unnecessary things.					
33.	There is a lack of utilisation of my skills and training.					

APPENDIX F

ROLE PERCEPTIONS

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

This discussion focusses on specific issues which may arise as you function in your role as a Human Resource Practitioner and interact with other role players in your organisation.

1. Has the role of the HR practitioner changed for you over the past 5 -10 years?
If so, in what way?
Is there a different emphasis which requires you to see your role differently? (GR)
2. Are there people in the organization who are uncertain as to the nature and purpose of your role?
If so, can you identify which positions they occupy?
How serious an issue is this for you?
Could you illustrate how it occurs? (RA)
3. Do you think your boss understands what your role is? (If not dealt with above)
How serious an issue is this for you?
Can you provide a critical incident where this occurred? (RA)
4. How often do you find yourself as a HR practitioner being “caught in the middle” between the different role players in your organization who make conflicting demands on you?
(If you meet one demand it is difficult or impossible to meet other demands. Could be from one or more persons or groups) (RC)
5. The HRP moves across departmental boundaries in his/her function.
Does this boundary crossing have implications for you?
If so, could you illustrate where this happens and what are the implications for you?(RC)
6. Can we have look at your work load? What sort of work load would you like to have? (RO)
7. I would like to refer to your personal values. Have you been in a situation where your personal values clash with organisational requirements?
If so, could you illustrate? (PV)
8. What place does care/concern for people play in the role of FIR practitioner today?
If it does, could you illustrate from your organisational experience? (SO)

PART III : SECTION 1:

PERCEPTIONS OF STRESS

1. Please indicate your perception of stressful occupations.

1.1 Rank the following occupations/professions for their stressfulness from 1 to 7 : *1 being the most stressful : 7 being the least stressful*

- Civil engineer
- Doctor
- HR Manager
- Lawyer
- Magistrate
- Priest
- Production Manager

1.2 Rank the following HR functions for their stressfulness from 1 to 6 : *1 being the most stressful : 6 being the least stressful*

- Counselling
- Generalist
- HR Administration
- Industrial Relations
- Recruitment / Selection
- Training / Development

2. Please read the following statements on the next page. There are two columns for response.

In the left hand column please indicate **how often** you have the feeling.
 In the right hand column please indicate **how strongly** you have the feeling.

Cross the relevant number of **each** item in **each** of the two columns.

HOW OFTEN	
0	Never
1	A few times a year
2	Once a month or less
3	A few times a month
4	Once a week
5	A few times a week
6	Every day

HOW STRONG	
0	Never
1	Very mild, barely noticeable
2	
3	
4	Moderate
5	
6	
7	Major, very strong

STATEMENTS

HOW OFTEN	HOW STRONG	
1 2 3 4 5 6	I feel emotionally drained by my work.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
1 2 3 4 5 6	I feel used up at the end of the day.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
1 2 3 4 5 6	I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to go to work.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
1 2 3 4 5 6	I easily understand how people I work with feel about things.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
1 2 3 4 5 6	I feel I treat people as if they were impersonal objects.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
1 2 3 4 5 6	Working with people all day is really a strain for me.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
1 2 3 4 5 6	I deal very effectively with the problems of the people I work with.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
1 2 3 4 5 6	I feel burned out from my work.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
1 2 3 4 5 6	I feel I am positively influencing other people's lives through my work.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
1 2 3 4 5 6	I have become more callous toward people in this job.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
1 2 3 4 5 6	I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
1 2 3 4 5 6	I feel very energetic.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
1 2 3 4 5 6	I feel frustrated by my job.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
1 2 3 4 5 6	I feel I am working too hard on my job.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
1 2 3 4 5 6	I really don't care what happens to some people I work with.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
1 2 3 4 5 6	Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
1 2 3 4 5 6	I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with those with whom I work.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
1 2 3 4 5 6	I feel exhilarated after working closely with our people at work.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
1 2 3 4 5 6	I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
1 2 3 4 5 6	I feel I am at the end of my tether.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
1 2 3 4 5 6	In my work I deal with emotional problems very calmly.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
1 2 3 4 5 6	I feel people blame me for their problems.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

APPENDIX H

STRESS PERCEPTIONS

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

These questions concern work related stress and your perception of stress in your role as a HR practitioner.

1. Is your job as a HRP today any more stressful than say 5 or 10 years ago?
If so, can you account for this change? What has changed?
Does the emphasis on strategic human resource management contribute?
If so, could you illustrate with a critical incident? (HR)
2. If you had the opportunity to reduce stress in your job where would you begin?
Could you illustrate? (SS)
3. Who would you say creates for you the most stress in your job?
(boss/colleagues/subordinates/line management/workers/shop stewards/staff)
Could you illustrate with a critical incident? (RC)
4. Do you feel there is any link between your 'career orientation' and the stress you may experience in your job?
If so, can you identify the connection? (CO)
5. Have there been situations in your job which impacted on your personal values in such a way as to create additional stress for you?
If so, could you illustrate with an example? (PV)
6. In the last year or so have there been any occasions when you felt that work stress was beginning to get the better of you?
If so, could you describe the situation? (SS)
7. Can we talk about your work load?
What significance does work load play in contributing to your stress level?
Could you illustrate with one or two major work load issues? (WO)
8. How would you describe your normal health?
Very good health/good health/average/poor/very poor health (GH)
9. How would you rate your stress level out of 10.
(One being very low stress and ten being very high).

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 (GH)
10. Do you have any specific ways of reducing stress? (SR)

UNIVERSITY OF NATAL

HUMAN RESOURCE PRACTITIONER STUDY

BACKGROUND:

Kindly provide some background to yourself, as it will offer important information for the study.

1. Your number of years in HRM (all functions):
2. Total work experience: (years)
3. Job Title:
4. Job Grade (e.g.: Patterson D.I.):
5. Age:
6. Sex: Male: Female:
7. Black: Coloured: Indian: White:
(There are still significant implications in these categories).
8. Academic Qualifications: _____
9. Your Industry:

Agriculture	<input style="width: 100%;" type="text"/>	Finance	<input style="width: 100%;" type="text"/>	Transport	<input style="width: 100%;" type="text"/>
Manufacturing	<input style="width: 100%;" type="text"/>	Retail	<input style="width: 100%;" type="text"/>	Other	<input style="width: 100%;" type="text"/>
Parastatal/ Utilities	<input style="width: 100%;" type="text"/>	Government/ Council	<input style="width: 100%;" type="text"/>		
10. Are you a member of the IPM?

Yes <input style="width: 50px;" type="text"/>	No <input style="width: 50px;" type="text"/>
---	--

Thank you for participating in this study. Your assistance is greatly appreciated. Should you wish to receive a copy of the findings please provide your name and address below:

Name: _____
 Address: _____
 Tel/Fax No: _____
 Email: _____

Please note: This information is confidential and in no way will identification be made between you as a person and any of the information you provide in this study.

APPENDIX J



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Durban

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Facsimile +27 (0)31 260 2169

Dear

**HUMAN RESOURCE PRACTITIONERS
STRESS RESEARCH PROJECT**

I am involved in a study into role stress implications for Human Resource Practitioners. This project is part of my research for a PhD under the supervision of Prof. David Coldwell at the University of Natal.

Allow me to introduce myself. I worked for many years as a Human Resource Manager, most recently within Unilever, prior to an early retirement. I was an IPM committee member for many years and Coastal Branch Chairman for some time and am also in the process of writing the history of the IPM in South Africa.

Essential to the stress research is the experience of a range of HR Practitioners in KwaZulu Natal, hence my approaching you.

I would value the opportunity of explaining to you the nature, purpose and format of the research project with the aim of seeking your participation.

This participation would involve the completion of a questionnaire (20 minutes) and a request for a later interview (1 hour) to obtain your understanding of the role of the HR Practitioner in relation to career orientation and job stress.

No similar research has been undertaken in South Africa in relation to Human Resource Practitioners.

The findings will be published and made available to participants. Confidentiality is preserved at all times.

I would like to take the liberty of following up this letter with a telephone call to outline the project further if necessary and to request your participation.

I hope that you will see your way clear to sharing in the study.

Yours sincerely

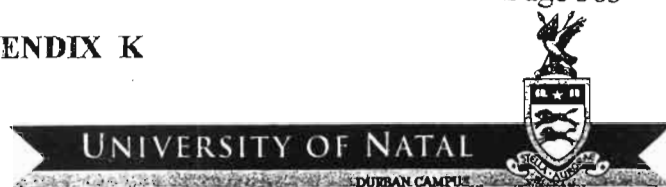
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APPENDIX K



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HUMAN RESOURCE PRACTITIONER STUDY PROJECT

I am busy with a study into role stress implications for Human Resource Practitioners. This project is part of my research for a PhD under the supervision of Prof. David Coldwell at the University of Natal.

Allow me to introduce myself. I worked for many years as a Human Resource Manager, most recently within Unilever, prior to an early retirement. I was an IPM committee member for many years and Coastal Branch Chairman for a number of years and am currently writing the history of the IPM in South Africa.

Essential to the research is the experience of a range of HR Practitioners in KwaZulu Natal, hence my approaching you to request your assistance with the survey.

I have taken the liberty of attaching a questionnaire, which I would be most grateful, if you could find 20 minutes to complete and return to me in the enclosed stamped addressed envelope.

This survey has a unique self-scoring feature in the first section on career orientation, which allows you to receive some immediate feedback. Ideally this self-scoring is best followed with a discussion with the researcher to obtain further benefit. Should you wish to enter such a discussion please indicate in the relevant section of the questionnaire.

The other two sections are standard questionnaires and deal with your role as an HR Practitioner and work related stress.

No similar research has been undertaken in South Africa in relation to Human Resource Practitioners.

The findings will be published and made available to participants. Confidentiality will be preserved at all times. Should you wish to receive a copy of the findings please indicate in the relevant part of the questionnaire.

I hope that you may see your way clear to sharing in the study. Should you wish to contact me please do so.

Yours sincerely

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APPENDIX L



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22 May 2000

**HUMAN RESOURCE PRACTITIONER
STUDY PROJECT**

You may recall my sending you a copy of a questionnaire for a special study of role stress for Human Resource Practitioners in which I am involved.

I am seeking the participation of as many HR Practitioners as possible in the Greater Durban area. If you have responded by the time this letter reaches you please ignore this letter.

If you feel free to participate and could find the 20 minutes required I would value your contribution. This is a study that has not been undertaken before in relation to HR Practitioners and both Prof David Coldwell and I believe it will provide useful feedback to HR people.

Confidentiality is maintained at all times. The findings will be made available to participants early in the new year once the presentation has been made.

Attached is a copy of the original letter that accompanied the questionnaire.

Should the questionnaire not have arrived on your desk and you would be willing to participate I would be grateful if you could let me know and I will send you one by return of post.

Your assistance would be valued.

Yours sincerely

RON LEGG

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P O Box 2419 HILLCREST 3650
Tel: 031-765 2836

R.303 (KB) SV 6.2 CH 4.8 FN WF(m) 41/18

1. CAREER ORIENTATION

- (C) SV is strong and extremely accurate. The CH is second as I do like a challenge. I have found the whole exercise very rewarding as it gave me an opportunity to some inner reflection on my career. But the SV is confirmed. 10 years ago I would not have come out on CH as I was more retiring, now I know I don't let go when I get my teeth into something.
- (I) There is a link with the CO as I would do the SV thing first before other functions. This is probably due to an inner need on my part. I think it is linked to my personal values. I think I have this need to serve.
- (II) I am HR by default. I went into HR administration. I moved into T & D by request and enjoyed it. I was then requested and probably pushed in the end to go into general HR. four and a half years ago I did not move for the higher level appointment. I felt I was contributing in a very meaningful way in T & D. I was happy there. I was going to be a teacher originally but did not and perhaps that is where the desire for the T & D came from.
- (M) I enjoy the independence which the current structure provides me. In some respects the AU is present- not dominant. I have the opportunity to add value. Much of what I am involved in is the transformation process. The organization has been going through a series of re-structurings over the last few years. I have enjoyed the sense of being in a partnership with the business. Our operation is separate from the business. There is considerable autonomy. But we have to add value and show that we are able to facilitate the change process. The changes have been brought about by mergers (Boland Bank and now BOE), competitiveness of the industry, and all are business driven. I enjoy the process of helping people go through the change. There is plenty of anger, uncertainty, fear among people as a result of the changes and my role is to help them through it. There is trauma attached to these changes and I enjoy the counselling involved. It is stress for them and me. Change is not a natural part of banking traditionally. Perhaps it attracts people who like the closely regulated nature of the business. Perhaps they are also then more fearful of the changes now occurring which we are dealing with.
- (M) I could move out into something entirely different. My husband runs a B & B and I could see myself becoming involved but by adding a conference centre and then to do some consulting. I think I would enjoy the independence. I don't think it is just because we are perhaps in a financial position for me to do this. The SE is not a dominant factor for me.

R.303 (KB) SV CH FN WF(m) 41/18

2. ROLE PERCEPTIONS

(GR) HR has changed dramatically, bearing in mind I have changed from T&D to Generalist. I think one of the biggest changes is that line management now see us differently. I think the new legislation has acted as a catalyst. Managers are scared of the legislation and the trouble it can bring them if they get it wrong. Previously we were largely personnel administrators. Now we are seen differently. But we are also structurally differently placed. We sit outside the line structure. I report as divisional HR manager to the HR Director. As HR we are business partners. That's how I see it. But we also have to deliver. If we don't we could be replaced by consultants. Our delivery is questioned at different levels in the organization. Higher up we are a cost and we have to deliver.

There are implications with the way things now are. I have a great deal of autonomy, which I enjoy. My boss does not interfere and leaves me to get on with my job. I think the changes worried me at first, but not so much anymore.

(RA) I think there are some who are uncertain about my role. It occurs at different levels. Higher up we are seen as not adding sufficient value to the organization. At junior level we are still seen as agony aunts for people to come and cry to but do not fulfill that expectation adequately. We are here for people to talk to, but have other functions (which the senior people see differently) I think part of the problem is that we have not adequately communicated our function that we are here to add value to the organization. We are catalysts for change and that does not leave many people happy. Change is threatening to many in this organization (see earlier comment)

(Illustration): One of our profit centres was not delivering results - sales- Pressure was put on them to achieve results and without adequate opportunity to correct the situation I think senior people panicked and next we had lost six of our best sales people plus others. I think it was an damaging and unnecessary loss of highly trained people. A document had been prepared which outlined how the situation could be turned around. Not sufficient opportunity was given for the new approach to come to fruition. I was involved in this and felt very strongly and let down. One of my personal values is that I believe in people until proved otherwise, I don't believe we gave them enough chance to rectify things. I believe the company in the end was the loser. I think we needed to fight harder . I think there was a lack of support higher up . I was badly upset.

I don't think my boss understands my role entirely. In the illustration just given I think she backed off . Perhaps she was influenced too much by the business/board pressure. She has been in the business a long time and was in regional offices during the old structure and perhaps does not fully understand what it is like now. It could also be that being at Board level now she has to take more strongly the business stance. I think the previous director may have been eased into an early retirement because he was less inclined to follow the business line.

APPENDIX M 3

- (RC) I am often in the middle when trying to play a neutral role. We have to support the business. But we also need to be for the employees. One way to assist employees is to help them understand the business. My problem is that of trust. It is too easy to lose the trust of one side or the other in our interactions. One ends up with neither side trusting you. I try to apply my personal value, which is to believe in people until they let you down. I think sometimes my boss understands my dilemma and where I am coming from. For me this in between status is experienced most with certain leadership positions within the organization. Especially with the older school managers.
- (BC) This depends on the dynamics of the relationships involved. Where manager is feeling insecure or incompetent one is more likely to have a reaction with my presence. I think it may occur too when the line manager is not comfortable doing HR functions that once were done by HR. Eg., running disciplinary hearings. Traditionally they gave the dirty stuff, stuff they do not want to do or what is unpleasant, to HR to handle. Now they are accountable and some don't like it. My role is to support them in carrying out their full function, but not to do it for them.
- (RO) My work load is self driven because of my autonomy. It is my fault if I take on more than I can handle. I think what generates workload is the amount of admin required whilst taking on the new role. Much of my frustration comes from having to have an antiquated admin system in this modern age which requires much labour intensive activity, eg., to obtain statistics to make a case to tackle and new project. It is very slow.
- (PV) The illustration was a challenge to my personal values. I believe in people. I felt compromised in that illustration. We did not give enough time for belief in those people to come through. We effectively got rid of them prematurely and then to the cost of the business. They actually were very competent people. The business was not doing well and bottom line results were being called for and they were not given time to deliver. The board panicked, I think. I felt badly let down.
- (SO) I think ~~ix x~~ cares for people. But I think it is changes under pressure more acceptable results to the bottom line. I don't think we care as much any more and it is beginning to show in performance. I think our performance was better when we cared more. This highly pressured environment takes its toll in this way (SV - so respondent expresses these concerns as she is a caring person above all else. "I want to care, have a need to care, it is a inner thing". This may be related to her spiritual orientation; she is actively involved in her church and change processes which could be a living out of Christian commitment. "I try to live out my personal values") I think the change of executive management where accounts technocrats have been brought in to create excellence is beginning to affect the climate in the business. Accountants have a certain set of values based around accounting excellence which does not always take people into account. There is also a concern from my part that although the Board has declared a value statement where people are said to be our most important asset there is a cynicism lower down because the people don't necessarily believe it is genuine and sincere. For me I try to see if my own values can be played out in the business. Care for me is expressed in believing in people. I believe people want to make a contribution to the business if given the opportunity.

R.303 (KB) SV CH FN WF(m) 41/18

3. STRESS PERCEPTIONS

- (HR) It has become a different job, bearing in mind my move from T& D to general HR. Everything has become more rapid.. One is adapting to change all the time. Making adjustments. Previously there was more lead time. It is more conflicting and stressful. In a bank this is more noticeable because banks have been conservative organizations and may have attracted more conservative people less inclined to quick changes. Banks had this solid unchanging reliable image of dependability. We need support for organizational development delivery on our part, for which there is little time. Secondly, there is the impact of these changes on individual people with whom we need to counsel. There is a sense of loss by those who are left behind, perhaps even a sense of guilt. There is a sense of disempowerment of those left behind. Something has been taken from them (is this an unacknowledged effect of retrenchment that it weakens those left behind). This is part of the complexity of the new situation. It moves from the general to the specific. We need to convey to management that people are hurting. For me each time I am involved in these situations I feel it. It creates internal stress on your life. We have been through these restructuring 5 times since 1997. We also needed to counsel those who were going. Each time it may not have been large numbers but each time it creates uncertainty and threat as people don't know who is next.
- (SS) I would reduce admin work to reduce stress. We need a more sophisticated HR admin system. It is labour intensive and as a result in an increasingly pressurised situation one needs more efficient HR systems. Numbers have been cut but those left are expected to cope without improved systems. This improvement would enable us to do the more meaningful and valuable things such as OD.
- (RC) I think the most stress is caused by the MD/Divisional Director. I think the level of panic that emerged at that level over the future success of the business. I think there has emerged unreasonable demands at that level on his team which has impact on us. For the MD it is business first.. People do not come first. Results are all important. I believe most people want the business to be successful. But quick results are required. And a balance is not being achieved. I thus have a problem with the implications of what is occurring and that creates stress because we are all caught up in this thing.
- (CO) I think there is a connection. Over the years I have learned to temper my desire to be of service. I was becoming over burdened with opportunities of service. Now I am more selective about what I choose to do. I think this was putting unnecessary pressure on myself. Perhaps I was allowing my desire to be of service to create problems for myself. I think in that respect, yes, the CO of SV did and does have an impact. When I was answering the questions I know exactly where it was taking me. In my work I put people first. These files are paper work stats requiring a report which will wait as I have put people issues first. I prefer to do the people thing . It may be a bit selfish because then I am doing what I like doing. I am comfortable with that approach. I see this approach as

adding value.

- (PV) When I was answering the stress inventory I noticed the one on becoming callous with the people I work with. I thought about that because there is a danger in this business that it can happen. One becomes hardened from the first time one was involved where considerable concern was expressed.. I think my values can add value to the organization.. My value of believing in people has not changed. I always believe in people. (Is this impossibly idealistic?)
- (SS) I know when I am getting over burdened is when I start getting irritable at home. I took strain last month with the illustration given. My value system was challenged. I believed the company was being penny wise and pound foolish. They were moving to over control of people and over managing. I believe you must trust people. I think the organization has changed from being people focussed. When someone leaves the organization the MD has to sign off the person. That is unnecessary. Others should be trusted to with that function lower down. It simply questions the competence of the management team. That makes me ratty.
- (WO) My work load does create stress. I like to see things are done right and like to be on top of my work. When that does not happen it stressful to me. I also like to be on top of the technical aspects of my job. I wake at night and start thinking about something that needs doing. For me work load problem is connected to the matter of being able to see results. When you can't see results it is stressing. Much of what we deal with is intangible. That is why I like the concept of deliverables which can be seen.
- (GH) Good health. Ill health is related to stress. I can see when I am stressed as I become irritable at home. Level: 7/10 now but it fluctuates according to the situation.
- (SR) I find reduction in stress through my spiritual life, supportive husband, systems and friends, get away every now and then.

NOTE: Climate; There are services available for stress treatment and support, but the climate in the organization is probably if you can't take the heat get out, more for men than for women.

ROLE AMBIGUITY

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
1.	RA18	1.9292	.9035	113.0
2.	RA19	2.2566	1.0588	113.0
3.	RA22	2.6195	.9758	113.0
4.	RA26	2.7168	.9771	113.0
5.	RA27	1.8673	.7735	113.0
6.	RA30	2.6991	1.1944	113.0
7.	RA33	2.2478	.9499	113.0
8.	RA36	2.6195	1.0464	113.0
9.	RA39	2.7168	.9011	113.0
10.	RA43	2.7965	1.1351	113.0
11.	RA46	2.2035	.8980	113.0
12.	RA50	2.6106	1.1529	113.0

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
RA18	27.3540	49.6771	.5914	.8501
RA19	27.0265	47.3296	.6573	.8448
RA22	26.6637	49.6895	.5368	.8532
RA26	26.5664	53.7299	.2333	.8718
RA27	27.4159	50.1201	.6673	.8475
RA30	26.5841	47.9237	.5247	.8550
RA33	27.0354	47.8559	.7052	.8426
RA36	26.6637	48.5288	.5763	.8505
RA39	26.5664	50.5335	.5215	.8542
RA43	26.4867	47.7699	.5715	.8510
RA46	27.0796	49.4668	.6138	.8488
RA50	26.6726	49.7400	.4278	.8617

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 113.0

N of Items = 12

Alpha = .8634

APPENDIX 7.2

ROLE CONFLICT

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
1.	RC20	3.4912	1.0746	114.0
2.	RC23	2.5965	1.1108	114.0
3.	RC25	2.5965	1.0452	114.0
4.	RC28	1.9737	.8143	114.0
5.	RC29	3.0526	1.0118	114.0
6.	RC32	3.9035	.9591	114.0
7.	RC34	2.0263	.7696	114.0
8.	RC35	3.2719	1.0994	114.0
9.	RC38	2.7982	.9793	114.0
10.	RC41	3.2193	1.1032	114.0
11.	RC44	2.2193	.8801	114.0
12.	RC48	2.5000	.9708	114.0
13.	RC49	2.8684	1.1484	114.0

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
RC20	33.0263	43.5480	.4200	.7917
RC23	33.9211	45.6309	.2528	.8072
RC25	33.9211	41.5247	.5970	.7754
RC28	34.5439	47.0821	.2608	.8027
RC29	33.4649	43.9855	.4210	.7914
RC32	32.6140	44.6462	.3974	.7933
RC34	34.4912	46.1105	.3785	.7950
RC35	33.2456	42.4347	.4898	.7852
RC38	33.7193	43.2479	.5009	.7847
RC41	33.2982	41.9280	.5260	.7817
RC44	34.2982	45.9811	.3271	.7985
RC48	34.0175	42.2829	.5888	.7772
RC49	33.6491	41.9466	.4970	.7845

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 114.0

N of Items = 13

Alpha = .8032

ROLE OVERLOAD

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
1.	RO21	3.1795	1.1568	117.0
2.	RO24	3.5128	1.1266	117.0
3.	RO31	3.3248	1.0325	117.0
4.	RO37	2.5641	1.0033	117.0
5.	RO40	3.1880	2.1732	117.0
6.	RO42	2.1282	.8564	117.0
7.	RO45	3.2137	.9899	117.0
8.	RO47	2.5812	1.0926	117.0

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
RO21	20.5128	20.1485	.5698	.5314
RO24	20.1795	28.1141	-.1656	.7085
RO31	20.3675	19.9758	.6894	.5100
RO37	21.1282	22.5782	.4006	.5826
RO40	20.5043	18.5280	.2220	.6889
RO42	21.5641	24.4032	.2680	.6132
RO45	20.4786	21.8207	.4979	.5609
RO47	21.1111	21.1686	.5015	.5540

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 117.0

N of Items = 8

Alpha = .6295

APPENDIX 8.1

QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

(Chapter Eight: Section 8.2)

(Pages 373 - 426)

8. 2**QUALI ATIVE DATA ANALYSIS
(Chapter 8: Section 8. 2)**

The numbering of the items below follows the numbering system used in Chapter Eight. . Part Two of Chapter Eight is placed in the Appendices, but its numbering is in keeping with the content numbering of Chapter Eight. Tables in the section follow the chapter number, eg., the first table is numbered TABLE 8.2.1. This arrangement has been made to avoid confusion over numbering. APPENDIX 8. 1 stands within the numbering system for Appendices

8.2.1 Career Orientation

- 8.2.1.1 The Career Choice of the Participants
- 8.2.1.2 The Demographics of the Participants
- 8.2.1.3 The Career Orientation of the Participants
- 8.2.1.4 Career Orientation in a South African Context

8.2.2 Role Perceptions

- 8.2.2.1 The Perception of Strategic Human Resource Management
- 8.2.2.2 The Experience of Role Ambiguity
- 8.2.2.3 The Experience of Role Conflict
- 8.2.2.4 The Experience of Role Overload

8.2.3 Work related Stress Perceptions

- 8.2.3.1 Introduction
- 8.2.3.2 Changed Emphasis in Role of Human Resource Practitioner
- 8.2.3.3 Other Sources of Job Related Stress
- 8.2.3.4 Role Stress and Work Related Stress
- 8.2.3.5 The Influence of Career Orientation on Work Related Stress
- 8.2.3.6 Personal Values as a Source of Work Related Stress
- 8.2.3.7 Relation of Responses to Burnout Categories
- 8.2.3.8 General Health and Perceived Stress Levels
- 8.2.3.9 Organisational Attitudes Towards Employees Experiencing Stress
- 8.2.3.10 General Observations on Stress Perceptions

8.2.4 Ambiguity in Human Resource Management and Related Stress

- 8.2.4.1 The Existence of the Dilemma in Human Resource Management
- 8.2.4.2 The Contribution of Ambiguity to Work Related Stress
- 8.2.4.3 Concluding Observation

APPENDIX 8. 1

8. 2 QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS (SECTION 8. 2 OF CHAPTER EIGHT)

This section categorises, summarises and analyses the data obtained from the interviews with the sample of thirty participants. This presentation follows the structure of the three part interview questionnaire presented in Chapter Seven: Data Gathering Instruments: Section 7.2. Chapter Six : Section 7.2.2 provides the structural basis on which the data was collected and recorded . The four stage format of data classification outlined in Chapter Six has been applied to the recorded interview data whereby, for example, in terms of categorisation of the data, the three major factors of role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload provide the categories for role stress analysis.

The three sets of data analysed focus on the three main variables:

- * **career orientation**
- * **role perceptions**
- * **stress perceptions**

Appendix M provides a sample of the recorded transcripts from which data the responses were classified, analysed and interpreted.

The **table numbering** used in this appendix report follows the numbering of Chapter Eight to avoid the confusion of duplicating section numbers in Chapter Eight . Thus the Appendix 8.1 has a numbering system in accordance with its position in the chapter as Section 8. 2. which labels, for example, the first table used in this appendix as Table 8.2.1 and the second, Table 8.2.2.

8.2.1 CAREER ORIENTATION

This analysis of the career orientation data is based on the interviewees' recorded comments when asked for their understanding of the outcome of their score on the Career Orientation Inventory (COI). They were asked whether the finding represented an accurate representation of their main career orientation. The discussion was not in depth such as would be recommended if the purpose was to establish the actual career anchor.

The interview questions (See Appendix D) was designed to elicit confirmation or otherwise of the classification arrived at by the scoring and to establish whether their career orientation had influence on their function as a HRP.

8.2.1.1 The Career Choice of Participants

A significant number of the thirty interviewed indicated that they entered HRM by “accident” or “default”. The break down reveals twenty one in this category and only eight by first career choice. This is significant as it reveals that 70% of those interviewed did not make HRM a first choice. Career changes are not uncommon, but the high percentage among HRPs are grounds for further research.

The reasons given for their decision to become HRPs vary and reveal no dominant purpose. The motivations provided include, “for better pay”, “greater opportunity for advancement”, “being a HRP would enable me to make a contribution to the improvement of people’s lives”. Those who chose HRM as a first choice did so for reasons such as, “like working with people”, “assisting people within an organisation”, “wanted to do something with people”, “wanted to deal with people in everyday working conditions, but not as a psychologist working with pathologies”, “at university I decided I wanted to be in a position where I could change and influence things”.

These explanations offered by those who made a first choice decision for HRM indicate a more employee orientated vocational perspective than those who later decided on becoming a HRP, where the same commitment to employee well being is not as evident. Out of the thirty interviewees, only a third expressed an employee orientation. This observation may be a reflection on the more business orientated perspective currently demanded from HRPs. However, none of the reasons given by the interviewees suggest that at the time of the decision there was the same level of understanding of the nature of the hard business realities encountered by current HRPs. The interview data indicates that now there is a recognition of the major changes that have taken place in HRM orientation not foreseen at the time of their entry into the practice of HRM. (Refer Section 8.2.2: Role Perceptions).

The following breakdown (Table 8. 2.1) reveals the previous career choice of those who did not have HRP as a starting career.

TABLE 8. 2.1

PREVIOUS CAREER CHOICE OF HRPs

<u>Career Choice</u>	<u>Number</u>
Line management	5
Teaching	6
Law	2
Government admin.	2
Social work	1
Trade union organiser	1
HR secretary	1
Other	3
Unrecorded	1
Total	<u>22</u>

8.2.1.2 The Biographics of the Participants

Appendix I provides the questionnaire applied to collect this data.

In terms of **years of work experience** the mean of the thirty interviewees was 23.7 years and the range 12 to 44 years. A further indication of the maturity level of the sample are the age statistics of the interviewees.

The mean **age** was 44.9 years and the range 31 to 62 years. For black HRPs the mean years of work experience was 17.9 years and the range 12 to 28 years. The mean age for black HRPs was 40.5 years and the range from 32 to 50 years. The black means are slightly lower than those of the white group. The sample indicates extensive work experience and mature age ranges. These maturity levels show that the study sample was well above the ten years work experience recommended by Professor Schein for the career anchor to have developed.

The length of work experience and age suggests considerable career stability among the participants and that their contribution would come from many years of work experience. From the Schein perspective they qualify as sound candidates for assessment of their career orientation and career anchor. They may thus be considered as good candidates for career orientation assessment.

In terms of **gender** there were 21 males and 9 females, resulting in just over double male representation. This is reflective of the greater dominance of males in the more senior management levels.

The **ethnic** balance of 19 whites reflects the traditional weighting of whites in senior management, but also indicates the trend towards the appointment of black persons to senior positions in HRM, which is moving towards reversing the order in HRM

8.2.1.3 The Career Orientation of Participants

The interviews provided opportunity for respondents to comment on their scored career orientation in the quantitative exercise. This opportunity follows the Schein recommendation of the need for respondents to discuss the findings as part of the process of clarifying their career anchor. This section analyses and comments on responses to certain issues related to career choice. Other issues related to career orientation, personal values and perception of the role of the HRP to the business are identified and analysed in the sections on Role Perceptions and Stress Perceptions

Table 8. 2.2 depicts the classification of how participants assessed themselves.

TABLE 8.2.2

IDENTIFIED CAREER ORIENTATION

	<u>Category</u>	Asian Male	Black Female	Black Male	White Female	White Male	<u>Total</u>
C10	Tech/Funct	-	1	2	-	2	5
C11	Gen Mgt	-	-	1	1	-	2
C12	Auto/Indep	-	-	1	1	2	4
C13	Sec/Stabl	* 1	-	-	-	1	2
C14	Entre/Creat	-	-	2	-	-	2
C15	Serv/Dedic	-	-	2	2	1	5
C16	Pure Chall	-	1	1	1	2	5
C17	Life Style	-	-	-	2	3	5
	Totals	1	2	9	7	11	30

* This assessment not confirmed with interviewee.

Key:

- C10 Technical/Functional Competence
- C11 General Managerial Competence
- C12 Autonomy/Independence
- C13 Security/Stability
- C14 Entrepreneurial Creativity
- C15 Service/Dedication to a Cause
- C16 Pure Challenge
- C17 Lifestyle

Observations on Identified Career Orientations of Participants (Table 8.2.2)

Although the number of interviewees is small some observations may be made.

- * No dominant career orientation category emerges from among the participants
- * Despite the small sample some **observations and extrapolations** may be attempted. The identified career orientation of the participants is wide with four categories each comprising five respondents and three categories each comprising two respondents. This spread over of the eight career orientation categories suggests that HRP's are not limited to a few dominant career orientations.

- i. The five who identified '**technical/functional**' as their career orientation reflect those who are driven by the desire to provide technical and functional competence and efficiency as their prime motive.
- ii. Only one black male and one white female reflect a '**general management**' orientation. Significantly, six of the nine black interviewees stated that they had been approached or would consider a move into a line management position. Line management traditionally carries more status and has greater opportunities for advancement than remaining within HRM, even in the current environment where HRM is regarded as having moved closer to the core of business operations. The profile of the study sample suggests that due to the longer and more senior level of management experience enjoyed by black HRPs as against other black managers they may have the confidence to foresee a wider future for themselves. However, the career orientations of the black participants did not signal such an orientation. The same confidence in their future is not noted among the white male respondents. It may be contended that although the opportunities for black persons to move into general management positions is available, this factor does not appear to have influenced their career orientation score.
- iii. Four respondents were '**autonomy/independence**' orientated. Opportunities for autonomous and independent action have not been the traditional action options for HRPs. It is reasonable to assume that individuals so orientated may find their jobs do not allow for much autonomy of action. This may be due to the current focus of business on competition, survival, cutting costs and similar demands of the business. From the interviews it emerged that autonomous action was not an option, other than in one case where the participant had achieved considerable success because his company had trusted him to deliver results due to his above average IT skills upon which they depended.
- iv. Only one white male revealed a '**security and stability**' orientation. However, from the interview discussions it was noted that future security was a concern for white males in the 45 year and over age group, with one white identifying it as his main driver and four white males indicating that 'security/stability' was the second most significant career orientation. The study suggests the presence of job insecurity among white males over 45 years of age. This insecurity is not evident among black respondents other than one who had been retrenched before and whose company was going through a merger, but who had clear plans as to the route he would follow if he was again retrenched.
- v. '**Entrepreneurial creativity**' was the focus of two black males. The historical analysis model used in the study focussed on the entrepreneurial interpretation of evolving events to explain current HRM. This feature is not reflected strongly in the responses of participants. The entrepreneurial focus of black participants may be a reflection of their greater appreciation of the many significant changes that need to be brought about within the current business environment to achieve

equity in employment and the need for creative ways of bringing black employees more actively into participating in main stream business. To achieve this objective, innovative methods need to be sought, which would be a strong feature of entrepreneurial HRM within the South African context.

- vi Five participants (16.7%) identified ‘**service**’ as their main orientation which suggests that ‘service’ is still a driving factor among some HRPs. The interviews revealed that the concept of providing a caring service for the needs of employees had become submerged for the most part by the harder elements of the demand to reduce costs, although the AIDS epidemic has forced care for employees back on the ‘service’ agenda of many organisations. The interview data overwhelmingly suggested that the realities of business demands were accepted by HRPs. None indicated that they felt urged to resign and find other opportunity to express their service orientation. They appeared to find fulfilment whenever they could assist persons with particular needs in whatever way was possible within the limits provided by the organisation
- vii ‘**Pure challenge**’ and ‘**life style**’ each represent 16.7% of the respondents. ‘Lifestyle’ features five white males and females. Other responses in the interviews suggest that leisure activity, living environment, eg., remaining in Durban and not moving to Johannesburg, family arrangements, play a strong part among whites. The same lifestyle orientation was not observed among black participants. The responses do not suggest that black interviewees were less caring over family matters, but the same leisure and environment focus was not evident in their responses

8.2.1.4 Career Orientation in a South African Context

Of the ten black respondents, five indicated they had reservations over the outcome of the scoring assessment, believing that it did not reflect adequately their perception of where they were coming from in their own career orientation. Those expressing discomfort with the concept of one dominant career orientation, preferred rather to acknowledge numerous orientations.

In contrast only four of the nineteen white respondents had reservations over the assessment, three being male and one female. Two comments appear relevant.

First, is whether the conceptualisation of career orientation and career anchors, and the perception of “career”, are inherently different within a black African cultural context when compared to a white western orientated culture where the COI originated. The wording of the COI questionnaire would then also become a matter for consideration in the African environment. The debate in South Africa concerning culturally biased intelligence and aptitude tests may have significance and by implication the Career Orientation Inventory may need to be examined for cultural bias.

Second, is the concern of some black HRP’s that they should display other orientations, eg.,

more 'service' orientation. The interview discussions show an acceptance of the need for a clear business orientation within current HRM. However, the background of those interviewed was the 'struggle for freedom' orientation of the 1980's and early 1990's where there was an identification by many black HRPs with 'the workers' and the need for HRPs at the time to be seen to be influencing the company to meet black worker demands. These same HRPs now find themselves in higher management positions more closely aligned with organisational needs and distanced from closer identification with workers and their unions.

The majority of the thirty respondents welcomed the career orientation assessment as an accurate reading of their own perception of their career orientation. Some declared it very accurate and described it as 'quite a revelation'. Many stated they welcomed the exercise for its insight into their career.

8.2.2 ROLE PERCEPTIONS

This section analyses the data obtained from the interviews with the thirty participants in relation to that part of the questionnaire focussed on Role Perceptions. (Appendix E). The analysis presents the issues raised in the interviews in the following order.

- * Perceptions of Strategic Human Resource Management
- * The Experience of Role Ambiguity
- * The Experience of Role Conflict
- * The Experience of Role Overload

The format used in the analysis in this section records first relevant sample quotations followed by interpretative comment. The purpose of this order is to maintain focus on the interviewee's perception prior to offering interpretative observation.

The responses recorded were of such a nature that enabled an assessment to take place of the level of consciousness of role stress issues for each participant as observed in Appendix 8. 14.

8.2.2.1 PERCEPTION OF STRATEGIC HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

The interviewees perception of recent changes in Human Resource Management (HRM) was established at the commencement of the discussion to establish the participant's interpretation of the current concept and practice of strategic HRM in order to clarify the context for the role of the HRP.

A contemporary interpretation of HRM was discussed in Chapter Two where SHRM was observed to have moved to a more central position within organisations. The contemporary HRP was required to be committed to the key strategies and core values of the organisation and its bottom line success.

The concept of SHRM as the predominant interpretation of HRM was supported by the participants. The only respondent who did not express himself in terms of the current terminology was due for retirement within the year. The acceptance of current HRM practice is illustrated below with a range of quotations. The participants perceptions of the significance of SHRM provides an important basis for understanding and interpreting their experience of role stress.

The question asked was:

“Has the role of the HRP changed for you over the past five to ten years. If so, in what way? Is there a different emphasis which requires you to see your role differently?”

An extended sample of the perceptions of the participants follows:

“HR is to be seen from the business point of view.”

“HR has changed. It has moved from a peripheral function to an integral part of the business.”

“Our role now focusses on strategic issues to the business.”

“Now we have to be part of the competitiveness of the business.”

“We are now business driven.”

“It is a lot more stressful to have to justify your work by showing how it adds value.”

“We now have to show the value of our role.”

“The emphasis today is on adding value to the business through our contribution to management.”

“Our MD says all that HR does is spend money. He says that we must prove to him that we have value.”

These comments confirm a recognition that HRM has a newly defined focus which implies that at a time in the past HRM and the role of the HRP was interpreted differently. Considerable pressure is on HRPs now to show that they add value to the business operation. No evidence was offered that this new role emphasis was being questioned or found unacceptable

Some black HRPs felt it necessary to explain their role in this new focus within SHRM as it appeared to have had implications for them personally.

“One saw oneself earlier as a spokesman for the people. We were employed to be that. We had to approach management. We were employed to fulfil that objective. One had a conflict where one saw things that should not happen to people but could not correct it. My responsibility was to provide organisational service to the people and from the people to management. My role now is to ensure that the business meets its objectives. Not just a spokesman for the people. I see that change in me as growth. I am not an activist now but part of the business.”

This response is indicative of the changed perception of the role of the HRP, especially of black HRPs, and an acceptance of new expectations of the role of the HRP. The comment suggests personal values are involved and that black HRPs found themselves having to reassess how they

viewed their role in light of the new South Africa.

This experience is reflective of some significant contextual changes in South Africa since 1994, where black HRPs are able more openly to express their first commitment to be to the success of the business, particularly as they now occupy senior positions within organisations. The transformation process for some may be accompanied by considerable stress and is taken note of as a potential source of role stress and possible burnout. White HRPs were not subjected to the same pressures as their black counterparts, although they may be subjected now to other stressors which will be identified elsewhere.

8.2.2.2 THE EXPERIENCE OF ROLE AMBIGUITY

Role Ambiguity was defined in this study in terms of lack of clarity and uncertainty over the precise requirements of the job. (See Chapter Five 5.3.2.1). Three areas of key interaction where lack of clarity may occur are identified. These are relationships with the 'boss', line management and employees, where mutual uncertainty over role expectations may lead to role ambiguity. Role ambiguity as a contributor to role stress among HRPs was observed to be a feature in many of the responses.

Appendix 8. 14 summarises in table form the assessments made by number of counts of classified responses

Relationship with Boss

Relationship with the respondent's boss was noted to vary and responses have been categorised into positive and negative relationships to clarify the observations.

(i) Positive Relationship:

Of the twenty five usable responses on issues of role ambiguity between themselves and their boss, fifteen (50%) were positive expressions of understanding. The following quotations are provided to illustrate a more or less non-ambiguous relationship.

"I have a special relationship with my boss (the CEO) and value that. He understands the role of HR. In some respects he still has the older view of HR and as long as I satisfy him by getting all the basics right in the business by being efficient in what HR has traditionally done, I know that when I get out there and initiate new ideas I will have his support."

"There is no conflict or misunderstanding between my boss (HR Director) and myself."

"My boss (Regional Director) is very clear on my role. He has trust in me. When he goes

away I act for him in conjunction with the Regional Financial Director. I think he sees me as his eyes and ears.”

Such relationship do not exclude disagreement and elements of role ambiguity, but a trust feature is apparent that provides for support and a significant reduction of uncertainty with a resultant feeling of confidence.

(ii) Negative relationship

On the other hand, the illustrations below indicate the difficulties experienced by ten (33.3%) whose relationship with their boss showed a negative perception characterised by uncertainty.

“I don’t think my boss (HR Director) understands my role. Being at board level may require taking more the business stance. I think the previous HR director was eased out as he was less inclined to follow the business line.”

In this case the company had been through a process of restructure and retrenchment to achieve greater business efficiency and the HRP had found the process particularly uncomfortable due to her ‘service’ orientation.

“I don’t think my boss (HR Director) understood my role. He is not bothered. He is production driven and generally manages by avoidance. Leave it alone and hope it will go away and only do things when they have to be done. I have had a lack of support from him.”

Here the incumbent was moved to another function within HR. The difference in interpretation of roles was too severe and had necessitated a transfer.

“I don’t think my boss understands my role. I report to the Regional HR Manager. But I have no authority. This is one reason why I will go.”

In this case the lack of certainty in expectation was also influenced by the respondents sense of the failure of the boss and the organisation to take into account the ‘African’ way of dealing with staff and disciplinary issues. This served to widen the lack of certainty of role function.

“I know I have to show initiative because the company looks to me for that in my field. But I need guidelines from my boss as to what he wants me to do.”

Here is a clear call for more direct guidance due to lack of role clarity from the boss.

These negative responses reflect a sense of frustration and at times resentment, arising from a perceived lack of role clarity from the boss creating the experience of role ambiguity.

Relationship with Line Management

Of the twenty eight usable responses recorded, eleven (36.7 %) expressed strong negative elements in the relationship with line management..

“I do have a problem with line managers who do not understand my role. Some are uncertain as to some of my role functions because of the many changes taking place. There is some confusion between my role and the role of the line manger. The equity plans that need to be finalised by the 1st June are another element creating uncertainty because we do not know where things are going.”

The many changes taking place within organisations and HR practice in particular, in this instance legislated equity plan requirements, are implicated as sources of uncertainty. In this company significant retrenchments had taken place and parts of the company had been either sold off or shut down. The insecurity within the organisation appeared to aggravate role uncertainty and ambiguity creating the opportunity for greater role stress.

“Line management believe that HR should be accountable for handling all people issues, whereas I believe line managers should be responsible for all aspects of managing their staff, like discipline and loans and so on which approach we recently introduced. Our (*my*) relationship with line management is not always that good because of this issue.”

“There are some who do not understand my role. Mostly they are traditional line managers who still like to see me as a traditional personnel manager.”

“With the restructure a change in my role has occurred and I am now in the process of re-educating people. I think my boss and colleagues understand my role, but not the depot managers who are affected by the change of HR orientation. Part of the problem is that now we need a different type as depot manager.... All this means that my role is not always clear especially when they have to make decisions on matters with which they are not comfortable, usually the more sensitive people issues.”

The three illustrations further suggest that uncertainty is ascribed to numerous changes within organisations which have affected the traditionally accepted understanding of the role of the HRP. Such changes appear to have created or increased the lack of role clarity and relationships being strained.

“I think there is still some uncertainty with my role with some of the Divisional MDs in terms of where my bounds of authority start and end.”

“We recently conducted a survey and it emerged that some middle and lower managers do not understand the role of the HRP. These managers see the role of the HRP as a management policing one.”

These two illustrations suggests considerable effort was needed to clarify the role of the HRP to reduce the uncertainty of understanding.

“I am the first HR manager here. Previously there was an HR Officer. There are definitely people who don’t understand my role and they are largely line managers. I believe they need to practice HR in their own function. They only want me when the shit hits the fan and they are in trouble. There is no sense of HR strategy driving things.”

Here the response suggests major relationship difficulties with line managers, worsened by the fact that the organisation was going through merger negotiations which appears to have intensified the lack of congruity between the HR function and line management. The HRPs inability to resolve role ambiguity and other issues lead to his statement to the interviewer that he would leave the organisation out of frustration.

Relationship with Employees

Not as much clarity emerged from the interviews describing role ambiguity perceptions in relation to employees/workers as with boss and line managers. Only seventeen classifiable responses were established, of which six were strongly negative and eleven not suggesting lack of role clarity.

“At junior level we are seen as agony aunts for people to come and cry to, but who do not find us fulfilling that expectation adequately. We are here for people to talk to but have other functions. I think part of the problem is that we have not communicated adequately enough our function that we are here to add value to the organisation. We are catalysts for change and that does not leave many people happy. Change is threatening to many in this organisation.” (Financial sector)

The changed role of the HRP which may not be accepted by many employees is seen to lead to role ambiguity and a resultant failure to deliver necessary services in the view of these employees.

“These parties (*political*) in the council (*regional*) do not understand my role. There are those that feel as a black man I should be on the side of black people in disputes, promotions, equity, etc.,. The unions do not want me to talk on behalf of management or represent management. This whole thing can have serious complications for me. I see my role as trying to discover the truth in a grievance or disciplinary hearing.”

Working within the public service creates its own role ambiguity problems for the HRP in an endeavour to remain neutral. It is, however, still the same issue of perception or misconception of the role of the HRP, in this instance, due to the political orientation of the employees concerned.

Some General Observations on Role Ambiguity

- (i) When the overall response of interviewees was analysed it emerged that fourteen were strongly affected by role ambiguity issues and fifteen were not overly concerned by role

ambiguity tension..

- (ii) It was observed that respondents appeared to experience about the same amount of role ambiguity arising from bosses as from line managers and that they were not necessarily the same respondents.
- (iii) The interviews did not reveal as much clarity when commenting on role perceptions in relation to employees/workers.
- (iv) The uncertainty over role expectations appeared to relate mostly to the significant rate of change required in organisations in contemporary South Africa. The implementation of these changes was being carried out at middle and lower management levels where the HRPs greatest daily interactions occurred. From the interviews it was observed that it was at this level that the greater level of role uncertainty existed.. It may be argued that role ambiguity is attributable to the phenomenon of the required speed of transformation within South Africa which affects role expectations..
- (v) The quotations from the qualitative data reveal the complexity of human interaction within organisations. They illustrate the multiplicity of threads that are woven into the fabric of interactions in any one role, in this case, the experience of role ambiguity in HRPs.

8.2.2.3 THE EXPERIENCE OF ROLE CONFLICT

Role conflict in this study has been defined in terms of the personal conflict arising from situations where if the person meets the demands of one party it is difficult or impossible to comply with the demands of one or more other parties. In this study it is the HRP who is faced with the dilemma of opposing demands, creating role conflict. (See Chapter Five: 5.3.2.2)

Role conflict expresses itself in the varying experiences of the HRP. These role conflict experiences may be felt with varying levels of intensity depending on the HRPs own perceptions, values, and the culture of the organisation within which the HRP works.

Six broad areas of role conflict experience have been identified and analysed. These are:

- * Being 'in the middle'
- * Role conflict with line management
- * Person-role conflict (personal values)
- * Retrenchment in relation to role conflict
- * Boundary crossing
- * Particular pressure on the HRP

The first five of these experiences are classified and Appendix 8. 14 summarises the assessments made by number of counts of classified responses. In the text below the first the sample quotations are provided followed by an interpretative observation.

Being 'in the middle'

Of the thirty respondents fifteen (50 %) experienced a high level of role conflict resulting from being 'in the middle'.

Responses appeared to be determined by the interviewee's own perception of the nature of the role of the HRP, their interpretation of HRM, and their own confidence in handling conflict situations.

The question asked was:

"How often do you find yourself as a HRP being 'caught in the middle' between the different role players in your organisation who make conflicting demands on you"? (ie., if you meet one demand, it is difficult or impossible to meet other demands, which could be from one or more persons).

From the responses three perspectives emerge. First, those that accept an in-between status as part of the nature of the job; second, those that perceive their role as identified more strongly with management; third, those who find a compromise role between the previous two approaches.

(i) The nature of the job

“It is the nature of the job. It is also how I look at the job. We are supposed to be dealing with conflicting interests.”

“Yes, I am caught in the middle. HRPs are mediators. We are called in for that purpose. We deal in the dynamics of conflict. The HRP more so than any other role player in the business has a role often to be in the middle.”

“We are in between management and employees.”

“I am often in the middle when trying to play a neutral role.. We have to support the business, but we also need to be there for the employee”

“I am often very much in the middle. In fact all the time. I will be in the middle because I need to ensure that fairness is in operation.”

Here there is an acceptance of a specific role for the HRP to be between management and workers. It is seen as the nature of the job and has to be coped with and compromises made in the interests of both parties. Role conflict is inherent and accepted. Neither of the contending parties is entirely satisfied with compromises. This ‘in between’ role concept is one stage removed from the earlier view of the ‘welfare’ orientated HR person whose function was largely to represent the interests of the employees to the company.

(ii) Not ‘in between’

“You are not in between. At executive level you are part of management. You have no option. Lower down at the interface you are an important go between. There is greater understanding of employees. You would not survive at the top if you went against management’s objectives. You are there to obtain profits and business.”

“I do not see myself as in the middle. My position is quite clear. I am a management representative.”

“I do not like to be in the middle..... I do not like being the ham in the sandwich.”

“The middle experience is about loyalty to the company and where one stands. My loyalty is to the company.

These HRPs believe that their first loyalty is to the company. They represent management and the interests of the business. This interpretation of the role of the HRP may not always be understood or accepted by workers/employees/staff who may expect the HRP to propagate their interests as a first function.. HRPs who interpret their role function in this way appear to be more closely identified with the concept of SHRM. Such role acceptance does not imply that these HRPs would suffer less role conflict or burnout.

(iii) Somewhere in-between

“I see myself as a manager and a representative of the employer. If I have a point to make I make it in our management meetings. My role is to assist managers. It is to provide guidance to the company. Such guidance may be interpreted as in the interests of the union. But I give it in the best long term interests of the company. It is based on ensuring that justice is done. But justice may not be in the interests of profit.”

“Employees may like to see me in the middle because then I can help them, eg., with a loan. But I am not in the middle. I am a consultant on the side. Management want you on their side and so do employees.”

“Initially, I was in the middle, but I have now worked on my status and have worked on the hearts and minds. I have established good working relationships with all parties initially by much networking...”

“I don’t think I get caught in the middle as much as earlier. My role has changed. I am not just a problem solver of issues. I do not allow the monkey to be put on my shoulder and get caught out. I don’t solve line managers problems. They solve their own problems.”

“I am often in the middle. The restructuring process within the business, which is an ongoing feature, places me in the middle. I understand the business need to restructure and once I am satisfied with the reasons I am ready to move on retrenchments.”

The third stance suggests that some HRPs endeavour to attain a posture which enables them to ‘hang loose’ and then to act as best they read the situation and interpret the issues at the time. Such stance could increase role conflict as the parties involved are not sure where the HRP stands. It is a more ‘political’ stance which allows for more room to manoeuvre in and find solutions to complex problems.

Role Conflict with Line Management:

Of the thirty respondents who indicated they were aware of the issue of relationships with line managers, with eighteen not expressing a sense of the relationship being one of role conflict.

Conflict over role expectations may arise within management over the interpretation of responsibilities. The level of such role conflict may be due to numerous causes.

“Before I arrived the company had committed itself to TQM (a productivity programme). Communication is essential in TQM. Many managers feel TQM is a waste of time. Now the company wants me to be responsible for TQM. But it is a management thing. Line management do not understand that the broad issues are people issues and for TQM to succeed it is for them to be involved in its communication. They see me as responsible for communication and for TQM and tell me I do not push hard enough. But I do not own TQM. They should own it.”

Here the conflict emerges over whose function it is to head the programme. The frustration and resentment of the HRP is clear as he tries to resolve the manoeuvring of line management .

“The previous director used to attend shop steward - management meetings and his explanations to questions were not always open and transparent. The shops stewards, who are not fools, would obtain the real facts. I would then find myself having to defend management on an issue I knew the Director had misled them on. I could not compromise management. I ended up compromising myself trying to explain what the director had said.”

Here the role conflict is seen to be creating a conflict of personal credibility and integrity.

Person -Role Conflict (Personal values)

A feature of role conflict is the level of an individual's inner tension created by the person's own value system being in conflict with or compromised by organisational decisions which they are required to support.. Seventeen (56.7 %) of the participants were disconcerted by experiences where their personal values were challenged or where they felt personally compromised by decisions within the organisation. Eleven (36.7 %) were aware of the issue of values but had no experience which they felt significantly compromised their personal values .

No discussion was entered into on actual personal values on the basis that personal values could vary widely, depending on different family, cultural and religious backgrounds and experience. The purpose was to establish whether the participants personal values were a source of role conflict.

Three categories were established from the responses

(i) Not Compromised

This category felt no significant value compromise had occurred between personal and organisational values.

“I am lucky that our group values tie in very much with my own and I find little to create tension.”

“There is no conflict between my role and my values.”

“I have my own moral code and I think I work with decent people so I do not have a major problem. I think this company works off a fundamental basis of respect for each other. I can't recall an incident where I felt my values had been tested.”

“I have to do what I believe in. I have not done anything that is against my principles. I have not found here that my values have been compromised by the need for things to

make business sense. I don't have a clash of values."

These illustrations suggest that the participants are at ease with themselves in relation to company values and ethics.

(ii) Compromised

This category (56.7 %) felt their values were compromised in some way by organisational actions and indicate a level of role conflict.

"I have problems with doing things that may not be congruent with my values or that is unfair or unreasonable. One does not find this difficulty as much in engineering or perhaps accounting".

Here a previous line manager perceives the role of the HRP as operating within a much more complex environment where his values and personal integrity are being tested in a far more subtle manner.

"I operate off a sense of fairness as a value and there are many occasions when that value is contradicted within the company. The job does impact on my personal values. For instance, we had a manager appointed over my head and against all the accepted procedures which enable such appointments to retain credibility of the system and my own credibility. All these create stress.... There can be a conflict between the company core values and my intrinsic values."

"I try to apply my personal value which is to believe in people until they let you down. (Illustration provided of a retrenchment exercise). We did not give enough time for belief in those people to come through. I felt compromised in that situation. We effectively got rid of them prematurely and then to the cost of the business. They actually were very competent people. The business was not doing well and bottom line results were being called for and they were not given time to deliver. The board panicked, I think. I felt badly let down."

"I think the company is making good profit, yet I am required to settle (*wage negotiations*) at levels which is squeezing wage increases unnecessarily tightly. This does create for me from time inner tension."

"I hesitate a bit at the relationship between personal values and company requirements. But, yes, when it comes to some retrenchments, and I have been required to do many as it is a feature of this business, I have an issue when it comes to long service people. I sold (*them*) a career in the company that does not apply any longer. We make a big thing of a career with a future when we recruit people. Maybe I should not have done that in the interviews. Today we can not guarantee long service. My reaction stems from a sense of fairness. The HR job is about fairness and it fits my values."

“In my previous job (*a parastatal*) there were unethical practices which lead me to resign my job because the way they did business conflicted with my values.”

Those who felt their values had been compromised to a greater or lesser extent may find they are trapped by the pressure within organisations to meet bottom line requirements at all costs in the interests of company success. Resignation may be the only, but unacceptable option within an employment climate not kindly disposed, especially to older HRPs.

(iii) Specific Issues

This category identifies specific issues with which some HRPs were confronted.

“I am firmly committed to employment equity (*affirmative action, black advancement*) and feel that the organisation has not done enough to train and develop higher level black staff and management. That development for me is a fundamental personal value, not just a project.”

A specific policy and now legal prescription takes on for a black HRP a matter of personal moral value of importance, which leads to internal role conflict when not sufficiently actively pursued by the organisation.

“I come from the trade union movement. I was approached by the company to join them and I had to search within myself and spoke to people like Sexwale about feeling guilty about leaving the activist trade union movement and deserting my brothers and sisters. They encouraged me saying, that it was important to be part of the transformation process from within business. ...It has not been easy. I was involved in the merger of two operations. We had to move from traditional labour intensive operation to capital intensive to enable the company to compete at world class level. We had two hundred retrenchments. I was able to use my trade union links to facilitate a relatively peaceful transition. I see two important drives which is why I am in HR: one is to participate in the change of people by transformation; and two, is the success of the company. Retrenchments are the most difficult thing. I think this is where it conflicts with my ‘service orientation’. I know what it does to a person in that they may not get another job. We have tried to ease the problem with various activities and training arrangements for those to be retrenched.”

Here the inner conflict is acknowledged by the participant (‘it has not been easy’), together with rationalisations to ease the level of inner value conflict. The mention of the ‘service orientation’ is significant. In this illustration the service element is specifically identified as adding to the inner value conflict.

“My values are under pressure a lot. We all come from different backgrounds, cultures, religions. All have our own pride which create different values. You white people want to move quickly and push things through and get it out of the way. But that is not real for me. I believe in fairness and my fairness is about what is real for me. In a dismissal case I

will sit for days to get to the bottom of something, because that is how it should be for me. I don't buy the cut and dried approach."

Inner values for this respondent are ascribed to an African culture base and resentment is expressed that another culture (white) was perceived to require him to act in a way that created inner value conflict for him. This comment illustrates the complexity for HRP's operating within what is perceived to be a foreign organisational culture which is the source of role conflict.

Each of these three illustrations draws attention to the experience of black HRP's. It suggests the need for further research into the cultural source of role conflict.

(iv) Retrenchment in Relation to Role Conflict

The most unpleasant issue reported facing HRP was retrenchment. Retrenching people was recognised as part of the job conditioned by the nature of the business environment. The retrenchment issue was observed in this analysis to be a significant contributor to role conflict. Fifteen (50 %) of participants referred to company retrenchments as an issue which had role conflict implications for them. Not all the HRP's interviewed had been involved in retrenchments.

"In a retrenchment, management says to HR 'we must retrench x number of people'. The shop stewards say 'no retrenchments'. HR is told to sort it out. Management do not get involved in the negotiation and yet I think the shop stewards have a point that needs to be heard."

HRP's may attempt by skilful negotiation to find ways of lessening the impact of retrenchment on retrenchees and thereby providing some relief for their own personal concerns, but they usually have to meet the company demand for staff reduction. Satisfying one party will not satisfy the other. The inherent conflict for HRM lies between the needs of employees and the demands of the organisation. Role conflict for the HRP who is sensitive to employee needs is not avoided and may be experienced as inherent within the role of the HRP with role stress consequences.

"Over the years I have been here we have reduced the business from xxxxx to yyyyy (*now just over a third of its original size*) either by selling off or retrenching. This can be an emotional issue. But I manage it and do not let the emotion get to me. I suppose I have become a bit thick skinned and this worries me sometimes that I have become callous. If you don't shield yourself you can be affected. I deal with it professionally.. This unemotionality is a strength and a weakness. It has resulted in my being seen as uncompassionate. But as far as I can, I try to be fair in how we handle issues around job loss." ("xxxx" : Actual numbers have not been disclosed to protect possible identification of the source).

Here the need to implement organisational requirements result in the HRP being seen as uncompassionate within the organisation. The attempt to 'shield' oneself emotionally does not remove the role conflict although it may help protect against too much personal emotional cost.

“What I hate is the retrenchments and over the years I have been involved in many. In this industry if a company is not doing well they sell it or close it. I hate delivering bad news to people. I try to help as much as I can to assist those retrenched, but it does not take away the problem for me. In some respects I would give up this job because of retrenchments.”

The emotional toll on such HRP is clear to the point of entertaining resignation.

“Over four years we have retrenched xxxx people. Tossed them out. I have tried to use all the pretty words, but when you have people who have been with the company for 25 years it is hard. One day you are having lunch with someone and the next day you have to inform him he is retrenched.”

“We have had xxx retrenchments. I have had an AK pointed at my head, saying that if I go ahead with his retrenchment I am dead. I said, ‘Yes I am dead and you are in prison and the business will do what it needs to do to survive. Let us rather work this thing out.’ I created all sorts of ways of helping retrenchees with training, etc.,”

The three previous quotations illustrate the emotional intensity of the role conflict involved in company retrenchments. Role stress is evident. The HRP has to endure the anguish and anger of the recipient of the retrenchment message. That role conflict occurs may be inferred from the terms used to describe the activity, eg., ‘hate’, ‘tossed’, and the personal danger as in the AK incident. The fact that delivering bad news ‘goes with the territory’ does not lessen the role conflict.

“We have been losing people regularly all the time and now we have another major exercise coming up where retrenchments are involved. It is one of those things where business survival in our industry is concerned. I don’t think the (*chief executive*) is a people friendly person and one expects issues to arise. The tough decisions have to be made. But it does not get easier because I do see myself as people orientated. Business decisions conflict with people issues. It’s easier in Training and Development.”

The HRP who identifies himself as being ‘people orientated’, which implies being caring about people as individuals, can anticipate a higher level of role conflict when carrying out company retrenchment decisions, even though he/she may have been part of the decision making process to ensure the survival of the company. The fact that the exercise is carried out for company survival purposes does not remove the dilemma.

Boundary Crossing

A feature of the work of the HRP is crossing the boundary lines into the territory of other departments or domains of jurisdiction. Potentially this activity can lead to varying degrees of role conflict. Of the twenty five whose experience of boundary crossing was recorded, twelve (40 %) found it problematic and for thirteen (43.3 %) it was not an issue that affected them adversely.

The question asked was:

“The HR practitioner moves across departmental boundaries in his/her function. Does this boundary crossing have implications for you?” If so, could you illustrate where this happens and what are the implications for you? .

For some HRPs boundary crossing appears to have greater implications than it does for others. The company context and the personal interactive skills of the HRP were observed to be factors in dealing with the experience. However, the skill element, although observable in answers, is not dealt with as this study does not investigate personal skills, but rather endeavours to identify the presence and nature of the boundary crossing experience as a feature of role conflict and its implication for role stress.

Relationship difficulties brought on by ‘boundary crossing’ may be compounded during a transitional phase when responsibilities are shifted from the HRP to line management and reluctance over the move or inexperience on the part of the line manager may aggravate the relationship.

“Boundary crossing is a big issue. The line managers hate it because we are always doing it. It is a constant source of conflict. ‘Who is running this factory, HR or line management?’ has been a reaction. We had a go slow for two months and kept line management out of the issue because we (*HR function*) felt they would confuse the legal issues involved.”

This reaction reportedly arose where line management, in keeping with company policy, were responsible for issues previously the responsibility of the HR function, eg, disciplinary action and dismissals, but the HRP felt constrained to intervene to rescue situations where dismissals were falling foul of trade union reaction.

“This (*boundary crossing*) depends upon the dynamics of the relationships involved. Where the manager is feeling insecure or incompetent one is more likely to have a reaction with my presence. I think it may occur too when the line manager is not comfortable doing HR functions that once were done by HR, eg., running disciplinary hearings. Traditionally they gave the dirty stuff, stuff they did not want to do or what is unpleasant, to HR to handle. Now they are accountable and do not like it. My role is to support them in carrying out their full function, but not to do it for them.”

“Moving into other’s territory needs sensitive handling. If one deals with it correctly it is not a problem. If I have established good working relationships with colleagues in other departments it is much easier for me to get things done and there is no threat to them.”

“There are times when I am not always accepted when I enter another’s area. For

example, I recommended that a senior operator with 15 years experience be moved to a higher level where his diagnostic skills could be utilised on the production line. This was opposed because it was the traditional work area of an artisan. I was said to be coming with fuzzy HR ideas.”

“The crossing of boundaries is not a problem as it once may have been. HR dictates what to do and they (*line managers*) deliver within that context. (*the new HR policy on disciplinary action and dismissal*). There is still an element who feel, ‘who does HR think they are to tell us what to do’. They (*line managers*) had more power before., eg., to fire, which they do not have now. They must abide by the procedures or they end up in the CCMA.”

The emphasis in this illustration changed when line managers were required under a new dispensation to conform to an arrangement whereby the HRP had authority to intervene to save situations.

“When I go into some departments I think they view some of the things I do with suspicion. For example, I ask what qualifications a line manager has. Immediately they are suspicious that I have a hidden agenda and that I am looking at seeing whether they should be replaced. They feel insecure. Also they do not take appropriate disciplinary action and this ends up with their credibility not being in place when they want to act. Or they do the wrong things.”

“Turf protection by managers has been a bit of a problem, but it is getting sorted out by education and empowerment.”

“There are some line managers who ask what value you add when you are in their area. I think what happens is that when you start out there are suspicions, scepticism. One has to develop credibility. It gets better with time when they see you are assisting them- adding value, not just a cost. I work hard at relationships because when these get better the understanding and trust develops.”

“How you are accepted and treated depends upon yourself and I deal with suspicion by trying to build sound working relationships at all the different levels. I need to be objective and retain my integrity in this political environment.”(*Local Government*)

Tension arising from boundary crossing is a reality for many HRPs. Sensitivity surrounding this activity appears to increase during times of transition and uncertainty. Handing over of certain responsibilities to line managers may only shift the focus of pre-existing relationship difficulties.

Pressure on Black HRPs

As reported in Chapter Three, the black HRP has been the focus of particularly South African circumstances. Three participants commented on their experience.

“As a black man I think the black union expectation is that I should favour them even if they are in breach of some rule or policy.”

“Employees as a group create pressure. As a black man I am expected to champion their cause. I am not expected to say ‘no’ to their requests. If you can’t handle it you must go elsewhere - leave the job.”

“Employees want to see me (*a black HRP*) as representing their interests.”

The overhang of the history of the role of the black HRP up to the mid 1990's has left a heritage of expectation that they will continue to favour their black compatriots and retain the political ‘struggle’ identification. Where businesses are still largely white owned and the levels of senior management still heavily white orientated there may well be encouragement for the expectation of continued favour by black HRPs.

Black HRPs who are faced with this voiced or unvoiced pressure would experience an added element of role conflict. It emerges as an expression of the unique South African context within which HRPs function.

Some General Observations on Role Conflict

- (i) Whichever way HRPs choose to interpret their role, a greater or lesser degree of role conflict appears as an inevitable experience for most HRPs. For example, the competing interests of the various stakeholders in an organisations, inevitably places the HRP between labour and management, resulting in some form of role conflict situation.
- (ii) Contemporary HRM has moved to devolving onto line managers many of the traditionally conceived HRP functions. This role change creates confusion where the new functions have not been clearly agreed and accepted or even properly understood. Greater role conflict occurs where these devolved responsibilities have not been clearly defined.

8.2.2.4 THE EXPERIENCE OF ROLE OVERLOAD

Role overload was defined in this study as “when work requirements are so excessive they exceed the limits of time and/or ability” (see Chapter Five 5.3.2.3)

The question asked was:

“Can we have a look at your work load? What sort of work load would you like to have?”

Of the thirty participants, twenty two (73.3%) expressed the view that they experienced role overload for a variety of reasons. Eight indicated that their work load was not problematic.

The explanations for overload included five who stated that their work level was self generated and the work load was thus controllable, albeit high and pressurised. Ten believed the administrative element contributed unnecessarily to their work load suggesting that if it was reduced they would be able to give more time to make meaningful contributions to the organisation. In some cases restructuring and retrenchments had reduced HR staff resulting in a greater work load being placed on the respondents who had to make plans how to deal with the additional work load.. The company attitude appeared to be that it was up to the HRP to find ways of coping. In some cases individuals had made a decision not to spend unnecessarily long hours at work. No clear pattern emerged to explain the variety in the perception of work load

Such categorisations of work load are dependent upon a subjective interpretation by the individual. Their interpretation may be ascribed to numerous variables which it is not the purpose of this study to investigate. The focus in this study was to establish whether there was a link between the perception of role overload and the experience of role stress.

In two of the responses role underload emerged as a factor causing a certain amount of role stress. This role stress may have been due more to the threat of job loss due, in the one instance, to a pending merger, and in the other to a major cut back in operations ..

8.2.2.5 Concluding Comment of Role Stress Factors

As this is a South African study an essential context is the special pressures and expectations exerted on HRP in the process of carrying out their jobs which stem from the socio-political-economic factors at play over a prolonged period.. It has been suggested that the unique South African history has created a context which increases the role stress creating elements.

That many other professions may have similar job pressures does not detract from the evidence provided that HRPs experience role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload which incurs varying degrees of role stress

8.2.3 STRESS PERCEPTIONS

This section analyses and comments upon the interview data from the thirty participants in relation to their experience and perceptions of stress at work. The questionnaire used was discussed in Chapter Seven :7.2.3. (Appendix H)..

The numerous issues discussed are listed below.

- * Changed Emphasis in the Role of the HRP
- * Other Sources of Work Stress
- * Role Stress and Work Stress
- * Influence of Career Orientation on Work Stress
- * Personal Values as a Potential Source Work Stress
- * Relation of Responses to Burnout
- * General Health and Perceived Stress Levels
- * Organisational Attitude Towards Employees Experiencing Stress
- * General Observations on Work Stress

8.2.3.1 Introduction

Interviewees were asked to identify sources of stress at work and to illustrate the nature of the stress experienced. The discussion was based on ten questions designed to allow respondents the opportunity as HRPs to articulate their experience of stress in their work context. The set of questions in the previous section on Role Stress focussed on role issues affecting the three main role stress factors. The questions in this section seek respondent's experience on broader work stress issues affecting HRPs.

This part of the interview was introduced as "Stress Perceptions" and the term 'work stress' has been used in reporting. The term 'burnout' was not introduced in the interviews to avoid influencing the discussion with the sensitivities related to the nuances of popular conceptions of burnout. This is in keeping with Maslach's recommendation. (Maslach, 1996, p.7). However, burnout is used in this report to ensure that the condition being investigated is correctly ascribed. At times in the report the term 'work stress' is used to describe the condition in keeping with the discussion terminology. The term 'work-related stress' is reserved for a combination of role stress and burnout. The nuances implied in the terms used in the study are important to allow for an appropriate distinction between the conditions under discussion.

The purpose of this section was to investigate the wider sources of work stress and to seek the participants explanations of their experience in such a way as to allow an assessment to be made of the level of consciousness of work stress of each participant. Opportunity was provided for participants to comment on how they dealt with work stress as this information could provide additional insight into their consciousness of stress at work.

Demographic information on the participants was set out in Sect 8.2.1.2. where it was observed that the sample was of mature age and had considerable HRM involvement, indicating a lengthy exposure to the potential sources of stress affecting HRPs .

The responses of the participants are analysed and commented on below. The format follows the previous approach of first providing sample quotations from the respondents and then offering interpretative observation.

8.2.3.2 The Changed Emphasis in the Role of the Human Resource Practitioner as a Source of Work Stress

This section provides additional insight in addition to that obtained in Section 8.2.2.1. on the matter of the perceived nature of contemporary strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM).

The question asked was :

“Is your job as a HRP any more stressful than say five or ten years ago? If so can you account for this change? What has changed? Does the emphasis on Strategic Human Resource Management contribute? If so, could you illustrate with a critical incident?
(Q.1)

The responses are separated into the perceptions of different categories of HRPs

The General Experience of HRPs

Section 8.2.2.1 identified the impact of contemporary strategic human resource management (SHRM) on the role of HRPs. This question was designed to establish whether SHRM contributed to greater work stress among HRPs.

Twenty four interviewees (80 %) expressed a clear view that their job was more stressful today. They were qualified to make the assessment having had on average twenty three (23) years experience in HRM. The responses confirm the effect of the current emphases in SHRM and its influence in their experience of work stress.

“The role is categorically more stressful. The demands and expectations of HRPs has increased. The size of their departments have shrunk but the expectation is that they must produce more and add value from the resource which they have. They can no longer operate as old time personnel departments. They will have no credibility” (HR Director).

“I had to design a business policy statement and show how my staff team added value. This was stressful as members of my team felt this was not right. My training manager felt this requirement questioned her integrity following my request to her to show deliverables. It is a lot more stressful to have to justify your work by showing how it adds value.”

“We now have to show the value of our role.”

“HR is perceived now as having to add value. Everything focusses on the bottom line.”

“HR is now a core department. We are there to help to ensure the success of the business. I think more is demanded now.”

“In the past HR tended perhaps to be nice to have. Now it is value adding. That creates pressure on us.”

The concept of adding value to the business places the HRP alongside other functions at the core of the business. The earlier concept of the function of the HRP as a service provider to the business has changed. The service provider role continues but now with accountability for core business results.

Chapter Two : 2. 8 drew attention to the perennial problem of how to measure the success of the contribution of HRM to the business. A critical factor for HRPs is that they do not control the line managers who carry out the HRM policies. How to achieve HRM results through line management becomes a vital skill for HRPs, who do not stand in power relationships to line managers.

Twenty one of the respondents (70 %) expressed frustration at the ineffective way line managers implemented HRM policies to the detriment of the business. HRPs can only show that they are adding value through the successful implementation of HRM policies and procedures with the support of, and by, line management. (See discussion in Chapter Two: 2.1.5)

Other sources of work stress identified by respondents included, the pace of change, technology, new legislation, job insecurity, reduced staff complement. The fact that these causes of work stress may apply to other management disciplines does not detract from their validity as sources of work stress among HRPs. But it can be argued, that a distinguishing feature for the contemporary HRP, is the requirement to prove that he/she is adding value to the bottom line of the business.

The Experience of Some Black HRPs

Two black HRPs, each with 13 yrs experience, though not disputing the implications of adding value, felt that there was not more stress in the current environment. Both these black HRPs lived through an extremely difficult period in the mid to late 1980's. Both went from university into “personnel officer” positions, where they were confronted with significant conflict with expectations from black workers who believed that black ‘personnel officers’ should represent workers to management and should take the side of black workers and their emerging unions. These black HRPs had come out of activist university environments which supported the freedom struggle and identified with the union movement as a powerful force to assist in creating a democratic society. In contrast, their contemporary new positions as senior HRPs, now placed them at a different level as senior managers. They interpreted their current senior levels as

relatively less stressful.

Three other black HRPs, whose background was different, also found themselves now more identified with the management of the organisation. They too, found that their managerial status now created for them more tension in their relationships with workers. The historical context was dealt with in Chapter Three: 3.5.3.

One other black HRP expressed close identification with workers and their culture and expressed frustration with the traditional (white) management culture which he believed alienated workers. This tension was a source of stress for him.

“I have to go along with some management things that are not my way of doing things. Management lose credibility when they do things which are clearly seen to be wrong. Stress arises where my credibility is affected.”

“Handling strikes is most stressful. As a black person you are the first target. We are told we have sold out the workers.”

The Experience of some Older White Male HRPs

Some older white male HRPs articulate a perception reflective of contemporary HRM in South Africa.

“For me as a white male the biggest stress factor is that this is probably my last job I will have. I need to succeed and the company needs to succeed until I retire..... With the changes today a white guy does not know whether he will make it elsewhere.” (46 yrs old with 20 yrs experience)

“In the SA situation one’s opportunities are limited with the affirmative action changes taking place. I am more guarded now as to what I say. I could be lined up in a redundancy as one who did not quite fit the culture of the organisation..... So I do not think I am as challenging as I may have been ten years ago, where I would say my bit and if they did not like it I could go somewhere else.” (45 year old with 20 years HR experience)

The concern for this level of white male HRP is the stress generated through concern to do what is required to maintain their employment.

The Experience of Female HRPs

“There are high expectations of female performance and coupled with my wanting to be a good wife adds to things.” (recently married and has a husband who does not like her bringing work home)

Females may experience additional pressures, some of which are external to work.

8.2.3.3 Other Sources of Work-Related Stress

The question asked was:

“If you had the opportunity to reduce stress in your job where would you begin? Could you illustrate?” (Q.2)

The intention of the question was to identify key sources of work stress.

Numerous possibilities were put forward. The most common have been recorded, and classified

Line managers

The part played by line managers in HRM/IR issues was prominent as a source of failure to achieve the HR results that were desired by the HRPs. Twenty one (70 %) respondents drew attention to the line managers as being, to a lesser or greater extent, a source of stress requiring attention. (See 8.2.2.2. and 8.2.2.3)

The reluctance and/or ineffectiveness of line managers in dealing with HRM/IR issues was the most common source of stress. The new HRM thinking shifts to line managers some of the traditional HRM/IR functions, eg., disciplinary hearings, grievance handling, resolution of disputes, career development of subordinates, personal loans. The role of the HRP changes under these circumstances to that of a facilitator or consultant. The contribution of the HRP is then partly measured by his/her success in having line managers successfully implement HRM/IR policies and procedures to create the appropriate working environment that will enhance productivity, quality and world class standards. (See discussion Chapter Two: 2.1.5)

Planning and organising own work

Five respondents felt the need to plan and organise their own work better. This would alleviate the pressure on themselves and ease the work stress which arose from poor planning.

Work load and Staff Reductions

Fourteen respondents referred to an excessive work load and eleven referred to staff reduction as problem areas. The lean, mean operation syndrome, had taken its toll in the form of increased work stress. The issue is discussed in 8.2.3.4 - Role Overload.

Industrial relations

Industrial relations, especially annual wage negotiations and dealing with trade unions, was reported by five respondents to be highly stressful. The industrial relations portfolio was

acknowledged as a potential stressor and contributed to work stress.

8.2.3.4 Role Stress and Work Stress

The question asked was:

“Who would you say creates for you the most stress in your job? Could you illustrate with a critical incident?” (Q.3)

The intention was to confirm, or otherwise, a coincidence between specific role stress factors and other work stress sources, as similar or distinct elements, in the experience of HRP. Responses have been categorised into the three role stress factors of role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload.

Role Ambiguity

Uncertainty as a feature of the role of HRP was identified as a source of stress by some participants.

“Other managers work on the basis of a right and a wrong way of doing things, eg., technical problems. There is always a solution they will always find. For the HRP there are seldom right or wrong solutions.. We have to change people to get a solution. It is not a definite finite thing. This is stressful.”

Role ambiguity stems from the uncertainty of expectations. Here the issue appears to arise from a general sense of uncertainty inherent in the nature of the job, which is more subtle than say, not being sure what the boss expects of the HRP. It is an indication of the ambiguous nature of HRM discussed in Chapter Two and leads to the HRP becoming a ‘specialist in ambiguity’ (See Chapter Two : Part Two)

“Where there is no real solution, is a source of stress and one tends to put it off.”

“Stress is caused when you don’t know what is happening. There is the fear of the unknown. Norms are changing . This creates stress.”

These two quotations indicate common experiences in life, but coming from HRP the sentiments draw attention to the element of uncertainty prevalent in the application of HRM. In the first quotation the issue was the difficult task of designing an AIDS policy for the organisation. In the second it related to the insecurity generated by finding one’s way through changing norms and expectations in society and their application within the organisation. Both illustrate the ambiguities inherent in HRM and confirm the expression of uncertainty in the earlier quotation in this section.

For a number of other respondents their concern lay in the uncertainty of their future within the

organisation. This uncertainty was generated by mergers and closure of operations, restructuring and retrenchments. Of the seven who mentioned job insecurity, six were white, older males. The one black respondent who mentioned future retrenchment had already charted his future career. Job insecurity may be construed as a form of role ambiguity, especially among older white males, who were finding it difficult to establish exactly what was required of them and to adjust to the new social and political environment where they felt increasingly dispensable.

Role Conflict

As noted in 8.2.3.3, the relationship with line managers contributed significantly to the experience of work stress. Some of the illustrations suggest a similarity with features of role stress, but other illustrations are more suggestive of the symptoms of burnout.

“I do not get stressed on how I do my job. But perhaps it is the number of roles that I have to play. It is probably the switching of roles that may create the stress. For example, I manage my department and meet with them reviewing their objectives, then I have a tough meeting with line managers, then I have to deal with someone who has had a death in the family, then at 4.30pm I do the paper work.”

It is the switching of multiple internal roles which is experienced as stressful.

Role Overload

The question asked was:

“Can we talk about your work load? What significance does your work load play in contributing to your stress level? Could you illustrate with one or two major work load issues? (Q.7)

(i) Work Load and Stress

Work load was referred to in Sections 8.2.2.4 and 8.2.3.3. The issue is discussed now in more detail.

Maslach does not include work overload as a direct contributor to burnout in her three sub-categories. In this study, work overload is treated as a contributor to both role stress and work stress and thus, potentially, a feature in burnout. The strength of the response of the participants strongly suggests that work overload contributes to higher levels of work related stress.

“There is a direct correlation between work load and stress. It also has to do with the type of work one does. Retrenchments have added to the work load and stress.”

The dehumanising nature of the type of work, such as retrenchment, could contribute to depersonalisation and burnout. This interviewee reported a 9/10 stress level at the height of the company retrenchments. (See 8.2.3.7 - Depersonalisation) The fact that most line managers may

have heavy work loads, does not detract from the finding in this study which reports that for HRPs, work load is observed as a contributor to role stress and work stress and to burnout. The attention in this quotation is directed to the particular nature of the work, in this case, retrenchments.

It is still significant that fourteen (47 %) respondents should have specifically referred to work load as a potential source of stress.

“There is a definite link between stress and work load.

“The work has not decreased especially when one considers the amount of legislation that has been introduced and what that means for HR people” (*This was a constant refrain.*)
It’s scary what we are required to do.” (HR Director)

“My work load does create stress. I like to see things are done right and like to be on top of my work. When that does not happen it is stressful to me”

Some of the solution is seen to lie in proper work planning. (See 8.2.3.3) and adequate action.

“I think overload comes from being out of control of your work”

“I think I create my own stress. I keep running up against deadlines and have to work late.”

“I am not a person easily given to stress as I manage it by managing my work life systematically. Work load is not a stressor for me. I do not allow it to get the better of me.”

“I am the one that creates the most stress for myself. It is when I don’t handle things well that I get stressed. It is not others that make me stressed.”

(ii) Overload and Staff Numbers

Eleven of the thirty respondents (37 %) identified under-staffing as a feature of role overload.

“Stress is created by under staffing. We are cut to the bone. There is no cushion for the heavy going periods and no help to handle when the going is extra heavy.”

“The span of responsibility has increased with restructuring. A year ago I had eight depots in KwaZulu Natal. Now I have Mpumalanga, Swaziland, Mozambique, Malawi, and Tanzania in addition. I only have myself and a secretary. There are no greater rewards due to tough times. In fact it is more work less pay.”

A feature of the contemporary business environment is the reduction of staff, creating additional work loads on remaining staff and forcing creative ways to handle the resulting work pressure.

This feature is not unique to HRPs but it is for them a source of additional work stress and this study has noted this feature..

8.2.3.5 The Influence of Career Orientation on Work Stress

The question asked was:

“Do you feel there is any link between your ‘career orientation’ and the stress you may experience in your work?” (Q.4)

The purpose of the question was to isolate any link between a particular career orientation and work related stress in order to establish whether certain career orientations were more liable to generate stress than others. Fourteen (47 %) respondents stated there was no link : Four were uncertain: Twelve (40 %) suggested that there may be a link between their career orientation and an experience of work stress.

Technical /Functional Competence (TF)

Five respondents recorded Technical/Functional Competence as their career orientation and four as their second most significant inner driver. This relates to their perception of the importance of their HRM technical competence. None linked any sense of stress to their commitment to technical /functional competence on the job. This conforms to the quantitative study findings.

Autonomy/Independence (AU)

Four respondents recorded their career orientation as “Autonomy/Independence”, with two recording it as second..

“ I think the fact that the company has allowed me to operate reasonably autonomously within my desire for autonomy and that A (*his boss*) has given me a good measure of independence has meant less stress than if that was not the case.”

In this instance the respondent identified the benefit of having enjoyed a large measure of autonomy as removing a potential source of stress. He believed that freedom to express himself was to the benefit of the organisation.

“Yes, there is a link. There is no autonomy. One has to rely on others. I am not just a loose cannon, just that these things are important.”

Here the respondent was much frustrated due to the lack of support for her autonomous nature, which she believed would have been in the interests of the organisation to allow her to express. (This respondent subsequently resigned and became a consultant on her own). The quantitative study identified an association between autonomy/independence and burnout.

Service/Dedication to a Cause (SV)

The most often reported incidence of frustration occurred with those who were 'service orientated'.

Five respondents identified "Service/Dedication to a Cause" (SV) as their career orientation. Four others indicated 'service' to be the second most influential inner driver in their make-up after their main career orientation. A few of these respondents found not being able to "help people" to be a source of concern resulting in differing levels of stress. The quotations below reflect both these categories as 'caring' people.

"I had to temper my desire to be of service.... I was becoming overburdened with opportunities of service....I think I was putting unnecessary pressure on myself. Perhaps I was allowing my desire to be of service to create problems for myself. Now I am more selective about what I choose to do." (SV)

Here the issue is a personal desire to care and be of service. It was identified as based on Christian religious commitment in private life, but was creating overload and stress.

"There is a link between my career orientation and stress. I need to achieve things of value. But the things my career orientation stands for are increasingly not valued by organisations."(SV)

Here the 'service' orientation is strengthened by a personal value system.

"When I can't help people, that causes stress"

This respondent who is "General Management Competence' orientated, played a leading role as a black Personnel Officer in the 1980's pressing for black worker rights and affirmative action issues within his company. He also has committed religious values.

"Dedication to a cause" means I shoulder too much . I sleep less. I network. Attend meetings all in an effort to get something worth while for the people."

The respondent is an ex-trade union official and acknowledges the 'service' orientation to be a strong inner drive. "Service" came second in ranking of his career orientation scores.

"Maybe if I did not care I would not feel the stress. But I do care."

Here the reaction arose through the respondent's participation in shutting down a factory of nearly two hundred people and processing the retrenchments. It was a highly stressful period in his life, made more stressful through his feeling of betrayal by the company on commitments he had made to workers with company backing, which were later reneged upon by the company. His identified career orientation emerged as 'Pure Challenge' and "Technical Functional Competency" being scored equally.

Pure Challenge (CH)

Five respondents were “Pure Challenge” orientated, with five others recording it as second. The five reported that the presence of challenge was not stressful in itself, rather the absence of challenge in the work context would have been frustrating. The lack of challenge would have created a similar reaction as does the Underload factor in Role Stress, where the absence of sufficient work is perceived as stressful.

Life Style (LS)

Five respondents reported Life Style as their career orientation, with a further five indicating it as second.

“There is a link (*stress*) with career orientation in that knowing I come from a “life style” position eases things like some kind of antidote. These stress issues lead to can’t sleep situations. Perhaps my home means that I have some sort of antidote.”

Here the home is an important part of the emphasis in his life style orientation. He does not want his home infected by his work and will do all he can to preserve his family life which is an essential part of his life style from being adversely affected by his work.

“Nowadays (*55 years of age*) I am exhausted by Friday night. Before I used to go sailing on a Saturday, but now I use it to recover because I am just too bugged. From this point of view my job is interfering with my life style. I could retire now if I wanted to It is this aspect that may be influencing my thinking.”

Here the HRP is weighing up whether to continue working or take an early retirement as his work is affecting a life style enjoyment and because work is becoming too exhausting for his favourite past-time.

“There is a link between my career orientation and stress. When I decided not to go for promotion to line management and followed the life style option it reduced stress for me,”

A decision was made in favour of life style over promotion and career advancement which lead to a reduction in work related stress.

Other Career Orientations

General Management Competence (GM), Security/Stability (SE) and Entrepreneurial Creativity (EC), were each identified by two respondents as their career orientation. Of significance is the observation that four respondents ranked ‘security’ as second, with three being white males above 45 years of age.

8.2.3.6 Personal Values as a Potential Source of Work Related Stress

The question asked was:

“Have there been situations in your job which impacted on your personal values in such a way as to create additional stress for you? If so, could you illustrate?” (Q.5)

Twelve respondents stated that they had not experienced a conflict between their personal values and the requirements of their job. Nine had no comment or were neutral, and nine other respondents provided illustrations where they felt their values had been compromised by the requirements of their job. (For discussion on Values see Chapter Two : 2.2.3)

This finding appears to confirm the similar experience recorded in Section 8.2.2.3. within the context of role conflict as a factor of role stress.

Compromised values

“I think the company is making a good profit, yet I am required to settle at levels which is squeezing wage increases unnecessarily.”

The HRP has to deliver according to an agreed mandate in wage negotiations. His performance is measured by the result of the negotiations. If he disagrees fundamentally at a value level with his mandate he will negotiate under the additional strain of not believing in the set parameters. Negotiations then take on an even greater strain for him, due to a hidden value element that he has to restrain in the negotiations. The respondent gave this as an illustration of a value conflict creating stress.

“Stress arises where my credibility is affected.”

For HRP's their credibility is fundamental to the development and maintenance of trust. If they lose their credibility in the eyes of one or more of the main players in an organisation, they will find it very difficult to make progress in implementing HRM. Here the HRP may be seen to be recognising the seriousness of retaining his credibility.

“The job does impact on my personal values (*illustration provided*). All these create stress. There can be a conflict between company core values and my intrinsic values.”

In this instance senior management had made a senior appointment, contrary to the agreed appointment procedures, which ensured fairness to all parties. The HRP was compromised and believed his values had been violated but he was not able to rescind the decision.

“The closure of the xxx factory was a major value conflict for me. My inner values were affected and I felt stress. Maybe if I did not care I would not feel the stress. But I do care.”

In this instance the HRP had gained acceptance for the closure of a plant from the workers and union on the basis of certain company promises, which later were not fulfilled by management. He had negotiated in good faith, only to find this betrayed by the company.

“Stress could occur when you have to do something you do not believe in”

Here there is a recognition of the link between values and stress. Its intensity would be related to the extent of the compromise.

“In my previous job, there were unethical practices which lead me to resign.”

This is the only case among the respondents where commitment to values, lead to resignation.

Empathy as a Value

“My values could be part of it (stress). I have empathy for others and this could create stress. I have a feeling for those less fortunate. Women may be more empathetic.”

For her empathy is a value which carries a stress cost. It is the potential for resultant emotional exhaustion which Maslach links to burnout. Because empathy is a value for the individual it comes accompanied by commitment to its application in the work context. Where there is commitment there is often more intensity and hence the possibility of greater stress.

“ I am a sympathetic individual who wants to help. It’s a value for me. I am not just empathetic, listening. I want to help the individual. When someone comes I don’t want to let them down”

The individual’s value system involves a commitment to helping people. In his background this commitment found earlier expression through his activities as a union organiser. He relates this commitment to help, now to a sense of urgency which translates into stress when he is unable to assist in concrete manner.

Not Compromised

The majority of respondents (70 %) found no real conflict between their values and what was required of them within their organisations. They did not feel compromised or stressed as their values generally coincided with the organisation’s values.

8.2.3.7 Relation of Responses to Burnout Categories

Some of the responses of the participants indicate signs of burnout in terms of Maslach’s sub-scales

Emotional Exhaustion

For Maslach, having one's emotions exposed, controlled and drained by one's work with people, can lead to burnout.

“We come into contact with stressful situations and deal with people's emotions. This is stressful.”

There are numerous roles played by HRP, many of which involve dealing with people's emotions, eg., aggression and anger from workers in strikes and negotiations, grievance handling, counselling, retrenchments.

“I have been close to the end of my tether, particularly towards the end of last year when we had a terrible year. The whole organisation was stressed. There was a major mergerA high number of retrenchments resulted. I was becoming ill. Little things were getting to me. I was getting ready to give up. However, this year things are better with less retrenchments.”

This HRP was continuously involved in intense emotional issues over retrenchments and a merger over a prolonged period. His description of his condition suggested that he was a burnout candidate.

The need for empathy input on the part of HRPs may lead to emotional exhaustion.
(See 8.2.3.6)

Depersonalisation

For Maslach depersonalisation (see Definition: Section: 7.1.3.2) is brought on by an unfeeling and impersonal response towards recipients of a person's service, involvement, work. The effect of retrenchments on HRPs is noted as a potential source of depersonalisation, and hence a contributor to burnout. For some HRPs retrenchment is not only emotionally exhausting but also a dehumanising activity.

Fourteen respondents (47 %) referred to retrenchment as being a particularly unpleasant function which took its toll on them. One large organisation had retrenched over 18 000 persons over a period of years, another 2 000, and others from a few to a few hundred. The trauma of the retrenchee has an impact on the HRPs involved, who have to deal with their own feelings as well as those of the retrenched. Some of these feelings may be expressed in differing levels of emotional exhaustion on the part of the HRP.

“I think it is to have to deal with retrenchments that is most stressing.”

Retrenchment is probably the most emotional stressing of all functions. Informing someone they are to be dismissed from their job for an offence after a hearing, can be justified and rationalised. But to tell someone, or many, that they are to lose their jobs in the interests of the business, has an

emotional cost on most HRPs.

“This can be an emotional issue (*retrenchments*). But I manage it and do not let it get to me. I suppose I have become a bit thick skinned and this worries me sometimes that I have become callous. If you don't shield yourself you can become affected.”

“When I was answering the Stress Inventory I noticed the one on becoming callous with the people I work with. I thought about that because there is a danger in this business that it can happen. One becomes hardened from the first time one was involved where considerable concern was expressed.”

In both these instances there is an acknowledgement of the impact of retrenchments on the HRP who is called upon to process people out of the business. In these instances, each took a different course of action. The first had built a shield to protect personal sensitivities and had a stress level of 4.5/10. The second, although aware of the possibility of becoming hardened, recorded a stress level of 7/10, suggesting that emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation might be an element in this high stress level.

“There is nothing creative about retrenchment, only potential conflict. I don't like telling someone that he or she is being retrenched.. I can get upset over retrenchments..... Perhaps there is an element after all these years where I am becoming a bit callous and less affected generally with this part of my job.”

Here the respondent had begun to develop a self protective mechanism. He rated his current stress level at 4.5/10.

Personal Accomplishment

The study has made the observation that there has been a changed emphasis brought about by the advent of contemporary SHRM, whereby HRPs are required to add value and meet the bottom line requirements of the business. Linked to this is the need for HRPs to obtain measurable results through others, mainly line managers, over whom they have little power, except their sapiential influence. A significant number of respondents indicated that line managers were among those who created for them the most stress. (See Section 8.2.3.3)

Three HRPs stated that union organisers and/or shop stewards were their main source of work stress. Unions traditionally are expected to make life difficult for HRPs. By contrast, twenty one (70 %) of respondents mentioned line managers as the source for them of varying degrees of stress. (See 8.2.3.3) It is suggested that the reason for this phenomenon may lie in the HRP's sense of personal accomplishment being frustrated by line managers reluctance or recalcitrance, to adequately fulfil what the new HRM practices require of them. The net result was a sense of non-achievement by HRPs, who hold line managers responsible for this state of affairs.

Within the context of Maslach's identification of the lack of 'personal accomplishment' as a source of burnout, this finding suggests that herein may lie a significant element in the level of work stress among HRPs.

8.2.3.8 General Health and Perceived Stress Levels

The respondents perceptions of the own general health and stress levels are important indicators as to how they experience and deal with these important aspects of their lives.

Experience of Being Over-Stressed

The question asked was:

“In the last year or so have there been any occasions when you felt that work stress was beginning to get the better of you? If so, could you describe the situation?” (Q.6)

Ten respondents (33 %) reported occasions during the last year where they felt the pressure of the job was getting to them. In nine out of ten cases the pressure related to major exercises or projects. In one case it resulted in a general emotional breakdown. The projects range from defending cases at the CCMA, Arbitration Commission presentations, a company merger, retrenchments and annual wage negotiations. Only in one other case, did the respondent report becoming ill to the point of considering resignation due to the strain.

Perception of Health

“How would you describe your normal health?

Very good /good /average /poor/very poor ” (Q.8)

Very good	14
Good	16
Average	0
Poor	0
Very Poor	0

Respondents rated themselves as being in good, to very good, health. None indicated average health or below..

Percentage Stress Level

The question asked was:

“How do you rate your stress level out of 10?” (Q.9)

Of the 27 recorded responses the range was 2.5 to 8 out of 10, with the mean of 5.2. Twelve (40 %) of the HRPs were experiencing above average levels of stress. (Appendix 8. 18 provides the results in table format). These figures contrast with the respondents perception of their own condition of health (see “perception of health”) where they all rate their health as good to very good. The finding suggests an above average level of stress may be accepted by many

respondents as normal.

One respondent identified a feature of stress for some people.

“When you are in a situation you do not know that it is stressful. It is when you come out of it that you say - gee that was stressful.”

This illustration introduces a feature of the stress syndrome, where the negative effects of stress may not be felt until the activity is over or only after ongoing exposure has accumulated sufficient physical or emotional harm to the individual to create an awareness of the damage done.

Physically this may show itself in headaches, insomnia, stomach upsets and emotionally in, irritability, emotional outbursts, depression (Schlebusch 2000, p. 70 -71).

Eu-stress

Not all stress is destructive or dis-stressful, but can be a stimulus.

“I have a fascinating job. I think one needs stress to perform better and I need the challenge otherwise I would get bored.”

Here the respondent identifies an important element in the make up of some people. A certain level of stress is useful in promoting activity. It has been referred to as eu-stress, interpreted as good, in contrast to unhealthy stress. The problem arises when the stress proceeds beyond a creative level. (See Chapter Five: 5.1.1.1)

Personal Action to Reduce Stress

Respondents were asked to describe methods they used to reduce or limit stress. The intention of the question was to establish whether they viewed stress as problematic enough to require proactive efforts to limit its effects on them.

“Do you have any specific ways of reducing stress?” (Q.10)

The following list summarises the activities engaged in.

Physical activity, eg., gym, walk	12
Spiritual activity, eg., church, meditate	7
Support system, eg., family, friends	7
Diet,	3
Other, eg., music, movies, cry	4

Respondents used more than one method for reducing stress and maintaining health. The list indicates the predominance of first mentioned activities, but often multiple approaches were used, such as, walking and meditating, a sound family life linked with supportive friends. Physical activity was most commonly mentioned, although not all respondents had the same level of commitment to a regular regimen, as four stated it was a sporadic activity, but that there was the

belief that it was good to participate in physical activity to reduce stress. Spiritual activity was viewed as a support system, but was in most instances, put forward with a firm conviction of its value. One respondent felt that a good cry in private relieved stress.

Two respondents in the 60+ age group had heart operations within the past ten years, attributable to work pressure. Two others mentioned physical symptoms when under stress. One developed a spastic colon and the other, eczema, when stress levels became too high. One respondent had an emotional breakdown, which led to therapy and placement in a less demanding position. The symptoms given are regarded as signs of stress.

8.2.3.9 Organisational Attitudes Towards Employees Experiencing Stress

Respondents were asked to comment on their organisational climate towards employees who may be suffering from various degrees of work stress. The responses provided information on organisational attitudes towards those who may have stress induced conditions. The purpose of the question was to assess whether the HRPs, within their organisations, would feel free to request help should they suffer the effects of burnout.

(i) Agricultural industry

“The new MD believes you only use oil when the wheel squeaks. If it is too hot, get out. But at middle management level and down there are a lot more supportive roles played where excessive pressure is not placed on individuals.”

“With restructuring and fewer people and managers being busier they probably don’t have time to give to people who are stressed. Where there is fat in the organisation it is cut out and this can mean that some people are given increased work which they can not cope with.”

(ii) Financial institutions

“There are services available for stress treatment and support, but the climate in the organisation is probably if you can’t take the heat get out.”

“There is willingness here to acknowledge stress. We have an EAP (*Employee Assistance Programme*). We are a high stress industry with regular robberies and even with individual hijackings we have open referral to counsellors. There is no behind the scenes counselling. It is an open issue.”

“...for the traditional programmes there is not the money there used to be. We have a EAP programme but can not give it the attention we used to. We (*HR function*) are too busy trying to help run the business.”

(iii) Government/Council

“If anyone is feeling stressed they can use the generous leave available to recover. We run stress management courses.”

(iv) Manufacturing industry

“The industries I have been in, xxxx and yyyy are macho industries, where cowboys don’t cry, where if it is too hot you get out of the kitchen and it is seen as a weakness to acknowledge stress.”

“Organisation has a macho attitude at the top level. Get out of the kitchen approach. The CEO works seven days a week and it is expected of others. This puts pressure down the line. At the top the attitude is to squeeze as hard as possible.”

“ I think there is a stigma attached to those who suffer stress. However, if you needed help and asked for it, assistance would be available.”

“There is a strong macho attitude in the company. It is not a gender issue.” (Female HRP)

“The climate is sympathetic to someone displaying stress symptoms. They would get treatment but a stigma would be attached affecting promotion. I am quite sure.”

“The company attitude allows for treatment (*for stress*). But at management level it may not be so sympathetic. I don’t think there is a stigma.”

“I think the feeling of management is that it is not their job to fix up people’s bodies (*minds and emotions*). They must look after their own bodies. I think managers feel that they don’t have the time to spend with the human aspects of their people.”

(v) Hospitality industry

“I think the organisation is open and supportive to stress sufferers. There is an open culture. But there is also a recognition that stress comes with the territory.”

(vi) Parastatal organisation

“The climate is a bit macho here. I think some recognise that stress needs special assistance. I think the return of the industrial social worker will help.”

(vii) Retail industry

“I don’t think stress is seriously dealt with in the organisation. I think we are a caring company but much of the climate is macho.”

(viii) Transport industry

“The company climate is not sympathetic to stressed people. It starts at the top with the boss. I am meeting with a stress consultant this afternoon to discuss how we can introduce ways of dealing with stress levels within the organisation.. There are five or six managers here most nights sometimes up to 9.00pm. If it is too hot get out. I think that is the attitude. I think that among the colleagues there is a recognition and acceptance that we operate under stress creating conditions.”

It would appear that most organisations reported upon would assist in treating stress related problems. It is observed that there was a general suspicion that persons who need to be treated for stress problems, may not be suitable for promotion or greater responsibility. Many of the industries have macho climates which inhibit managers from seeking assistance within their organisation. This climate may therefore lead HRP's to be reluctant to raise their stress problems within their organisation, as it may jeopardise future advancement or raise concern over their suitability for their current job.

8.2.3.10 General Observation on Work Stress Perceptions

The analysis of the Stress Perceptions responses has identified certain specific features of work stress.

- (i) The concept of added value has created distinctive stress inducing element for HRP's which is arguably a unique feature in contemporary HRM.
- (ii) HRP's feel that their job is more stressful now than five to ten years ago.
- (iii) The responses of black HRP's suggests that their experience of work stress may in some instances stem from different sources of pressure to that of whites, and may be seen to originate in the diverse historical experiences of the different ethnic groups in South Africa.
- (iv) Older white male HRP's indicate an increased level of job insecurity leading to increased level of work stress.
- (v) Work load and under-staffing may be a source of work related stress.
- (vi) Those with an inner drive to express care and concern for people, find, where this is frustrated, it may lead to increased levels of stress.
- (vii) Involvement in retrenching employees can have an emotionally exhausting and depersonalising effect on HRP's.
- (viii) The sense of personal accomplishment in HRP's may be affected by the lack of line management performance on HR issues.

- (ix) The general health of the respondents, on their own diagnosis, appears to be good to very good, despite their reported stressful job. Their stress levels, however, appear as above average.
- (x) The macho climate in most organisations may inhibit HRPs from being more open about their own stress levels.

8.2.4 AMBIGUITY IN HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT AND WORK- RELATED STRESS

Two additional questions were put to the interviewees to establish more closely their perception of a link between the ambiguities and ambivalences in HRM and their experience of work-related stress. These questions were posed via email, subsequent to the initial interview. Their responses are analysed below.

The request was prefaced with an introductory review of the nature of the study.

The questions posed were:

1. *Do you experience a dilemma in your work between trying to meet both people needs and company business demands?*
2. *Do you think ambiguities and ambivalences within HRM contribute to stress in your experience?*

The responses to the two questions are analysed and commented upon separately below.

8.2.4.1 The Presence of the Dilemma in Human Resource Management

In response to the first question, of the twenty five replies, twenty three (92 %) stated that in their experience the dilemma of trying to meet both people needs and company business demands existed. Only two stated that there was no dilemma for them.

The competitive business climate within which most organisations are required to operate has been identified as a force driving companies to concentrate on the bottom line, with consequences for employees, management and HRPs. The nature of the problem is explained by one respondent.

“The strong forces for delivery against targets and deadlines with ever increasing cost constraints and new ways of working increase the dilemma of balancing individual needs with that of business needs, eg., individual needs for flexibility, work - personal life balance choices, learning, development, are in ever increasing conflict with the short term business driven needs for performance, cost reduction and provision of services. Indeed, a recipe for dilemma creation.”

The 92 % who acknowledged the dilemma provided varying explanations for their individual perceptions. These responses have been categorised into four groups of perspectives with a selection of the comments provided.

(i) The Dilemma Reflects the Nature of HRM and the Role of the HRP

The dilemma sets the agenda within which HRPs are required to work and this calls for skills in balancing conflicting demands.

“Balancing people needs and company demands is a core skill for HR Managers and while it may be a stress factor it is also a source of job satisfaction. This dynamic is probably the gist of the HR work.”

“The effective/successful HRP succeeds in marrying business needs with needs of people more often than the less effective practitioner. This tension between business and people needs is never ending and requires constant trade-offs and management ”

“I am conscious of both demands. On an ethical basis one must give the voiceless a voice and argue and obtain the best deal that you can for the employees. On the other hand if it comes to a question of survival of the organisation and the mission of the organisation then priorities must be ascertained and hard choices made.”

“If there is a conflict between the interests of the organisation and those of the employees , the interests of the organisation should take precedence. The HR environment has increasingly become a more complex and ambiguous place within which to operate.”

(ii) The Influence of Traditional HRM and Expectations

Some respondents acknowledged that there still existed a desire for the more traditional approach to HRM with its welfare emphasis. This view only perpetuated expectations that could not be delivered by HRPs in today’s business environment. This traditional approach perceives the role of the HRP in a number of different ways.

One view conceives the function of the HRP in a more traditional ‘welfare’ role.

“I think HRPs are generally speaking ‘welfare’ orientated, especially those who’ve been in the game for more than five years. This then conflicts with the changing role to a far more meaningful strategic partner.” (KB)

This concept mostly is not supported, but there is an acknowledgement, that many employees still choose to view HRPs in that traditional role as it provides some source of managerial support in an uncertain environment. This employee expectation is a form of pressure on HRPs.

“A traditional perspective has generally influenced the people’s expectation of the HR function: hence personnel management is viewed as a welfare function.

“Many employees believe that the role of the HRP is to be kind, sympathetic, take the employees side, etc., and become annoyed and disillusioned when the HRP adopts a

‘company stance’ - they then question the value of HR...”

It is this expectation on the part of employees that becomes problematic for some HRPs as they try to balance their role between representing management and representing employees.

“Many older/longer serving HRPs grew up in an environment where the HRP was considered the ‘welfare’ part of the organisation , a role acknowledged and accepted by CEO’s at the time.”

The traditional interpretation of the role of the HRP is not sustainable in most contemporary organisations. For those HRPs, who may be more comfortable in this traditional role, it can become a source of stress as they endeavour to live a ‘double life’.

(iii) The Strategic Partner

Most respondents understood and accepted their role as strategic partners in adding value and by delivering the human resources that can provide the results called for by their organisation .

“I believe that the role of HR in an organisation is to contribute to the achievement of its goals , as defined by management..... in a ‘people sensitive’ manner.”

“HR has to assist the business translate its objectives or strategies to enable employees to play their role in delivering on these strategies.”

(iv) Concern for Human Considerations

Some respondents believed that current HRM was not able to provide sufficient support to meet the needs of individual employees.

“In highly competitive companies, all decisions become bottom line results driven and human considerations are swept aside.”

“What employees require is very often costly and not seen as core. I feel that the dilemma is when you have to make a choice (no pressure from anyone) between the people issue and the business one. For example, around maternity benefits which may be really poor. Fighting for better benefits will cost the company (and as a woman you worry about being perceived as improving your own benefits) yet you know that they really need attention . Yet, you also know that the company has allocated their money elsewhere.”

“As businesses become squeezed to make forecast profits , the niceties of doing what is best for the people themselves becomes secondary.”

8.2.4.2 The Contribution of Ambiguities in HRM to Work-Related Stress

In response to the second question, twenty two respondents (88 %) stated, that in their experience the ambiguities and ambivalences within HRM contributed to stress. Three (12%) did not perceive this aspect of HRM to be a contributor to stress.

One of the three, a black HR Director, stated that it was not the ambiguities which created stress for him, but dealing with racism in the work place. This was for him, a more significant cause of stress and confirmed a view expressed in the earlier interview. He saw no conflict in organisational requirements taking precedence over employee needs.

The responses of those who experienced HRM ambiguities and ambivalences as sources of stress, have been categorised into two groups.

(i) The Significance of Dual Expectations

These respondents explained the source of stress as deriving from the dual nature of the expectations of the two contending parties within the organisation.

“HRPs often find themselves under pressure to deliver, but delivery to the CEO is different to the delivery that many employees expect - this can and does lead to stress.”

“In my experience management and employees have different expectations and see the HR Practitioner in two different and conflicting roles. This certainly adds to stress as one has to constantly change one’s approach depending upon who one is dealing with at the time and which role one is trying to play.”

“Line managers see HR as being soft on staff and supportive of employee issues and staff see HR as being moral sell-outs who are the flack-catchers/puppets for senior management.”

“Ambiguities and ambivalences with HRM do contribute to stress in my experience. More often it is not possible to serve two masters at the same time, more especially when the solution in favour of the one is at the expense or disadvantage of the other.”

(ii) Acknowledging and Responding to Stress Inducing Conditions

Other respondents accepted the reality of their ambiguous role and set about adapting to it by the use of different strategies to lessen its distressing impact.

“A lot of stress is usually experienced especially where people expect their needs to take priority over business demands. The challenge then to reduce high stress levels is to create a balancing act!”

“Unfortunately we are not going to be able to remove ambiguities in HR completely, but I think we can minimise them by understanding our business better and adding value.”

Age and seniority are identified as moderators of the stress brought on by the dilemmas encountered in administering modern HRM.

“It has become easier with age and wisdom and I lose less sleep than I did earlier in my career, when I was in a less senior position and not party to the more difficult decisions that sometimes have to be made for the greater good (eg., retrenchments).”

The method of operation within certain businesses appeared to be a source of stress. Constant retrenchments and uncertainty in the business lead to recurring bouts of conflict and debilitating demands on some HRP. This environment had a stress toll. One respondent's health had forced him to retire early with unfortunate consequences for himself.

“This is my story. After twenty five years as a HR generalist, at age fifty seven, I have decided to take early retirement from the end of this month. I have taken this decision largely because of stress related health problems (mainly exhaustion and consequently a feeling of being unable to cope). Being ‘in the middle’ of company/employee issues particularly retrenchments, the application of employment equity and other sometimes ‘unpopular’ policies, many of which are not supported by senior management, I feel has been a large contributor to my condition. I will be losing all my company benefits, although I will have a small pension, but feel that I must put my health first. I will be looking at any opportunities to make a living in a less stressful way.”

8.2.4.3 Concluding Observation

From the evidence provided there is very strong support for the view that HRM, especially in its contemporary expression as strategic HRM, is perceived by the majority of HRPs to be a source of work-related stress for them.

For some their positive acceptance of the dilemmas within their role may have the value of limiting the impact of the stress upon them.

APPENDIX 8. 2

CAREER ORIENTATION CATEGORIES

STATISTICAL FREQUENCIES

		C10	C11	C12	C13	C14	C15
N	Valid	118	118	118	118	118	118
	Missing	1	1	1	1	1	1
Mean		4.6331	3.5636	4.2703	3.5924	3.8153	4.1220
Median		4.6000	3.5000	4.1000	3.4000	3.6000	3.8000
Mode		4.40	3.60	4.00	2.40 ^a	3.60	3.80
Std. Deviation		1.0512	1.2978	1.2046	1.2491	1.4123	1.4465
Range		5.20	6.00	5.40	5.20	7.00	6.40
Minimum		2.00	1.00	2.00	1.00	1.00	1.80
Maximum		7.20	7.00	7.40	6.20	8.00	8.20
Sum		546.70	420.50	503.90	423.90	450.20	486.40

		C16	C17
N	Valid	118	118
	Missing	1	1
Mean		4.4008	4.3805
Median		4.4000	4.4000
Mode		4.60	4.40 ^a
Std. Deviation		1.0458	1.2659
Range		4.80	6.40
Minimum		2.00	1.80
Maximum		6.80	8.20
Sum		519.30	516.90

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

KEY:

- C 10 Technical/Functional Competence
- C 11 General Management Competence
- C 12 Autonomy/Independence
- C 13 Security/Stability
- C 14 Entrepreneurial Creativity
- C 15 Service/Dedication to a Cause
- C 16 Pure Challenge
- C 17 Life style

INTER-CORRELATIONS

CAREER ORIENTATION CATEGORIES

Correlations

		C10	C11	C12	C13	C14	C15
C10	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.176	.102	.277**	.069	.132
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.056	.272	.002	.460	.155
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118
C11	Pearson Correlation	.176	1.000	.259**	.156	.236*	-.028
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.056	.	.005	.091	.010	.760
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118
C12	Pearson Correlation	.102	.259**	1.000	-.233*	.431**	.143
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.272	.005	.	.011	.000	.122
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118
C13	Pearson Correlation	.277**	.156	-.233*	1.000	-.017	.008
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.091	.011	.	.851	.929
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118
C14	Pearson Correlation	.069	.236*	.431**	-.017	1.000	.021
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.460	.010	.000	.851	.	.826
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118
C15	Pearson Correlation	.132	-.028	.143	.008	.021	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.155	.760	.122	.929	.826	.
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118
C16	Pearson Correlation	.298**	.414**	.294**	.012	.255**	.122
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.001	.901	.005	.190
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118
C17	Pearson Correlation	.000	.025	.185*	.130	.202*	.189*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	1.000	.792	.044	.160	.028	.040
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118

		C16	C17
C10	Pearson Correlation	.298**	.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	1.000
	N	118	118
C11	Pearson Correlation	.414**	.025
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.792
	N	118	118
C12	Pearson Correlation	.294**	.185*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.044
	N	118	118
C13	Pearson Correlation	.012	.130
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.901	.160
	N	118	118
C14	Pearson Correlation	.255**	.202*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.005	.028
	N	118	118
C15	Pearson Correlation	.122	.189*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.190	.040
	N	118	118
C16	Pearson Correlation	1.000	-.027
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.775
	N	118	118
C17	Pearson Correlation	-.027	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.775	.
	N	118	118

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX 8. 4

TABLES 1 - 8

CORRELATIONS:

Career Orientation Categories/Role Stress Factors/Burnout Sub-Scales/Age

CAREER ORIENTATION / ROLE STRESS FACTORS / BURNOUT SUB-SCALES

AGE CORRELATIONS

		B4	C10	ROLEAMB	ROLECONF	ROLEOVER	ROLESTRE	SFEALL
4	Pearson Correlation	1.000	-.168	.032	-.133	-.110	-.081	-.202*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.071	.743	.160	.242	.410	.030
	N	117	117	111	114	115	106	115
10	Pearson Correlation	-.168	1.000	-.175	-.113	.007	-.135	-.035
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.071	.	.065	.231	.941	.167	.706
	N	117	118	112	115	116	107	116
ROLEAMB	Pearson Correlation	.032	-.175	1.000	.616**	.253**	.845**	.469**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.743	.065	.	.000	.007	.000	.000
	N	111	112	112	110	111	107	111
ROLECONF	Pearson Correlation	-.133	-.113	.616**	1.000	.354**	.864**	.456**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.160	.231	.000	.	.000	.000	.000
	N	114	115	110	115	114	107	114
ROLEOVER	Pearson Correlation	-.110	.007	.253**	.354**	1.000	.605**	.609**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.242	.941	.007	.000	.	.000	.000
	N	115	116	111	114	116	107	115
ROLESTRE	Pearson Correlation	-.081	-.135	.845**	.864**	.605**	1.000	.630**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.410	.167	.000	.000	.000	.	.000
	N	106	107	107	107	107	107	106
SFEALL	Pearson Correlation	-.202*	-.035	.469**	.456**	.609**	.630**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.030	.706	.000	.000	.000	.000	.
	N	115	116	111	114	115	106	116
SFPALL	Pearson Correlation	-.149	.139	-.302**	-.172	.013	-.244*	.012
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.112	.138	.001	.067	.886	.012	.859
	N	115	116	111	114	115	106	116
SFDALL	Pearson Correlation	-.107	.020	.346**	.388**	.202*	.383**	.523**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.256	.830	.000	.000	.030	.000	.000
	N	115	116	111	114	115	106	116
SEALL	Pearson Correlation	-.181	-.131	.340**	.466**	.475**	.544**	.694**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.054	.163	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	114	115	110	114	114	106	115
SPALL	Pearson Correlation	-.128	.170	-.347**	-.178	-.043	-.282**	-.108
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.174	.068	.000	.058	.647	.003	.250
	N	115	116	111	114	115	106	116
SDALL	Pearson Correlation	-.089	-.007	.157	.359**	.109	.270**	.284**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.345	.940	.100	.000	.247	.005	.002
	N	114	115	110	114	114	106	115

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX 8. 4 (2)

Correlations

		B4	C11	ROLEAMB	ROLECONF	ROLEOVER	ROLESTRE	SFEALL	SFPALL	SFDALL	SSEALL	SSPALL	SSDALL
B4	Pearson Correlation	1.000	-.095	.032	-.133	-.110							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.309	.743	.160	.242							
	N	117	117	111	114	115							
C11	Pearson Correlation	-.095	1.000	-.176	.058	-.122							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.309	.	.064	.536	.193							
	N	117	118	112	115	116							
ROLEAMB	Pearson Correlation	.032	-.176	1.000	.616**	.253**							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.743	.064	.	.000	.007							
	N	111	112	112	110	111							
ROLECONF	Pearson Correlation	-.133	.058	.616**	1.000	.354**							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.160	.536	.000	.	.000							
	N	114	115	110	115	114							
ROLEOVER	Pearson Correlation	-.110	-.122	.253**	.354**	1.000							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.242	.193	.007	.000	.							
	N	115	116	111	114	116							
ROLESTRE	Pearson Correlation	-.081	-.106	.845**	.864**	.605**							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.410	.277	.000	.000	.000							
	N	106	107	107	107	107							
SFEALL	Pearson Correlation	-.202*	-.038	.469**	.456**	.609**							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.030	.685	.000	.000	.000							
	N	115	116	111	114	115							
SFPALL	Pearson Correlation	-.149	.251**	-.302**	-.172	.013							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.112	.007	.001	.067	.886							
	N	115	116	111	114	115							
SFDALL	Pearson Correlation	-.107	.115	.346**	.388**	.202*							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.256	.221	.000	.000	.030							
	N	115	116	111	114	115							
SSEALL	Pearson Correlation	-.181	-.064	.340**	.466**	.475**							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.054	.499	.000	.000	.000							
	N	114	115	110	114	114							
SSPALL	Pearson Correlation	-.128	.230*	-.347**	-.178	-.043							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.174	.013	.000	.058	.647							
	N	115	116	111	114	115							
SSDALL	Pearson Correlation	-.089	.155	.157	.359**	.109							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.345	.099	.100	.000	.247							
	N	114	115	110	114	114							

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX 8. 4 (3)

Correlations

		B4	C12	ROLEAMB	ROLECONF	ROLEOVER	SFEA
B4	Pearson Correlation	1.000	-.249**	.032	-.133	-.110	-.2
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.007	.743	.160	.242	.0
	N	117	117	111	114	115	
C12	Pearson Correlation	-.249**	1.000	.023	.110	.075	.2
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.007	.	.814	.241	.421	.0
	N	117	118	112	115	116	
ROLEAMB	Pearson Correlation	.032	.023	1.000	.616**	.253**	.4
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.743	.814	.	.000	.007	.0
	N	111	112	112	110	111	
ROLECONF	Pearson Correlation	-.133	.110	.616**	1.000	.354**	.4
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.160	.241	.000	.	.000	.0
	N	114	115	110	115	114	
ROLEOVER	Pearson Correlation	-.110	.075	.253**	.354**	1.000	.4
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.242	.421	.007	.000	.	.0
	N	115	116	111	114	116	
SFEALL	Pearson Correlation	-.202*	.271**	.469**	.456**	.609**	1.
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.030	.003	.000	.000	.000	.0
	N	115	116	111	114	115	
SFPALL	Pearson Correlation	-.149	.190*	-.302**	-.172	.013	.0
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.112	.042	.001	.067	.886	.0
	N	115	116	111	114	115	
SFDALL	Pearson Correlation	-.107	.183*	.346**	.388**	.202*	.0
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.256	.049	.000	.000	.030	.0
	N	115	116	111	114	115	
SSEALL	Pearson Correlation	-.181	.164	.340**	.466**	.475**	.0
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.054	.079	.000	.000	.000	.0
	N	114	115	110	114	114	
SSPALL	Pearson Correlation	-.128	.120	-.347**	-.178	-.043	-.0
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.174	.201	.000	.058	.647	.0
	N	115	116	111	114	115	
SSDALL	Pearson Correlation	-.089	.119	.157	.359**	.109	.0
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.345	.206	.100	.000	.247	.0
	N	114	115	110	114	114	

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX 8. 4 (4)

Correlations

		B4	C13	ROLEAMB	ROLECONF	ROLEOVER	ROLES
B4	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.195*	.032	-.133	-.110	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.035	.743	.160	.242	
	N	117	117	111	114	115	
C13	Pearson Correlation	.195*	1.000	-.022	-.162	-.087	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.035	.	.818	.084	.352	
	N	117	118	112	115	116	
ROLEAMB	Pearson Correlation	.032	-.022	1.000	.616**	.253**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.743	.818	.	.000	.007	
	N	111	112	112	110	111	
ROLECONF	Pearson Correlation	-.133	-.162	.616**	1.000	.354**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.160	.084	.000	.	.000	
	N	114	115	110	115	114	
ROLEOVER	Pearson Correlation	-.110	-.087	.253**	.354**	1.000	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.242	.352	.007	.000	.	
	N	115	116	111	114	116	
ROLESTRE	Pearson Correlation	-.081	-.108	.845**	.864**	.605**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.410	.268	.000	.000	.000	
	N	106	107	107	107	107	
SFEALL	Pearson Correlation	-.202*	-.139	.469**	.456**	.609**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.030	.137	.000	.000	.000	
	N	115	116	111	114	115	
SFPALL	Pearson Correlation	-.149	-.045	-.302**	-.172	.013	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.112	.632	.001	.067	.886	
	N	115	116	111	114	115	
SFDALL	Pearson Correlation	-.107	-.083	.346**	.388**	.202*	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.256	.374	.000	.000	.030	
	N	115	116	111	114	115	
SSEALL	Pearson Correlation	-.181	-.127	.340**	.466**	.475**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.054	.176	.000	.000	.000	
	N	114	115	110	114	114	
SSPALL	Pearson Correlation	-.128	-.012	-.347**	-.178	-.043	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.174	.902	.000	.058	.647	
	N	115	116	111	114	115	
SSDALL	Pearson Correlation	-.089	-.021	.157	.359**	.109	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.345	.827	.100	.000	.247	
	N	114	115	110	114	114	

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX 8. 4 (5)

Correlations

		B4	C14	ROLEAMB	ROLECONF	ROLEOVER	ROLE
B4	Pearson Correlation	1.000	-.110	.032	-.133	-.110	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.238	.743	.160	.242	
	N	117	117	111	114	115	
C14	Pearson Correlation	-.110	1.000	.149	.178	.158	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.238	.	.116	.058	.089	
	N	117	118	112	115	116	
ROLEAMB	Pearson Correlation	.032	.149	1.000	.616**	.253**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.743	.116	.	.000	.007	
	N	111	112	112	110	111	
ROLECONF	Pearson Correlation	-.133	.178	.616**	1.000	.354**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.160	.058	.000	.	.000	
	N	114	115	110	115	114	
ROLEOVER	Pearson Correlation	-.110	.158	.253**	.354**	1.000	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.242	.089	.007	.000	.	
	N	115	116	111	114	116	
ROLESTRE	Pearson Correlation	-.081	.213*	.845**	.864**	.605**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.410	.028	.000	.000	.000	
	N	106	107	107	107	107	
SFEALL	Pearson Correlation	-.202*	.313**	.469**	.456**	.609**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.030	.001	.000	.000	.000	
	N	115	116	111	114	115	
SFPALL	Pearson Correlation	-.149	.003	-.302**	-.172	.013	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.112	.973	.001	.067	.886	
	N	115	116	111	114	115	
SFDALL	Pearson Correlation	-.107	.169	.346**	.388**	.202*	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.256	.070	.000	.000	.030	
	N	115	116	111	114	115	
SSEALL	Pearson Correlation	-.181	.263**	.340**	.466**	.475**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.054	.004	.000	.000	.000	
	N	114	115	110	114	114	
SSPALL	Pearson Correlation	-.128	-.030	-.347**	-.178	-.043	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.174	.748	.000	.058	.647	
	N	115	116	111	114	115	
SSDALL	Pearson Correlation	-.089	.106	.157	.359**	.109	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.345	.259	.100	.000	.247	
	N	114	115	110	114	114	

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX 8. 4 (6)

Correlations

		B4	C15	ROLEAMB	ROLECONF	ROLEOVER	ROLESTRE	SFEALL	SFPALL	SFDALL	SSEALL	SSPALL	SSDALL
B4	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.006	.032	-.133	-.110							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.952	.743	.160	.242							
	N	117	117	111	114	115							
C15	Pearson Correlation	.006	1.000	-.040	.030	.049							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.952	.	.675	.752	.604							
	N	117	118	112	115	116							
ROLEAMB	Pearson Correlation	.032	-.040	1.000	.616**	.253**							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.743	.675	.	.000	.007							
	N	111	112	112	110	111							
ROLECONF	Pearson Correlation	-.133	.030	.616**	1.000	.354**							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.160	.752	.000	.	.000							
	N	114	115	110	115	114							
ROLEOVER	Pearson Correlation	-.110	.049	.253**	.354**	1.000							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.242	.604	.007	.000	.							
	N	115	116	111	114	116							
ROLESTRE	Pearson Correlation	-.081	.021	.845**	.864**	.605**							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.410	.829	.000	.000	.000							
	N	106	107	107	107	107							
SFEALL	Pearson Correlation	-.202*	.050	.469**	.456**	.609**							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.030	.594	.000	.000	.000							
	N	115	116	111	114	115							
SFPALL	Pearson Correlation	-.149	.154	-.302**	-.172	.013							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.112	.099	.001	.067	.886							
	N	115	116	111	114	115							
SFDALL	Pearson Correlation	-.107	-.025	.346**	.388**	.202*							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.256	.791	.000	.000	.030							
	N	115	116	111	114	115							
SSEALL	Pearson Correlation	-.181	-.110	.340**	.466**	.475**							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.054	.241	.000	.000	.000							
	N	114	115	110	114	114							
SSPALL	Pearson Correlation	-.128	.150	-.347**	-.178	-.043							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.174	.108	.000	.058	.647							
	N	115	116	111	114	115							
SSDALL	Pearson Correlation	-.089	-.107	.157	.359**	.109							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.345	.254	.100	.000	.247							
	N	114	115	110	114	114							

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX 8. 4 (7)

Correlations

		B4	C16	ROLEAMB	ROLECONF	ROLEOVER	ROLES
B4	Pearson Correlation	1.000	-.105	.032	-.133	-.110	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.261	.743	.160	.242	
	N	117	117	111	114	115	
C16	Pearson Correlation	-.105	1.000	-.179	.075	.083	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.261	.	.060	.425	.376	
	N	117	118	112	115	116	
ROLEAMB	Pearson Correlation	.032	-.179	1.000	.616**	.253**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.743	.060	.	.000	.007	
	N	111	112	112	110	111	
ROLECONF	Pearson Correlation	-.133	.075	.616**	1.000	.354**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.160	.425	.000	.	.000	
	N	114	115	110	115	114	
ROLEOVER	Pearson Correlation	-.110	.083	.253**	.354**	1.000	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.242	.376	.007	.000	.	
	N	115	116	111	114	116	
ROLESTRE	Pearson Correlation	-.081	-.036	.845**	.864**	.605**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.410	.710	.000	.000	.000	
	N	106	107	107	107	107	
SFEALL	Pearson Correlation	-.202*	.083	.469**	.456**	.609**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.030	.377	.000	.000	.000	
	N	115	116	111	114	115	
SFPALL	Pearson Correlation	-.149	.331**	-.302**	-.172	.013	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.112	.000	.001	.067	.886	
	N	115	116	111	114	115	
SFDALL	Pearson Correlation	-.107	.087	.346**	.388**	.202*	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.256	.356	.000	.000	.030	
	N	115	116	111	114	115	
SSEALL	Pearson Correlation	-.181	.071	.340**	.466**	.475**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.054	.453	.000	.000	.000	
	N	114	115	110	114	114	
SSPALL	Pearson Correlation	-.128	.251**	-.347**	-.178	-.043	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.174	.007	.000	.058	.647	
	N	115	116	111	114	115	
SSDALL	Pearson Correlation	-.089	.015	.157	.359**	.109	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.345	.875	.100	.000	.247	
	N	114	115	110	114	114	

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX 8. 4 (8)

Correlations

		B4	C17	ROLEAMB	ROLECONF	ROLEOVER	ROLES
B4	Pearson Correlation	1.000	-.032	.032	-.133	-.110	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.730	.743	.160	.242	
	N	117	117	111	114	115	
C17	Pearson Correlation	-.032	1.000	.007	-.047	-.082	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.730	.	.939	.616	.384	
	N	117	118	112	115	116	
ROLEAMB	Pearson Correlation	.032	.007	1.000	.616**	.253**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.743	.939	.	.000	.007	
	N	111	112	112	110	111	
ROLECONF	Pearson Correlation	-.133	-.047	.616**	1.000	.354**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.160	.616	.000	.	.000	
	N	114	115	110	115	114	
ROLEOVER	Pearson Correlation	-.110	-.082	.253**	.354**	1.000	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.242	.384	.007	.000	.	
	N	115	116	111	114	116	
ROLESTRE	Pearson Correlation	-.081	-.069	.845**	.864**	.605**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.410	.479	.000	.000	.000	
	N	106	107	107	107	107	
SFEALL	Pearson Correlation	-.202*	.157	.469**	.456**	.609**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.030	.093	.000	.000	.000	
	N	115	116	111	114	115	
SFPALL	Pearson Correlation	-.149	.001	-.302**	-.172	.013	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.112	.992	.001	.067	.886	
	N	115	116	111	114	115	
SFDALL	Pearson Correlation	-.107	.074	.346**	.388**	.202*	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.256	.427	.000	.000	.030	
	N	115	116	111	114	115	
SSEALL	Pearson Correlation	-.181	.039	.340**	.466**	.475**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.054	.676	.000	.000	.000	
	N	114	115	110	114	114	
SSPALL	Pearson Correlation	-.128	.073	-.347**	-.178	-.043	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.174	.435	.000	.058	.647	
	N	115	116	111	114	115	
SSDALL	Pearson Correlation	-.089	-.097	.157	.359**	.109	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.345	.302	.100	.000	.247	
	N	114	115	110	114	114	

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX 8. 5

HIGH and LOW CORRELATIONS

CAREER ORIENTATION and ROLE STRESS FACTORS

Correlations

		HROLEAMB	LROLEAMB	HROLECON	LROLECON
C10	Pearson Correlation	-.311*	-.138	-.157	.008
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.048	.293	.257	.953
	N	41	60	54	57
C11	Pearson Correlation	.007	-.215	-.172	.074
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.967	.098	.213	.584
	N	41	60	54	57
C12	Pearson Correlation	.009	-.112	-.007	.057
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.957	.393	.958	.673
	N	41	60	54	57
C13	Pearson Correlation	.016	-.177	-.068	-.140
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.921	.177	.624	.298
	N	41	60	54	57
C14	Pearson Correlation	.444**	-.037	.126	.135
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.782	.364	.318
	N	41	60	54	57
C15	Pearson Correlation	-.191	-.181	.041	.321*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.231	.167	.771	.015
	N	41	60	54	57
C16	Pearson Correlation	-.104	-.214	.189	-.105
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.516	.100	.171	.435
	N	41	60	54	57
C17	Pearson Correlation	.126	-.169	.192	.070
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.433	.198	.164	.606
	N	41	60	54	57
HROLEAMB	Pearson Correlation	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)
	N	41	60	54	57

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

KEY:

HROLEAMB High Role Ambiguity
LROLEAMB Low Role Ambiguity

HROLECON High Role Conflict
LROLECON Low Role Conflict

APPENDIX 8.5 (cont.)

Correlations

		HROLEOVE	LROLEOVE	HROLSRES	LROLSRES
C10	Pearson Correlation	-.171	.055	-.330*	-.110
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.229	.682	.025	.421
	N	51	57	46	56
C11	Pearson Correlation	.028	.030	-.186	-.191
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.845	.822	.217	.158
	N	51	57	46	56
C12	Pearson Correlation	.111	-.081	.161	-.002
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.440	.550	.285	.990
	N	51	57	46	56
C13	Pearson Correlation	.042	.169	-.040	-.352*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.768	.210	.793	.008
	N	51	57	46	56
C14	Pearson Correlation	.196	.016	.321*	-.019
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.168	.904	.030	.892
	N	51	57	46	56
C15	Pearson Correlation	.228	-.007	.117	.038
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.107	.959	.438	.782
	N	51	57	46	56
C16	Pearson Correlation	.085	.224	-.006	-.190
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.554	.094	.968	.160
	N	51	57	46	56
C17	Pearson Correlation	.022	-.035	.158	-.017
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.879	.797	.294	.902
	N	51	57	46	56

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

KEY:

HROLEOVE High Role Overload

LROLEOVE Low Role Overload

HROLSRES High Role Stress

LROLSRES Low Role Stress

APPENDIX 8. 6

**ROLE STRESS FACTORS
FREQUENCY STATISTICS**

Statistics

		ROLEAMB	ROLECONF	ROLEOVER	ROLESTRE
N	Valid	112	115	116	107
	Missing	7	4	3	12
Mean		29.2500	33.9826	23.6034	89.7196
Std. Error of Me		.7222	.6081	.4799	1.5444
Median		28.0000	34.0000	24.0000	89.0000
Mode		29.00	29.00	17.00	82.00 ^a
Std. Deviation		7.6435	6.5212	5.1683	15.9757
Variance		58.4234	42.5260	26.7109	255.2225
Skewness		.839	-.029	.396	.349
Std. Error of Sk		.228	.226	.225	.234
Kurtosis		.962	-.589	.057	.046
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.453	.447	.446	.463
Range		38.00	30.00	28.00	55.00
Minimum		15.00	18.00	12.00	137.00
Maximum		53.00	48.00	40.00	9600.00

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

APPENDIX 8. 7

**BURNOUT SUB-SCALES
FREQUENCY STATISTICS**

Statistics

		SFEALL	SFPALL	SFDALL	SSEALL	SSPALL	SSDALL
N	Valid	116	116	116	115	116	115
	Missing	3	3	3	4	3	4
Mean		23.5862	34.5603	9.2155	32.6348	39.9828	14.1826
Std. Error of Mean		.8508	.5231	.4833	.9345	.5147	.6581
Median		22.0000	34.0000	9.0000	34.0000	40.0000	14.0000
Mode		13.00 ^a	32.00	8.00 ^a	26.00 ^a	41.00	17.00
Std. Deviation		9.1633	5.6342	5.2050	10.0213	5.5435	7.0569
Variance		83.9664	31.7442	27.0923	100.4268	30.7301	49.7997
Skewness		.311	.143	.533	-.158	-.031	.145
Std. Error of Skewness		.225	.225	.225	.226	.225	.226
Kurtosis		-.293	-.535	.237	-.424	-.142	-.281
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.446	.446	.446	.447	.446	.447
Minimum		48.00	26.00	25.00	47.00	28.00	35.00
Maximum		2.00	22.00	.00	7.00	26.00	.00
Maximum		50.00	48.00	25.00	54.00	54.00	35.00

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

HIGH AND LOW CORRELATIONS

CAREER ORIENTATION and BURNOUT

Correlations

		HSFALL	LSFALL	HSFDALL	LSFDALL	HSFPALL	LSFPALL
C10	Pearson Correlation	-.067	-.057	-.168	-.027	.175	.003
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.640	.666	.233	.845	.192	.981
	N	51	59	52	57	57	53
C11	Pearson Correlation	-.028	-.081	-.114	-.009	.329*	-.014
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.843	.540	.423	.950	.012	.921
	N	51	59	52	57	57	53
C12	Pearson Correlation	.069	.042	.114	.325*	.192	.205
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.631	.754	.419	.014	.153	.140
	N	51	59	52	57	57	53
C13	Pearson Correlation	-.072	-.085	.001	-.057	.001	-.043
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.615	.523	.995	.673	.995	.759
	N	51	59	52	57	57	53
C14	Pearson Correlation	.018	.248	-.040	.423**	.202	.029
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.901	.058	.778	.001	.132	.834
	N	51	59	52	57	57	53
C15	Pearson Correlation	.086	.064	.056	.216	.010	.092
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.551	.629	.692	.106	.944	.514
	N	51	59	52	57	57	53
C16	Pearson Correlation	.008	.124	-.282*	.173	.358**	.113
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.958	.350	.043	.199	.006	.421
	N	51	59	52	57	57	53
C17	Pearson Correlation	-.088	.207	.014	.273*	.014	.139
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.540	.116	.923	.040	.919	.320
	N	51	59	52	57	57	53
HSFALL	Pearson Correlation	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)						
	N	51	59	52	57	57	53

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

KEY:**Frequency:**

HSFALL High Emotional Exhaustion:

LSFALL Low Emotional Exhaustion

HSFDALL High Dehumanisation

LSFDALL Low Dehumanisation

HSFPALL High Personal accomplishment

LSFPALL Low Personal Accomplishment

APPENDIX 8. 9

TABLES 1 - 4

Kendall tau b and Spearman CORRELATIONS

- TABLE 1** : Ethnic Origin / Role Stress Factors and Burnout Sub-scales (Freq & Int)
Role Ambiguity / Burnout Sub-Scales (F & I)
Role Conflict / Burnout Sub-Scales (F & I)
- TABLE 2** : Role Overload / Burnout Sub-scales (F & I)
Role Stress / Burnout Sub-Scales (F & I)
Emotional Exhaustion (F) and Role Stress Factors
- TABLE 3** : Depersonalisation (F) / Role Stress Factors
Personal Accomplishment (F) / Role Stress Factors
Emotional Exhaustion (I) / Role Stress Factors
- TABLE 4** : Depersonalisation (I) / Role Stress Factors
Personal Accomplishment (I) / Role Stress Factors
-

			B6	ROLEAMB	ROLECONF
Kendall's tau_b	B6	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.151	.151*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.051	.047
		N	118	112	115
	ROLEAMB	Correlation Coefficient	.151	1.000	.431**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.051	.	.000
		N	112	112	110
	ROLECONF	Correlation Coefficient	.151*	.431**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.047	.000	.
		N	115	110	115
	ROLEOVER	Correlation Coefficient	.000	.154*	.256**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.995	.022	.000
		N	116	111	114
	ROLESTRE	Correlation Coefficient	.146	.611**	.709**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.061	.000	.000
		N	107	107	107
SFEALL	Correlation Coefficient	.122	.255**	.317**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.106	.000	.000	
	N	116	111	114	
SFPALL	Correlation Coefficient	-.137	-.246**	-.110	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.072	.000	.098	
	N	116	111	114	
SFDALL	Correlation Coefficient	.154*	.150*	.280**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.043	.025	.000	
	N	116	111	114	
SSEALL	Correlation Coefficient	.187*	.175**	.332**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.014	.009	.000	
	N	115	110	114	
SSPALL	Correlation Coefficient	-.202**	-.256**	-.109	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.008	.000	.100	
	N	116	111	114	
SSDALL	Correlation Coefficient	.121	.104	.304**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.110	.121	.000	
	N	115	110	114	
Spearman's rho	B6	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.187*	.187*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.048	.046
		N	118	112	115
	ROLEAMB	Correlation Coefficient	.187*	1.000	.585**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.048	.	.000
		N	112	112	110
	ROLECONF	Correlation Coefficient	.187*	.585**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.046	.000	.
		N	115	110	115
	ROLEOVER	Correlation Coefficient	.001	.221*	.364**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.991	.020	.000
		N	116	111	114
	ROLESTRE	Correlation Coefficient	.180	.779**	.872**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.064	.000	.000
		N	107	107	107
SFEALL	Correlation Coefficient	.155	.378**	.433**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.097	.000	.000	
	N	116	111	114	

			B6	ROLEAMB	ROLECONF
Spearman's rho	SFPALL	Correlation Coefficient	-.171	-.338**	-.157
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.066	.000	.095
		N	116	111	114
	SFDALL	Correlation Coefficient	.188*	.221*	.397**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.043	.020	.000
		N	116	111	114
	SSEALL	Correlation Coefficient	.234*	.256**	.451**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.012	.007	.000
		N	115	110	114
	SSPALL	Correlation Coefficient	-.249**	-.363**	-.166
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.007	.000	.078
		N	116	111	114
	SSDALL	Correlation Coefficient	.151	.141	.423**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.107	.142	.000
		N	115	110	114

			ROLEOVER	ROLESTRE	SFEALL
Kendall's tau_b	B6	Correlation Coefficient	.000	.146	.122
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.995	.061	.106
		N	116	107	116
	ROLEAMB	Correlation Coefficient	.154*	.611**	.255**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.022	.000	.000
		N	111	107	111
	ROLECONF	Correlation Coefficient	.256**	.709**	.317**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
		N	114	107	114
	ROLEOVER	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.454**	.422**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.000
		N	116	107	115
	ROLESTRE	Correlation Coefficient	.454**	1.000	.416**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.000
		N	107	107	106
SFEALL	Correlation Coefficient	.422**	.416**	1.000	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.	
	N	115	106	116	
SFPALL	Correlation Coefficient	-.008	-.181**	.014	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.909	.008	.826	
	N	115	106	116	
SFDALL	Correlation Coefficient	.127	.236**	.360**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.056	.001	.000	
	N	115	106	116	
SSEALL	Correlation Coefficient	.360**	.379**	.515**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	114	106	115	
SSPALL	Correlation Coefficient	-.032	-.199**	-.064	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.634	.003	.331	
	N	115	106	116	
SSDALL	Correlation Coefficient	.090	.232**	.225**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.174	.001	.001	
	N	114	106	115	
Spearman's rho	B6	Correlation Coefficient	.001	.180	.155
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.991	.064	.097
		N	116	107	116
	ROLEAMB	Correlation Coefficient	.221*	.779**	.378**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.020	.000	.000
		N	111	107	111
	ROLECONF	Correlation Coefficient	.364**	.872**	.433**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
		N	114	107	114
	ROLEOVER	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.613**	.571**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.000
		N	116	107	115
	ROLESTRE	Correlation Coefficient	.613**	1.000	.576**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.000
		N	107	107	106
SFEALL	Correlation Coefficient	.571**	.576**	1.000	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.	
	N	115	106	116	

			ROLEOVER	ROLESTRE	SFEALL
Spearman's rho	SFPALL	Correlation Coefficient	-.006	-.264**	.023
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.953	.006	.810
		N	115	106	116
	SFDALL	Correlation Coefficient	.189*	.343**	.488**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.043	.000	.000
		N	115	106	116
	SSEALL	Correlation Coefficient	.486**	.524**	.670**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
		N	114	106	115
	SSPALL	Correlation Coefficient	-.044	-.297**	-.088
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.639	.002	.350
		N	115	106	116
	SSDALL	Correlation Coefficient	.146	.333**	.312**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.122	.000	.001
		N	114	106	115

			SFPALL	SFDALL	SSEALL
Kendall's tau_b	B6	Correlation Coefficient	-.137	.154*	.187*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.072	.043	.014
		N	116	116	115
	ROLEAMB	Correlation Coefficient	-.246**	.150*	.175**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.025	.009
		N	111	111	110
	ROLECONF	Correlation Coefficient	-.110	.280**	.332**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.098	.000	.000
		N	114	114	114
	ROLEOVER	Correlation Coefficient	-.008	.127	.360**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.909	.056	.000
		N	115	115	114
	ROLESTRE	Correlation Coefficient	-.181**	.236**	.379**
Sig. (2-tailed)		.008	.001	.000	
N		106	106	106	
SFEALL	Correlation Coefficient	.014	.360**	.515**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.826	.000	.000	
	N	116	116	115	
SFPALL	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.005	-.046	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.935	.477	
	N	116	116	115	
SFDALL	Correlation Coefficient	-.005	1.000	.248**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.935	.	.000	
	N	116	116	115	
SSEALL	Correlation Coefficient	-.046	.248**	1.000	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.477	.000	.	
	N	115	115	115	
SSPALL	Correlation Coefficient	.473**	-.038	.035	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.566	.597	
	N	116	116	115	
SSDALL	Correlation Coefficient	-.091	.545**	.416**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.165	.000	.000	
	N	115	115	115	
Spearman's rho	B6	Correlation Coefficient	-.171	.188*	.234*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.066	.043	.012
		N	116	116	115
	ROLEAMB	Correlation Coefficient	-.338**	.221*	.256**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.020	.007
		N	111	111	110
	ROLECONF	Correlation Coefficient	-.157	.397**	.451**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.095	.000	.000
		N	114	114	114
	ROLEOVER	Correlation Coefficient	-.006	.189*	.486**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.953	.043	.000
		N	115	115	114
	ROLESTRE	Correlation Coefficient	-.264**	.343**	.524**
Sig. (2-tailed)		.006	.000	.000	
N		106	106	106	
SFEALL	Correlation Coefficient	.023	.488**	.670**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.810	.000	.000	
	N	116	116	115	

			SFPALL	SFDALL	SSEALL
Spearman's rho	SFPALL	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.002	-.065
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.987	.489
		N	116	116	115
	SFDALL	Correlation Coefficient	-.002	1.000	.344**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.987	.	.000
		N	116	116	115
	SSEALL	Correlation Coefficient	-.065	.344**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.489	.000	.
		N	115	115	115
	SSPALL	Correlation Coefficient	.616**	-.051	.039
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.583	.681
		N	116	116	115
	SSDALL	Correlation Coefficient	-.126	.689**	.572**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.179	.000	.000
		N	115	115	115

			SSPALL	SSDALL
Kendall's tau_b	B6	Correlation Coefficient	-.202**	.121
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.008	.110
		N	116	115
	ROLEAMB	Correlation Coefficient	-.256**	.104
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.121
		N	111	110
	ROLECONF	Correlation Coefficient	-.109	.304**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.100	.000
		N	114	114
	ROLEOVER	Correlation Coefficient	-.032	.090
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.634	.174
		N	115	114
	ROLESTRE	Correlation Coefficient	-.199**	.232**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.001
N		106	106	
SFEALL	Correlation Coefficient	-.064	.225**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.331	.001	
	N	116	115	
SFPALL	Correlation Coefficient	.473**	-.091	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.165	
	N	116	115	
SFDALL	Correlation Coefficient	-.038	.545**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.566	.000	
	N	116	115	
SSEALL	Correlation Coefficient	.035	.416**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.597	.000	
	N	115	115	
SSPALL	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.015	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.820	
	N	116	115	
SSDALL	Correlation Coefficient	.015	1.000	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.820	.	
	N	115	115	
Spearman's rho	B6	Correlation Coefficient	-.249**	.151
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.007	.107
		N	116	115
	ROLEAMB	Correlation Coefficient	-.363**	.141
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.142
		N	111	110
	ROLECONF	Correlation Coefficient	-.166	.423**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.078	.000
		N	114	114
	ROLEOVER	Correlation Coefficient	-.044	.146
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.639	.122
		N	115	114
	ROLESTRE	Correlation Coefficient	-.297**	.333**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.000
N		106	106	
SFEALL	Correlation Coefficient	-.088	.312**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.350	.001	
	N	116	115	

			SSPALL	SSDALL
Spearman's rho	SFPALL	Correlation Coefficient	.616**	-.126
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.179
		N	116	115
	SFDALL	Correlation Coefficient	-.051	.689**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.583	.000
		N	116	115
	SSEALL	Correlation Coefficient	.039	.572**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.681	.000
		N	115	115
	SSPALL	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.018
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.846
		N	116	115
	SSDALL	Correlation Coefficient	.018	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.846	.
		N	115	115

*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

** . Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX 8. 10

SPEARMAN CORRELATIONS

ROLE STRESS FACTORS AND BURNOUT SUB-SCALES

	Role Ambiguity	Role Conflict	Role Overload	Role Stress
SFEALL	r = 0.378 P < 0.000	r = 0.433 P < 0.000	r = 0.571 P < 0.000	r = 0.576 P < 0.000
SFDALL	r = 0.221 P < 0.020	r = 0.397 P < 0.000	r = 0.189 P < 0.043	r = 0.343 P < 0.000
SFPALL	r = - 0.338 P < 0.000	-	-	r = - 0.264 P < 0.006
SSEALL	r = 0.256 P < 0.007	r = 0.451 P < 0.000	r = 0.486 P < 0.000	r = 0.524 P < 0.000
SSDALL	-	r = 0.423 P < 0.000	-	r = 0.333 P < 0.000
SSPALL	r = - 0.363 P < 0.000	-	-	r = - 0.297 P < 0.002

Key:

Frequency:

SFEALL: Emotional Exhaustion

SFDALL: Depersonalisation

SFPALL: Personal Accomplishment

Intensity:

SSEALL: Emotional Exhaustion

SSDALL: Depersonalisation

SSPALL: Personal Accomplishment

APPENDIX 8. 11

KENDALL tau CORRELATIONS

ROLE STRESS FACTORS AND BURNOUT SUB-SCALES

	Role Ambiguity	Role Conflict	Role Overload	Role Stress
SFEALL	r = 0.255 P < 0.000	r = 0.317 P < 0.000	r = 0.422 P < 0.000	r = 0.416 P < 0.000
SFDALL	r = 0.150 P < 0.025	r = 0.280 P < 0.000	-	r = 0.236 P < 0.000
SFPALL	r = - 0.246 P < 0.000	-	-	r = 0.181 P < 0.008
SSEALL	r = 0.175 P < 0.009	r = 0.332 P < 0.000	r = 0.360 P < 0.000	r = 0.379 P < 0.000
SSDALL	-	r = 0.304 P < 0.000	-	r = 0.232 P < 0.001
SSPALL	r = - 0.256 P < 0.000	-	-	r = - 0.199 P < 0.003

Key:

Frequency:

SFEALL: Emotional Exhaustion
SFDALL: Depersonalisation
SFPALL: Personal Accomplishment

Intensity:

SSEALL: Emotional Exhaustion
SSDALL: Depersonalisation
SSPALL: Personal Accomplishment

APPENDIX 8. 12

TABLES 1 - 40

MULTIPLE REGRESSION

(Pages 452 - 487)

APPENDIX 8.12 Model Summary

TABLE 1

ROLE AMBIGUITY and
CAREER ORIENTATION

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.327 ^a	.107	.037	7.4993
2	.327 ^b	.107	.047	7.4632
3	.325 ^c	.106	.054	7.4324
4	.322 ^d	.104	.062	7.4045
5	.320 ^e	.102	.069	7.3762
6	.304 ^f	.092	.067	7.3823

a. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C10, C11, C15, C13, C14, C12, C16

b. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C10, C11, C13, C14, C12, C16

c. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C10, C11, C13, C14, C16

d. Predictors: (Constant), C10, C11, C13, C14, C16

e. Predictors: (Constant), C10, C11, C14, C16

f. Predictors: (Constant), C10, C11, C14

ANOVA^g

TABLE 2

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	692.279	8	86.535	1.539	.153 ^a
	Residual	5792.721	103	56.240		
	Total	6485.000	111			
2	Regression	692.252	7	98.893	1.775	.100 ^b
	Residual	5792.748	104	55.699		
	Total	6485.000	111			
3	Regression	684.721	6	114.120	2.066	.063 ^c
	Residual	5800.279	105	55.241		
	Total	6485.000	111			
4	Regression	673.324	5	134.665	2.456	.038 ^d
	Residual	5811.676	106	54.827		
	Total	6485.000	111			
5	Regression	663.350	4	165.837	3.048	.020 ^e
	Residual	5821.650	107	54.408		
	Total	6485.000	111			
6	Regression	599.118	3	199.706	3.664	.015 ^f
	Residual	5885.882	108	54.499		
	Total	6485.000	111			

a. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C10, C11, C15, C13, C14, C12, C16

b. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C10, C11, C13, C14, C12, C16

c. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C10, C11, C13, C14, C16

d. Predictors: (Constant), C10, C11, C13, C14, C16

e. Predictors: (Constant), C10, C11, C14, C16

f. Predictors: (Constant), C10, C11, C14

g. Dependent Variable: ROLEAMB

Excluded Variables^f

TABLE 3

Model	Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics	
					Tolerance	
2	C15	-.002 ^a	-.022	.982	-.002	.885
3	C15	.003 ^b	.031	.975	.003	.903
	C12	.042 ^b	.368	.714	.036	.667
4	C15	-.005 ^c	-.055	.956	-.005	.937
	C12	.030 ^c	.270	.788	.026	.695
	C17	-.044 ^c	-.454	.651	-.044	.929
5	C15	-.005 ^d	-.050	.960	-.005	.937
	C12	.014 ^d	.131	.896	.013	.764
	C17	-.037 ^d	-.389	.698	-.038	.949
	C13	.041 ^d	.427	.671	.041	.916
6	C15	-.018 ^e	-.187	.852	-.018	.953
	C12	-.009 ^e	-.088	.930	-.008	.796
	C17	-.029 ^e	-.310	.757	-.030	.954
	C13	.052 ^e	.545	.587	.053	.928
	C16	-.120 ^e	-1.087	.280	-.104	.688

Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C17, C10, C11, C13, C14, C12, C16

Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C17, C10, C11, C13, C14, C16

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C10, C11, C13, C14, C16

d. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C10, C11, C14, C16

e. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C10, C11, C14

f. Dependent Variable: ROLEAMB

Coefficients^a

TABLE 4

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	36.084	5.093		7.085	.000
	C10	-1.036	.764	-.140	-1.355	.178
	C11	-.951	.652	-.159	-1.458	.148
	C12	.268	.734	.042	.365	.716
	C13	.366	.636	.060	.576	.566
	C14	1.162	.565	.218	2.057	.042
	C15	-1.174E-02	.533	-.002	-.022	.982
	C16	-.948	.878	-.125	-1.079	.283
	C17	-.298	.590	-.050	-.505	.615
2	(Constant)	36.071	5.033		7.167	.000
	C10	-1.038	.751	-.140	-1.383	.170
	C11	-.949	.646	-.159	-1.471	.144
	C12	.266	.722	.042	.368	.714
	C13	.366	.633	.060	.578	.564
	C14	1.163	.561	.218	2.072	.041
	C16	-.950	.868	-.125	-1.094	.276
	C17	-.300	.579	-.051	-.517	.606
	3	(Constant)	36.594	4.808		7.611
C10		-1.021	.746	-.138	-1.368	.174
C11		-.927	.640	-.155	-1.448	.151
C13		.289	.595	.047	.486	.628
C14		1.232	.526	.231	2.342	.021
C16		-.890	.849	-.118	-1.048	.297
C17		-.257	.565	-.044	-.454	.651
4		(Constant)	35.696	4.367		8.174
	C10	-1.014	.743	-.137	-1.364	.175
	C11	-.926	.638	-.155	-1.453	.149
	C13	.250	.587	.041	.427	.671
	C14	1.177	.510	.221	2.308	.023
	C16	-.868	.845	-.115	-1.028	.306
5	(Constant)	36.311	4.106		8.844	.000
	C10	-.935	.717	-.126	-1.303	.195
	C11	-.886	.628	-.148	-1.410	.161
	C14	1.166	.507	.219	2.298	.024
	C16	-.909	.836	-.120	-1.087	.280
6	(Constant)	34.713	3.837		9.048	.000
	C10	-1.159	.687	-.156	-1.687	.094
	C11	-1.180	.567	-.198	-2.081	.040
	C14	1.078	.501	.202	2.151	.034

a. Dependent Variable: ROLEAMB

TABLE 5

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	C17, C10, C11, C15, C13, C14, ^a C12, C16 ^a		Enter
2		C15	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remove >= .100).
3		C12	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remove >= .100).
4		C17	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remove >= .100).
5		C13	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remove >= .100).
6		C16	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remove >= .100).

a. All requested variables entered.
 Dependent Variable: ROLEAMB

APPENDIX 8.12

Model Summary

TABLE 6

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.273 ^a	.075	.005	6.5056
2	.273 ^b	.075	.014	6.4752
3	.271 ^c	.073	.022	6.4493
4	.266 ^d	.071	.028	6.4291
5	.259 ^e	.067	.033	6.4115
6	.251 ^f	.063	.038	6.3970
7	.237 ^g	.056	.039	6.3920

a. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C10, C11, C15, C14, C13, C16, C12

b. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C10, C11, C15, C14, C13, C16

c. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C10, C15, C14, C13, C16

d. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C10, C14, C13, C16

e. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C10, C14, C13

f. Predictors: (Constant), C10, C14, C13

g. Predictors: (Constant), C14, C13

ANOVA^h

TABLE 7

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	361.717	8	45.215	1.068	.391 ^a
	Residual	4486.248	106	42.323		
	Total	4847.965	114			
2	Regression	361.715	7	51.674	1.232	.292 ^b
	Residual	4486.251	107	41.928		
	Total	4847.965	114			
3	Regression	355.859	6	59.310	1.426	.211 ^c
	Residual	4492.106	108	41.594		
	Total	4847.965	114			
4	Regression	342.695	5	68.539	1.658	.151 ^d
	Residual	4505.270	109	41.333		
	Total	4847.965	114			
5	Regression	326.182	4	81.546	1.984	.102 ^e
	Residual	4521.783	110	41.107		
	Total	4847.965	114			
6	Regression	305.648	3	101.883	2.490	.064 ^f
	Residual	4542.317	111	40.922		
	Total	4847.965	114			
7	Regression	271.968	2	135.984	3.328	.039 ^g
	Residual	4575.997	112	40.857		
	Total	4847.965	114			

a. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C10, C11, C15, C14, C13, C16, C12

b. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C10, C11, C15, C14, C13, C16

c. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C10, C15, C14, C13, C16

d. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C10, C14, C13, C16

e. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C10, C14, C13

f. Predictors: (Constant), C10, C14, C13

g. Predictors: (Constant), C14, C13

h. Dependent Variable: ROLECONF

TABLE 8

Model	Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics	
					Tolerance	
2	C12	.001 ^a	.007	.994	.001	.666
3	C12	.008 ^b	.068	.946	.007	.685
	C11	.040 ^b	.374	.709	.036	.770
4	C12	.014 ^c	.125	.901	.012	.692
	C11	.035 ^c	.336	.737	.032	.774
	C15	.054 ^c	.563	.575	.054	.936
5	C12	.027 ^d	.248	.804	.024	.720
	C11	.053 ^d	.548	.585	.052	.898
	C15	.058 ^d	.607	.545	.058	.940
	C16	.064 ^d	.632	.529	.060	.841
6	C12	.013 ^e	.121	.904	.012	.743
	C11	.055 ^e	.563	.575	.054	.899
	C15	.043 ^e	.460	.646	.044	.977
	C16	.068 ^e	.681	.498	.065	.845
	C17	-.067 ^e	-.707	.481	-.067	.945
7	C12	-.002 ^f	-.024	.981	-.002	.762
	C11	.043 ^f	.448	.655	.042	.912
	C15	.030 ^f	.321	.749	.030	.999
	C16	.036 ^f	.372	.710	.035	.931
	C17	-.063 ^f	-.662	.509	-.063	.948
	C10	-.087 ^f	-.907	.366	-.086	.924

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C17, C10, C11, C15, C14, C13, C16

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C17, C10, C15, C14, C13, C16

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C17, C10, C14, C13, C16

d. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C17, C10, C14, C13

e. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C10, C14, C13

f. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C14, C13

g. Dependent Variable: ROLECONF

Coefficients^a

TABLE 9

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	35.350	4.347		8.132	.000
	C10	-.726	.639	-.117	-1.136	.259
	C11	.197	.540	.039	.366	.715
	C12	4.553E-03	.613	.001	.007	.994
	C13	-.641	.545	-.124	-1.177	.242
	C14	.792	.494	.171	1.605	.111
	C15	.255	.442	.056	.577	.565
	C16	.276	.694	.044	.397	.692
	C17	-.385	.515	-.075	-.747	.456
2	(Constant)	35.357	4.196		8.426	.000
	C10	-.726	.634	-.117	-1.145	.255
	C11	.198	.530	.040	.374	.709
	C13	-.642	.513	-.124	-1.252	.213
	C14	.793	.461	.172	1.720	.088
	C15	.255	.437	.056	.584	.560
	C16	.276	.686	.044	.403	.688
	C17	-.385	.506	-.074	-.761	.449
	3	(Constant)	35.443	4.173		8.493
C10		-.723	.631	-.117	-1.145	.255
C13		-.612	.505	-.118	-1.213	.228
C14		.820	.454	.178	1.809	.073
C15		.244	.434	.054	.563	.575
C16		.373	.633	.060	.589	.557
C17		-.381	.503	-.074	-.756	.451
4		(Constant)	35.956	4.060		8.856
	C10	-.676	.624	-.109	-1.083	.281
	C13	-.625	.503	-.121	-1.242	.217
	C14	.809	.452	.175	1.792	.076
	C16	.398	.629	.064	.632	.529
	C17	-.325	.492	-.063	-.660	.511
	5	(Constant)	37.006	3.694		10.017
C10		-.557	.593	-.090	-.938	.350
C13		-.640	.501	-.123	-1.277	.204
C14		.884	.435	.191	2.034	.044
C17		-.346	.489	-.067	-.707	.481
6		(Constant)	35.803	3.271		10.945
	C10	-.536	.591	-.087	-.907	.366
	C13	-.691	.495	-.133	-1.396	.166
	C14	.825	.426	.178	1.938	.055
	7	(Constant)	33.855	2.466		13.727
C13		-.812	.476	-.157	-1.706	.091
C14		.799	.424	.173	1.883	.062

a. Dependent Variable: ROLECONF

TABLE 10

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	C17, C10, C11, C15, C14, C13, C16, C12 ^a		Enter
2		C12	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remove >= .100).
3		C11	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remove >= .100).
4		C15	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remove >= .100).
5		C16	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remove >= .100).
6		C17	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remove >= .100).
7		C10	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remove >= .100).

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: ROLECONF

Model Summary **APPENDIX 8. 12**
TABLE 11

ROLE OVERLOAD and
CAREER ORIENTATION

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.285 ^a	.082	.013	5.1350
2	.285 ^b	.081	.022	5.1113
3	.285 ^c	.081	.031	5.0887
4	.282 ^d	.080	.038	5.0699
5	.277 ^e	.077	.044	5.0541
6	.256 ^f	.066	.041	5.0620
7	.227 ^g	.052	.035	5.0773

a. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C10, C11, C15, C14, C13, C16, C12

b. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C11, C15, C14, C13, C16, C12

c. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C11, C15, C14, C13, C16

d. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C11, C15, C14, C16

e. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C11, C14, C16

f. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C11, C14

g. Predictors: (Constant), C11, C14

ANOVA^h

TABLE 12

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	250.356	8	31.294	1.187	.314 ^a
	Residual	2821.403	107	26.368		
	Total	3071.759	115			
2	Regression	250.251	7	35.750	1.368	.226 ^b
	Residual	2821.508	108	26.125		
	Total	3071.759	115			
3	Regression	249.264	6	41.544	1.604	.153 ^c
	Residual	2822.494	109	25.894		
	Total	3071.759	115			
4	Regression	244.334	5	48.867	1.901	.100 ^d
	Residual	2827.425	110	25.704		
	Total	3071.759	115			
5	Regression	236.428	4	59.107	2.314	.062 ^e
	Residual	2835.331	111	25.544		
	Total	3071.759	115			
6	Regression	201.884	3	67.295	2.626	.054 ^f
	Residual	2869.874	112	25.624		
	Total	3071.759	115			
7	Regression	158.727	2	79.363	3.079	.050 ^g
	Residual	2913.032	113	25.779		
	Total	3071.759	115			

a. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C10, C11, C15, C14, C13, C16, C12

b. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C11, C15, C14, C13, C16, C12

c. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C11, C15, C14, C13, C16

d. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C11, C15, C14, C16

e. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C11, C14, C16

f. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C11, C14

g. Predictors: (Constant), C11, C14

h. Dependent Variable: ROLEOVER

Model	Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics	
					Tolerance	
2	C10	-.006 ^a	-.063	.950	-.006	.812
3	C10	-.005 ^b	-.046	.964	-.004	.818
	C12	.022 ^b	.194	.846	.019	.673
4	C10	-.016 ^c	-.159	.874	-.015	.880
	C12	.034 ^c	.321	.749	.031	.745
	C13	-.041 ^c	-.436	.663	-.042	.954
5	C10	-.008 ^d	-.085	.933	-.008	.896
	C12	.040 ^d	.384	.701	.037	.755
	C13	-.041 ^d	-.433	.666	-.041	.954
	C15	.052 ^d	.555	.580	.053	.946
6	C10	.022 ^e	.233	.816	.022	.967
	C12	.059 ^e	.572	.568	.054	.777
	C13	-.043 ^e	-.459	.647	-.044	.954
	C15	.066 ^e	.703	.483	.067	.963
	C16	.120 ^e	1.163	.247	.110	.785
7	C10	.024 ^f	.261	.794	.025	.968
	C12	.042 ^f	.410	.682	.039	.788
	C13	-.057 ^f	-.616	.539	-.058	.969
	C15	.041 ^f	.445	.658	.042	.999
	C16	.130 ^f	1.264	.209	.119	.790
	C17	-.121 ^f	-1.298	.197	-.122	.957

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C17, C11, C15, C14, C13, C16, C12

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C17, C11, C15, C14, C13, C16

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C17, C11, C15, C14, C16

d. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C17, C11, C14, C16

e. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C17, C11, C14

f. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C11, C14

g. Dependent Variable: ROLEOVER

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	23.152	3.412		6.785	.000
	C10	-3.185E-02	.505	-.006	-.063	.950
	C11	-.823	.425	-.207	-1.936	.056
	C12	9.570E-02	.483	.022	.198	.843
	C13	-.138	.433	-.033	-.320	.750
	C14	.696	.385	.192	1.808	.073
	C15	.184	.349	.051	.527	.600
	C16	.542	.546	.110	.992	.324
	C17	-.495	.405	-.121	-1.222	.224
2	(Constant)	23.083	3.213		7.184	.000
	C11	-.823	.423	-.207	-1.945	.054
	C12	9.298E-02	.478	.022	.194	.846
	C13	-.146	.414	-.035	-.353	.725
	C14	.697	.383	.192	1.819	.072
	C15	.181	.344	.050	.525	.601
	C16	.533	.526	.108	1.014	.313
	C17	-.493	.402	-.121	-1.227	.223
	3	(Constant)	23.267	3.056		7.615
C11		-.808	.415	-.203	-1.949	.054
C13		-.171	.392	-.041	-.436	.663
C14		.722	.358	.199	2.013	.047
C15		.189	.340	.053	.556	.579
C16		.548	.517	.111	1.060	.291
C17		-.481	.395	-.118	-1.216	.226
4		(Constant)	22.790	2.843		8.017
	C11	-.840	.407	-.211	-2.062	.042
	C14	.734	.356	.202	2.061	.042
	C15	.188	.339	.052	.555	.580
	C16	.554	.515	.112	1.075	.285
	C17	-.501	.391	-.123	-1.282	.203
	5	(Constant)	23.285	2.690		8.654
C11		-.855	.405	-.215	-2.112	.037
C14		.728	.355	.200	2.051	.043
C16		.592	.509	.120	1.163	.247
C17		-.458	.382	-.112	-1.199	.233
6		(Constant)	25.077	2.209		11.353
	C11	-.672	.373	-.169	-1.799	.075
	C14	.809	.348	.223	2.323	.022
	C17	-.495	.381	-.121	-1.298	.197
	7	(Constant)	23.250	1.708		13.615
C11		-.666	.375	-.168	-1.779	.078
C14		.717	.342	.197	2.096	.038

a. Dependent Variable: ROLEOVER

TABLE 15

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	C17, C10, C11, C15, C14, C13 ^a , C16, C12 ^a		Enter
2		C10	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remove >= .100).
3		C12	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remove >= .100).
4		C13	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remove >= .100).
5		C15	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remove >= .100).
6		C16	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remove >= .100).
7		C17	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remove >= .100).

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: ROLEOVER

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.320 ^a	.103	.029	15.7389
2	.320 ^b	.103	.039	15.6594
3	.320 ^c	.103	.049	15.5812
4	.318 ^d	.101	.057	15.5142
5	.313 ^e	.098	.062	15.4689
6	.292 ^f	.085	.059	15.5002
7	.264 ^g	.070	.052	15.5545

a. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C16, C13, C15, C14, C10, C11, C12

b. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C16, C13, C15, C14, C10, C11

c. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C13, C15, C14, C10, C11

d. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C15, C14, C10, C11

e. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C14, C10, C11

f. Predictors: (Constant), C14, C10, C11

g. Predictors: (Constant), C14, C11

ANOVA^h

TABLE 17

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2777.780	8	347.223	1.402	.205 ^a
	Residual	24275.808	98	247.712		
	Total	27053.589	106			
2	Regression	2777.090	7	396.727	1.618	.139 ^b
	Residual	24276.499	99	245.217		
	Total	27053.589	106			
3	Regression	2776.088	6	462.681	1.906	.087 ^c
	Residual	24277.500	100	242.775		
	Total	27053.589	106			
4	Regression	2743.862	5	548.772	2.280	.052 ^d
	Residual	24309.727	101	240.690		
	Total	27053.589	106			
5	Regression	2646.392	4	661.598	2.765	.031 ^e
	Residual	24407.197	102	239.286		
	Total	27053.589	106			
6	Regression	2307.056	3	769.019	3.201	.026 ^f
	Residual	24746.533	103	240.258		
	Total	27053.589	106			
7	Regression	1891.523	2	945.762	3.909	.023 ^g
	Residual	25162.065	104	241.943		
	Total	27053.589	106			

a. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C16, C13, C15, C14, C10, C11, C12

b. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C16, C13, C15, C14, C10, C11

c. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C13, C15, C14, C10, C11

d. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C15, C14, C10, C11

e. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C14, C10, C11

f. Predictors: (Constant), C14, C10, C11

g. Predictors: (Constant), C14, C11

h. Dependent Variable: ROLESTRE

Model	Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics	
					Tolerance	
2	C12	-.006 ^a	-.053	.958	-.005	.664
3	C12	-.007 ^b	-.063	.950	-.006	.683
	C16	-.007 ^b	-.064	.949	-.006	.669
4	C12	.006 ^c	.059	.953	.006	.765
	C16	-.003 ^c	-.027	.978	-.003	.675
	C13	-.036 ^c	-.364	.716	-.036	.907
5	C12	.017 ^d	.164	.870	.016	.786
	C16	.007 ^d	.065	.948	.007	.690
	C13	-.037 ^d	-.375	.708	-.037	.907
	C15	.063 ^d	.636	.526	.063	.922
6	C12	.002 ^e	.019	.985	.002	.798
	C16	.016 ^e	.140	.889	.014	.693
	C13	-.054 ^e	-.549	.584	-.054	.928
	C15	.041 ^e	.423	.673	.042	.950
	C17	-.114 ^e	-1.191	.236	-.117	.962
7	C12	-.004 ^f	-.034	.973	-.003	.799
	C16	-.025 ^f	-.227	.821	-.022	.750
	C13	-.077 ^f	-.802	.424	-.079	.968
	C15	.012 ^f	.124	.902	.012	.998
	C17	-.112 ^f	-1.167	.246	-.114	.962
	C10	-.126 ^f	-1.315	.191	-.129	.968

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C17, C16, C13, C15, C14, C10, C11

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C17, C13, C15, C14, C10, C11

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C17, C15, C14, C10, C11

d. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C17, C14, C10, C11

e. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C14, C10, C11

f. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C14, C11

g. Dependent Variable: ROLESTRE

Coefficients^a

TABLE 19

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	99.160	10.862		9.129	.000
	C10	-2.033	1.623	-.132	-1.253	.213
	C11	-1.558	1.407	-.125	-1.107	.271
	C12	-8.207E-02	1.555	-.006	-.053	.958
	C13	-.493	1.356	-.039	-.363	.717
	C14	3.045	1.213	.273	2.511	.014
	C15	.703	1.124	.064	.625	.533
	C16	-9.988E-02	1.853	-.006	-.054	.957
	C17	-1.496	1.280	-.119	-1.169	.245
2	(Constant)	99.012	10.441		9.483	.000
	C10	-2.036	1.614	-.133	-1.261	.210
	C11	-1.566	1.392	-.126	-1.124	.264
	C13	-.470	1.281	-.037	-.367	.714
	C14	3.022	1.129	.271	2.677	.009
	C15	.694	1.107	.063	.627	.532
	C16	-.116	1.818	-.007	-.064	.949
	C17	-1.507	1.257	-.120	-1.199	.233
	3	(Constant)	98.792	9.812		10.069
C10		-2.062	1.552	-.134	-1.329	.187
C11		-1.605	1.241	-.129	-1.293	.199
C13		-.462	1.268	-.036	-.364	.716
C14		3.011	1.110	.270	2.713	.008
C15		.684	1.090	.062	.628	.532
C17		-1.501	1.247	-.119	-1.203	.232
4		(Constant)	98.018	9.538		10.277
	C10	-2.178	1.512	-.142	-1.441	.153
	C11	-1.670	1.223	-.134	-1.365	.175
	C14	3.051	1.099	.273	2.775	.007
	C15	.690	1.085	.063	.636	.526
	C17	-1.570	1.227	-.125	-1.279	.204
	5	(Constant)	99.376	9.269		10.722
C10		-1.961	1.469	-.128	-1.335	.185
C11		-1.708	1.218	-.137	-1.402	.164
C14		3.053	1.096	.274	2.785	.006
C17		-1.436	1.206	-.114	-1.191	.236
6		(Constant)	94.012	8.116		11.583
	C10	-1.935	1.472	-.126	-1.315	.191
	C11	-1.735	1.220	-.139	-1.422	.158
	C14	2.809	1.079	.252	2.603	.011
	7	(Constant)	86.178	5.533		15.576
C11		-2.006	1.207	-.161	-1.661	.100
C14		2.773	1.082	.248	2.561	.012

a. Dependent Variable: ROLESTRE

Variables Entered/Removed^b

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	C17, C16, C13, C15, C14, C10, ^a C11, C12		Enter
2		C12	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remo ve >= .100).
3		C16	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remo ve >= .100).
		C13	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remo ve >= .100).
5		C15	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remo ve >= .100).
6		C17	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remo ve >= .100).
		C10	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remo ve >= .100).

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: ROLESTRE

Variables Entered/Removed^b

TABLE 21

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	C17, C10, C11, C15, C13, C14, ^a C16, C12		Enter
2		C15	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remove >= .100).
3		C10	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remove >= .100).
4		C16	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remove >= .100).
5		C17	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remove >= .100).
6		C13	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remove >= .100).

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: SFEALL

Model Summary^a

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.394 ^a	.155	.092	8.7300
2	.394 ^b	.155	.101	8.6895
3	.392 ^c	.154	.107	8.6573
4	.391 ^d	.153	.114	8.6228
5	.382 ^e	.146	.115	8.6183
6	.375 ^f	.141	.118	8.6062

Model	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.155	2.462	8	107	.017	2.203
2	.000	.001	1	109	.971	
3	-.002	.192	1	110	.662	
4	-.001	.127	1	111	.723	
5	-.007	.883	1	112	.350	
6	-.005	.686	1	113	.409	

a. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C10, C11, C15, C13, C14, C16, C12

b. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C10, C11, C13, C14, C16, C12

c. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C11, C13, C14, C16, C12

d. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C11, C13, C14, C12

e. Predictors: (Constant), C11, C13, C14, C12

f. Predictors: (Constant), C11, C14, C12

g. Dependent Variable: SFEALL

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1501.358	8	187.670	2.462	.017 ^a
	Residual	8154.780	107	76.213		
	Total	9656.138	115			
2	Regression	1501.258	7	214.465	2.840	.009 ^b
	Residual	8154.880	108	75.508		
	Total	9656.138	115			
3	Regression	1486.745	6	247.791	3.306	.005 ^c
	Residual	8169.393	109	74.949		
	Total	9656.138	115			
4	Regression	1477.262	5	295.452	3.974	.002 ^d
	Residual	8178.876	110	74.353		
	Total	9656.138	115			
5	Regression	1411.628	4	352.907	4.751	.001 ^e
	Residual	8244.510	111	74.275		
	Total	9656.138	115			
6	Regression	1360.653	3	453.551	6.124	.001 ^f
	Residual	8295.485	112	74.067		
	Total	9656.138	115			

a. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C10, C11, C15, C13, C14, C16, C12

b. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C10, C11, C13, C14, C16, C12

c. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C11, C13, C14, C16, C12

d. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C11, C13, C14, C12

e. Predictors: (Constant), C11, C13, C14, C12

f. Predictors: (Constant), C11, C14, C12

g. Dependent Variable: SFEALL

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	15.213	5.813		2.617	.010
	C10	-.378	.864	-.043	-.438	.663
	C11	-1.003	.721	-.143	-1.391	.167
	C12	1.200	.851	.156	1.411	.161
	C13	-.594	.731	-.080	-.813	.418
	C14	1.594	.657	.248	2.428	.017
	C15	2.154E-02	.593	.003	.036	.971
	C16	.418	.929	.048	.450	.653
	C17	.629	.688	.087	.914	.363
2	(Constant)	15.253	5.683		2.684	.008
	C10	-.375	.854	-.043	-.438	.662
	C11	-1.005	.715	-.143	-1.406	.163
	C12	1.203	.841	.156	1.431	.155
	C13	-.594	.727	-.080	-.817	.416
	C14	1.593	.652	.247	2.443	.016
	C16	.421	.922	.048	.456	.649
	C17	.633	.674	.088	.939	.350
	3	(Constant)	14.355	5.281		2.718
C11		-.997	.712	-.142	-1.400	.164
C12		1.153	.830	.149	1.389	.168
C13		-.686	.694	-.093	-.989	.325
C14		1.607	.649	.250	2.478	.015
C16		.315	.887	.036	.356	.723
C17		.651	.671	.090	.971	.334
4		(Constant)	15.194	4.706		3.229
	C11	-.909	.665	-.129	-1.367	.175
	C12	1.206	.813	.156	1.483	.141
	C13	-.680	.691	-.092	-.984	.327
	C14	1.635	.642	.254	2.548	.012
	C17	.623	.663	.087	.940	.350
5	(Constant)	16.822	4.373		3.847	.000
	C11	-.967	.662	-.137	-1.461	.147
	C12	1.349	.798	.175	1.690	.094
	C13	-.563	.679	-.076	-.828	.409
	C14	1.709	.636	.265	2.686	.008
6	(Constant)	14.566	3.416		4.264	.000
	C11	-1.081	.647	-.154	-1.671	.097
	C12	1.522	.770	.197	1.978	.050
	C14	1.681	.634	.261	2.649	.009

a. Dependent Variable: SFEALL

TABLE 24

Model	Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics	
					Tolerance	
2	C15	.003 ^a	.036	.971	.004	.918
3	C15	-.001 ^b	-.015	.988	-.001	.931
	C10	-.043 ^b	-.438	.662	-.042	.824
4	C15	.002 ^c	.024	.981	.002	.942
	C10	-.031 ^c	-.332	.740	-.032	.885
	C16	.036 ^c	.356	.723	.034	.758
5	C15	.015 ^d	.168	.867	.016	.965
	C10	-.039 ^d	-.414	.679	-.039	.892
	C16	.025 ^d	.245	.807	.023	.768
	C17	.087 ^d	.940	.350	.089	.908
6	C15	.010 ^e	.108	.914	.010	.970
	C10	-.056 ^e	-.626	.533	-.059	.964
	C16	.024 ^e	.242	.809	.023	.768
	C17	.070 ^e	.775	.440	.073	.938
	C13	-.076 ^e	-.828	.409	-.078	.909

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C17, C10, C11, C13, C14, C16, C12

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C17, C11, C13, C14, C16, C12

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C17, C11, C13, C14, C12

d. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C11, C13, C14, C12

e. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C11, C14, C12

f. Dependent Variable: SFEALL

Casewise Diagnostics^a

Case Number	Std. Residual	SFEALL
21	3.415	50.00

a. Dependent Variable: SFEALL

Residuals Statistics^a

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	15.8177	31.4049	23.5862	3.4397	116
Residual	-16.5279	29.3870	-6.13E-16	8.4932	116
Std. Predicted Value	-2.258	2.273	.000	1.000	116
Std. Residual	-1.920	3.415	.000	.987	116

a. Dependent Variable: SFEALL

Charts

Variables Entered/Removed^b

TABLE 25

CAREER ORIENTATION
and DEPERSONALISATION

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	C17, C10, C11, C15, C13, C14, ^a C16, C12 ^a		Enter
2		C16	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remo ve >= .100).
3		C10	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remo ve >= .100).
4		C17	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remo ve >= .100).
5		C15	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remo ve >= .100).
6		C13	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remo ve >= .100).
7		C11	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remo ve >= .100).
8		C14	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remo ve >= .100).

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: SFDALL

Model Summary^j

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.234 ^a	.055	-.016	5.2461
2	.234 ^b	.055	-.006	5.2218
3	.234 ^c	.055	.002	5.1985
4	.229 ^d	.052	.009	5.1811
5	.225 ^e	.050	.016	5.1625
6	.215 ^f	.046	.020	5.1514
7	.208 ^g	.043	.026	5.1365
8	.183 ^h	.033	.025	5.1395

Model Summary^j

Model	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.055	.776	8	107	.625	2.039
2	.000	.001	1	109	.971	
3	.000	.031	1	110	.860	
4	-.002	.263	1	111	.609	
5	-.002	.205	1	112	.652	
6	-.004	.519	1	113	.473	
7	-.003	.347	1	114	.557	
8	-.010	1.135	1	115	.289	

a. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C10, C11, C15, C13, C14, C16, C12

b. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C10, C11, C15, C13, C14, C12

c. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C11, C15, C13, C14, C12

d. Predictors: (Constant), C11, C15, C13, C14, C12

e. Predictors: (Constant), C11, C13, C14, C12

f. Predictors: (Constant), C11, C14, C12

g. Predictors: (Constant), C14, C12

h. Predictors: (Constant), C12

i. Dependent Variable: SFDALL

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	170.796	8	21.350	.776	.625 ^a
	Residual	2944.816	107	27.522		
	Total	3115.612	115			
2	Regression	170.758	7	24.394	.895	.514 ^b
	Residual	2944.854	108	27.267		
	Total	3115.612	115			
3	Regression	169.905	6	28.318	1.048	.399 ^c
	Residual	2945.707	109	27.025		
	Total	3115.612	115			
4	Regression	162.792	5	32.558	1.213	.308 ^d
	Residual	2952.820	110	26.844		
	Total	3115.612	115			
5	Regression	157.293	4	39.323	1.475	.214 ^e
	Residual	2958.319	111	26.652		
	Total	3115.612	115			
6	Regression	143.464	3	47.821	1.802	.151 ^f
	Residual	2972.148	112	26.537		
	Total	3115.612	115			
7	Regression	134.269	2	67.135	2.545	.083 ^g
	Residual	2981.343	113	26.384		
	Total	3115.612	115			
8	Regression	104.332	1	104.332	3.950	.049 ^h
	Residual	3011.280	114	26.415		
	Total	3115.612	115			

a. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C10, C11, C15, C13, C14, C16, C12

b. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C10, C11, C15, C13, C14, C12

c. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C11, C15, C13, C14, C12

d. Predictors: (Constant), C11, C15, C13, C14, C12

e. Predictors: (Constant), C11, C13, C14, C12

f. Predictors: (Constant), C11, C14, C12

g. Predictors: (Constant), C14, C12

h. Predictors: (Constant), C12

i. Dependent Variable: SFDALL

TABLE 28

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	5.627	3.493		1.611	.110
	C10	8.373E-02	.519	.017	.161	.872
	C11	.280	.433	.070	.647	.519
	C12	.428	.511	.098	.837	.404
	C13	-.337	.439	-.080	-.768	.444
	C14	.351	.395	.096	.890	.375
	C15	-.193	.356	-.053	-.541	.590
	C16	2.068E-02	.558	.004	.037	.971
	C17	.217	.413	.053	.526	.600
2	(Constant)	5.665	3.330		1.701	.092
	C10	8.853E-02	.501	.018	.177	.860
	C11	.286	.405	.072	.706	.481
	C12	.430	.505	.098	.853	.396
	C13	-.338	.436	-.081	-.774	.441
	C14	.353	.389	.097	.908	.366
	C15	-.192	.354	-.053	-.542	.589
	C17	.216	.409	.053	.527	.599
	3	(Constant)	5.919	2.988		1.981
C11		.291	.402	.073	.725	.470
C12		.445	.496	.101	.896	.372
C13		-.316	.417	-.075	-.758	.450
C14		.353	.388	.096	.910	.365
C15		-.183	.349	-.050	-.525	.601
C17		.208	.405	.051	.513	.609
4	(Constant)	6.374	2.844		2.241	.027
	C11	.274	.399	.069	.687	.493
	C12	.485	.488	.111	.994	.322
	C13	-.280	.409	-.067	-.683	.496
	C14	.379	.383	.104	.989	.325
	C15	-.155	.343	-.043	-.453	.652
5	(Constant)	5.883	2.619		2.246	.027
	C11	.287	.396	.072	.724	.471
	C12	.445	.478	.102	.930	.354
	C13	-.293	.407	-.070	-.720	.473
	C14	.386	.381	.106	1.014	.313
6	(Constant)	4.708	2.045		2.302	.023
	C11	.228	.387	.057	.589	.557
	C12	.535	.461	.122	1.161	.248
	C14	.372	.380	.102	.979	.330
7	(Constant)	5.184	1.872		2.769	.007
	C12	.589	.450	.134	1.309	.193
	C14	.400	.376	.109	1.065	.289
8	(Constant)	5.810	1.779		3.266	.001
	C12	.802	.403	.183	1.987	.049

a. Dependent Variable: SFDALL

Model	Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics	
					Tolerance	
2	C16	.004 ^a	.037	.971	.004	.702
3	C16	.009 ^b	.080	.936	.008	.749
	C10	.018 ^b	.177	.860	.017	.867
4	C16	.001 ^c	.013	.990	.001	.762
	C10	.012 ^c	.120	.905	.011	.878
	C17	.051 ^c	.513	.609	.049	.886
5	C16	-.003 ^d	-.027	.978	-.003	.768
	C10	.006 ^d	.063	.950	.006	.892
	C17	.043 ^d	.438	.662	.042	.908
	C15	-.043 ^d	-.453	.652	-.043	.965
6	C16	-.003 ^e	-.031	.975	-.003	.768
	C10	-.013 ^e	-.136	.892	-.013	.964
	C17	.029 ^e	.303	.763	.029	.938
	C15	-.047 ^e	-.505	.615	-.048	.970
	C13	-.070 ^e	-.720	.473	-.068	.909
7	C16	.018 ^f	.184	.854	.017	.884
	C10	-.005 ^f	-.057	.954	-.005	.981
	C17	.026 ^f	.270	.788	.026	.941
	C15	-.050 ^f	-.539	.591	-.051	.973
	C13	-.055 ^f	-.584	.560	-.055	.950
	C11	.057 ^f	.589	.557	.056	.908
8	C16	.033 ^g	.336	.738	.032	.903
	C10	-.005 ^g	-.054	.957	-.005	.981
	C17	.038 ^g	.400	.690	.038	.956
	C15	-.055 ^g	-.588	.558	-.055	.975
	C13	-.047 ^g	-.498	.620	-.047	.956
	C11	.069 ^g	.719	.473	.068	.923
	C14	.109 ^g	1.065	.289	.100	.803

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C17, C10, C11, C15, C13, C14, C12

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C17, C11, C15, C13, C14, C12

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C11, C15, C13, C14, C12

d. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C11, C13, C14, C12

e. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C11, C14, C12

f. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C14, C12

g. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C12

h. Dependent Variable: SFDALL

Residuals Statistics^a

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	7.4134	11.7434	9.2155	.9525	116
Residual	-9.4604	14.1432	1.233E-15	5.1171	116
Std. Predicted Value	-1.892	2.654	.000	1.000	116
Std. Residual	-1.841	2.752	.000	.996	116

a. Dependent Variable: SFDALL

TABLE 30

**CAREER ORIENTATION
and PERSONAL
ACCOMPLISHMENT**

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	C17, C10, C11, C15, C13, C14, ^a C16, C12		Enter
2		C17	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remove >= .100).
3		C10	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remove >= .100).
4		C13	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remove >= .100).
5		C12	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remove >= .100).
6		C14	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remove >= .100).
7		C11	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remove >= .100).
8		C15	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remove >= .100).

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: SFPALL

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.407 ^a	.166	.104	5.3346
2	.407 ^b	.166	.112	5.3099
3	.406 ^c	.165	.119	5.2877
4	.403 ^d	.162	.124	5.2728
5	.390 ^e	.152	.121	5.2813
6	.375 ^f	.141	.118	5.2921
7	.352 ^g	.124	.109	5.3195
8	.331 ^h	.109	.102	5.3406

Model Summaryⁱ

Model	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.166	2.660	8	107	.011	1.852
2	.000	.000	1	109	.984	
3	-.001	.093	1	110	.761	
4	-.003	.381	1	111	.538	
5	-.010	1.355	1	112	.247	
6	-.011	1.460	1	113	.230	
7	-.017	2.174	1	114	.143	
8	-.015	1.905	1	115	.170	

a. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C10, C11, C15, C13, C14, C16, C12

b. Predictors: (Constant), C10, C11, C15, C13, C14, C16, C12

c. Predictors: (Constant), C11, C15, C13, C14, C16, C12

d. Predictors: (Constant), C11, C15, C14, C16, C12

e. Predictors: (Constant), C11, C15, C14, C16

f. Predictors: (Constant), C11, C15, C16

g. Predictors: (Constant), C15, C16

h. Predictors: (Constant), C16

i. Dependent Variable: SFPALL

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	605.564	8	75.695	2.660	.011 ^a
	Residual	3045.014	107	28.458		
	Total	3650.578	115			
2	Regression	605.552	7	86.507	3.068	.006 ^b
	Residual	3045.026	108	28.195		
	Total	3650.578	115			
3	Regression	602.934	6	100.489	3.594	.003 ^c
	Residual	3047.644	109	27.960		
	Total	3650.578	115			
4	Regression	592.284	5	118.457	4.261	.001 ^d
	Residual	3058.294	110	27.803		
	Total	3650.578	115			
5	Regression	554.608	4	138.652	4.971	.001 ^e
	Residual	3095.970	111	27.892		
	Total	3650.578	115			
6	Regression	513.889	3	171.296	6.116	.001 ^f
	Residual	3136.689	112	28.006		
	Total	3650.578	115			
7	Regression	452.990	2	226.495	8.004	.001 ^g
	Residual	3197.587	113	28.297		
	Total	3650.578	115			
8	Regression	399.090	1	399.090	13.992	.000 ^h
	Residual	3251.487	114	28.522		
	Total	3650.578	115			

a. Predictors: (Constant), C17, C10, C11, C15, C13, C14, C16, C12

b. Predictors: (Constant), C10, C11, C15, C13, C14, C16, C12

c. Predictors: (Constant), C11, C15, C13, C14, C16, C12

d. Predictors: (Constant), C11, C15, C14, C16, C12

e. Predictors: (Constant), C11, C15, C14, C16

f. Predictors: (Constant), C11, C15, C16

g. Predictors: (Constant), C15, C16

h. Predictors: (Constant), C16

i. Dependent Variable: SFPALL

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	24.867	3.552		7.001	.000
	C10	.161	.528	.030	.304	.762
	C11	.678	.440	.157	1.540	.126
	C12	.461	.520	.097	.888	.377
	C13	-.296	.446	-.065	-.664	.508
	C14	-.593	.401	-.150	-1.478	.142
	C15	.458	.362	.117	1.265	.209
	C16	1.361	.567	.253	2.399	.018
	C17	8.625E-03	.420	.002	.021	.984
2	(Constant)	24.891	3.338		7.456	.000
	C10	.160	.524	.030	.305	.761
	C11	.678	.438	.157	1.548	.125
	C12	.463	.508	.098	.911	.364
	C13	-.295	.437	-.065	-.675	.501
	C14	-.592	.395	-.150	-1.497	.137
	C15	.459	.355	.117	1.294	.198
	C16	1.360	.562	.253	2.422	.017
	3	(Constant)	25.219	3.147		8.013
C11		.676	.436	.156	1.550	.124
C12		.480	.503	.101	.954	.342
C13		-.258	.418	-.057	-.617	.538
C14		-.598	.393	-.151	-1.522	.131
C15		.471	.352	.120	1.339	.183
C16		1.405	.540	.261	2.601	.011
4	(Constant)	24.239	2.710		8.945	.000
	C11	.623	.427	.144	1.461	.147
	C12	.563	.484	.119	1.164	.247
	C14	-.612	.391	-.155	-1.564	.121
	C15	.455	.350	.116	1.301	.196
	C16	1.405	.538	.261	2.610	.010
5	(Constant)	25.058	2.621		9.560	.000
	C11	.690	.423	.160	1.631	.106
	C14	-.437	.362	-.111	-1.208	.230
	C15	.518	.346	.132	1.496	.138
	C16	1.498	.533	.278	2.809	.006
6	(Constant)	24.174	2.522		9.585	.000
	C11	.619	.420	.143	1.475	.143
	C15	.513	.347	.130	1.479	.142
	C16	1.381	.526	.256	2.627	.010
7	(Constant)	25.058	2.463		10.176	.000
	C15	.480	.348	.122	1.380	.170
	C16	1.715	.477	.318	3.599	.000
8	(Constant)	26.739	2.149		12.442	.000
	C16	1.781	.476	.331	3.741	.000

a. Dependent Variable: SFPALL

Model	Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics	
					Tolerance	
2	C17	.002 ^a	.021	.984	.002	.865
3	C17	.000 ^b	-.004	.997	.000	.871
	C10	.030 ^b	.305	.761	.029	.818
4	C17	-.010 ^c	-.110	.913	-.011	.898
	C10	.011 ^c	.123	.902	.012	.886
	C13	-.057 ^c	-.617	.538	-.059	.905
5	C17	.004 ^d	.048	.962	.005	.914
	C10	.015 ^d	.161	.872	.015	.887
	C13	-.080 ^d	-.904	.368	-.086	.974
	C12	.119 ^d	1.164	.247	.110	.732
6	C17	-.019 ^e	-.214	.831	-.020	.960
	C10	.018 ^e	.192	.848	.018	.888
	C13	-.074 ^e	-.839	.403	-.079	.976
	C12	.058 ^e	.607	.545	.058	.859
	C14	-.111 ^e	-1.208	.230	-.114	.913
7	C17	-.012 ^f	-.136	.892	-.013	.962
	C10	.024 ^f	.256	.799	.024	.889
	C13	-.053 ^f	-.601	.549	-.057	.999
	C12	.080 ^f	.857	.393	.081	.887
	C14	-.090 ^f	-.984	.327	-.093	.931
	C11	.143 ^f	1.475	.143	.138	.814
8	C17	.011 ^g	.129	.897	.012	.999
	C10	.040 ^g	.423	.673	.040	.903
	C13	-.051 ^g	-.573	.568	-.054	1.000
	C12	.096 ^g	1.030	.305	.096	.903
	C14	-.090 ^g	-.977	.330	-.092	.931
	C11	.134 ^g	1.375	.172	.128	.817
	C15	.122 ^g	1.380	.170	.129	.990

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C10, C11, C15, C13, C14, C16, C12

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C11, C15, C13, C14, C16, C12

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C11, C15, C14, C16, C12

d. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C11, C15, C14, C16

e. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C11, C15, C16

f. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C15, C16

g. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), C16

h. Dependent Variable: SFPALL

Residuals Statistics^a

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	30.3002	38.8481	34.5603	1.8629	116
Residual	-12.7112	13.4258	3.491E-15	5.3173	116
Std. Predicted Value	-2.287	2.302	.000	1.000	116
Std. Residual	-2.380	2.514	.000	.996	116

a. Dependent Variable: SFPALL

Variables Entered/Removed^b

TABLE 35

**ROLE STRESS FACTORS
and BURNOUT SUB-SCALES**

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	ROLEOVER, ROLEAMB, ROLECONF ^a		Enter
2		ROLECONF	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remo- ve >= .100).

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: SFEALL

Model Summary^c

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.686 ^a	.470	.455	6.6261
2	.680 ^b	.463	.453	6.6411

Model Summary^c

Model	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.470	30.791	3	104	.000	
2	-.008	1.478	1	106	.227	1.944

a. Predictors: (Constant), ROLEOVER, ROLEAMB, ROLECONF

b. Predictors: (Constant), ROLEOVER, ROLEAMB

c. Dependent Variable: SFEALL

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4055.576	3	1351.859	30.791	.000 ^a
	Residual	4566.090	104	43.905		
	Total	8621.667	107			
2	Regression	3990.687	2	1995.343	45.241	.000 ^b
	Residual	4630.980	105	44.105		
	Total	8621.667	107			

a. Predictors: (Constant), ROLEOVER, ROLEAMB, ROLECONF

b. Predictors: (Constant), ROLEOVER, ROLEAMB

c. Dependent Variable: SFEALL

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-10.705	3.855		-2.777	.007
	ROLEAMB	.338	.106	.289	3.182	.002
	ROLECONF	.154	.126	.115	1.216	.227
	ROLEOVER	.822	.133	.474	6.188	.000
2	(Constant)	-8.735	3.506		-2.491	.014
	ROLEAMB	.414	.087	.353	4.776	.000
	ROLEOVER	.866	.128	.500	6.761	.000

a. Dependent Variable: SFEALL

Excluded Variables^b

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
						Tolerance
2	ROLECONF	.115 ^a	1.216	.227	.118	.574

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), ROLEOVER, ROLEAMB

b. Dependent Variable: SFEALL

Residuals Statistics^a

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	13.2408	42.6369	23.9326	6.1213	110
Residual	-15.3903	16.6845	-4.17E-02	6.6291	110
Std. Predicted Value	-1.771	3.043	-.020	1.002	110
Std. Residual	-2.317	2.512	-.006	.998	110

a. Dependent Variable: SFEALL

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	ROLEOVER, R, ROLEAMB, ROLECONF ^a		Enter
2		ROLEOVER	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remo ve >= .100).
3		ROLEAMB	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remo ve >= .100).

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: SFDALL

Model Summary^d

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.410 ^a	.168	.144	4.8152
2	.410 ^b	.168	.152	4.7932
3	.390 ^c	.152	.144	4.8165

Model Summary^d

Model	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.168	7.009	3	104	.000	2.084
2	.000	.044	1	106	.834	
3	-.016	2.031	1	107	.157	

a. Predictors: (Constant), ROLEOVER, ROLEAMB, ROLECONF

b. Predictors: (Constant), ROLEAMB, ROLECONF

c. Predictors: (Constant), ROLECONF

d. Dependent Variable: SFDALL

TABLE 38

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	487.508	3	162.503	7.009	.000 ^a
	Residual	2411.344	104	23.186		
	Total	2898.852	107			
2	Regression	486.489	2	243.245	10.587	.000 ^b
	Residual	2412.362	105	22.975		
	Total	2898.852	107			
3	Regression	439.830	1	439.830	18.960	.000 ^c
	Residual	2459.022	106	23.198		
	Total	2898.852	107			

a. Predictors: (Constant), ROLEOVER, ROLEAMB, ROLECONF

b. Predictors: (Constant), ROLEAMB, ROLECONF

c. Predictors: (Constant), ROLECONF

d. Dependent Variable: SFDALL

Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-1.731	2.802		-.618	.538
	ROLEAMB	.109	.077	.160	1.410	.162
	ROLECONF	.220	.092	.283	2.400	.018
	ROLEOVER	2.024E-02	.097	.020	.210	.834
2	(Constant)	-1.446	2.439		-.593	.554
	ROLEAMB	.110	.077	.161	1.425	.157
	ROLECONF	.226	.088	.290	2.565	.012
3	(Constant)	-.856	2.415		-.355	.724
	ROLECONF	.303	.070	.390	4.354	.000

a. Dependent Variable: SFDALL

Excluded Variables^c

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
						Tolerance
2	ROLEOVER	.020 ^a	.210	.834	.021	.867
3	ROLEOVER	.025 ^b	.262	.794	.026	.868
	ROLEAMB	.161 ^b	1.425	.157	.138	.620

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), ROLEAMB, ROLECONF

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), ROLECONF

c. Dependent Variable: SFDALL

TABLE 39

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	ROLEOVER, R, ROLEAMB, ROLECONF ^a		Enter
2		ROLECONF	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remo- ve >= .100).
3		ROLEOVER R	Backward (criterion: Probability of F-to-remo- ve >= .100).

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: SFPALL

Model Summary^d

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.354 ^a	.125	.100	5.2436
2	.354 ^b	.125	.108	5.2186
3	.336 ^c	.113	.104	5.2303

Model Summary^d

Model	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.125	4.955	3	104	.003	2.034
2	.000	.000	1	106	.983	
3	-.012	1.477	1	107	.227	

a. Predictors: (Constant), ROLEOVER, ROLEAMB, ROLECONF

b. Predictors: (Constant), ROLEOVER, ROLEAMB

c. Predictors: (Constant), ROLEAMB

d. Dependent Variable: SFPALL

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	408.747	3	136.249	4.955	.003 ^a
	Residual	2859.503	104	27.495		
	Total	3268.250	107			
2	Regression	408.734	2	204.367	7.504	.001 ^b
	Residual	2859.516	105	27.233		
	Total	3268.250	107			
3	Regression	368.512	1	368.512	13.471	.000 ^c
	Residual	2899.738	106	27.356		
	Total	3268.250	107			

a. Predictors: (Constant), ROLEOVER, ROLEAMB, ROLECONF

b. Predictors: (Constant), ROLEOVER, ROLEAMB

c. Predictors: (Constant), ROLEAMB

d. Dependent Variable: SFPALL

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	39.385	3.051		12.909	.000
	ROLEAMB	-.264	.084	-.366	-3.140	.002
	ROLECONF	2.169E-03	.100	.003	.022	.983
	ROLEOVER	.122	.105	.114	1.158	.250
2	(Constant)	39.413	2.755		14.304	.000
	ROLEAMB	-.263	.068	-.365	-3.866	.000
	ROLEOVER	.122	.101	.115	1.215	.227
3	(Constant)	41.714	2.007		20.786	.000
	ROLEAMB	-.242	.066	-.336	-3.670	.000

a. Dependent Variable: SFPALL

Excluded Variables^c

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics Tolerance
2	ROLECONF	.003 ^a	.022	.983	.002	.574
3	ROLECONF	.041 ^b	.350	.727	.034	.620
	ROLEOVER	.115 ^b	1.215	.227	.118	.937

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), ROLEOVER, ROLEAMB

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), ROLEAMB

c. Dependent Variable: SFPALL

QUANTITATIVE

	totro	hira	lora	hirc	lorc	hiro	loro
1	28.00	41.00	.	42.00	.	28.00	.
2	24.00	29.00	.	37.00	.	24.00	.
3	18.00	.	17.00	.	30.00	.	18.00
4	31.00	.	.	39.00	.	31.00	.
5	18.00	.	25.00	.	33.00	.	18.00
6	28.00	40.00	.	42.00	.	28.00	.
7	24.00	.	24.00	.	29.00	24.00	.
8	21.00	.	24.00	43.00	.	.	21.00
9	20.00	.	24.00	.	29.00	.	20.00
10	24.00	39.00	.	47.00	.	24.00	.
11	28.00	30.00	.	46.00	.	28.00	.
12	17.00	34.00	.	36.00	.	.	17.00
13	23.00	32.00	.	.	35.00	.	.
14	26.00	.	23.00	.	25.00	26.00	.
15	16.00	.	.	.	30.00	.	16.00
16	25.00	.	24.00	.	33.00	25.00	.
17	23.00	.	15.00	.	20.00	.	.
18	31.00	.	24.00	40.00	.	31.00	.
19	29.00	.	.	36.00	.	29.00	.
20	17.00	.	24.00	.	.	.	17.00
21	34.00	53.00	.	50.00	.	34.00	.
22	27.00	36.00	.	45.00	.	27.00	.
23	19.00	.	25.00	.	31.00	.	19.00
24	19.00	.	16.00	.	33.00	.	19.00
25	17.00	.	22.00	.	31.00	.	17.00
26	19.00	.	24.00	.	33.00	.	19.00
27	17.00	29.00	.	.	24.00	.	17.00
28	27.00	.	24.00	38.00	.	27.00	.
29	16.00	.	20.00	36.00	.	.	16.00
30	28.00	.	24.00	37.00	.	28.00	.

APPENDIX 8. 14

INTERVIEWEE "CONSCIOUSNESS" OF ROLE STRESS

RESP	ROLE AMB			CLF		ROLE CONFLICT					CLF	R/O	CLF
1	/	/	/	H		/	/	/	/	/	H	/	H
2	x	x	x	L		x	x	x	x	?	L	/	H
3	?	x	x	L		x	/	/	/	x	H	/	H
4	?	?	?	O		/	x	/	/	?	H	/	H
5	?	x	x	L		x	x	x	?	?	L	x	L
6	/	/	/	H		/	/	/	/	x	H	/	H
7	/	/	x	H		/	/	/	x	/	H	/	H
8	x	x	/	H		x	x	/	/	/	H	/	H
9	x	x	?	L		?	x	x	x	x	L	x	L
10	x	/	x	H		/	/	/	/	/	H	/	H
11	/	/	/	H		/	x	/	/	/	H	/	H
12	/	x	?	H		/	x	/	x	/	H	x	L
13	/	?	/	H		/	x	/	/	/	H	/	H
14	x	x	?	L		/	/	/	/	/	H	/	H
15	x	x	x	L		/	x	/	?	/	H	/	H
16	x	/	?	H		/	/	?	/	x	H	/	H
17	x	x	x	L		x	x	x	?	x	L	/	H
18	x	x	?	L		/	x	/	/	?	H	/	H
19	/	/	?	H		/	/	x	/	/	H	/	H
20	?	x	x	L		?	x	x	x	x	L	x	L
21	/	/	?	H		x	/	/	?	x	H	x	L
22	x	/	?	H		/	/	x	/	/	H	/	H
23	/	/	x	H		x	/	/	/	x	H	x	L

24	x	x	?	L		x	x	?	x	x	L	/	H
25	x	x	?	L		x	x	x	x	x	L	/	H
26	x	x	x	L		x	x	x	?	?	L	x	L
27	?	x	x	L		x	x	x	x	x	L	x	L
28	x	x	?	L		/	x	/	/	x	H	/	H
29	x	x	?	L		x	x	x	x	x	L	/	H
30	/	/	/	H		x	/	/	x	/	H	/	H
QUESTION	(a)	(b)	(c)			(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)			(a)

KEY:

- RESP: Respondent's code number
- CLF: Classification
- R/O: Role Overload
- H: High consciousness
- L: Low Consciousness
- O: Unclassifiable category
- /: Notably conscious of the issue
- x: Low consciousness of the issue or not conscious
- ?: Response not classifiable
- ok: Respondent conscious of role loading, but not to point of concern
- Question: Alphabetical identification of actual questions: See below

Questions

Role Ambiguity:

- (a) Relations with boss. (b) Relations with line management. (c) Relations with employees.

Role Conflict:

- (a) "Being in the middle". (b) Relations with line management. (c) Personal values
 (d) Retrenchment involvement. (e) Boundary crossing.

Role Overload:

- (a) Awareness of role overload

APPENDIX 8. 15

STATISTICAL TABLES 475

TABLE III VALUES OF χ^2 *

d.f.	$\chi^2_{.05}$	$\chi^2_{.025}$	$\chi^2_{.01}$	$\chi^2_{.005}$	d.f.
1	3.841	5.024	6.635	7.879	1
2	5.991	7.378	9.210	10.597	2
3	7.815	9.348	11.345	12.838	3
4	9.488	11.143	13.277	14.860	4
5	11.070	12.832	15.086	16.750	5
6	12.592	14.449	16.812	18.548	6
7	14.067	16.013	18.475	20.278	7
8	15.507	17.535	20.090	21.955	8
9	16.919	19.023	21.666	23.589	9
10	18.307	20.483	23.209	25.188	10
11	19.675	21.920	24.725	26.757	11
12	21.026	23.337	26.217	28.300	12
13	22.362	24.736	27.688	29.819	13
14	23.685	26.119	29.141	31.319	14
15	24.996	27.488	30.578	32.801	15
16	26.296	28.845	32.000	34.267	16
17	27.587	30.191	33.409	35.718	17
18	28.869	31.526	34.805	37.156	18
19	30.144	32.852	36.191	38.582	19
20	31.410	34.170	37.566	39.997	20
21	32.671	35.479	38.932	41.401	21
22	33.924	36.781	40.289	42.796	22
23	35.172	38.076	41.638	44.181	23
24	36.415	39.364	42.980	45.558	24
25	37.652	40.646	44.314	46.928	25
26	38.885	41.923	45.642	48.290	26
27	40.113	43.194	46.963	49.645	27
28	41.337	44.461	48.278	50.993	28
29	42.557	45.722	49.588	52.336	29
30	43.773	46.979	50.892	53.672	30

* This table is abridged from Table III of R. A. Fisher, *Statistical Methods for Research Workers*, published by Oliver and Boyd, Ltd., Edinburgh, by permission of the author and publishers.

Source: Fruend, J E and Williams, F J. (1975). Elementary Business Statistics: The Modern Approach. Prentice-Hall, London.

APPENDIX 8. 16

BURNOUT SUB-SCALES (FREQUENCY)

HIGH AND LOW INTERVIEWEE SCORES - QUANTITATIVE

Respondent	SFEALL mean =23	SFDALL mean =9	SFPALL mean =34	HIFE	LOFE	HIFD	LOFD	HIFP	LOFP
1	34	12	29	34		12			29
2	26	2	38	26			2	38	
3	23	10	43	23		10		43	
4	33	14	28	33		14			28
5	19	1	27		19		1		27
6	39	25	33	39		25			33
7	21	5	32		21		5		32
8	16	10	39		16	10		39	
9	20	9	28		20	9			28
10	32	16	33	32		16			33
11	22	16	27		22	16			27
12	21	5	31		21		5		31
13	17	7	24		17		7		24
14	24	8	44	24			8	44	
15	16	4	27		16		4		27
16	34	13	46	34		13		46	
17	12	1	38		12		1	38	
18	19	9	34		19	9		34	
19	34	14	36	34		14		36	
20	5	1	44		5		1	44	
21	50	23	33	50		23			33

22	16	10	33		16	10			33
23	11	10	45		11	10		45	
24	17	8	44		17		8	44	
25	20	8	33		20		8		33
26	24	8	40	24			8	40	
27	12	13	32		12	13			32
28	29	13	31	29		13			31
29	15	9	39		15	9		39	
30	16	-	39		16		-	39	
TOTAL				12	18	17	12	14	16

Key:

Respondent: Code number for interviewee
 SFEALL: Emotional Exhaustion :Frequency
 SFDALL: Depersonalisation
 SFPALL: Personal Achievement

HIFE: High Emotional Exhaustion: Frequency
 LOFE: Low Emotional Exhaustion
 HIFD: High Depersonalisation
 LOFD: Low Depersonalisation
 HIFP: High Personal Achievement
 LOFP: Low Personal Achievement

APPENDIX 8. 17

INTERVIEWEE "CONSCIOUSNESS" OF WORK STRESS /BURNOUT/WORK LOAD

QUALITATIVE COUNTS

RESPONDENT	CONSCIOUS OF EMOTION EXHAUSTION	CONSCIOUS OF DEPERSONAL	CONSCIOUS OF PERSONAL ACCOMPLISH	CONSCIOUS OF WORK LOAD	CONSCIOUS OF WORK STRESS
1	/	/	x	/	/
2	/	x	/	/	/
3	/	/	/	/	/
4	/	/	x	/	/
5	/	x	x	x	/
6	/	x	/	/	/
7	x	x	x	o	/
8	x	x	/	/	/
9	/	x	/	x	/
10	/	/	/	/	/
11	x	/	x	/	/
12	x	x	/	x	x
13	x	/	x	/	/
14	/	x	/	/	/
15	x	/	x	/	/
16	x	/	/	/	/
17	x	x	/	/	/
18	/	/	/	/	/
19	/	/	/	/	/
20	x	x	/	x	x

21	/	/	x	/	x
22	/	/	/	/	/
23	/	/	/	x	/
24	x	/	/	/	/
25	x	/	/	/	/
26	x	x	x	x	x
27	x	/	x	x	x
28	/	x	/	/	/
29	x	x	/	/	/
30	/	x	x	/	/

Key:

Respondent: Respondent's code number

/: Notably conscious of the issue/ a matter of concern

x: Low consciousness of the issue/not a matter of concern

o: Response not classifiable

NOTES:

1. "Conscious of" is defined as being aware to the point of concern that the issue or experience is of such a nature as to influence or affect one's job in such a way that it adds to the level of work stress

2. "Conscious of Work Stress" is defined as being aware that the job contributes to a greater or lesser extent to a feeling of being 'under pressure', enduring a level of strain, 'being stressed' constantly or from time to time. Most respondents indicated the recognition of the experience of being stressed by their job by referring to methods used to relieve stress., eg., meditating, prayer, supportive family, sporting activity.

WORK STRESS SELF RATING

Respond- ent	Work Stress Rating out of 10
1	6.0
2	6.0
3	6.5
4	-
5	7.0
6	7.0
7	6.0
8	4.5
9	7.5
10	8.0
11	7.0
12	3.0
13	3.5
14	4.0
15	3.0
16	7.0
17	4.5
18	4.5
19	6.5
20	3.0
21	8.0
22	5.5
23	-
24	4.0
25	2.5
26	4.5
27	2.5
28	4.5
29	2.5
30	6.0
Total Mean	144.5 5.2

)

APPENDIX 8.19

ROLE STRESS FACTORS: QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE

Chi square Calculations

(i) Role Ambiguity

Consciousness of role ambiguity	Quantitative		Totals	χ^2	p	df
	High	Low				
Qualitative High	8 (a)	5 (b)	14 (c)	6.454	<0.050	1
Qualitative Low	2 (d)	12 (e)	13 (f)			
Totals	10 (g)	17 (h)	27 (N)			

Key:

- | | |
|--|--------------------------------|
| (a) Quant: High Role Ambiguity | (f) Total (d) & (e) |
| (b) Quant: Low Role Ambiguity | (g) Total (a) & (d) |
| (c) Total (a) & (b) | (h) Total (b) & (e) |
| (d) Qual: High: "conscious of" role ambiguity | (N) Total (g) & (h): (c) & (f) |
| (e) Qual: Low: "not conscious" of role ambiguity | |

The chi square formula was applied : $\chi^2 = \frac{N(ae - bd)^2}{c.f.g.h} = 6.454$

(ii) Role Conflict

Consciousness of Role conflict	Quantitative		Totals	χ^2	P	df
	High	Low				
Qualitative High	14	7	21	6.807	<0.010	1
Qualitative Low	1	7	8			
Totals	15	14	29			

Key:

The same explanations apply as with (i) above except in this instance Role Conflict replaces Role Ambiguity.

(iii) Role Overload

Consciousness of Role Overload	Quantitative		Totals	χ^2	P	df
	High	Low				
Qualitative High	14	6	20	7.596	<0.010	1
Qualitative Low	1	7	8			
Totals	15	13	28			

Key:

The same explanations apply as with (i) above except in this instance Role Overload replaces Role Ambiguity

APPENDIX 8. 20

BURNOUT SUB-SCALES: QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE

Chi square calculations

(i) Emotional exhaustion

Consciousness of Emotl Exhaust	Quantitative		Totals	χ^2	P	df
	High	Low				
Qualitative High	10 (a)	6 (b)	16 (c)	7.200	<0.010	1
Qualitative Low	2 (d)	12 (e)	14 (f)			
Totals	12 (g)	18 (h)	30 (N)			

Key:

- (a) Quant: High Emotional Exhaustion
 (b) Quant: Low Emotional Exhaustion
 (c) Total (a) & (b)
 (d) Qual: High "conscious of" emotional exhaustion
 (e) Qual: Low "conscious of" emotional exhaustion
 (f) Total (d) & (e)
 (g) Total (a) & (d)
 (h) Total (b) & (e)
 (N) Total (g) & (h): (c) & (f)

(ii) Depersonalisation

Consciousness of Depersonal.	Quantitative		Totals	χ^2	P	df
	High	Low				
Qualitative High	13	4	17	4.460	<0.050	1
Qualitative Low	4	8	12			
Totals	17	12	29			

Key: The same explanations apply as for (i) above except in this instance Depersonalisation replaces Emotional Exhaustion.

APPENDIX 8. 20 (cont)

(iii) Personal Accomplishment

Consciousness of Pers Accomp	Quantitative		Totals	χ^2	P	df
	High	Low				
Quantitative High	13	6	13			
Qualitative Low	2	9	11	7.033	<0.010	1
Totals	15	15	30			

Key: The same explanations apply as for (i) above except in this instance Personal Accomplishment replaces Emotional Exhaustion.

APPENDIX 8. 21

BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES

(four pages)

APPENDIX 8. 21

BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES

Respondents were requested to provide certain biographical information when completing the general questionnaire. (See Appendix I). This information was processed to establish whether there were certain biographical variables which may be influencing work-related stress among the HRP's surveyed.

The variables addressed were:

- * Age (B4)
- * Gender (B5)
- * Ethnic Origin (B6)
- * Years of work experience (B2)

1. Relationship Between Age and the Main Variables

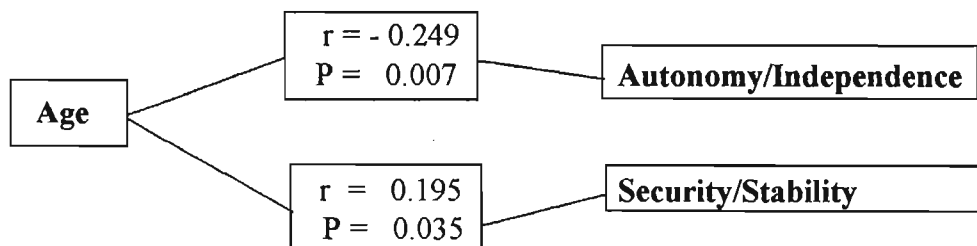
The relationship between the age of the respondent and each of the major variables was investigated for significance by applying Pearson correlation tests (See Appendix 8. 4 (1-8)

1.1 Relationship Between Age and Career Orientation Categories

Figure 8. 21(1) depicts the relationships tested and the outcome. Two correlations of significance are observed, viz., Autonomy /Independence (C12) and Safety/Security (C13).

FIGURE 8. 21 (1)

Age and Career Orientation Correlation Model



(i) Autonomy/Independence Orientation (C12)

Age is observed to have a significant negative correlation with Autonomy/Independence ($r = - 0.249$, $P = 0.007$, $n = 117$) at 1 % level. (Appendix 8. 4 (3)). A Pearson one tailed

correlation revealed $P = 0.003$. (Appendix 8. 22) The finding suggests that those who are older are less autonomy and independence orientated in their function as HRP, than those who may be younger. The age range of the study is 25 to 63 years with a mean of 40 years.

(ii) Security/Stability Orientation (C13)

Age is observed to have a positive correlation with the Security/Stability. ($r = 0.195$, $P = 0.035$, $n = 117$) at the 5 % level of significance. (Appendix 8. 4 (4)). A Pearson one-tailed correlation revealed $P = 0.017$. (Appendix 8.21) This finding suggests that those who are older are more likely to have a more security/stability career orientation. In order to retain security of tenure, such HRPs may become less demanding and more acquiescing in the interests of their future job security. This suggestion would appear to support the negative correlation between age and the autonomy/independence orientation in (i) above. If these suggestions are supported, these two findings may be two sides of the same phenomenon.

The finding, if supported, has specific significance for older white males who may be confronted with the ever present possibility of early retirement or retrenchment with reduced opportunities for finding well paid alternative employment.

(iii) Other Career Orientations

No significant correlations were identified between the age of the HRP and the other six Career Orientations at the 5 % level.

The lack of a correlation between age and the **Service/Dedication to a Cause (C15)** orientation is noted. The older HRPs, who are in their mid fifties, with 30 years service, came from the era where there was still a strong welfare orientation in 'personnel', but this is not reflected in the scoring on the Career Orientation Inventory. On the basis of Schein's 'career anchor' theory, the career orientation of older, longer serving HRPs should register this element with some clarity. (Chapter Four: Sections 4.1.3 - 4.1.4). Following this argument, it may be reasonable to question whether HRPs ever were strongly 'service' orientated. However, the career anchor theory argues that the 'anchor' is a deeply held commitment which drives the individual to live by that self concept. Two alternative explanations may be offered to explain the absence of a strong correlation between older HRPs and a 'service' orientation. The first, is the priority of the demands of the business on HRPs, which could inhibit a desire to give greater attention to the more welfare/caring aspects of employee management. The second, is that older HRPs, particularly white males, may find themselves having to go along with the requirements of the business in the interests of some form of job security.

1.2 Relationship Between Age and Role Stress Factors

No significant correlations were identified between age and Role Stress factors at the 5 % level. {Appendix 8. 4 (1)}. Applying a one-tailed Pearson correlation revealed no support. (Appendix

8. 22) This lack of correlation suggests that age is not a variable influencing role stress and its factors..

1.3 Relationship Between Age and Burnout Sub-Scales

Only one correlation was observed. Age is observed to be negatively correlated with **Emotional Exhaustion: Frequency** ($r = -0.202$, $P = 0.030$, $n = 115$) at the 5 % level of significance. {Appendix 8. 4 (1)}. A one-tailed Pearson correlation revealed $P = 0.015$. (Appendix 8. 21). This suggests that those who are older are less likely to suffer higher levels of emotional exhaustion as a result of their role as a HRP.

Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) commenting on biographical characteristics, noted that “age is most consistently related to burnout.” (p.76). Their findings reveal that burnout occurs more often among younger employees than those over 30 years of age. They further observed that “burnout is negatively related to work experience.” (p.76). Burnout appears to occur near the beginning of a career rather than later. This finding is confirmed by Maslach & Jackson (1981), Cordes & Dougherty (1993) and numerous other studies. The MBI (1996) reports the decline of burnout symptoms with increasing age and work experience (p.47). Schaufeli & Enzmann (1998) caution that the studies may not reveal the “survival bias” where “those who burnout early in their careers are likely to quit their jobs, leaving behind the survivors who exhibit lower burnout levels.” (p.76).

The qualitative study revealed that it was the older HRPs who exhibited signs of burnout.

No significant correlations were found between age and the other burnout sub-scales..

2. Relationship Between Gender and Main Variables

No significant correlations were observed between gender and the three main variables. (See Appendix 8. 4 (1))

The reported norms for the MBI (1996, p.47) reveal higher means for Emotional Exhaustion for females at 20.99, as against males at 19.86. The means for Personal Accomplishment are slightly higher at 36.50 for females as against 36.29 for males. The norms for Depersonalisation are reversed with males higher at 7.43 and females at 7.02. Reviewing numerous studies, Schaufeli & Enzmann (1998) reported that “on balance, women tend to score slightly higher on emotional exhaustion, whereas men score significantly higher on depersonalization.” (p.76). Their explanation is based partly on sex-role dependent stereotypes, where women are seen to be more emotionally responsive in contrast to men who are more likely to hold instrumental attitudes. For this study no burnout relationships were established. This does not mean that such association does not exist within South African HRPs, but only that no indication could be established.

3. Relationship Between Years of Work Experience and the Main Variables.

No significant correlations were observed length of work experience and the three main variables. (Appendix 8.23)

The Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) observation that burnout was observed in human service workers early in their careers, has little validity in this study as the sample contains no one within the first few years of work experience. The sample drew on more senior persons with at least ten years experience.

4. Relationship Between Ethnic Origin and the Main Variables

No significant correlations were observed between ethnic origin and the main variables.

APPENDIX 8. 22

ONE TAIL CORRELATIONS
AGE AND SELECTED VARIABLES

Correlations

		B4	C12
B4	Pearson Correlation	1.000	-.249**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.	.003
	N	117	117
C12	Pearson Correlation	-.249**	1.000
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.003	.
	N	117	118

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

Correlations

		B4	C13
B4	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.195*
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.	.017
	N	117	117
C13	Pearson Correlation	.195*	1.000
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.017	.
	N	117	118

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

Correlations

		B4	ROLESTRE
B4	Pearson Correlation	1.000	-.081
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.	.205
	N	117	106
ROLESTRE	Pearson Correlation	-.081	1.000
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.205	.
	N	106	107

Correlations

		B4	SFEALL
B4	Pearson Correlation	1.000	-.202*
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.	.015
	N	117	115
SFEALL	Pearson Correlation	-.202*	1.000
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.015	.
	N	115	116

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

APPENDIX 8. 23 (1)

CORRELATIONS: YEARS OF WORK EXPERIENCE/ROLE STRESS AND BURNOUT

Correlations

		B2	ROLEAMB	ROLECONF	ROLEOVER	ROLESTRE
B2	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.054	-.111	-.066	-.047
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.576	.238	.481	.635
	N	117	111	114	115	106
ROLEAMB	Pearson Correlation	.054	1.000	.616**	.253**	.845**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.576	.	.000	.007	.000
	N	111	112	110	111	107
ROLECONF	Pearson Correlation	-.111	.616**	1.000	.354**	.864**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.238	.000	.	.000	.000
	N	114	110	115	114	107
ROLEOVER	Pearson Correlation	-.066	.253**	.354**	1.000	.605**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.481	.007	.000	.	.000
	N	115	111	114	116	107
ROLESTRE	Pearson Correlation	-.047	.845**	.864**	.605**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.635	.000	.000	.000	.
	N	106	107	107	107	107
SFEALL	Pearson Correlation	-.165	.469**	.456**	.609**	.630**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.078	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	115	111	114	115	106
SFPALL	Pearson Correlation	-.104	-.302**	-.172	.013	-.244*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.267	.001	.067	.886	.012
	N	115	111	114	115	106
SFDALL	Pearson Correlation	-.106	.346**	.388**	.202*	.383**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.261	.000	.000	.030	.000
	N	115	111	114	115	106
SSEALL	Pearson Correlation	-.145	.340**	.466**	.475**	.544**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.124	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	114	110	114	114	106
SSPALL	Pearson Correlation	-.138	-.347**	-.178	-.043	-.282**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.141	.000	.058	.647	.003
	N	115	111	114	115	106
SSDALL	Pearson Correlation	-.100	.157	.359**	.109	.270**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.289	.100	.000	.247	.005
	N	114	110	114	114	106

Correlations

		SFEALL	SFPALL	SFDALL	SSEALL
B2	Pearson Correlation	-.165	-.104	-.106	-.145
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.078	.267	.261	.124
	N	115	115	115	114
ROLEAMB	Pearson Correlation	.469**	-.302**	.346**	.340**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.001	.000	.000
	N	111	111	111	110
ROLECONF	Pearson Correlation	.456**	-.172	.388**	.466**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.067	.000	.000
	N	114	114	114	114
ROLEOVER	Pearson Correlation	.609**	.013	.202*	.475**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.886	.030	.000
	N	115	115	115	114
ROLESTRE	Pearson Correlation	.630**	-.244*	.383**	.544**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.012	.000	.000
	N	106	106	106	106
SFEALL	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.017	.523**	.694**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.859	.000	.000
	N	116	116	116	115
SFPALL	Pearson Correlation	.017	1.000	-.044	-.064
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.859	.	.642	.494
	N	116	116	116	115
SFDALL	Pearson Correlation	.523**	-.044	1.000	.377**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.642	.	.000
	N	116	116	116	115
SSEALL	Pearson Correlation	.694**	-.064	.377**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.494	.000	.
	N	115	115	115	115
SSPALL	Pearson Correlation	-.108	.594**	-.107	.020
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.250	.000	.251	.834
	N	116	116	116	115
SSDALL	Pearson Correlation	.284**	-.123	.676**	.559**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.192	.000	.000
	N	115	115	115	115

APPENDIX 8.23 (3)

		SSPALL	SSDALL
B2	Pearson Correlation	-.138	-.100
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.141	.289
	N	115	114
ROLEAMB	Pearson Correlation	-.347**	.157
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.100
	N	111	110
ROLECONF	Pearson Correlation	-.178	.359**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.058	.000
	N	114	114
ROLEOVER	Pearson Correlation	-.043	.109
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.647	.247
	N	115	114
ROLESTRE	Pearson Correlation	-.282**	.270**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.005
	N	106	106
SFEALL	Pearson Correlation	-.108	.284**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.250	.002
	N	116	115
SFPALL	Pearson Correlation	.594**	-.123
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.192
	N	116	115
SFDALL	Pearson Correlation	-.107	.676**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.251	.000
	N	116	115
SSEALL	Pearson Correlation	.020	.559**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.834	.000
	N	115	115
SSPALL	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.031
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.741
	N	116	115
SSDALL	Pearson Correlation	.031	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.741	.
	N	115	115

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).