THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CHANGE IMPLEMENTATION, ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR AND JOB SATISFACTION IN THE BUSINESS PROCESS OUTSOURCING INDUSTRY IN THE WESTERN CAPE, SOUTH AFRICA

By

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Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree:
MASTER OF TECHNOLOGY: HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT
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Date submitted: November 2016

DECLARATION

I, George Nyika Muzanenhamo, declare that the contents of this thesis represent my own unaided work, and that the thesis has not previously been submitted for academic examination towards any qualification. Furthermore, it represents my own opinions and not necessarily those of the Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

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George N. Muzanenhamo   Date

ACKNOWLEGEMENTS

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my parents, whose belief in the power of education has lived in me up to this day.

"Education is the most powerful weapon which you can use to change the world."
Nelson Mandela

ABSTRACT

Change management is inevitable in the Business Process Outsourcing (BPO) industry in South Africa, where organisations have to be constantly vigilant when tackling the interwoven relationship between change implementation, organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and job satisfaction.

The objective of this Master's thesis study was to examine the nature of change implementation in the BPO industry, to determine the effects of change implementation on OCB and job satisfaction and to examine the relationship between change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction.

An empirical investigation was conducted on a 250-strong managerial and non-managerial employee sample which was drawn, using the stratified sampling technique. Two questionnaires were used to collect data on change management, organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction and were structured as follows:

- With regards to change management, questions were derived from the Attitudes to Change Questionnaire (ACQ) developed by Vakola and Nikolaou (2005)
- For job satisfaction, questions were drawn from the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) by Weiss (1966:110) which comprised of questions related to both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction
- On the concept of organisational citizenship behaviour, questions were drawn from a questionnaire by Konovsky and Organ (1996:255).

The nature, extent and magnitude of change management vary from organisation to organisation. Should the organisational change be ill-conceived and badly managed, the occurrence can become the greatest source of job dissatisfaction and ultimately affect other important organisational outcomes such as OCB.

Based on the findings and analyses done, it was established that:

- There is a positive but moderate relationship between change implementation and OCB,
- There is a high or strong positive relationship between change implementation and job satisfaction,
- There is a positive but moderate relationship between OCB and job satisfaction,
- And lastly the results confirmed the hypothesis that there is a positive correlation between change implementation, job satisfaction and OCB.

Cognisant of the aforementioned research findings the researcher recommends, among others, that future studies should:

- consider embracing a qualitative research approach to counter the limitations of the quantitative approach
- replace the OCB variable with newer conceptualised change-oriented OCB
- ascertain the effects of demographics on the three investigated variables
- suggest further replications of the study with a different sampling group or industry and lastly
- encourage the BPO industry to effectively manage and incorporate their employees as vital change agents, in all change implementation initiatives.

KEY WORDS

Change management, Change implementation, Job satisfaction, Intrinsic job satisfaction, Extrinsic job satisfaction, Organisational citizenship behaviour, Altruism, Civic virtue, Courtesy, Sportsmanship, Conscientiousness

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LIST OF ABREVIATIONS

ACQ:	Attitudes to Change Questionnaire
BPeSA:	Business Process Enabling South Africa
BPO:	Business Process Outsourcing
BPR:	Business Process Re-engineering
JDI:	Job Description Index
JIG:	Job In General
JSS:	Job Satisfaction Survey
MSQ:	Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire
OCB:	Organisational Citizenship Behaviours
OCBI:	Organisational Citizenship Behaviours directed toward individuals
OCBO:	Organisational Citizenship Behaviours directed towards the organisation
TQM:	Total Quality Management

CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Developing a workable formula for achieving and sustaining organisational superiority has become one of the most multifaceted tasks faced by organisations today. Amid the tide of globalisation, one of the key challenges confronting the human resources professional is gaining a competitive advantage in the rapidly changing environment of personnel management.

Many organisations are embarking on complex changes such as shared services, transformation, mergers and acquisition, and massive technology implementation. For many managers and entrepreneurs, organisational changes constitute a nightmare. In some instances, there is no single structure which will enable a given change to be managed within an enterprise and, as a consequence, the implementation of change slows down, and can even stall or fail completely. Conversely, there are huge potential gains for organisations which are able to facilitate the successful implementation of changes effectively in terms of delivering them on time, within an allotted budget, and with all the business, technical and human objectives met.

The need to contain change has resulted in employees becoming more organised, sophisticated and unpredictable and, consequently, determining their needs and expectations has become a complex and daunting exercise. The behaviour of organisations changes continuously as organisations undergo revolutionary changes. For any organisation, the ideal is usually perceived to involve striving for a single standard change management methodology with a single unifying vocabulary; but, more often than not, the complex pressure to meet diverging demands of employees within organisations has tended to preclude the adoption of the unified approach required to implement effective changes.

Both internal and external forces such as market changes, technological advancements, social and political factors, demographic characteristics, managerial behaviour or decisions and human resources problems or prospects exert tremendous

pressure in the scramble for organisational success today, making change inevitable (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2004:674). At present, the efforts and resources of organisations are subject to pressure from two directions, namely meeting, if not exceeding, the needs and expectations of employees, and achieving a competitive edge. Regardless of the manner in which change is construed, the principal problem for organisations remains the effective harmonisation of the pressing requirements of all the role players in the business fraternity. If this delicate compatibility is not achieved, prospects for breeding unhappy and unproductive workplaces are likely consequences.

Promoting positive behavioural attitudes, and safeguarding the welfare of employees are crucial dynamics to be managed in organisational advancement; and the variables in the workplace which have assumed greatest prominence are job satisfaction, the degree of employee involvement in their jobs and their commitment to the organisation. Of particular significance in the last two decades has been the emergence of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours (OCB), as a formalised manifestation of these variables. Organisational citizenship behaviour as cited by Robbins (2005:2), is "behaviour that is discretionary, which is not directly or explicitly recognised by the reward system and which in aggregate promotes the effective functioning of an organisation".

Organisational change has gradually become a significant field for the strategic development of modern organisations; and the effective managing of the processes of organisational change constitutes an imperative for the success of competitive organisations. Cummings and Worley (1997:86) maintain that the growing rapidity of transformation around the globe causes change to be a foreseeable organisational attribute. In a similar vein, Luthans (1998:623) suggests that at present organisational leaders have acknowledged change as inevitable and a perpetual attribute of organisational life. For Nestrom and Davis (2002:337), change may be defined in terms of any organisational alterations which influence existing structures and behaviours. They point out that these alterations could be intentional or unintentional, destructive or developmental, robust or ineffective, relaxed or speedy, and stirred either from within or outside.

Irrespective of their sources these transformations have serious bearings on those

affected by them. According to Ashford et al. (1989:803), when an organisation is undergoing transformation like reorganisation, downscaling or amalgamation, employees often experience feelings of nervousness, tension, and uncertainty. Consequently this will influence employee output, job satisfaction and commitment towards the organisation. Kanter (1983:19) explains that the emotional responses of employees to organisational change time and again includes feelings of uncertainty and nervousness, chiefly in comparison to the effects of change on their organisational life. Kotter and Cohen (2002:625) stress that, while each of these considerations may be imperative, the major problem of organisational changes is never the approach, its configuration or systems, but somewhat the actual problems that arise when planning how to assist the workforce to become accustomed to change.

Perception of insecurity which inevitably results from change makes it impossible for employers to expect employees to make necessary change adjustment (Schabracq & Cooper, 1998:625). This insecurity have adverse effects on employees' level of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. To support this, Bennet and Durkin (2000:126) note that time and again organisations find it very problematic to manage the psychological or human aspects of change. As such, in Kotter's (1995:59) viewpoint close to 90% of change initiatives fail to address the bottom line because of the challenges emanating from managing diverse employees' behaviours and attitudes.

Accordingly, it needs to be stressed that the attitudes employees display towards change influence not only the outcome of the change process, but other important considerations for organisations, like employees' satisfaction with their jobs, and the level of commitment to and involvement in their work. Change can threaten comfortable established relationships, and often introduces the possibility of job loss or at least the possibility of changes with respect to the type of work to be undertaken by employees and their status within an organisation. As a result, if organisational changes are not well managed, they can become a source of great job dissatisfaction among employees.

For Hellriegel et al. (2004:237), the workforce has become the major determinant of organisational competitiveness, not its product. This implies that the focus of attention

in the workplace has shifted from management of products, productivity and production to people management. For this reason, encouraging workers to exhibit desirable OCB when they are highly dissatisfied could become an extremely frustrating enterprise.

Armstrong (2003:240) posits that job satisfaction refers to "the attitudes and feelings people have towards their work". Furthermore Armstrong noted that "positive and favourable attitudes towards the job indicate job satisfaction, while negative and unfavourable attitudes indicate job dissatisfaction". This implies that satisfaction stimulates employees to display citizenship behaviours. This view is shared by Baron et al. (2006:544) who maintain that satisfied personnel exhibit discretionary or pro-social behaviour which enhance the effectual performance of an organisation. Purcell (2003) as cited by Armstrong (2003:240) maintains that OCB helps organisations to become more successful, and that OCB is chiefly exhibited when employees' morale, loyalty and perception of personal fulfilment to and with the organisation is very high.

Accordingly, it may be seen that OCB is a vehicle through which organisational excellence is achieved whereas job satisfaction is the fuel which powers the vehicle. Research studies on work-related attitudes, and with particular respect to job satisfaction, OCB has emerged as a key behavioural manifestation. Nonetheless, not much is on record about the precise link between job satisfaction and OCB. With this consideration in mind, this research seeks to cast a spotlight on the nature of implementing change in the Business Process Outsourcing (BPO) industry, its effects on OCB and ultimately on job satisfaction.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

The BPO industry in South Africa serves as one of the Department of Trade and Industry's priority sectors with the primary objective of supporting economic growth, job creation and economic transformation (BPeSA, 2014:1). Nonetheless, like any other sector the BPO industry has its own share of problems. As a result of the rapidly changing BPO environment, many organisations are embarking on complex changes such as shared services, downsizing, restructuring, business process re-engineering, mergers and acquisitions, and massive technology implementation (BPeSA, 2014:14; Magoqwana, 2011:17). For managers in the industry, organisational changes

constitute a nightmare in the absence of a standard change management methodology with a single unifying vocabulary.

At present the BPO industry in South Africa is failing to sufficiently implement change management initiatives, which results in subdued Organisational Citizenship Behaviours, and correspondingly low job satisfaction levels. This is predominantly reflected by varying negative employee behavioural manifestations or work-related attitudes in the industry. In support, Magoqwana (2011:2) noted that serious problems exist in the call handling section in South Africa, such as high levels of stress, absenteeism, high turnover, understaffing, unequal wages amongst the employees and lack of communication from all levels of the organization. According to the Business Process Enabling South Africa (BPeSA) 2015 Key Indicator Report the average attrition rate for the sector is 30.09%; 46.4% in Gauteng, 50.08% in the Western Cape and 54.5% in Kwazulu Natal while the average absenteeism rate for the sector is 7.3% with KwaZulu-Natal recording the highest record of 8.5%, followed by the Western Cape at 7.3% and Gauteng at 5.6%.

It is against this background that this research seeks to investigate the nature of implementing change in the Business Process Outsourcing (BPO) industry, its effects on OCB and ultimately on job satisfaction.

1.3 OBJECTIVES
  i.   To explore the nature of change implementation in the BPO industry.
  ii. To determine the impact of change implementation on OCB and job satisfaction in the BPO industry.
  iii. To determine the impact of job satisfaction on OCB.
  iv. To explore the relationship between change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS
  i.   What is the nature of the implementation of change in the BPO industry?
  ii. What are the effects of the implementation of change on OCB and job satisfaction in the BPO industry?
  iii. What is the impact of job satisfaction on OCB?

iv.   Does a relationship exist between the implementation of change, OCB and job satisfaction?

1.5 HYPOTHESES

1. Change implementation positively correlates with OCB and job satisfaction.
2. Change implementation negatively correlates with OCB and job satisfaction.

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

Instituting a bond between the implementation of change, OCB and job satisfaction could have positive benefits for organisations, as doing so could provide the management of organisations with sufficient leeway to craft and implement policies for human resources and change management practices, thereby increasing levels of job satisfaction among employees and consequently enhancing the visible manifestation of OCB.

Studies have shown quite conclusively that job satisfaction has positive implications for corporations, for example, diminished absenteeism levels and increased workforce productivity (Robbins, 2005:3). With specific respect to OCB, Organ (1988) cited by Koys (2001:236) maintains that OCB plays a pivotal role in the enhancement of the success and survival of organisations by maximising the effective functioning of the organisation and its workforce. For this reason, establishing the effects of the implementation of change upon OCB should enable organisations to implement initiatives for change which promote job satisfaction. Consequently, this research could not only provide a tool for formulating change management policies and procedures which focus on results, but could also provide additional insight into the existing literature on organisational change, job satisfaction and OCB.

1.7 DELINEATION

Although the fundamental reason for demarcating the specific area of study is to provide the research with the focus required to make it manageable, this does not suggest that those areas which have been omitted are unimportant or that they should not form the focus for other research.

1.7.1 Size of the organisation

This study has restricted its focus to corporations employing more than 50 employees in the BPO industry. These corporations employ an adequate number of workforce filling a range of positions and have clear hierarchical structures, which enables the subjects of the investigation to be identified easily. In total the organisations which constitute the study employ approximately one thousand employees.

1.7.2 Type of organisation

The study focused on 4 organisations in the BPO industry within a chosen region.

1.7.3 Geographical demarcation

Research information was collected from organisations in the BPO industry which are based in Cape Town in the Western Cape province of South Africa.

1.7.4 Units of analysis

The target population included both managerial and non-managerial employees. According to Wood and Albanese (1998:56-70) both managerial and non-managerial employees are actively involved in processes of change. This includes planning and implementation activities. These employees also respond differently to various change manifestations which ultimately influence the organizational bottom line.

1.8 DEFINITION OF TERMS AND CONCEPTS

Change management: "Any structural, strategic, cultural, human or technological transformation, capable of generating impact in an organisation" (Wood, 2000:1).

Job satisfaction: "An individual's cognitive, affective and evaluative reactions to his or her job" (Greenberg & Baron, 1995:169).

Intrinsic job satisfaction: Defined as the things which satisfy "people's psychological needs, such as security, personal interest, responsibility, achievement, advancement, and moral values" (Hancer & George, 2003:86).

Extrinsic job satisfaction: Variables not related to a job itself which result in either satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Basset- Jones & Lloyd, 2005:929).

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB): Refers to "discretionary behaviour which is not part of an employee's formal requirement but which nevertheless promotes the effective functioning of the organisation" (Robbins, 2005:2).

Altruism: Discretionary behaviours which involves offering work related assistance to colleagues or team members which is relevant to the performance of an organisation (Organ, 1988:8).

Courtesy: Refers to "discretionary acts of thoughtfulness and considerate behaviour which prevent or minimize work related problems for others" (Werner, 2007:336).

Conscientiousness: Involves "impersonal contributions to the organisation such as excellent attendance, and adherence to organisational rules and policies" (Organ & Ryan, 1995:782).

Sportsmanship: Refers to "citizen-like gestures of tolerating inevitable hassles and obligations at the workplace without complaining or raising unnecessary grievances" (Allison et al., 2001:285).

Civic virtue: Involves "participation in and support given to the functioning of an organisation, in both the professional and the social sense. In general, it involves acting in and protecting an organisation's best interests. Examples would include participating in the policy-making of an organisation and attending optional meetings and the company-sponsored events" (Allison et al., 2001:285).

1.9 OUTLINE OF THE THESIS

The thesis comprises the following chapters:

Chapter 1:   Introduction and Background to the Research, Statement of the Research Problem, Objectives, Significance of the Research and Delimitation

Chapter 2:   The concept of Organisational Change

Chapter 3:   The concept of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Chapter 4:   The concept of Job Satisfaction

Chapter 5:   Research Methodology

Chapter 6:   Analysis

Chapter 7:   Discussion, Conclusions and Recommendations.

1.10 CONCLUSION

Chapter 1 plainly articulated the research problem and to deliver a detailed framework highlighting how the researcher aimed to solve it. The following aspects of the research study were covered: general orientation, problem statement, research questions, significance of the study, study delineation, operational definition and an outline of the succeeding chapters of this research study. The following chapter will discuss the concept of change management.

CHAPTER TWO
CHANGE MANAGEMENT

2.1. INTRODUCTION

Literature pertaining to organisational change will be reviewed in this chapter. Paramount to this research study will be an in-depth explanation of organisational change, forces of organisational change, change management theories, manifestation or forms of organisational change, effects of organisational change, attitude and organisational change, and resistance to change. Special reference will be made to the BPO industry.

2.2. DEFINING ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

Several meanings available in literature make defining organisational change a difficult task (Wood, 2000:1). According to Terry and Jimmieson (2003:92) unprecedented rearrangements around organisational surroundings trigger the need for organisations to change familiar traditions and methods of operation. These alterations influence the organisational life and behaviour of the labourforce. The definition of change as cited by French and Bell (1999:2) is that present methods differ from former work methods.

We can understand organisational change as alterations in the firm's operations induced either from within or outside and are either intended or unintended (Greenberg & Baron, 1995:659). We can also view organisational change as workplace transformations which influence the behaviour of employees (Nestrom & Davis, 2002:659). In the same light, Porras and Robertson (1992:719) posit that the concept of organisational change involves the adoption of fixed proven hypotheses of principles, tactics and methods aimed at changing the work environment, thereby stimulating the organisation's development.

Werner (2007:1) views organisational change as a transformational process in which an organisation evolves from a familiar to an unfamiliar state. However, an earlier but extended view of organizational change is depicted by Morrison (1998:13) who states that change is an ever-evolving and burgeoning dynamo. In addition, the primary objective for re-organisation is because the organisation has identified the need for improvement. Internal or external factors may ignite a transformational flow from one

level to the next, sweeping individuals, groups or institutions along with it, until existing values, practices and outcomes are realigned, as par for the course.

Despite the heterogeneous definitions available to characterise organisational change, with reference to Wood (2000:1), change can be understood as having the potential to impact an organisation structurally and strategically while impacting the workplace culture, affecting human capital and seeing technological transformation.

2.3. FORCES OF ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

In a time characterised by highly competitive and volatile market economies, demands for organisational change and the range of options available to organisations are numerous (Gomes, 2009:180). Consequently, cultivating the need for understanding the types of organisational change which exist, and how they can best be absorbed, is paramount. Differing natures of organisations, work methods, management styles, cultures and employee perceptions affect the depth and character of the change which occurs. Organizational change is influenced by a multiplicity of elements. These elements are either induced from within or outside. Understanding the character of these forces helps organisations to know when to implement change.

The drive to change, posited by Lippitt et al. (1958:10), may come from the organisation itself after an upheaval or if an opportunity surfaces which can improve future prospects, or if an external agent for change intervenes. In the same vein, Senior (1997:243) adds that changes which occurs inside the organisations are merely a direct respond to the pressures outside the organisation. French and Bell (1999:2) observe that the origin of the change could come from various stakeholders, inside and outside the organisation. Likewise, Panton and McCalman (2000:9) comment that organisational internal changes occur firstly because of economic and operational requirements and secondly, in response to decisions made by managers. As such, the need for change is thus precipitated by events taking place inside and outside organisations.

Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:674) categorized external forces into four factors namely: economic factors, technological factors, demographical factors and socio-political factors. Concerning internal factors, Kreitner and Kinick (2004:674) assert that they

are not as obvious as external factors and are normally caused by subdued employment relationships. Examples of internal forces are job dissatisfaction, low OCBs and low organisational commitment which manifest in the form of high labour turnover, subdued employee performance and increased sour employer-employee relations.

According to Reddin (1987) as quoted by Mathonsi (2006:8) organisational change is inevitable and apparent particularly when factors listed below are present:

    i.   "Old ways of thinking and doing things become obsolete.
    ii.   The organisation has a clear idea of making the organisation better and change is made to move towards a new state.
    iii.   External forces, for example, new government legislation or technological innovation, which require that organisations keep abreast of the change and developments."

In line with the above the researcher is of the view that organisations undergo transformations when they identify a need to transform or when circumstances beyond their control compel them to transform. These transformations have a bearing on both employees and management. The researcher's views concur with Daft's (1999) as quoted by Mathonsi's (2006:8) viewpoint. Daft (1999) notes that organizational change alters the way people reason, people's feelings and loyalty to their jobs, and people's working relationships. It is therefore paramount for organisations before undergoing change to understand the nature, form and change methodology suitable for the organization.

2.4. CHANGE MANAGEMENT THEORIES

Numerous change management theories and typologies have been coined to articulate strategic ways of effectively managing change, and at the same time, minimising all forms and fashions of resisting change. In order for organisations to remain competitive and to continue operating in today's rapidly changing environment, it is mandatory for them to adapt or adjust quickly to various change demands. Unfortunately, should they fail to adapt or adjust and ultimately transform, they risk losing their competitiveness. In this regard organisations thus have two options; to die or change.

2.4.1. Lewin`s three-step model

Kurt Lewin's three-step model is the foundation for most of the past and present theories. Lewin's three-step model highlights fundamentally how organizational change is initiated, managed and stabilized (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2004:678). These steps are unfreezing, changing and freezing.

According to Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:678), Kurt Lewin held the view that all kinds of behaviour in the organisation were a result of two kinds of forces namely activism for change in direct opposition to established intransigence. Lewin's propositions for planned change are that:

i.   "The change process involves learning something new, as well as discontinuing current attitudes, behaviors, or organisational practices;
ii. Change will not occur unless there is a motivation for change. This is often the most difficult part of the change process;
iii. People are the hub of all organisational change, and change whether in terms of structure, group process, reward system, or job designs, requires individuals to change;
iv. Resistance to change is found even when the goals of change are highly desirable;
v.   Effective change requires reinforcing new behavior, attitudes and organisational practices."

Furthermore, Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:678) expound Lewin's three-step model as indicated below:

i.   Unfreezing stage: The focus on this stage is to motivate and to prepare the workforce for change. In the process, employees are persuaded to discard known or traditional behaviour and substitute them with new preferred behaviour. Crucial at this stage is management's ability to discourage or convince their workforce that their current behaviour or attitudes are now irrelevant and that there is a need for them to change. The idea is to make employees dislike the present status quo.

ii. Cognitive restructuring / Change stage: At this stage, employees are exposed or introduced to the new world order and the behaviour suitable for this new order. They are equipped with new knowledge and are helped to view organisational life in a different perspective.

iii. Freezing stage: This involves reinforcing the new behaviour and attitudes by way of integrating them with the new world order or organizational life. To achieve this management ought to give its workforce the opportunity to display the new behaviour. In order to normalise this new behaviour in the workplace, organisations need to institute reinforcement programmes.

2.4.2. Kotter`s eight-step model

Kanter et al. (1992:372) state that Lewin's model is considered over-simplistic and that it offers little practical information for the implementation of change. During the 1980s and 1990s, a slew of practical guides on how to administer change emerged. The model which attracted the great prominence was Kotter's phase model initially presented in Harvard Business Review. The model eventually became a published book (Kotter 1995:1996).

From the 100 plus organisations Kotter studied, from those which carried out planned change programmes, he identified the eight most common errors which lead to programme failure. As an antidote to mistakes and fatal flaws, he came up with a change management model. The model lists eight stages to successful implementation of change programmes. His model was justified by his claim that all valid changes were grounded in a multi-step process which generated substantial amount of supremacy and motivation to deflect inertia (Kotter, 1996:21).

According to Kotter (1996:21) the eight-step model comprises of:

1. "Establishing a sense of urgency,
2. Creating the guiding coalition,
3. Developing a vision and strategy,
4. Communicating the change vision,
5. Empowering employees for broad-based action,
6. Generating short term wins,
7. Consolidating gains and producing more change,
8. Anchoring new approaches in the culture".

Kotter urged that all phases should be closely scrutinised, not just those that were easy to implement. He stated that less focus needed to be placed on the first four common errors, should the nature of change, current state of the organisation and employees' receptivity to change, be properly aligned. He recommended that the eight

stages of his process be followed to ensure change programme success (Kotter 1996: 15-16; 23-24).

Once Kotter (1996:23) unveiled his eight stage change management model, he pointed out that the seemingly straightforward and simple phases were interchangeable and overlapped, making the entire change programme an evolutionary rather than a clear-cut linear progression. He pointed out that it was inadvisable to be methodical about distinguishing between the beginning of one step and the end of the preceding step.

2.4.3. Mabey's six-step model

The most recent change management theory was coined by Mabey (2007). Mabey's approach saw a new take on the Kotter (1995), Dawson (1994), and Beckhard and Harris (1987) models. He developed the six-step model of change. This model combine the best performing approach while the worst is excluded, seen in the discussion in Figure 2.1 (Mabey 2007:15).
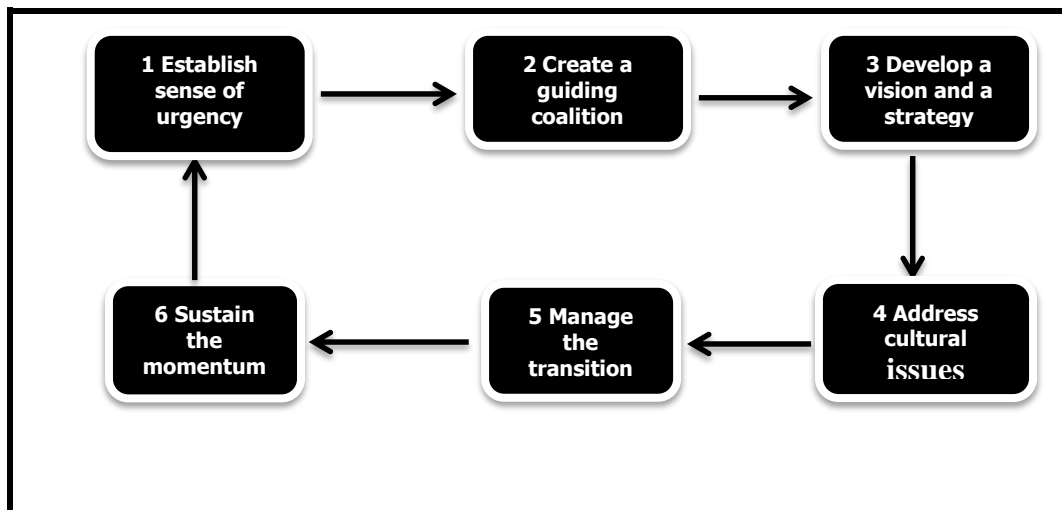
Figure 2.1: The six-step model of change: Mabey (2007:15)

Mabey (2007:15) warned against falling into a trap of over-simplification and perceiving change as an unfurling linear progression with a beginning, middle and end. This explains why the reduction of change management into six steps, is clearly

a continuum.

Nyasha (2011:27) summarised the flow of the six-step model. A summary follows below:

i.   **Establishing a sense of urgency:** Complacency or inertia often stumps the overwhelming need for change (Mabey, 2007:16). Potential threats are identified in this step and futuristic scenarios are developed which outline what could happen; opportunities which should or could be exploited are identified; forthright discussions are initiated, providing dynamic and convincing reasons to fuel peoples' thinking and discussion; customers', external stakeholders' and key industry players' support is co-opted to fortify the change debate (Mabey, 2007:16);

ii. **Creating a guiding coalition:** By this step, employees are won over and understand the importance of change (Mabey, 2007:23). Key role players in the organisation who display strong leadership and visible support will then continue to champion the move within their sections (Mabey, 2007:23). The tasks in this stage according to Mabey (2007:23) are;

   "identifying key leaders and ensuring trust and developing emotional commitment from them; and working on teambuilding to nurture the change coalition. At this point, weak areas are identified and it is crucial that the group comprises a correct fusion of individuals from various departments and positions within the organisation";

iii. **Developing a vision and strategy:** A clue to effective strategic thinking can be found in a consultative process. Mabey (2007:25) adds that,

   "this involves communicating about where the organisation is going and its goals via genuine consensus building. A clear statement of intent is only one aspect (which should interlink with the overall organisational mission and strategy). However, instilling a meaningful and stimulating statement of intent to express a future vision or set of values to the staff concerned is vital";

iv. **Addressing cultural issues:** The first three steps to change utilise most of the available resources (see Figure 2.1), resulting in the latter steps falling into a state of neglect (Mabey, 2007). Mabey (2007:41) further notes that,

"when inadequate attention is given to the fundamental attitudes and values (culture), it is at this point where many change interventions fail. Not enough time is attributed to the special arrangements required by the change process (transition requirements)".

Momentum slacks off in the follow-through to bringing about change, especially among outer or lower ranks of staff, on whom, successful implementation of the initiative rests (Mabey, 2007:41);

v. **Managing transition:** According to Mabey (2007:46), after having established the necessary groundwork comes the challenging stage of applying, handling and amalgamating the real processes of change. This stage is confronted with numerous complications. Mabey (2007:46) adds that,

"due to the disruptions experienced at the 'steady state' management there is invariably misunderstanding about roles, responsibilities and decision making channels. Some individuals handle uncertainties better than others even when mechanisms such as communication feedback, periodic cross-functional meetings and temporary task team help";

vi. **Sustaining momentum:** Concerning sustaining momentum, Mabey (2007:53) assert that,

"at a particular point it is essential to access the effect of the various change initiatives that have been put in place. The feedback from positive results is a vital facet in giving momentum to the change programme. When there are early success stories, these should be communicated to assist to foster belief among those yet to participate or to be affected by the change effort";

According to Mabey (2007:53),

"where several initiatives are not functioning, revisiting some of the previous steps in the six-step model may need to take place. Whatever the situation, the change 'sponsor' needs to be kept up to date. His or her background petitioning and inspiring will be indispensable for safeguarding that the mission enjoys high visibility and adequate resourcing".

Close interactions with carrying out tasks and results allow the change agent and change management team to be in a position to measure the impact of the changes informally (Mabey, 2007:53). However, it would be of great assistance if there were an independent monitoring process in place which could measure, supplement and lend

credibility to the entire change process (Mabey, 2007:53). Mabey (2007:43) states that "three measures can be used, namely: a climate survey or cultural audit, interviews and observer records".

2.4.4 Change Management Initiative Model

For the purpose of this research study, much attention will be given to a research framework developed by Isa et al. (2011:109) who investigated the parallel between job satisfaction and change management initiatives in sales industry in Malaysia. As illustrated in Figure 2.2, they developed six change management initiatives or variables paramount to change success and job satisfaction.
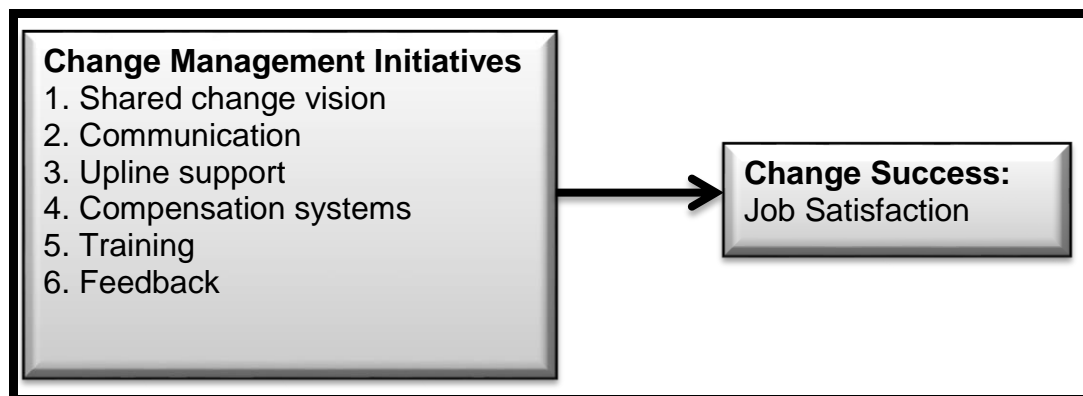
Figure 2.2: Change Management Initiative Model: Isa et al. (2011:109)

A summary of the six change management initiatives by Isa et al. (2011:109) are highlighted below:

  i.   **Shared change vision**: Research has proven that a vision is vital for the success and advancement of any change initiative. The change vision should be communicated clearly and timeously to employees. The reason for change should be well spelt out in order for the employees to understand, accept and adapt to change demands (Abraham et al., 1997:616).

  ii. **Communication**: Communication is an essential component of change success. It diminishes resistance, ambiguity, anxiety and stimulates cooperation, involvement, commitment and satisfaction (Klein, 1996:32). An investigation by Pettit et al. (1997:81) established a significant association which exists between effective communication and job fulfillment. Using the same line of reasoning, Javed et al. (2004:1-7) noted that effective

communication results in improved performance, increased productivity, personal fulfilment, and enhanced job satisfaction.

iii. **Upline support:** With reference to the sales environment, Hurley (1998) established that the presence of leaders with the right attitude to champion change determines the success of any change initiative. In the same vein, Burke et al. (1992:717) note that uplines are entrusted with the responsibility to assist, guide and empower downlines with the necessary skills, knowledge and tools to effectively execute their jurisdictional functions. Furthermore, in order for an organisation to thrive effectively, upline support is essential in increasing job fulfilment of employees in the direct selling industry (Griffin et al., 2001:537). Accordingly, upline's support enhances downlines to be more cooperative and willing to embrace change (Weber & Weber, 2001:291).

iv. **Compensation systems:** Studies have shown that reinforcement and compensation for change stimulates employees to voluntarily support change initiatives, which consequently enhance organisational competitiveness (Vanyperen et al., 1999:377). Since the behaviour of employees differ from one another and are stimulated by different factors, organisations are therefore required to consider offering their employees a wide range of rewards as a way of encouraging them to perform and accept change (Appelbaum et al., 1998:674). More precisely, a correlation is found that superior rewards are able to prompt better employee satisfaction (Rusbult & Farrell, 1993:429). When rewarding employees, organisations should consider the fairness and openness of the administration process lest it cultivate resistance to change and derails organisational effectiveness (Babakus et al., 1996:345).

v. **Training:** Training is a vital change success ingredient (Kappelman & Richards, 1996). It prepares organisations by assisting them to know how to effectively tackle change through knowledge and skills sharing (Isa et al., 2011:111). Babakus et al. (1996:345) established a positive correlation between job satisfaction, training and intrinsic motivation. Similarly, Schmidt (2004) concludes that job training satisfaction leads to an overall job satisfaction level in the organisation.

vi. **Feedback:** Feedback can be used to direct, encourage and strengthen positive behaviour and discourage negative behaviour (Steelman & Rutkowski, 2004). According to Hurley (1998), organisations in the sales environment which use

feedback as an instrument to measure change more often than not entrench change more effectively in comparison to businesses who do not give feedback. However, different types of feedback differently influence people's commitment, motivation and receptivity to change. Prominently, feedback has demonstrated to be capable of increasing job satisfaction (Jaworski & Kohli, 1991).

Although there are many other phase-models which deal with the implementation of organisational change, the four theories mentioned above will be focused on in this research.

2.5. MANIFESTATION OF ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

This section highlights how transformations experienced by organisations as a result of global socio-economic developments are construed and managed. Wood and Albanese (1998:56-70) note that workers are actively involved in the administration of these transformations, and their reaction to these transformations is sorely dependent on how such changes manifest themselves. Change occurs in various forms such as:

2.5.1. Unplanned versus planned change

Unplanned change is more often than not imposed or forced upon organisations by unfamiliar circumstances, which in turn engenders a commensurate disorderly or reactive response from the workforce (Cummings & Worley, 1997:27). Bulgerman (1991:239) is of the view that unplanned or accidental modification calls for a different strategy as it is regarded as variations for eventualities, in the absence of a predetermined modus operandi. Such unplanned changes are not highly favoured by most companies and so managers find it challenging to anticipate it.

In support, Harunavamwe (2010:16) notes that unplanned change is normally precipitated by the sudden departure of a high profile figure within an organisation. As a result this impacts negatively on existing structures such as public relations, organisational performance and productivity levels. This type of change makes the job of those involved, particularly management, more complex and ambiguous.

Contrary to the aforementioned, planned change follows a well-planned course of action and there are basically four stages through which planned change can be

introduced namely exploration and understanding of the situation; planning how to deal with problems and opportunities present; action and implementation and integration and consolidation of change (Schalkwyk, 1998:24). Nel et al. (2004:503) note that planned change take place as a result of premeditated decisions to transform the workplace. In contrast, unplanned change transpires because of unforeseen circumstances which require an organisation to transform.

Following the same line of reasoning, Van de Ven and Poole (1995:510) comment that planned change takes responsibility that an adjustment procedure is established which in turn ensures that the business is significantly attuned to the stresses it faces. This type of change is well choreographed and requires management to have a reasonable degree of level-headedness.

Similarly, Isabela (1990:7) notes that planned change is not always well organised but rather chaotic and disruptive. This is the case even though change might be well planned and follows a detailed, pre-emptive, carefully thought-through strategy. Planned change might therefore have an adverse effect on those involved.

Furthermore, Cummings and Worley (1993:67) argue that the assumption that change programmes follow a well guided plan or multi-step process as prescribed by planned change and various change models, may be inaccurate. For Cummings and Worley (1993:67) in reality, planned change does not always follow an orderly fashion. In some instances it is very disorganised and chaotic because of inevitable or unexpected events that often come into play. Moreover, they argue that the idea that change ought to follow by merely outlining phases, may be inadequate and may fail to address all the challenges presented by change.

2.5.2. Developmental change

The prime objective of developmental change is to improve or refine existing structures, systems, processes and procedures. This type of change encourages organisations to prioritise employee skills development initiatives and in turn enables employees to manage change without any feelings of anxiety or uncertainty. Nonetheless, for McShane and Von Glinow (2008) as cited by Harunavamwe (2010:16), the disadvantage of this type of change is that it does not always

adequately address the current and future change requirements. Likewise, Werner (2007) notes that developmental change is not always accompanied by major organizational transformations but rather prepares the workforce to handle ongoing change without transforming existing structures.

2.5.3. Transitional and transformational change

Transitional change entails moving from familiar to unfamiliar ways of doing things within an organisation. It often occurs when organisations identify new business approaches or a need to refine, realign and redefine existing operational structures. Furthermore Nair (2009) as cited by Harunavamwe (2010:16) notes that instead of improving current ways of doing things, this type of change occurs when leaders identify a gap or an opportunity to enhance existing structures in order to address current and future change burdens. In support, Beckhard and Harris (1987:1) assert that transitional change compels organisations to do away with the old state of affairs and replace them with new structures or state called the transition state. This transition is not a one day event but rather a gradual long-term process.

In contrast, transformational change is a process whereby an organisation undergoes a complete makeover from a known state into a wholly new state. This complete makeover is so intense to the extent that it alters existing norms, values and beliefs. These alterations are paramount because they determine whether the organisations will be able to implement and sustain change successfully (Werner, 2007:1). This radical shift transforms the manner in which various stakeholders within the organisation view themselves, their work and their external stakeholders (Piderit, 2000:24). This type of change potentially triggers extreme anxiety, stress and insecurity in the organisation.

2.6. COMMON FORMS OF CHANGE WITHIN THE BPO INDUSTRY

Organisational change manifests in different ways, namely work reorganising, job redesign, organisational growth, organisational downsizing, and organisational restructuring. Change affects either the organisation as a whole, or particular departments or functions. Below are the common forms of organisational change in the BPO industry in South Africa.

2.6.1. Organisational downsizing

Organisational downsizing is a predominant form of change undertaken by most organisations in their struggle for survival in this complex, unpredictable, and dynamic environment. Correspondingly, Malik et al. (2010:3564) note that, to survive, organisations are required to adopt cost reduction measures such as increased productivity or proficiency. Downsizing is one of the most favoured strategies organisations employ to achieve these goals.

There are a multiplicity of explanations why organisations downsize and according to Palmer et al. (1997:623-639), they include among others the need to restructure, closure of a business unit, the need to reduce production costs, the need for greater proficiency, the need for competitiveness, the need to stay abreast with technological advancements and the need to survive global recession.

According to Budros (1999:55), organisational downsizing, also known as right-sizing, de-layering and staff reductions, is a deliberate measure by organisations to reduce their staff complement in order to enhance organisational performance. According to Carbery and Garavan (2005:488), downsizing is a classic type of restructuring. The objective of downsizing is to reduce the staff complement and to give a face-lift to existing working arrangements. The benefits of downsizing are increased organizational performance and efficacy. Organizations downsize chiefly to evade insolvency.

Ikyanyon (2012:106-112) asserts that previous studies acknowledged that downsizing is not a panacea to all organizational problems. Even after downsizing organisations may still underperform. More often than not, after downsizing, most organizations fail to rechannel or redirect their energy and focus towards the survivors. Instead, they fix their attention on those whose positions are made redundant. After downsizing, the survivors are considered to be in a better position than those who lost their jobs. However, the researcher's viewpoint is that the strategy organisations employ while downsizing determines the success or failure of the exercise.

2.6.2. Organisational restructuring (re-organisation)

According to Ryan and Macky (1998:29), organisational restructuring appears to be the norm and popular practice undertaken by organisations. In my view this could mean that organisations use restructuring to address the global socio-economic developments of organizational life. Cost reduction, increased productivity and competitiveness constitute fundamental reasons why organisations undergo restructuring (Cascio, 1998:97).

According to Anstey (1999:399), restructuring is a corporate modification made to the operations or structure of the organisation. This corporate action is usually undertaken as a cost reduction measure or in order to enhance the degree of organisational responsiveness. It often results in the organisation adopting a flat structure thus making it more profitable and better organised for the present needs. Likewise, Black and Edwards (2000:567) define organisational restructuring as a combination of key configurations of a company's assets and its business strategy. Two main examples of restructuring are acquisitions and mergers.

Although restructuring may be considered by some scholars as the ideal way of enhancing organisational effectiveness, reducing cost and increasing competitiveness, Ryan and Macky (1998:29) do not regard it as a panacea to all change problems confronting organisations. In the same vein, Casio (1998) proposes that even though restructuring is overwhelmingly considered as a universal remedy, often the aftermath is catastrophic. When companies undergo restructuring, the size of the labourforce is in most cases drastically reduced while the workload for the remaining employees increases. During the restructuring process most organisations lose critical skills and as a result the remaining employees end up taking long to master and accomplish essential tasks. More so, the remaining employees might not have the necessary skills to tackle new or added job responsibilities (Lewin & Johnson, 2000:60). As a result, restructured organisations may be forced to outsource services or functions which were generally provided internally.

In an attempt to explain the impact of this type of change, Lewin and Johnson (2000:50) liken restructuring to divorce in a family which fuel grief, misunderstanding, insecurity and unproductivity. In addition, Ryan and Macky (1998:29) note that, more

often than not, restructuring exercises are more subjective and unprocedural than objective, and the outcomes are ever tragic especially in cases where managers are inadequately trained or equipped to manage change.

2.6.3. Business process re-engineering (BPR)

According to Burnes (2004:628), business process re-engineering has received substantial attention in the past decade due to its perceived importance, and is considered as the most common contemporary change management technique (Tennant & Wu, 2005:537). Hammer and Champy (1993:32) note that this approach involves "the fundamental rethinking and radical redesign of business process to achieve dramatic improvements in critical, contemporary measures of performance, such as cost, quality, service and speed". By the same token, Kettinger et al. (1997:55-80) define business process re-engineering as

> "an organisational initiative to accomplish strategy-driven (re)design of business processes to achieve competitive breakthroughs in quality, responsiveness, cost, flexibility, and satisfaction. These initiatives may differ in scope from process improvement to radical new process design."

Re-engineering involves organisational recreation. This corporate action requires organisations to totally disregard or discard old structures and replace them with new created structures. Business processes are combinations of activities that deliver value to customers and are technologically driven. Because of its magnitude re-engineering is usually adopted for extensive projects. For Grey and Mitev (1995:6-18), the eventual outcomes of BPR resemble those of restructuring such as flatter hierarchies, redundancy and job losses.

However BPR is not a panacea to all change management problems. Hammer and Champy (1993:33) admit that up to 70 per cent of BPR efforts result in organisations being worse off than before their implementation. In support, Marjanovic (2000:44) records that such failure is then, as with the other large scale organisational changes, regularly attributed to people issues, or more specifically, management's inability to manage the human factors or psychological components of BPR. BPR acknowledges the significance of the role played by human factors as compared to technological factors in change programmes.

2.6.4. Mergers and acquisitions (M&As)

Mergers and acquisitions (M&As), or 'organisational marriages', refer to the amalgamation of at least two separate entities into one corporate entity (Cartwright & Cooper, 1995:32-42). For Werhane (1993:11) in line with the analogy of a marriage, a merger occurs when two identical companies integrate into one whereas acquisitions refers to a process whereby one company is absorbed by another. Acquisitions are often known as takeovers.

According to Appelbaum et al. (2000:674-684), the main reasons why organisations undergo mergers and acquisitions is the need to enhance the performance of the organisation. For Tetenbaum (1999:35) ongoing developments with the technological fraternity and ever evolving regulations are the notable forces for mergers and acquisitions. These forces compels organisations to form "operating and strategic synergies" well branded as the "2 + 2 = 5 effect" (Cartwright & Cooper, 1993:329).

Nonetheless, like restructuring and re-engineering, M&As cause organisations to reduce their staff complement and makes some positions obsolete. It is paramount to note that when mergers and acquisitions occurs, it is inevitable for the respective organisations to undergo cultural transformations. Either one of the two organisational culture will be adopted or a relatively new culture will be established.

The danger, however, is that M&As more often than not fail to achieve the intended outcomes particularly when the cultures of the two merging organisations are incompatible (Robbins, 1990:451). Furthermore, Robbins (1990:451) asserts that "cultural mismatch is more likely to result in a disaster than a financial, technical, geographic, product, or market mismatch". In agreement, Cartwright and Cooper (1995:35) note that mergers and acquisitions have a high failure rate and invariably result in job losses.

2.6.5. Technological change

The impact of technological change in today's business environment is mind blowing. Technological change has transformed not only how people work but also the location from which work is performed and the time the work is executed (Luecke, 2003:2). For Kent and Williams (2001:1), the drive for technological advancement has become a

requisite for the global business fraternity. Every organisation, whether established or emerging is striving to integrate its operations with state of the art technology. According to Campbell (2000), technology is the application of scientific machinery or tools in the production of goods and services.

Kent and Williams (2001) acknowledge that, even though organisations are evolving rapidly, they are lagging behind technological advancement. The world of technology has revolutionized the employment relationship and simultaneously transformed and challenged customary social exchange relationships between managers and employees (Campbell, 2000).

Nonetheless, the impact technology brings to the business world is twofold. On one hand it enhances organisational effectiveness, while on the other hand it can be a great source of job dissatisfaction. As a result, before embarking on technological change, proper cost and benefits analysis is paramount.

2.6.6. Total Quality Management (TQM)

TQM refers to a systematic approach to organisational effectiveness which involves sound application of business best practices to all portfolios of the organisation including both internal and external stakeholders (Dale et al., 1994:1). It involves incessant organisational enhancement and mutual cooperation by all stakeholders. Furthermore, Dale et al. (1994:1) define TQM as a holistic approach through which organisational and employees' goals are systematically integrated and gratified for a common cause.

Similarly, Hellsten and Klefsjo (2000:238-244) define total quality management as an administrative approach to business which comprises of mutually dependent variables. These variables include standard ethics, practices and tools like administrative processes, skills development initiatives, performance indicators and organisational enhancement programmes, among others. In the same line of reasoning, according to Giangreco and Peccei (2005:110), TQM refers to a continuous cost effective systematic way of refining and improving production processes, systems, policies and procedures.

The impetus of TQM is to refine processes and enhance quality product or service delivery (Schalkwyk, 1998:24). Furthermore, TQM involves continuous redefining, realignment and integration of the social exchange norms, values and beliefs between the organisation and its workforce.

2.7. IMPACT OF ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

Change is not an isolated event. Whenever it occurs, there are repercussions to the organisation at large or to individual members involved (Werner, 2007:1). According to Giangreco and Peccei (2005:110), these repercussions can either be constructive or destructive and they determine future attitudes of employees towards change. In this light, Giangreco and Peccei (2005:110) suggest that organisations, while implementing change, should consider relevant benchmarking variables such as stress, employee receptiveness, cynicism (which inhibits success), resistance, commitment, and related personal reactions.

Investigations of employees' reactions to change have revealed that their perception about the effects of change to both the organisation and their well-being influences their ultimate response to change (Giangreco & Peccei, 2005:110). In addition, Chreim (2006:1) established that the extent to which employees possess the required expertise or attributes to effectively execute their new functions directly influence their attitude or reaction towards change. In return, these reactions determine the efficacy of any change initiative.

According to Mcshane and Von Glinow (2008:1), there are major direct costs caused by change to employees and these include change threats to autonomy, job security and career opportunities. In the same way, Mann and Williams (1960:217) add that change challenges existing social and operational structures. It distorts the expectations of satisfied employees and causes them to think that their loss will be greater than their gains in comparison to disgruntled employees.

For Werner (2007:1), organisational change can pose a threat to some individuals whilst for others it presents a challenge or an opportunity. Respectively, Elrod and Tippett (2002:273) establish that, even though organisational members may be exposed to similar change phenomena, their reactions differs from person to person.

Some may undergo extreme stress and anxiety while others remain composed. In line with this reasoning, Chreim (2006:1) argues that where change is perceived with negativity, employees can go to the extent of trying to prove a point that change was a poor decision; and if their efforts fail to prove that, they go through emotional stress.

Commenting on the relationship between organisational change and creativity, Amabile (1988:123) notes that, when employees perceive the workplace climate as one that epitomises employee participation and involvement, they in turn feel encouraged to raise their opinions. In contrast, Isaksen et al. (2000:171-184) note that when employees perceive the change climate as characterised by uncertainty, intolerance and autocracy, they become hesitant to take risks, and are discouraged to offer suggestions. According to Politics (2005:182-204), creativity is the art of creating ideas and innovation involves effectual execution of these ideas. As such, to encourage employees to be creative, Politics (2005:182-204) advocates for the creation of an idea generation environment. Organisations risk losing employees' input and interest if they fail to create a conducive change environment.

The bottom line for Yu (2009:1) is that the change effects are wide ranging. These include among others, high labour turnover, increased workload, unclear job descriptions, unclear reporting structures and lowers employees' standard of living. For Cartwright and Cooper (2002:1), uncertainty, fear of job security, fear of the unfamiliar, fear of losing social identity, role ambiguity, fear of losing beloved ones, increase in workload and anxiety are some of the well-known adverse consequences of organisational change. Concurring, Schabracq and Cooper (1998:625) believe that when staff are unable to effect vital technical modifications, a degree of doubt ascends about their future, which leads to the start of anxiety. This uncertainty can negatively affect workers' commitment, job fulfilment and effective participation.

Moreover, Wu (2001) notes that, as soon as a business implements change, its personnel may face threats to their job security, work responsibility, positions, and work resources. These pressures can worsen workers' trust and commitment at their place of work as a whole. This reaction can adversely manifest in the personnel's approach towards their work. Wu (2001:1) further noted that, once employees start to ponder about the consequences associated with organisational change, it is highly

likely that their attitudes or perceptions towards change programmes are extremely challenged. The result is always twofold; change success or change failure.

According to Elrod and Tippett (2002:273), change presents and leaves unbearable turmoil or negative experiences among the workforce, such as stress, depression and perception of chaos, among others. Similarly, Vakola and Nikolaou (2005:99) maintain that the aforesaid unbearable emotional states are similar to those experienced in grief. Because the aftermath of organisational change are sometimes devastating, Harunavamwe (2010:23) noted that existing literature likened these aftermath to emotional reactions experienced by an individual during stressful circumstances like grief or death.

Commenting on the subject of stress, McHugh and Brennan, (1994:29), note that, when organisations undergo transformation, their employees also undergo extreme stress. This undue stress is caused by fear of the unknown, job insecurities, worries of possibly losing control and anxieties of possibly having new working methods and relationships. For this reason, Jimmieseon, Terry and Callan (2004:11-27) highlight the consequences of stress as high attrition, high employee dissatisfaction and poor organisational performance.

According to Vakola and Nikolaou (2005:99) stress is one of the major implicit effects of change and results in increased disloyalty, demotivation, high inaccuracies, and high absenteeism as a result of illness. All these consequences affect employees when they try to maintain change within the organisation. It becomes difficult for employees and managers to understand, reconcile, or perform various roles in the changing workplace.

Qualifying the effect of organisational change, McShane and Von Glinow (2008:1) introduce the idea of role conflict, role ambiguity and work overload for employees and managers as a result of change. They defined role conflict as a mismatch between the expectations of an individual in relation to that specific individual's role in an organisation. For certain individuals stress tend to be very high when they are required to perform two conflicting roles. Role conflict also transpires when there is incongruity between employees' norms or beliefs and organisational culture. Similarly, Terry and

Jimmierson (2003:92) commented that from a worker's point of view, change can be referred to as an ordinary organisational life experience that has the ability to induce constant worry and other adverse repercussions. During their research, they noted that employees who were confronted with a lot of work stresses resulting from a changing working environment developed undesirable physiological, psychological and behavioural responses.

When organisations contemplate or experience change, Piderit (2000:24) indicates that organisational members go through diverse emotional strains which in turn influence their perception towards change. To support this, previous studies by Bovey and Hede (2001:116) indicate that, if the majority of the employees are stressed during change process, this may result in detrimental losses to the organisation hence change is regarded as more than a risk of personal loss. On the contrary, Alreck and Settle (2004:24), note that stress can actually cause pressure to employees to change the way they do things, thus possibly having a positive influence on change.

For Jimmieson et al. (2004:11-27), revising organisational variables such as work processes, systems, job functions, roles and responsibilities is the prime objective of organisational change. However, these alterations produce tension, insecurity, stress, anxiety and confusion, which inevitably lead to job dissatisfaction.

According to Beer and Nohria (2000:107), change creates a barrier for organisations to clearly predict or ascertain the likely consequences of employee behaviours. It creates role ambiguities with a direct effect on job outputs. More so, Bovey and Hede (2001:116), in their study covering state government employees, concluded that continued stress, dissatisfaction, desire to resign and uncommitted behaviours displayed by government employees, were supposedly stimulated by change pressures.

2.8. ATTITUDES AND ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

Attitude is a manner of behaving, thinking and feeling which reflects an individual's state of mind or disposition in the workplace (Secord & Beckman, 1969:167). For Ajzen (1988:4) attitude is a predisposition or tendency for an individual to respond positively or negatively to situations or circumstances which confront him/her on a daily basis.

These responses are normally conveyed during the change process through emotions or ideologies. In support, Arnold et al. (1995) cited by Vikola and Nikolaou (2005:162) consider attitude as a general positive or negative inclination people develop towards a specific phenomenon.

Even though people are paramount change success elements, managing them is one of the most daunting task for management (Linstone and Mitroff, 1994:1). More so, it is impossible for any organization to do away with change perceptions. These perceptions are stimulated by human factors such as stress, worry and loneliness, among others (Rageckitt, 1990:1). Consequently, the art of people management when organisations are undergoing transformations is one of the most challenging exercises. It involves dealing with unpredictable behaviours, attitudes, beliefs and norms. For Dunham (1984:1), attempting to change people's perceptions or attitudes is even more problematic because normally people find comfort in their old traditions. Change may be resisted because of fear of the unknown, fear of new responsibilities, fear of the new cultures or traditions and fear of losing the beloved ones. Dunham (1984:1) further states that one of the ways organisations can comprehend the complexity of people's perceptions or attitude is by acknowledging the three distinctive components of each attitude. These are the behavioural component, affective component and cognitive component. Respectively, each attitude influences an individual to either embrace or not embrace organisational transformations.

Nonetheless, Juechter et al. (1998:63-67) note that, to enhance change efficacy organisations need to take cognisance of people's existing norms and values because therein rests the organisation's potential to implement and manage change successfully. In line with this view point, Piderit (2000:783-794) recorded that researchers recognised numerous employees' reactions to organisational change. These reactions can either be strong positive attitudes, such as, "this change is essential for the organisation to succeed," or strong negative attitudes, such as, "this change could ruin the company". As a result, change may be welcomed with anticipation and contentment, or resentment and apprehension; furthermore employees may positively embrace and support change or negatively respond and oppose change (Vakola & Nikolaou, 2005:162).

For Werner (2007), attitudes affect the way employees construe organisational change. Positive attitudes enable employees to embrace and support transformation. This view of attitude suggests that employees' perception that change will benefit them in the long run, encourages them to embrace and adjust quickly to the fresh work methods (Beer & Nohria, 2000:107-112). In my view, this means that the likelihood for employees to accept and support change is minimal when their attitude towards change is minimal. Gilmore and Barnett (1992:534-548), established that organisations which successfully achieved their strategic objectives and successfully implemented change programmes did so though positive employee attitudes.

Furthermore, Vikola and Nikolaou (2005:162) note that, in the midst of numerous change management propositions, guidelines and approaches, change outcomes have been unsatisfactory. To support this, Beer and Nohria (2000:133-141) note that, statistically 70 per cent of change programmes undergo still birth because of negative attitudes which ultimately become a source of resistance to change (Deloitte & Touche, 1996).

In this study, attitudes refer to negative or positive employee responses to change. These responses are shaped by employee beliefs, feelings and behaviours towards the change phenomenon (Alreck & Settle, 2004:12). These employee responses include among others:

i.   **Openness to change:** This refers to whether an employee or a supervisor is willing to embrace and participate effectively in change management initiatives. According to Armenakis and Bedeian (1999:12-19), the degree of receptivity to change programmes varies from one employee to another. However, this variation equips and enables organisations to manage change effectively.

ii. **Readiness for change:** According to Harris and Mossholder, (1993:681) readiness for change is normally "reflected in the organisational members' beliefs, attitudes, and intentions regarding the extent to which changes are needed and the organisations' capacity to successfully make those changes". With reference to Lewin's unfreezing stage, readiness for change occurs when a person learns something new and discontinues old behaviours. Turner (1982:125) notes that, "for change implementation to be truly effective

organisations need to ensure that readiness and commitment to change must be developed".

iii. **Commitment to organisation:** This refers to the psychological attachment of employees or managers to their organisation. For Porter et al. (1974:604), it is "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation". Additionally, Iverson (1996:122-149) states that, for the success of organisational change, commitment is believed to be one of the most significant determinants.

iv. **Trusting management:** According to Mayer and Davis (1999:124) trust refers to the "willingness to engage in risk-taking with a focal party". A more detailed explanation of trust was given by Rousseau et al. (1998:395) as "a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based on the positive expectations of the intentions or behaviour of another".

v. **Communication of organisational change:** It is the activity of conveying or transmitting meaning through a shared system of signs and semiotic rules. It transpires in three fashions, namely upwards, downwards and horizontally. Effective communication is paramount for the success of any change programme (Covin & Kilmann, 1990:233).

vi. **Training for change in organisations:** The success or failure of any change programme is directly influenced by employees' perception about the adequacy of training received to manage change. According to Vakola and Nikolaou (2005:161), past, present and future training enhances employees' ability to embrace change and diminishes possibilities for change resistance.

vii. **Demographic characteristics:** This refers to factors like gender, educational qualifications, status, employment experience and age (Polley, 1997:23).

In this contemporary environment, the focus of change programmes is shifting away from processes. In addition, organisations have realised that employees are paramount change success factors. Alreck and Settle (2004:12) concur and argue that without winning employees' support or approval change success is not a guarantee for organisations. For Folger and Skarlicki (1999:43), positive attitudes towards change determine the success of any change management programme.

Accordingly, Rabelo and Torres (2005:614), state that employees tend to resist change when their perceptions about change are negative. In his research, Diamond (1986:543), argues that change resistance often occurs when employees' perceptions are negative or when their status quo is endangered. In support, Berneth (2004:36-52) notes that attitudes influence employees' feelings and corresponding behaviour about change. Furthermore, Berneth (2004:36-52) is of the opinion that negative attitudes increase the possibility of change resistance and diminishes the degree to which employees embrace, support and adapt to transformations.

Ultimately, attitudes predict the kind of behaviour likely to be exhibited by employees during the change process. It thus acts as a paramount guiding factor whenever change occurs because it may determine change outcomes (Chreim, 2006:1). In support, Eby et al. (2000:419) assert that positive attitudes determine the success of change programmes and also enhance the organisation to achieve its strategic objectives.

Piderit (2001:24) highlights that change success is dependent on employees' attitudes and how they construe the change programme. The success or failure of change programmes is also influenced by the extent to which employees perceive it as beneficial to them and the degree of their involvement in the administration of change programmes. In the same line of reasoning, Vakola and Nikolaou (2005:99-102) indicate that the attitude an individual exhibits towards change is linked to his or her perception of work.

Robbins and Judge (2009:1) recognise managers or supervisors as paramount change agents with a huge responsibility of ensuring that change is well communicated and understood by their subordinates. If managers misconstrue change and fail to get employee buy-in, the possibilities of facing resistance from the workforce is very high. Therefore, though change is inevitable and a necessity sometimes, more often than not, it leaves a trail of traumatic experience to the organisation and its workforce (Werner, 2007).

2.9. FACTORS INFLUENCING ATTITUDE TOWARDS ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

The success of any change programme is fundamentally dependent on the nature of employees' attitude, the extent of their participation or involvement and the degree to which employees and management understand the source, character and magnitude of the change effort. There are numerous factors that influence attitude towards organisational change such as the need for growth; power; past experience; commitment; form of the change; communication; employee involvement; and the challenges or opportunities which the change programmes present (Werner, 2007). Likewise, Giangreco and Peccei (2005:110-117) suggest that the extent to which people perceive the change programme as a profit and loss transaction determines whether they will accept, or not accept, change. Highlighted below are some of the factors which influence managements' and employees' attitudes towards change.

2.9.1. Threats and benefits of organisational change

The degree to which employees will accept or reject change is based on their personal evaluations concerning the perceived benefits or misfortunes accrued from the change programme.

Investigations conducted by Oreg (2006:79) covering 177 defence employees found a correlation between job security and employee emotional reactions. They further established that should change threaten employees' power and status, the likelihood of facing resistance were very high. With reference to technological change, the survey revealed that employees' receptivity to change was influenced by their feelings about whether or not change was going to improve their well-being and simplify work processes. Furthermore it was noted that negative perceptions about change discouraged these employees to embrace change.

2.9.2. Previous experience and job security

Previous experiences such as dissatisfaction caused by unpleasant working conditions, inequalities, hostile leader-member exchange relationships and unjust compensation structures greatly influence attitude towards change. These bad experiences had stimulated undesirable behaviours which negatively impacted the

chances of success of subsequent change programmes with affected individuals (Bovey & Hede, 2001:116).

Commenting on job security, McMurry (1947:589) argue that, more often than not, employees resist change if it threatens their jobs. According to Baruch and Hind (1999:295-306), other studies have considerably discussed the effect job insecurity has on the relationship between attitude and change success. They further note that employees' perception about possible job loss varies in accordance with their hierarchical position within an organisation. In addition, Burk and Greenglass (2001:91) point out that perceived threats of losing a job which are strongly driven by emotions are significantly correlated to resistance to change.

In line with the latter rationale, Damanpour (1991:555) indicates that, perceived job loss threats may become the supreme impediment to change success, with evidence from the literature depicting a noteworthy parallel between job uncertainty and business commitment. Therefore, when employees are certain that their jobs are secured they tend to reciprocate by responding positively towards change. In contrast, if this is not the case, employees' attitudes towards change may be negative.

2.9.3. Power and prestige

Employees' attitude towards change is also strongly influenced by power and prestige (Tichy, 1983:1); and any perceived change threats directed towards these two variables are considered as likely stimulus of resistance to change (Goltz & Hietapelto, 2002:3). Unfolding the rationale behind power and prestige, Oreg (2006:79) comments that, time and again, organisational change involves radical shifts in relation to the administration of power and prestige in the workplace, which leads either to a potential gain or a drastic loss. Power attracts status and prestige. According to Tichy (1983:1) power and prestige are referred to as political ramifications of organisational change which explains why generally workers view change from a negative standpoint.

To support this notion, Oreg (2006:73-101) records the reluctance to relinquish power as one of the central factors for resistance, and that members' cognitive perceptions stand at the heart of such resistance. Therefore, although an anticipated negative change in one's power may certainly influence one's affect and behaviour, it is

primarily expected to impact the cognitive evaluation of the change process (Stewart & Manz, 1997:169). Therefore, any negative impact to power and prestige adversely influences employees' perception and receptivity to change.

2.9.4. Intrinsic rewards

The effects of transformation experienced by organisations are twofold. They either have a bearing on employees' extrinsic or intrinsic satisfaction levels. Since organisational changes alters the traditional work methods and structures, some employees may dislike the idea of moving from their current position to new positions. The thoughts of moving to less demanding and less favourable positions might cause employees to develop negative attitudes towards change. However the feelings for those who think less about the change phenomenon are opposite (Oreg, 2006:80). The extent to which employees intrinsically gratify their personal needs directly or indirectly shapes their social and organisational identity, which ultimately influences how they respond or react to change initiatives (Ryan & Deci, 2000:68-78).

2.9.5. Social influence

According to Erickson (1988:99) "the social network theory highlights how people, organisations and groups interact through various social familiarities ranging from casual acquaintances to close familiar bonds within a given social structure". In this line of reasoning, Oreg (2006:81) argues that social influence determines the way change problems are solved, organisations are run, and the degree to which change objectives are realised and employees behave in the workplace. In the same vein, Erickson (1988:99) notes that the social interactions or systems within a defined network more often than not shape or determine the behaviour or attitudes of its members. Moreover, Brown and Quarter (1994:259) note that, because of the influence that these interactions or systems have on the members of the network, at organisational level, employees tend to behave in accordance with the set standards or norms. In other words, if rejecting change is considered to be the set norm, every employee's attitude will gravitate towards resisting change.

2.9.6. Coping with organisational change

Adjusting and adapting to the effects of the ever evolving organisational life constitute one of the common reactions to change (Judge et al., 1999:107). The definition of

coping according to Folkman et al. (1986:572) is "the person's cognitive and behavioural efforts to manage or deal with threatening situations". Such management encompasses mastering, tolerating, reducing, and minimising stressful conditions (Cox et al., 1987:782).

Coping behaviour is not determined by any single factor in isolation. The way in which stress or change is perceived, the nature of the work environment in which it occurs, and personal situational characteristics are important factors for an individual deciding how he or she will handle stress or cope with organisational changes (Keenan & Newton, 1984:57).

In researching how certain personality types deal with organisational change, Judge et al. (1999:107) explored seven personality types. The research covered 514 managers from six different organisations that had undergone change. The seven personality types were combined into two constructs, namely risk tolerance and self-concept. These two constructs relate to one's ability to cope with organisational transformations. According to Stopford (2003:99), self-concept encompasses internal *locus* of control, positive affectivity, self-esteem and self-efficacy whereas risk tolerance involves higher tolerance for ambiguity, lower risk aversion and higher openness to experience. As a result, Eaton (2010:30) states that the likelihood that employees may respond positively to change is very high when they have the power to make decisions about their work and the way change is administered. This is because of their perception that change may present new opportunities and challenges.

In the context of occupational stress, Judge et al. (1999:107) claim that coping can determine the way in which employees appraise and manage a change process. According to Marais (1997:1), when employees are subjected to organisational change, they often feel that the circumstances extend their coping resources, which causes them to be highly stressed. Conversely, MacSherry and Holm (1994:476) postulate that, if coping is successful, people experience less strain and perceive the change more favourably. More so, individuals who perceive themselves as having the resources to cope with the change situation will reflect more positive beliefs about the change, thus reducing their resistance to the process.

2.9.7. Organisational commitment

Porter et al. (1976:87) define organisational commitment as a general feeling of belonging and involvement within a specific organisation. Mowday et al. (1982) view organisational commitment as the perception employees develop towards their organisation which in turn influences the nature of association between employees and their organisation. Commitment affirms an individual's preparedness to embrace and support the organisation's vision and mission. Furthermore, commitment reflects the nature of the exchange relationship between the organisation and its workforce. In this exchange relationship workers avail themselves to the organisation and in turn organisations reciprocate by rewarding their workforce (Buchanan, 1974:533).

According to Vakola and Nikolaou (2005:163) the fundamental reason why people seek employment is because of the congenital desire to gratify their needs. As they join the organisation, they bring forth diverse skills, competencies, experiences and also have different expectations. Therefore, unless and until their needs and expectations are met organisations risk breeding a highly disloyal and anxious workforce.

A significant number of research papers have substantiated the importance of organisational commitment in change management programmes (Vakola & Nikolaou, 2005:163). In this line of reasoning, scholars like Darwish (2000:6) and Cordery et al. (1993:705) recorded that various scholars revealed that employees most likely accept change when their commitment towards the organisation is positive. In the same vein, Iverson (1996:122), considers commitment as one of the imperative factors which influences attitudes toward organisational change. In other words, the greater commitment levels, the higher the willingness to accept change (Lau & Woodman, 1995:537). However, some scholars report that, regardless of high commitment levels, there is the possibility that change might be rejected, especially if employees perceive change as not beneficial to them.

In light of the above, Iverson (1996:122) notes that highly committed employees always have a positive attitude towards change and willingly go an extra mile in order to make change a success. Therefore, one can conclude that organisational commitment positively influences attitudes towards change.

2.9.8. Personal resilience and openness to change

Personal resilience is one of the dispositional traits that seem to have attracted research interest in the field of organisational behaviour. Personal resilience comprises behaviours such as self-confidence, positivity and management abilities. These behaviours mutually relate (Major et al., 1998:735).

Studies by Block and Kremen (1996:349) on personal resilience and openness to change revealed that resilient employees are open minded, confident and ever positive. They also found that resilient employees are inquisitive and open to new challenges. Furthermore, resilient people do not give in easily, they have the stamina to re-emerge from difficult situations and adjust easily to ever changing working environments (Block & Kremen, 1996:349).

Accordingly, Taylor and Brown (1988:193) conclude that personal resilience and openness to change has its origins in cognitive adaptation theory. According to cognitive adaptation theory resilient people are those who persevere during difficult times. These people possess special traits such as self-confidence and positivity. They are open minded and have power over their everyday life. Cognisance of the above, it is therefore the researchers' view that resilient people are good change agents and that no matter the source or nature of change, they always ensure that change programmes are a success.

Despite this, it should also be noted that the aforementioned is not really a holistic reflection of the relationship between personal resilience and openness to change. The absence of personal resilience does not imply or confirm that change will be rejected; and, likewise, the presence of personal resilience does not necessarily imply that employees will perceive change as beneficial and, in turn, accept it. In other words, the relationship between these variables is inconclusive. In line with this reasoning, Bovey and Hede (2001:116) have established that people who often consider or label others as failures, incapable, incompetent and unproductive, are prone to reject change.

2.9.9. Abundant and purposeful participation

Research points to the efficacy of participation as a way to overcome resistance to change. Kotter (1996:101) notes that the ever evolving organisational life causes helping behaviours to be essential change agents. This entails that encouraging openness and empowering people through participation is a unique way of managing resistance to change. To support this, Carnall (1990:108) highlights that workers, project personnel and management all need to play an active role in a change project. Carnall (1990:108) further suggests that openness and participation enhance organisations' ability to refine existing systems and processes, realign strategic goals, and also identify new cost-effective business methodologies.

According to Lines (2004:1), participation refers to empowerment to contribute in the planning, development and execution of change management programmes. In support, Chreim (2006:1) notes that participation promotes pro-social behaviours, intensifies an individual's eagerness to accept change and enhances the effective functioning of the organisation. In support of this, an investigation by Giangreco and Peccei (2005:110), focusing on managers in the Italian electrical industry, found a strong correlation between employee perception about their participation in change initiatives and their receptivity to change.

A similar investigation by Msweli-Mbanga and Potwana (1991:21) examined the relationship between participation and receptivity for change. Their study revealed that empowering employees to participate in change management programmes and allowing them to exercise autonomy stimulated them to embrace change and exhibit pro-social behaviours not formally prescribed by their employment contracts and job descriptions.

Resultantly, participation thus helps to reduce the possibility of change resistance because it creates psychological ownership among employees, cultivates the establishment of a knowledge sharing environment, and enhances feelings of procedural fairness, thereby increasing receptivity to change. Participation alone, however, is typically insufficient for overcoming resistance (Shareef, 1994; Bryson & Anderson, 2000; Quinn, 2000), particularly when it is not widespread and does not span all phases of the change process (Bruhn et al., 2001:208). Piderit (2000:783)

notes that, for participation to work, employees should be allowed to openly express any ambivalence towards change, and he urged managers to engage in the latter form of participation.

2.9.10. Trusting management

Trusting management involves employees' firm belief in the reliability, truth and ability of their superiors. Numerous scholars acknowledge that the extent to which employees trust their superiors as true, honest, and caring change ambassadors determines the success of the change programme. As such, it is a prerequisite for supervisors or managers to create an environment which enables their subordinates to trust them (Kotter, 1995:59).

"Trust is a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based on positive expectations of the intentions or behaviour of another", (Rousseau et al., 1998:395). Furthermore, Tzafrir and Dolan (2004:115-132) identify trust as "a willingness to increase one's resource investment in another party, based on positive expectation, resulting from past positive mutual interactions".

Gomez and Rosen (2001:53) consider a leader-member exchange relationship based on mutuality and trustworthiness as the fundamental basis for change success. In support, Oreg (2006:73-101) found that resistance to change is correlated to trust in management. In line with this, the researchers is of the opinion that employees who highly trust their management easily embrace and support change whereas those who lack trust in management have all the reasons to resist any change effort.

2.9.11. Communication

Open communication between management and employees about change and its ramifications stimulates employees to feel that their concerns or interests are paramount and subsequently promotes psychological safety and receptivity to change (Schein, 1964:1). Mikkelsen et al. (1991:79) similarly note that communicating the nature, reasons and likely consequences of change to employees before, during and after implementation is vital for change success.

Supporting the aforementioned, Kaufman (1992:88) affirms that trust is built when organisations continue to embrace and encourage open communication about change. Correspondingly, Kotter (1996:85) considers communication as a key ingredient for sharing change vision and goals. Failure to communicate the change process properly thus creates unnecessary bottlenecks for an organisation and ultimately makes all change efforts futile.

The frequency, extent and value of facts presented to employees by the organisation influence employees' reaction to change. Organisations need to utilise different formal or informal channels to effectively and repeatedly communicate the need for change. One of the reasons why communication fails is because organisations do not timeously exhaust all the channels at their disposal to communicate change (Kotter, 1996:87-88). Oreg (2006:81) found that detailed information about change resulted in a reduction in change resistance. Furthermore, Oreg (2006:81) established that when change is well and timeously communicated employees have a tendency to reciprocate though displaying positive behaviours.

2.10. ATTITUDE AND CHANGE RESISTANCE

The concept of change resistance is directly correlated to attitudes towards change (Trader-Leigh, 2001:372), therefore, it is accredited in this study as a vital change determinant.

According to Fullan and Miles (1993:76), "resistance to change is variously known as intransigence, entrenchment, fearfulness, reluctance to 'buy in', complacency, and unwillingness to alter behaviours and failure to recognise the need for change". Likewise, resistance to change can be defined as the "emotional or behavioural response to real or imagined work changes" (Kreitner et al., 1999:594).

For Bovey and Hede (2001:116) resistance to change is a controversial subject. They argued that cognitive resistance to change can be explained or measured in three different ways:
  i. as a standard or accepted practice resulting from people's misguided conception or general inclination to construe circumstances in most unpleasant ways;

ii. as an intentional or calculative effort to reject change because of its effects or influence; or

iii. as refusal to accept the adverse emotional results caused by the imbalance that exists between intended and actual change goals.

Piderit (2000:783) notes that resistance to change often refers to a process whereby employees' multidimensional attitudes to change, such as affective, cognitive and behavioural components are dissimilar to the change objective. To exemplify this, a person may be excited about change opportunities and equally be petrified about his or her inability to cope with change.

Elrod and Tippett (2002:273) concurred with Piderit (2000) in their study which examined employees' perception towards change during an organisational restructuring exercise. They established that employees refuse to accept change when their daily work routines are threatened, when they fear losing their jobs and when they just have negative attitudes towards change.

According to McGuire (1985:233), these components identified above by Piderit (2000:783), reveal three ways employees use to evaluate a specific phenomenon. Oreg (2006:73) notes that, though the following three components are discrete of one another, more often than not they tend to be interdependent.

i. **The cognitive dimension**: This involves brainstorming the change process. In this dimension, people analyse or evaluate change threats and opportunities.

ii. **The affective dimension:** This encompasses people's positive or negative feelings about the change process such as nervousness, resentment, distress and eagerness.

iii. **Behavioural dimension:** This involves people's behavioural reactions to the change process. The reaction takes two forms, namely pro-change behaviours and anti-change behaviours (Lines, 2004:1). Pro-change behaviours support or promote the change initiative whereas anti-change behaviours inhibit the change process. Earlier studies by Bovey and Hede (2001:116) among nine Australian organisations undergoing transformations established employee behavioural dimensions normally associated with change. They ascertained

that employees' reactions to change normally take two forms such as passive as opposed to active behaviours, constructive as opposed to destructive behaviours, positive as opposed to negative and overt as opposed to covert behaviours.

2.10.1. Sources of resistance

Resistance can be triggered equally by the employees or the organisation itself. According to McShane and Von Glinow (2008:1), explanations relating to negative attitudes towards change, link well with factors that lead to resistance to change. These include:

 i. Distress of the unfamiliar;

 ii. Distress of not having power over new working arrangements;

 iii. Fear of not being able to handle the discrepancy between old and new work patterns;

 iv. Hesitation towards novel procedures and projected results, caused by change;

 v. Supposed and actual defeat of power brought on through burdens of change;

 vi. Upturn in the demands of performance bred by change; and

 vii. Mix-ups and blared expectations in the change process.

In the same line of reasoning, Nelson and Quick (1997:546-547) argue that individuals fight change due to fear of the unfamiliar, fear of injury, fear of disappointment, fear of losing their loved ones, fear of failure and fear of control or impact.

Similarly, Maxwell (2001:79) suggests that many people flee transformations because it is at times not brought upon by themselves or the possibility that normal habits become disrupted are very high. Furthermore, organizational leaders risk losing respect when the reasons for transformations are not clearly laid down and when the effort expanded towards change far outweigh the benefits accrued.

For Robbins (1997:259) change can intimidate an individual's great need for refuge. As such, for individuals to embrace alterations, they require assurance that their livelihoods are safeguarded, their careers are not endangered, and that they are not going to be defeated. If there is no assurance, they resist change. Insecurity is therefore a fundamental reason why people resist change.

Furthermore, Robbins (1997:259) highlights that humans form their domain through perceptions. Once the domain is established, accepting change might be a daunting exercise. More often than not humans are left to select the kind of information relevant to them. They then prioritise what they want to listen to and discard perplexing information. For this same reason, Gray and Starke (1998:576) note that once people secure their status quo, they find it very difficult to accept change, particularly when it negatively impacts established norms and values. Moreover, Gray and Starke (1998:577) have established that modifications can be fought if these are alleged as threatening to the collective structure and if they encroach upon collective customs.

Also, according to Robbins (1997:260) business battle adjustments due to structured inertia, partial focus of adjustment, collective inertia, the risk to established affiliations and threats to reputable supply allocation. Every organisation has integrated mechanisms to create stability, such as rules and regulations, policies and procedures and job descriptions which the staff and learners must adhere to. Therefore, if the exterior force defies these stability mechanisms, organisations struggle to adjust as they are habituated to stability.

2.10.2. Paradoxes of resistance to change

According to Piderit (2000:283), negative attitudes to change more often than not produce marginal reactions when change is just introduced, but after a certain period of time resistance surfaces when organisational change is at the momentum stage, where results will be expected. Research on resistance to change over the past decades has proven to be inconstant. Many scholars have defined resistance to change as any anti-change attitudes or forces obstructing change efforts. These definitions have exalted resistance to change as a chronic impediment not to be entertained but rather eradicated (Wanberg & Banas 2000:132).

Correspondingly, De Jager (2001:25) has articulated that organisations regard resistance to change as a negative impediment. As such those who refuse or are not prepared to change are also often regarded as noncompliant and impediments to organisational success. On the contrary, in some cases, resistance to change is a paramount success factor. For example, constructive resistance or opposition is not always negative. In some cases it enhances organisations to view change in a different

view and may generate better resolutions. Furthermore, De Jager (2001:25) asserts that, "the idea that anyone who questions the need for change has an attitude problem is simply wrong, not only because it discounts past achievements, but also because it makes us vulnerable to indiscriminate and ill-advised change".

Regardless of the prominence of the phrase 'resistance to change', Dent and Goldberg (1999:25) note that it distorts the reality of the change phenomenon and thus should be abandoned. Furthermore, they argue that people resist the adverse effects of change, not change per se. As a result of this misconception, organisations are failing to comprehend and tackle real problems confronting them.

Likewise, Nord and Jermier (1994:396) conclude that the concept is time and again misunderstood and the ultimate reasons for not accepting change are overlooked. They, however, recommended that instead of abandoning change, organisations should emphasise understanding employees' personal experience and why they resist change. Other scholars have challenged the term for the reason that it undermines the legitimate reasons and benefits of employees resisting change. Research suggests that resistance allows organisations to realign, redefine and refine strategic change objectives, processes, and systems (Wanberg & Banas 2000:132), and to promote excellence when making decisions (Lines, 2004:1). According to Msweli-Mbanga and Potwana (1991:21), resistance enables organisations to create knowledge sharing hubs.

The bottom line however, is that organisations, as a fundamental contingent for achieving and successfully implementing change initiatives, should strive to overcome resistance to change and build willingness to change among both managerial and non-managerial employees.

2.11. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this chapter has presented an outline of the concept of organisational change. Among the areas highlighted and supreme to this study were definitions of organisational change, change management theories, manifestation of organisational change, common forms of organisational change, effects of organisational change, attitudes and organisational change, and resistance to change. Exceptional reference

was made to the nature of organisational change in the BPO industry. The subsequent chapter will discuss the OCB construct, most importantly, the effects of change implementation on citizenship behaviours.

CHAPTER THREE
ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapter discussed organisational change and its manifestations in the BPO industry. This section aims to highlight the effects of organisational change implementation on OCB and how OCB moderates the correlation between organisational change and job satisfaction. To elaborate the concept of OCB, chief areas to be addressed include, amongst others, the meaning and scope of OCB, its origins, significance, models and antecedents.

3.2 DEFINITION OF OCB

According to Schultz et al. (2003:221), the term OCB refers to behaviours of employees which are outside the scope of approved organisational norms. They are normally referred to as extra-role behaviours and can easily be detected by peers, managers and researchers. For Robbins (2005:2), OCBs are discretionary work-related behaviours, not directly or explicitly related to formal organisational requirements but paramount to organisational success. They extend beyond prescribed performance management systems and job descriptions. In the same vein, Lam (2001:262) describes OCBs as actions which surpass minimum role requirements, but which promote effective organisational performance.

Taking from the groundbreaking work by Chester Barnard (1938:5) regarding the "willingness to cooperate", and Daniel Katz (1964:132) the discrepancy between "dependable role performance" and "innovative and spontaneous behaviours", Organ (1988:4) defines organisational citizenship behaviours as

> "individual behaviour which is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system, and which in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation. By discretionary, we mean that the behaviour is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description, which is, the clearly specifiable term of the person's employment contract with the organisation; the behaviour is rather a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable".

The benefits derived from citizenship behaviours are ambiguous and unplanned

(Organ, 1997:87). Exemplifying the aforesaid in relation to a salesperson's job function, Organ (1997) notes that the effort expended by sales personnel to achieve and exceed their sales targets should not be confused or equated to OCB because sales personnel usually receive commission as compensation. Similarly, Organ et al. (2006:8) suggest that executing the required job function successfully and in an exemplary manner does not constitute OCB.

Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:213) view OCBs as involving three major components: they exceed the role requirements of an employee's job; they are discretionary in nature, that is, employees decide to perform them in a voluntary manner; and, finally, they are not part of the normal compensation management system. Examples of OCB, according to Robbins (2005:1), include helping others with teamwork, offering to perform extra duties outside an individual's job description, and giving praise to the organisation and its workforce. Cascio (2003:543) adds the following to Robbins' (2005) list of examples: unwavering determination to accomplish prescribed tasks; following standard operational requirements; and embracing the organisation's strategic bottom line.

In agreement with the aforementioned definitions, OCBs are purposeful voluntary behaviours displayed by employees, either individually or collectively (Schnake, 1991:735). These behaviours include, among others, helping others with demanding work assignments, helping others to perform their jobs better, taking part in occasions not recognized or sponsored by the organisation but which enhance the image of the organisation, and not complaining about work assignments.

According to Organ (1997:85), OCB is also known as "the good soldier syndrome". He categorised OCB into five common themes or gestures namely, altruism, civic virtue, conscientiousness, sportsmanship and courtesy. Another name given to these gestures is OCB dimensions. Turnipseed and Murkinson (2000:281) note that OCBs are extra-role or voluntary behaviours which improve the effective functioning of organisations and which, at the same time, promote creativity and innovation among employees. Notwithstanding the abundance of OCB definitions at hand, OCBs can be simply defined as voluntary or choice behaviours which surpasses the expected or prescribed norms, values and roles and which indirectly benefit the organisation.

3.3 BACKGROUND OF OCB

As a concept, OCB was originally coined by Smith et al. (1983), and Bateman and Organ (1983). Their research can be traced back as far as the 1960s from the works of Barnard (1938), Katz (1964:131), and Katz and Kahn (1966:1). In the mid-1960s, Barnard discovered that informal cooperatives were giving birth to formal cooperative systems. He considered willingness to cooperate as a vital component of formal systems which promote the effective functioning of organisations. Subsequently, this willingness to cooperate later developed to what is now known as OCB (Barnard, 1938). Bernard's ideology conflicted with the classical management theorists who deemed collaboration in formal organisations as a daunting and unattainable exercise. For Banard (1938) as cited by Unuvar (2006:8) cooperation was the only fundamental element lacking in formal organizations, rendering organisations incomplete and imperfect.

According to Katz (1964:132), cooperation is paramount for formal organisations and enhances effective organisational performance. Katz further emphasised that a corporation which depends merely on its plans for prearranged conduct is a flimsy collective system, which will inevitably collapse. OCB needs to be anticipated for an organisation to survive. Katz acknowledged the significance of prosocial behaviours which go beyond prescribed roles or duties prior to Bateman and Organ's (1983:587) conceptualization of OCB.

Following the above discussion, Katz (1964:132) maintains that

> "Every workplace has numerous acts of cooperation and if these didn't exist the structures would fail. This is seen in factory work groups, directorates in government departments or at any department of an institution of higher education. The importance of these acts can be overlooked; however, they are interlinked with job descriptions and performance".

Concerning these extra-role prosocial behaviours, Katz and Kahn (1966:337) discovered three behavioural factors which were of concern to organisations:

i.   Organisations should recruit and retain employees in their structures.

ii. Organisations should ensure that employees achieve and exceed their jurisdictional functions.

iii. Employees should display "innovative and spontaneous behaviour performance beyond role requirements for accomplishments of organisational functions". This third factor, places cooperation between employers and employees at the heart of employment relationships or organisational systems.

For Organ (1988:4), OCB simply refers to "discretionary behaviours which are not openly accepted by the formal system but in aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation". In other words, these are voluntary actions taken by employees that extend beyond what is expected of them and that are not recognised by the organisation's reward system. They are not prescribed in the formal employment contracts or job description, are not obligatory, and employees cannot be punished for not displaying citizenship behaviour.

According to Finkelstein and Penner (2004:383), OCB are extra-role behaviours displayed by employees with the intention of helping fellow colleagues and the organisation at large. They cannot be imposed and incentivised by organisations (Organ et al., 2006:1).

3.4 CRITIQUES OF THE ORIGINAL DEFINITION OF OCB

According to Unuvar (2006:11), Organ's (1988) original definition of OCB has not been universally accepted. A number of scholars have disapproved the initial conceptualisation of OCB. Morrison (1994:1543) argues that OCB should not be distinct from formal prescribed job functions. Based on her research findings, 17 of 20 OCB factors were recognised as in-role behaviours by the respondents. She encouraged researchers to comprehend how employees perceive their job functions and behaviours in relation to OCB. In line with this reasoning, OCB is thus not a holistic cure all concept due to the fact that the gulf between in-role and extra-role behaviours is vague (Morrison, 1994:1543).

The idea that OCB is not formally recognised by the organisation's reward system is also misconstrued. MacKenzie et al. (1991:123) note that, as organisations evolve, what is referred to as extra-role behaviours will be regarded as in-role behaviours in performance management systems. In their study covering performance assessment of 259 non-managerial employees in the insurance industry, MacKenzie et al.

(1991:123) discovered that sales personnel were often evaluated based on their citizenship behaviours. In agreement, Morrison (1994:1543) notes that, even though OCB is regarded as discretionary behaviours, most researchers realised that employees still acknowledge these extra-role actions as part of their daily in-role requirements.

After numerous debates and criticisms, a new concept has emerged as a substitute for OCB. The concept is known as contextual performance. Becton et al. (2008:494) state that this concept recognises citizenship behaviours as discretionary prosocial behaviours that cannot be enforced and rewarded. They believe that their argument might have compelled Organ (1997:91) to redefine OCB and ensure that it encompasses the psychological and social elements which promotes task performance. However, despite the incorporation of task performance in the refined definition, OCB is still regarded as prosocial discretionary behaviours not formally recognised by the organisation's reward systems (Podsakoff et al., 2000:513).

Efforts to redefine OCB have continued for decades and numerous propositions have been put forward. Consequently, a contrasting taxonomy was recommended which categorised OCB into two components, namely: behaviour directed towards other individuals (OCBI) and behaviour directed towards the organisation (OCBO) (Williams & Anderson, 1991:601). These continued debates and criticism prompted Organ (1997:85) to state that "it is not productive to regard OCB as 'extra-role', 'beyond the job', or 'unrewarded' by the formal system". He further asserted that "It is peculiar that the definition of OCB would have a different meaning in the near future, or that what a leader considers as OCB is measured as in-role conduct by fellow colleagues and juniors".

In line with the above, Organ (1997:85) realized that in the new world organisations, it is becoming virtually impossible not to reward OCB as originally suggested. He maintains that "it is uncommon to find rewards which are contractually binding for any type of behaviour; this includes practical performance or excellent innovation". Organ (1997:91) gave a new definition of OCB as "conduct that adds to the preservation and improvement of the shared and psychological context that supports job output".

Despite numerous criticisms that the concept of OCB attracted, most researchers of OCB significantly profited from Organ's work, which differentiated OCB into five classifications namely, altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, civic virtue and courtesy (Lievens & Anseel, 2004:229). However, new dimensions are still emerging as research in the field of organisational behaviour continues to evolve. Nonetheless, for the purpose of this study, Organ's (1988:4) dimensions of OCB will take centre stage.

3.5 DIMENSIONS OF OCB

Despite the continued disagreement concerning the dimensionality of citizenship behaviours, various dimensions and elements of behaviour have been identified in order to comprehensively conceptualise OCB, as discussed below:

3.5.1 Altruism

Altruism is also known as helping behaviours. These are discretionary behaviours which involve voluntarily helping specific others or colleagues with work related problems or to accomplish their tasks successfully (Werner, 2007:337). Helping behaviours are beneficial to both the organisation and employees. For Morrison (1994:1553), helping behaviours involve extra-role actions like helping to orientate new employees and volunteering to do the work of those absent.

3.5.2 Courtesy

Courtesy is a voluntary act involving consulting others before taking action (Werner, 2007:336). Examples include, among others, notifying co-workers of interruption in a work task, communication with the managers if your co-worker is not arriving on time or is absent and informing colleagues in time before you engage in activities that will impact them (Organ et al., 2006:24).

3.5.3 Conscientiousness

Conscientiousness is also known as compliance behaviour. Such behaviours surpass prescribed standards or are expected to be within the confines of set norms and values (Organ, 1988:10). For Morrison (1994: 1553), these include behaviours such as arriving at work on time, not taking extended lunch breaks, obeying company rules and regulations, and always completing work on time.

3.5.4 Sportsmanship

Sportsmanship refers to citizen-like gestures of tolerating inevitable challenges and obligations in the workplace without complaining or raising unnecessary grievances (Allison et al., 2001:285). Sportsmanship can be concluded as simply an employee who "never gives a minute's trouble" (Organ, 1988:11). This particular individual is forever focused, positive, and brings out the best in him or herself, regardless of challenges at his or her disposal (Organ et al., 2006:22).

3.5.5 Civic virtue

Civic virtue involves keeping oneself updated with important matters that have a bearing on the organisation. It involves constructive involvement and participation in organisational political, social, and economic processes (Allison et al., 2001:285). This includes behaviours such as participating in formal meetings about the organisation and taking part in occasions not recognized or sponsored by the organisation but which enhance the image of the organisation. According to Morrison (1994:1553), civic virtue can be easily defined as "involvement" and "keeping-up". Involvement refers to participation in organisational functions, whereas keeping up refers to looking after the organisation's best interests and keeping oneself abreast of change.

Williams and Anderson (1991:601) posited two OCB dimensions as follows:
   i.   "Behaviours directed at specific individuals in the organisation, such as courtesy and altruism (OCBI); and
   ii. Behaviours concerned with benefiting the organisation as a whole, such as, conscientiousness sportsmanship and civic virtue (OCBO)."

3.5.6 OCB directed toward individuals (OCBI)

According to Williams and Anderson (1991:601) OCBI denotes workplace behaviours directed towards certain individuals, and benefits directly those certain individuals and indirectly enhance organizational success. For Podsakoff et al. (2000:513) OCBI are behaviours directed towards helping fellow work colleagues who require help to fulfill their work functions. Likewise, Borman (2004:239) affirms that citizenship behaviour directed towards individuals involves offering contributions in the form of suggestions to others, imparting relevant knowledge and skills to others, executing others' job functions, and prioritisation of group objectives in comparison to individual interests and gains.

3.5.7 OCB directed towards the organisation (OCBO)

OCBO refers to behaviours displayed by employees precisely to benefit the organisation. They are not directed towards specific individuals within organisation. An example of OCBO occurs when employees voluntarily chose to obey organizational policies and procedures or volunteer to be members of company work groups (Williams & Anderson, 1991:601). According to Podsakoff et al. (2000:513) this type of OCB requires employees to comply or familiarize themselves with company rules and regulations.

3.6 CIRCUMPLEX MODEL OF OCB

Pastor (2012:25) asserts that the circumplex model was designed to make straightforward the concept of OCB, as illustrated in Figure 3.1. Moon and Marinova (2005) divide OCB into axes where the focus is on organisational or personal; and where the nature of the behaviour is promotive or protective (Moon et al., 2005:6).

Moon et al. (2005:6), have further established four dimensions of OCBI and OCBO:

i. "Interpersonal and promotive citizenship behaviour, which is proactive, adaptive and flexible;
ii. Interpersonal and protective citizenship behaviour which safeguards and upholds the existing status quo, norms, values and beliefs;
iii. Organisational and promotive citizenship behaviour, which places emphasis on "innovation" and continuous upgrading of organisational processes and systems;
iv. Organisational and protective citizenship behaviour which places emphasis on compliance with prescribed policies and procedures".
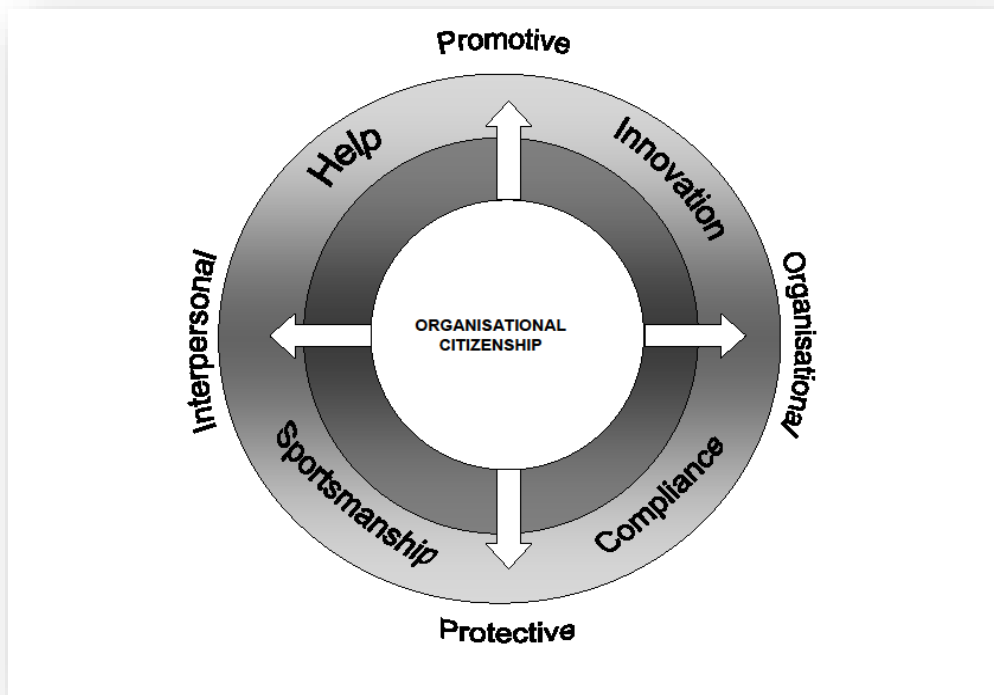
Figure 3.1: The Circumplex Model of OCB

Axes and representative behaviours (Moon et al., 2005:6)

3.7 IMPORTANCE OF OCB TO AN ORGANISATION

The fundamental contribution derived from the original definition of OCB by Organ is that discretionary gestures enhance organizational effectiveness when aggregated over time and people. Organ and Konovsky (1989:157) claim that across the field of organisational behaviour this ideology was unproven and not universally accepted for decades. It was only accepted on the grounds of its conceptual plausibility rather than practical substantiation. In line with this claim, Comeau and Griffith (2005:310) see organisational citizenship behaviour as an all-encompassing construct in the field of organisational behaviour which has attracted several meta-analyses. Resultantly, the magnitude and determination expended by various scholars to uncover OCB as a concept demonstrate its significance in the body of research and its influence on organisational success.

According to Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1997:133) OCB impacts organisations in different ways and these include inter alia:

a) "Enhancing co-worker, managerial and organisational productivity;
b) Freeing up resources so they can be used for more productive purposes;
c) Reducing the need to devote scarce resources to purely maintenance functions;
d) Helping to coordinate activities both within and across work groups;
e) Strengthening the organisation's ability to attract and retain the best employees;
f) Increasing the stability of the organisation's performance; and
g) Enabling the organisation to adapt more effectively to environmental changes".

3.7.1 Enhanced worker productivity

Podsakoff et al. (1996:262) report that individuals who assist fellow colleagues to "learn the ropes" encourage them to contribute substantially to organisational effectiveness. Through helping behaviours, knowledge, skills or best practices have been shared across organisations and societies which, in turn, necessitate organisational efficiency and employee productivity (Organ et al., 2006:199). Helping behaviours are commonly displayed by experienced employees who highly regard knowledge sharing as a paramount success factor.

3.7.2 Enhanced managerial productivity

Most managers are the immediate beneficiaries of OCB manifestations because helping behaviours lighten their jobs as they hardly resolve most of the problems head on and rarely embark on crisis management. Borman and Motowildo (1997:99) point out that, as employees engage in citizen behaviours, managers are left with plenty of time and opportunities to attend to more complex productive matters such as strategic planning, business process re-engineering, refining existing processes and systems rather than daily trivial matters. Similarly, Organ et al. (2005:203) note that workers who consciously exhibit helping behaviours indirectly allows their managers to focus their attention on more complex strategic matters while routine simple tasks are delegated to their subordinates.

3.7.3 Enhanced organisational productivity

The ultimate effect of enhancing worker and managerial productivity is enforcing organisational productivity. Research has proven that OCB directly correlates with quality customer service and sales performance (Cooper & Barling, 2008:114). To qualify this Begum (2005:456) notes that OCB improves employees' work quality

which, in turn, improves the quality of service delivery while at the same time facilitating customer loyalty. Similarly, Kelley and Hoffman (1997:407) maintain that organisational effectiveness or success is directly influenced by increased customer loyalty. Their findings reveal that a strong correlation exists between OCB and customer loyalty but, in the absence of a mutual relationship between employees and their organisations, organisational success cannot be guaranteed. In line with the aforesaid, it thus becomes imperative for organisations to create a conducive environment which promotes OCB manifestations.

3.7.4 Free resources up for more productive purposes

Helping behaviours enable organisations to allocate and utilise resources productively and strategically. OCB simplifies the art of managing people and resources. Employees require less supervision from their superiors because they know how to organise themselves and accomplish what is expected of them. OCB encourages cooperation at individual, group and organisational level, leaving managers with the platform to properly strategise and execute their plans within well-defined budget confines (Borman & Motowildo, 1997:99).

3.7.5 Reduces over dependency on scarce resources

The benefit of citizenship behaviours is that it encourages team work, it unites the workforce and stimulates satisfaction among organizational members. This allows employees not to focus their attention, time and efforts on maintenance services. Furthermore, citizenship behaviours such as courtesy brings together group members and reduces the likelihood for negative engagements to arise. Consequently, management spend little time resolving conflicts. Organ (1988:4) highlights that OCB enhances organisational efficacy by minimizing the extent to which scarce resources are used for maintenance purposes and enables the activities of group work.

3.7.6 Coordinating catalyst

Actions such as attending and participating in both formal and informal meetings regarding the organisation builds team cohesiveness, coordination and facilitates continued realisation of team objectives, thus increasing organisational effectiveness. Courtesy as a citizen-gesture encourages cooperation among team members and minimises the time and effort likely to be spent resolving conflicts, differences and

misunderstandings (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997:133).

3.7.7 Enhances staff retention

The ability of the organisation to draw and retain talent is directly related to the extent at which employees within the organisation display positive citizenship behaviours. When employees exhibit sportsmanship, it simply shows that they are eager to "roll with the punches". This level of eagerness discourages them to engage in unproductive discussions. This in turn promotes employee satisfaction and reduces high staff turnover (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997:133). In the same line of reasoning, George and Battenhausen (1990:698) argue that top class employees derive their pleasure and fulfilment from working in environments where unity and positivity blossom.

Citizen gestures are reflected when employees market the organisation as the best place to work. This kind of promotion strengthens the reputation or image of the organisation and encourages top performers to desire to be associated with the best company.

3.7.8 Enhances the stability of organisational performance

Stability of organisational performance can be achieved when fellow colleagues offer to perform duties of those not present at work or those inundated with tasks. Helping behaviours such as conscientious are effectual because they reduce the level discrepancy or maintain a consistent standard of organizational performance (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997:133).

3.7.9 Enhances the organisation to adapt to change

Discretionary behaviours enable employees to be more receptive to change. Once employees start attending and participating in informal functions that are not organised by their companies but help the company image, they get exposed to the outside world and are prepared to adapt and adjust to changes. Employees who display sportsmanship as a citizen gesture by demonstrating their eagerness to tackle new roles or acquire new expertise, strengthen the organisation's ability to respond to ever evolving environments (Organ et al., 2005:205).

3.8 THEORIES OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Over the past decades, a significant number of models or theories were propounded in order to explain the concept of OCB, as highlighted below.

3.8.1 Social exchange theory

This is one of the models used extensively in organisational behaviour to predict employee behaviour (Greenberg & Scott, 1996:129). The core assumption behind this model is that employees reciprocate negative or positive behaviours as a way of communicating their satisfaction with the prevailing circumstances (Greenberg & Scott, 1996:129).

An employment relationship that is founded on the basis of exploitation or the principal of 'win lose' always breeds an anxious, dissatisfied and uncommitted workforce which is forever unwilling to cooperate or contribute to the bottom line. On the contrary, a relationship that is perceived as just, fair and equitable always encourages the workforce to reciprocate the gestures of goodwill extended by their organisation. This exemplifies a typical strong social exchange relationship. When employees feel and appreciate the treatment they receive from their employer, they in turn feel obliged to engage in citizenship behaviours.

However, the downside of this theory is that it reduces the employment relationship to a trade relationship based on economic needs. It is also founded on the principle of openness and freedom; and in an ideal society according to Miller (2005:88), there are periods when frankness is not useful and valuable in a work relationship.

3.8.2 Psychological Contract Theory

This theory depicts the exchange relationship between the organisation and its employees. The theory further describes the correlation between the employees' input (time, skills, experience and knowledge) and the outcomes they get in return from their organisation (recognition, rewards and equal treatment). According to Schein (1980) this theory mirrors the expectations each part holds over the other part. Furthermore, Schein (1980) noted that the feelings or attitudes employees have towards their jobs is directly correlated to psychological contracts.

For Rousseau (1989:121) psychological contracts refer to "employees' perceptions of the mutual obligations existing between themselves and the organisation". Parties in the employment relationship have a legitimate expectation to benefit from each other's contribution, work and efforts. The union is an open ended covenant where the transactions revolve around giving and receiving (Armstrong, 2006:226).

Psychological contracts strengthens the mutual relationship between employers and employees. They empower employees with autonomy to fulfil the requirements of their mutual expectations with minimum supervision from their employers (Shore & Tetrick, 1994:1). In this mutual relationship, employees expect fair treatment, equality, career advancement opportunities, autonomy, fair performance targets and feedback, while, on the other hand, employers expect loyalty, best practices, commitment, compliance and positive publicity (Armstrong, 2006:226).

3.8.3 Identity mechanism theory

This refers to the process whereby employees integrate their organisational life into their social life. This theory depicts that employees' social identity is not distinct from their organisational life; likewise, organisations are not distinct institutions. This identity mechanism is what encourages employees to display citizenship behaviour because they understand that what benefits the organisation simultaneously benefits them (Chattopadhyay, 1999:273). According to Coyle et al. (2004:85), when employees incorporate the organisation into their social identity, it rejuvenates a sense of belonging and dependence. This feeling encourages them to internalise their organisational vision, mission and values, and subsequently regard extra-role behaviours as in-role behaviours.

In line with the above, identity mechanisms theory simply involves systematic alignment of individual interest with organisational interest. As such, in order for organisations to benefit from citizenship behaviours, they need to create an enabling environment which encourages employees to integrate the organisation into their social identity.

3.8.4 Leader member exchange theory

Enshrined in this theory is the mutual exchange that transpires between the employer

and the employee. The employer or leader is obliged to outline what he or she expects from his or her employees or followers and, in turn, the followers delineate how they want their leaders to treat them. This relationship thus comprises of continuous exchanges between the leader and the followers which scholars such as Chen et al. (2007:202) refer to as leader member exchange theory.

What makes a leader effective and successful is the approach or style he or she uses towards followers (Organ et al., 2005:95). In circumstances where followers exhibit diverse attitudes and abilities, leaders are expected to display different leadership styles or approaches which motivate employees to perform beyond the expected norms. Without flexibility to display an array of leadership styles, leaders risk reaping unsatisfactory contributions from their followers (Organ et al., 2005:95).

To attain strong exchange relationships, leaders are expected to offer outcomes which their followers truly desire such as autonomy, challenging tasks and monetary and non-monetary rewards. In return, followers are expected to be loyal, committed, motivated and productive (Yukl et al., 2008:289).

3.8.5 Path-goal theory of leadership

This theory was founded from goal setting theory and expectancy theory. According to House (1971:321), goal-setting theory suggests that setting challenging but realistic goals and rewarding people for goals accomplished is the only way of motivating people, whereas expectancy theory depicts the fundamental reasons for working.

Path-goal theory expanded the suggestions raised by the goal-setting and expectancy theory. The theory established that good leaders are those who empower, educate and support their followers to accomplish set targets. The term path-goal denote that the key responsibility of good leaders is to establish clear paths or guidelines for their followers lest they fail to fulfil their mandate. According to House (1971:321) effective leadership takes two approaches. The first approach demands leaders to display excellent behaviours necessary to achieve the bottom line. This includes knowledge sharing and resource availability or accessibility. The second approach requires effective leaders to eliminate stumbling blocks which may discourage their followers from accomplishing prescribed goals (House, 1971:321).

The Path-goal theory is also known as the contingency theory. This name arose because the theory requires leaders to take contingent measures in their dealings with their followers. In some cases leaders are compelled to adopt a leadership style commensurate to the needs of their followers or one which appeals to the prevailing working environment. The path-goal theory classifies the behaviours of leaders into four categories namely: "supportive leadership, directive leadership, participative leadership and achievement oriented leadership" (House, 1971:321).

Supportive leaders understand the desires or expectations of their followers and their aim is always to create a suitable working environment which relate to the needs of their followers. Directive leaders manage their followers by the rule book. These leaders prescribe to their followers what is expected of them, establish precise parameters for their followers and ensure that their followers accomplish their tasks by following clearly defined guidelines. Participative leaders are those who consult and take into consideration the opinion of their followers before making important decisions. The fourth type of leadership is achievement oriented. These leaders derive their motivation from accomplishing the set targets. They instil self-assurance in their followers and encourage them to perform their functions with excellence (House, 1971:321).

Figure 3.2 below presents a diagrammatical explanation of the Path-goal theory.
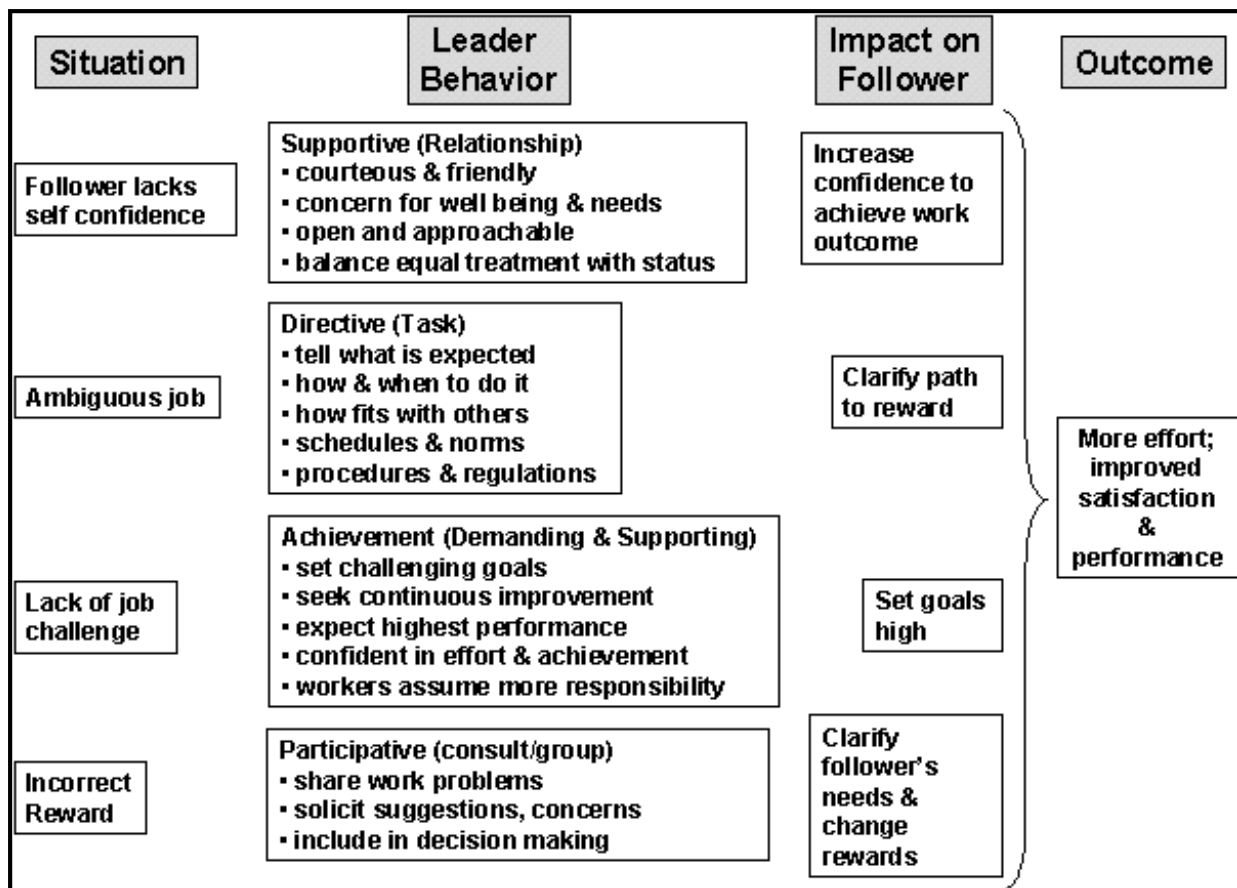
Figure 3.2: Path-Goal Theory: (Organ et al., 2005:95)

With reference to Figure 3.2, one of the objectives of path-goal theory is never to ascertain the correlation between leader support and OCB (Organ et al., 2005:95). However, the leadership styles depicted by path-goal theory embrace some helping behaviours thus making the relationship between leader support and OCB fundamental in organisational behaviour. In support of the aforesaid, Schnake et al. (1995:209) note that employees regard supportive and directive leadership styles as helping behaviours displayed by their leaders and, in turn, employees are motivated to reciprocate by engaging in citizenship behaviours.

When leaders exhibit supportive leadership styles, the satisfaction and confidence levels of employees increase because they feel that their leaders care about their socio-economic welfare. Similarly, directive leadership clarifies the roles, norms and directions which employees are taught to follow. It also redresses or moderates task ambiguity and uncertainty and enlightens employees that their efforts attract rewards (Schnake, 1991:735). When leaders manifest these leadership styles, employees are

stimulated to reciprocate by displaying OCB. As a result, in order to promote the effective functioning of organisations and utilization of resources, it is imperative for leaders to display helping behaviours because employees will always reciprocate good behaviour.

3.8.6 Expectancy Theory

Victor Vrooms' expectancy theory assumes that employees only display favourable performance if they are certain that it will result in a desirable reward. This theory views motivation and behaviour as a consequence of mental cognitions, cultural beliefs, expectations and opinions (Nel et al., 2004:318). Vroom opposed earlier findings that were raised by other social scientists concerning the correlation between an individual's behaviour and goals. He argued that this relationship is a complex subject and not a simple phenomenon (Armstrong, 2006:226).

According to Vroom, people have diverse sets of goals and are only motivated to work if there is a significant connection between efforts and output or performance, that is, if their performance results in favourable rewards, if these rewards address their individual needs, and if the desire to gratify their needs stimulates a commensurate effort.

Vroom's theory is founded on three employee beliefs namely: valence, instrumentality and expectancy. Valence refers to the extent at which an individual regards rewards or outcomes as attractive. It is an expected contentment people hold towards goal attainment (Nel et al., 2004:318). Expectancy refers to the prospective perception employees have that their action has a probability of producing a precise outcome. For Armstrong (2006:226), expectancy compels managers to identify the resources, training and supervision that employees require. Personal history and past experience determine employees' level of expectancy. For example, if in the past employees were not rewarded for going beyond the call of duty, their motivation and expectancy will be very weak, but if they were positively rewarded, then their contributions, performance, efforts and expectancy will not be compromised. The third belief, instrumentality, refers to the belief employees have that they will get what they desire or have been promised by their leaders. Instrumentality therefore entails that leaders have the responsibility to ensure that all promises made to their followers are fulfilled.

Vroom's theory has also attracted some criticism. For example, Mitchell (2001:42) questions the practicality of testing all facets of the theory, given the magnitude and extent of the theory.

For the purpose of this research study, social exchange theory was adopted as a regulatory concept, simply because it explicitly highlights the exchange relationships which transpire between organisations and their workforce.

3.9 ANTECEDENTS OF OCB

There are numerous factors which correlate with OCB in the body of organisational behaviour. These factors enhance effective organisational performances (Podsakoff et al., 2000). The objective of this section is to highlight how these factors influence OCB and what organisations need to do in order to stimulate citizen gestures. These factors are discussed in detail below.

3.9.1 Perceived organisational support and OCB

In line with Vroom's expectancy theory, research has shown that leaders who generally support their followers indirectly motivate them to perceive their leaders as caring, supportive, concerned and dependable. The perception employees have regarding the kind of treatment they receive from their leaders is what is known as perceived organisational support (Moideenkutty, 2000:1). According to Wayne et al. (1997:82), this factor characterises the social transaction or exchange that transpires between the leader and the follower.

Studies by Podsakoff et al. (1996:290) concerning factors that promote OCB, satisfaction and commitment revealed that employees who perceive or feel that their leaders are treating them fairly generally reciprocate by engaging in OCB. Furthermore, they noted that working environments with strong exchange relationships experience minimum role conflicts and misunderstandings.

It is customary for employees to create their own set of beliefs about how the organisation views their social identity and these set of beliefs set the basis for perceived organisational support and determine whether employees will accept and reciprocate the treatment they receive from their organisations. The social exchange

relationship is perceived to be strong when employees believe that their efforts will be genuinely and fairly rewarded (Moideenkutty, 2000:1).

3.9.2 Leader support and OCB

Leader support refers to the extent to which leaders guide, treat, care, respect and contribute to the well-being of their followers (Chen & Chiu, 2008:10). Whittington et al. (2004:593) note that, the greater the support from the leaders, the higher the chances of witnessing OCB. In other words, greater leadership support provokes employees to display helping behaviours.

Investigations on the correlation between OCB and leader support by Podsakoff et al. (1996:259) and LePine et al. (2002:52) revealed a strong correlation between the two variables, which implies that support is paramount in motivating employees to engage in helping behaviours which endorse the actual operation of the organisation.

According to Yukl et al. (2009:297) a strong social exchange relationship between a leader and a follower gives birth to relations-oriented behaviours which define what needs to be done, how it ought to be done, by whom, when, and how it benefits both parties. Relations-oriented behaviours increase motivation, task performance and organisational effectiveness.

In line with the above, Boerner et al. (2007:16-17) point out that transformational leaders motivate followers to accomplish astonishing results which propel the organisation to greater heights. These kinds of leaders are forever available to support and inspire their followers. Transformational leadership in the words of Wang et al. (2005:420) refers to,

> "Articulating a compelling vision of the future of an organisation; offering a model consistent with that vision; fostering the acceptance of group goals; and providing individualized support, intellectual stimulation, and high performance expectations".

According to Podsakoff et al. (1996:260), transformational leaders' influence on employees yields positive OCB results because it transforms the norms, perceptions and beliefs of employees. In support of the aforesaid, Bateman and Organ (1983:588;

593) established that good leader support impacts job satisfaction, stimulates citizenship behaviours and lightens the leader's roles and responsibilities.

3.9.3 Trust and OCB

In a social context, factors such as equality and sound human relations play a fundamental role in building organizational trust. Furthermore when employees feel empowered or motivated in the workplace, they in turn feel encouraged to engage in OCB (Wat & Shaffer, 2005:406). When perceptions of equality are very high in the workplace, employees have a tendency to respond positively towards the organisation and its management (Wat &Shaffer, 2005:407).

A study by Wat and Shaffer (2005:415) examined the correlation between the social exchange theory of OCB and leader-member trust. It revealed the significance of the trust employees have of their leaders, as it positively impacts all OCB dimensions. According to Wech (2002:355), a strong leader-member relationship stimulates employees to reciprocate good leadership behaviour through OCBI and OCBO. Furthermore, Wech (2002) notes that if employees distrust their leaders, or perceive them as uncaring, untrustworthy, unsupportive and unjust, employees reciprocate by exhibiting negative behaviour. Similarly, Wat and Shaffer (2005:408) maintain that a strong leader-member exchange relationship creates an acceptable atmosphere for both leaders and followers to engage in helping behaviours.

For Lester and Brower (2003:20), the extent at which employees trust their leaders determines the magnitude of citizenship behaviours that are likely to be exhibited. When employees perceive their leaders as untrustworthy, their satisfaction levels shrink and ultimately they find it difficult or costly to voluntarily execute their jurisdictional functions beyond prescribed standards.

3.9.4 Mood and OCB

Mood refers to one's feeling about a specific phenomenon. Mood influences a person's social, emotional and psychological well-being. It governs how people think and behave in any given set up. In an organisational set up, employees' mood affects how employees execute their job functions, interact with their colleagues and relate to their leaders (George & Forgas, 2001:3).

Following the above, research has proven that employees who display a positive mood, often express their positivity by engaging in helping behaviours. On the contrary, negative moods attract negativity. Investigations on the subject of mood, revealed that employees who are in the habit of displaying a positive mood find it easy to help others or perform beyond what is expected of them, as compared to their moody colleagues (Carlson et al. 1988:211; Schnake, 1991:735).

In George's research on the relationship between mood and OCB involving 221 sales industry personnel, a strong correlation was established between mood and OCB. In an attempt to qualify his findings, George (1991) noted that positive mood stimulates employees to exhibit positive gestures towards their counterparts and also to display both in-role and extra-role gestures which enhance organisational effectiveness.

3.9.5 Perceptions of co-workers and OCB

Positive perception of co-workers involves the degree to which employees assist one another through displaying helping behaviours. At the heart of this antecedent is employees' perception of reciprocity and the role leaders play in the leader-member exchange relationship. Generally, leaders are regarded as pace setters, as they set desirable standards for their followers and, in turn, followers are expected to reciprocate by mimicking their leaders.

According to Deckop et al. (2003:107-109), reciprocity creates two forms of cycles paramount to the effectiveness of organizations, namely, the virtuous cycle and the vicious cycle. The virtuous cycle is a consequence of repetitive helping behaviours amongst employees, whereas the vicious cycle transpires when employees withhold helping gestures because of their negative perception that their colleagues are unwilling to help them. Cognisant of the above, it is thus imperative to note that virtuous cycles enhance task performances and organisational effectiveness.

3.9.6 Personality and OCB

Over the past decades, numerous scholars have attempted to ascertain how personality influences OCB. Up until today, research on this matter is still ongoing. Organ et al. (2005:82) investigated the relationship among five personality traits. These traits are: extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism and

organisational citizenship behaviour. Their research revealed that, out of five personality traits, only two, namely agreeableness and conscientiousness, strongly correlate with OCB.

Agreeableness includes positive interpersonal relationships inherent in the employment relationship. Employees who score high on this factor are generally perceived as those who are willing to display extra-role behaviours, such as helping others who are absent, helping other to accomplish their tasks, and helping others who are having problems with their work. It is for this reason that Organ et al. (2005:82) established a positive correlation between OCB and agreeableness. Concerning conscientiousness, Organ et al. (2005:82) established a link between this personality trait and two other OCB dimension, namely compliance and civic virtue. They noted that when employees exhibit behaviours such as being punctual, not taking extended breaks and obeying company rules, they are perceived as displaying helping behaviours.

Despite establishing a strong correlation between the aforesaid two variables and OCB, Organ and Ryan (1995:776) consider personality as a weaker predictor of OCB. However, the above is not a holistic analogy of the relationship between these two variables.

3.9.7 Group cohesiveness and OCB

Group cohesiveness refers to the extent to which group members work towards mutual common ground. High group cohesiveness promotes positive helping behaviours and solidifies strong social identity, whereas weak group cohesion derails morale, unity, commitment and ultimately organisational effectiveness. Where there is strong group cohesiveness, group members tend to encourage, support and develop one another. Every member of the group works toward a common unifying goal (Kidwell et al., 1997:775).

Most research studies on the relationship between group cohesiveness and OCB have established a strong correlation between these two variables. For example, George and Bettenhausen (1990:698) note that group cohesiveness positively influences the manifestation of OCB. Furthermore, they note that a strong exchange relationship

between group members inevitably enhances pro-social behaviours. Kidwell et al. (1997:775) established that group members only conform to the set group norms and are inspired to engage in pro-social behaviours when there is strong group cohesiveness, and, likewise, nonconformity is very high where there is no group cohesion.

3.9.8 Work related stress, work-family conflicts and OCB

Research studies concerning the link between work conflict, work-related stress and OCB produced two conflicting findings. On the one hand, it was established that work-related stress caused by job dissatisfaction, role ambiguity, work overload, and overlapping responsibility, amongst others, causes employees not to engage in citizenship behaviours. This implies that the lesser the job stress, the greater the citizen-gesture (Tang & Ibrahim, 1998:534).

By contrast investigations by Bolino and Turnley (2005:740) suggest that exhibiting OCB promotes work-related stress and conflicts. They conclude that engaging in extra-role behaviours creates unnecessary burdens for employees and leaves them with marginal time and scope to fulfil their personal obligations.

3.9.9 Motivating potential score (MPS)

MPS is an integrated technique used in the workplace to measure the capacity of a job to motivate. The use of MPS to measure intrinsic motivation was initially pioneered in the early 70s and has its roots in the Job Characteristic theory developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975). When employees have high MPS, it implies that they are highly motivated or satisfied intrinsically.

Research studies by Tang and Ibrahim (1998:534) on the relationship between MPS and OCB established a positive correlation. They identified five core job characteristics namely: "skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback". Furthermore, they argued that all these five factors need to be present simultaneously in order for a job to be considered as intrinsically motivating. Tang and Ibrahim (1998:534) concluded that employees with high MPS are highly likely to engage in citizenship behaviours unlike those with low MPS.

3.9.10 Organisational commitment and OCB

Employees' psychological "attachment to the organisation" is known as organisational commitment. This attachment reflects whether an individual identifies or has a strong feeling of responsibility towards the organisation (O'Reilly III & Chatman, 1986:492). Moreover, O'Reilly III and Chatman (1986:492) established that this psychological attachment is influenced by three ideologies that were developed by Kelman (1958:51), namely compliance or exchange, identification or affiliation and internalization or value congruence.

Two studies investigating the relationship between OCB and organisational commitment conducted by O'Reilly III and Chatman (1986:492) covered 82 university employees and 162 business students. Findings revealed a strong correlation between identification, internalisation and OCB. O'Reilly III and Chatman (1986:492) determined that people with strong psychological attachment easily exhibit pro-social behaviours which enhance the effective functioning of an organisation.

In relation to Vroom's expectancy theory (1964), psychological attachment is dependent on the extent to which an organisation meets or exceeds employees' expectations (Armstrong, 2006:226). Organisational commitment is highly unlikely if employees' expectations are not satisfactorily addressed (Meyer & Allen 1991:61).

Workers' employment status also influences the correlation between commitment and OCB. In their study, Feather and Rauter (2004:81) established that there is a solid association between OCB and commitment among full-time employees, unlike the case among part-time or contract workers. However, Van Dyne and Ang (1998:692) found the opposite to be true. They concluded that the behaviour of temporary workers is influenced by their level of commitment to the organisation, whereas for permanent employees, their behaviours are influenced by their attitude.

3.9.11 Demographic variable and OCB

Diverse demographic variables impact OCB differently. This section will highlight why and how these diverse variables play a crucial role in facilitating the manifestation of citizenship behaviour.

3.9.11.1 Gender and OCB

The gulf that exists between men and women, and the extent to which they engage in OCB, is influenced by their genetic or psychological make-up. Generally, women are perceived as caring, considerate, sympathetic, empathetic beings in comparison to their male counterparts. Because of the aforesaid characteristics, Kark and Waismel-Manor (2005:12) conclude that female employees exhibit helping behaviours more than their male counterparts. Likewise, Farrel and Finkeilstein (2007:57) note that female employees, more often than not, partake in the helping dimension of OCB, while men take part more in the civic virtue dimension.

3.9.11.2 Age and OCB

The influence of age on OCB is twofold. Central to this factor is the attitudinal expositions or behavioural differences between the young and the old. Research by Wagner and Rush (2000:379) proved that OCB is more predominant among older employees than younger employees. This hypothesis was established on the basis that older employees naturally display OCB as a gesture of goodwill, whereas, for young people, OCB is a social exchange transaction.

A contrasting analogy was hypothesised by Chattopadhyay (1999:284). He suggested that younger employees participate more in helping behaviours than established older employees because they are greatly preoccupied with the need to compete for recognition and rewards, whereas older employees are not concerned about recognition and, as such, find it very unnecessary to compete with young employees.

3.9.11.3 Education and OCB

Gregerson (1993:31) established that a number of studies investigated the correlation between education and OCB. The aim was to ascertain whether highly educated employees considered their association with an organisation as a social or an economic phenomenon. Gregerson's (1993:31) findings revealed that most of the highly ranked employees in organisations are also highly educated. Generally these employees would more readily regard the significance of their management and work colleagues' informal support. Furthermore, Gregerson (1993:31) established that highly educated workers considerably engage in citizenship behaviours even more because they are financially motivated. In contrast, poorly educated employees are

economically motivated to engage in citizenship behaviours. As such the exchange relationship is purely for economic gain (Organ and Konovsky, 1989:157).

3.9.11.4 Marital status and OCB

Regarding the relationship between OCB and marital status, Russell and Rush (1987) established that, by comparison with unmarried employees, married employees do not engage in citizenship behaviours. Married employees direct most of their extra-role behaviours towards their families, while unmarried employees have much more time and energy to display citizen gestures.

3.9.11.5 Experience and OCB

In an attempt to explain the relationship between experience and OCB, O'Reilly III and Chatman (1986:492) noted that members of an experienced workforce easily integrate or incorporate their social identity with organisational identity. This cohesion stimulates experienced employees to perceive their social life not as distinct from their organisational life and this motivates them to engage in citizenship behaviours. On the contrary, inexperienced employees spend most of their time and energy executing in-role behaviours.

3.9.11.6 Job status and OCB

Job status refers to either permanent (full-time) or temporary (part-time) employment. The nature of the psychological contract between a temporary worker and the organisation is purely an economic transaction and discourages helping behaviours, as compared to the one between a permanent employee and the organisation (McLean & Kidder, 1998:697). Temporary workers are discouraged from displaying extra-role behaviours because they have limited opportunities and recognition. Employers tend to focus more on permanent employees and, in turn, the leader member exchange relationship is very strong.

3.9.12 Job satisfaction and OCB

Several studies aiming to ascertain the association between OCB and job satisfaction over the past years have produced mixed results (Organ & Konovsky, 1989:157). The findings vary from a positive relationship between OCB and job satisfaction to a moderate relationship between job satisfaction and a selected few OCB dimensions,

and to no correlation whatsoever.

A significant quantity of research has established a strong parallel between OCB and job satisfaction. In 15 independent studies conducted by Adam (2000:1) a strong correlation was established. Likewise, Organ and Konovsky (1989:157) identified job satisfaction as the only variable with a robust attitudinal correlation with OCB. In agreement, Williams and Anderson (1991:601) assert that high satisfaction levels promote employees to display pro-social behaviours which enhance the effective functioning of the organisation. The presence of employee satisfaction signifies the presence of citizen gestures.

In consonance with the aforementioned, Werner (2004:98) maintains that employees only display extra-role behaviours when they perceive that their organisation cares about their wellbeing. Similarly, Bateman and Organ (1983:587) note that the extent to which employees display extra-role behaviours is largely determined by their feeling of satisfaction towards their work, as compared to the support displayed by their leaders or colleagues.

Chiboiwa's (2011) findings concur with the aforesaid research findings. His investigations covering administrative employees of five organisations in Zimbabwe established a moderate correlation between OCB and job satisfaction. Research studies by Ghazzawi (2008:4) on the relationship between factors that promote job satisfaction or dissatisfaction and the effects or consequence of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction revealed that OCB is an outcome of job satisfaction.

Gadot and Cohen (2004:133), arguing in line with social exchange theory, assert that as a way of expressing their appreciation or satisfaction, employees always reciprocate good leader behaviour by displaying citizenship behaviours. As highlighted previously in the discussion of social exchange theory, a strong leader-member exchange relationship cultivates positive attitudes, which stimulate employees to engage in citizenship behaviours.

Concerning the relationship between a few selected OCB dimensions and job satisfaction, research findings report that only job satisfaction accounts for the

inconsistency or discrepancy in two OCB variables out of the five, namely altruism and compliance (Fahr et al., 1997:421; Schnake, 1991:735; Smith et al., 1983). On the contrary, Adam (2000:1) established a strong correlation between altruism and job satisfaction, but not with compliance. Furthermore, in their investigation into the relationship between OCB, perceived equity, leadership and job satisfaction, Schnake et al. (1995:209) established a strong correlation between leadership, perceived equity and organisational citizenship behaviour. Only two OCB dimensions correlated with job satisfaction.

Research studies by other scholars have proposed that the connection amongst OCB and job satisfaction is only effectual when a controlling factor is present. Moorman (1991:759) examined the link between organisational commitment, job satisfaction, procedural justice and OCB. From the findings, Moorman (1991:759) deduced that a correlation between OCB and job satisfaction is only significant when a considerable degree of control is exercised on the relationship between procedural justice and OCB. More so, Moorman, (1991:845) notes that the link between job satisfaction and OCB is non-existent especially if employees' opinions about fairness are controlled. The reason for this is because the perception of fairness determines whether employees will engage or not engage in OCB.

In a similar analysis of the relationship between OCB, job satisfaction and perception of fairness, Organ (1997:85) revealed that the perception of fairness qualified the upsurge in variance in OCB. Research findings by Scholl et al. (1987:113) established a correlation coefficient of 0.41 between pay equity and OCB, and 0.19 between pay satisfaction and OCB. Accordingly, they concluded that impartiality is the judge of OCB, while job satisfaction does not count.

While highlighting the correlation that exists between OCB and job satisfaction, numerous scholars have argued that, to enhance the manifestation of organisational citizenship behaviours in an organisation, job satisfaction should be regarded as a mediating or moderating factor. Elaborating upon the aforementioned, Chiu and Chen (2005:523) encourage organisations to create an enabling environment which intrinsically motivates employees and, in turn, stimulates them to display citizenship behaviours. Podsakoff et al. (2000:513) note that satisfied employees express their

satisfaction by displaying extra-role behaviours which go beyond their job descriptions or prescribed roles and responsibilities. With reference to the above, job satisfaction is thus an imperative OCB catalyst.

A number of scholars are still unconvinced about the correlation between OCB and job satisfaction. Adam (2000:1) is of the view that the complexion of job satisfaction measures causes the correlation between the two variables to be insignificant or non-existent. However, despite the heterogeneous findings at hand, the assumption that OCB correlates with job satisfaction is widely accepted in the body of organisational behaviour.

Drawing from the above discussion and line with Becker (2004:991) the researcher considers job satisfaction as a key determining factor of workplace behaviours such as labour turnover, commitment, absenteeism and OCB. Furthermore, the researcher's viewpoint concurs with the argument by Aronson et al. (2005:285) that job satisfaction strengthens the organisation's financial viability. In this regard, it is thus paramount for organisations to understand the behaviours of their employees and the factors which trigger satisfaction.

3.10 CONCLUDING REMARKS

This chapter has examined the construct of organisational citizenship behaviour. The chapter commenced by highlighting different schools of thought regarding the concept in question, its origins and the present analogy. Having disclosed the dimension of OCB in relation to Organ's (1988) viewpoint, and outlined theories supporting the concept, the chapter concluded by underscoring the importance of the concept in today's organisation and the factors that promote the manifestation of organisational citizenship behaviours.

CHAPTER FOUR
JOB SATISFACTION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed in detail the concept of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). From OCB, this section will unravel existing literature on job satisfaction. The fundamental focus area of this section is: "What drives people to work and actualise satisfaction when set goals are accomplished?" Accordingly, this chapter will give a detailed explanation of the concept of job satisfaction, highlight job satisfaction theories, antecedents of job satisfaction, impact of job satisfaction and approaches to measuring job satisfaction. This chapter will conclude by highlighting the relationship between change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction.

4.2 DEFINITION OF JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction as a construct has been widely researched over the past decades. The complexity of the concept and its wide-ranging facets cannot be sufficiently addressed by a single hypothesis (Chou & Robert, 2008: 208). "It can be the cause of behaviour, part of a behaviour cycle, or part of a regulatory system" (Faulkenburg & Schyns, 2007:708-725). Certainly, "it is an extent to which one feels positive or negative about the intrinsic and/or extrinsic aspects of his or her job" (Boles et al., 2007:312; Cowin et al., 2008:1449-1459).

The concept of job satisfaction was pioneered in 1935 and was considered as a composition of employees' subjective reactions towards their working environment (Fei Tsai et al., 2007:157). The primary focus was on employees' feelings towards their working environment and factors that satisfied employees both physically and psychologically. Job satisfaction can also be referred to as "a pleasant or positive emotional state resulting from the individual's assessment of the work or work experience" (Locke, 1976:1300). Locke's (1976) definition was expanded by Organ and Near in 1985. They added that job satisfaction also involves employees' cognitive and affective reciprocations towards their work. They argued that previous job satisfaction measures inadequately addressed the cognitive and affective components of job satisfaction (Kaplan et al., 2009:29).

Furthermore, more detailed and broad definitions of job satisfaction were birthed in the

1990s. Cranny et al. (1992:1) viewed job satisfaction as the emotional reciprocation exhibited by an individual as a result of his or her conscious evaluations concerning his or her work input-output ratios. Job satisfaction, according to Birly and MacMillan (1997:112) can be defined as a feeling of contentment which arises when rewards surpass perceived reasonable expectations. Similarly, Robbins (1998:170) defined satisfaction as the perceived gratification which arises when a need is fulfilled. This perceived gratification is derived from intrinsic, extrinsic, social and demographic factors (Shajahan & Shajahan, 2004:116). In the same vein, Newstrom (2007:123) noted that the aforesaid factors shape people's social and organisational interactions and ultimately influence their performance and their perceptions about how the organisation treats them. Therefore, it is paramount for employers to understand the significance of fulfilling their workers' needs and rewarding good performance.

In light of the above, job satisfaction is a set of affections and presumptions which an individual harbours about his or her work (George & Jones, 1999:78). In the same vein, Spector (1997:2) viewed job satisfaction as attitudes reflecting the degree at which an individual enjoys his or her job, and is positively related to employee health and job performance. For Birly and MacMillan (1997:112), job satisfaction can be understood or defined in relation to two schools of thoughts: the first school defines job satisfaction in relation to the common feelings and evaluations people make about their job, whereas the second highlights an individual's level of contentment with different components of his or her job.

Recent studies have given birth to numerous definitions and explanations of job satisfaction, some focused on the job alone, while others include all job-related factors. Weiss (2002:6) described job satisfaction in relation to employees' attitude. Job satisfaction according to Weiss (2002:6) refers to the perceptions employees have towards their work. These perception or attitudes can either be positive or negative. Similarly, Wood and Jack (2001:114) propose a more general definition of job satisfaction, which entails negative or positive experiences employees have concerning their jobs. They believe that employees with positive attitudes towards their work highly experience job satisfaction whereas highly dissatisfied employees are clouded by negative work attitudes.

Accordingly, job satisfaction also refers to general responses people exhibit about their jobs which are derived from their subjective evaluations about the actual job outcomes in comparison with their expectations (Hewstone & Stroebe, 2001:562). In this line of reasoning, organisations are thus compelled to gratify the desires and expectations of their workforce. In turn, the benefits accrued by organisations include among others, high employee satisfaction levels, greater employee performance and improved productivity.

For Anderson (2001:26) job satisfaction involves cognitive and affective feelings or emotions that employees have about their jobs. Similarly, Robbins (2005:24) considers job satisfaction as affections or thoughts an individual harbours about work in general. The greater an individual feels positive about his or her job, the higher the satisfaction levels; conversely, job dissatisfaction is associated with negative employee feelings or thoughts.

Newstrom and Davis (2002:210) argue that levels of job satisfaction among groups are not static but are rather correlated to variables such as organisational size, age distribution and occupational level. They argued that satisfaction normally increases with age. The older an individual becomes the more realistic organizational life becomes, the lesser the expectations and the easier it becomes to adjust to varying work situations. However, at some stage, satisfaction levels of employees tend to diminish as promotional opportunities diminishes. More so, satisfaction diminishes as older employees approach retirement age. On the other hand, satisfaction also increases as employees move up the organizational hierarchy. The general belief is that the higher the position the better the rewards, pay and the conditions of work. The size of the organisation also influences job satisfaction significantly. According to Newstrom and Davis (2002:210) studies have shown that satisfaction in small branches or plants is very high whereas in large organisations job satisfaction tends to be very low. Large firms tend to threaten existing relationships, overwhelm people, and limit important aspects of job satisfaction such as personal closeness, friendship, and small-group teamwork.

Furthermore, Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:202) describe job satisfaction as "an emotional response to various facets of one's job". Drawing from this description, we

can understand job satisfaction not as a solitary phenomenon. Rather, we can deduce that it is highly likely that an individual can derive satisfaction from one component of the job while at the same time being dissatisfied with other components. In this regard, job satisfaction is simply a collection of an individuals' attitudes towards various facets related to his or her individual work or collective work. These various facets or aspects of the job include among others "the work itself, workplace interactions and relationships, rewards and incentive schemes, and personal characteristics" (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2004:202).

Cognisant of the aforementioned, it is the researcher's viewpoint that job satisfaction can thus be considered as a general positive or negative attitude employees develop toward their job or as natural valuations employees exhibit towards different aspects of their job. This viewpoint concurs with Chan et al. (2004:254-273) who proposed that job satisfaction is not only associated with positive or negative perceptions employees have towards their work. They regarded job satisfaction as evaluations employees have towards their overall work experiences. Furthermore, they noted that these evaluations are subject to diverse workers' ideologies. Summing up the discussion, Davis (2004:495-503) notes that job satisfaction is a broad subject which can be explained in different dimensions. For Davis (2004) this concept inculcates the attitudes, whether positive or negative, employees hold towards their jobs.

4.3 THEORIES OF JOB SATISFACTION

This section will highlight an array of job satisfaction theories and will acknowledge the standard classification of process and content theories according to Shajahan and Shajahan (2004:90-99) as highlighted below.

Table 4.1: Job satisfaction theories

CONTENT THEORIES	PROCESS THEORY
Maslow's Needs Hierarchy	Behaviour Modification
Herzberg's Two Factor Theory	Cognitive Evaluation Theory
Theory X and Theory Y	Goal setting theory
Alderfer's ERG theory	Reinforcement Theory
McClelland's Theory of Needs	Equity Theory

4.3.1 Content theories

Below is the detailed description of five content theories of job satisfaction. Amos et al. (2009:175), state that content theories entail that satisfaction is an outcome of an individual's effort to gratify personal needs.

4.3.1.1 Maslow's Needs Hierarchy (1943)

According to Weihrich and Koontz (1999:468) the needs hierarchy is the most common satisfaction or motivation theory. The underlying assumption behind this theory is that the desire to satisfy personal needs stimulates motivation. Maslow's theory classifies people's needs into five dimensions. These dimensions are presented in the form of a hierarchy which stresses the importance for an individual to be satisfied with lower level needs before being satisfied with higher level needs (Gouws, 1995:1).

Maslow (1968:153) suggested that "gratification of one basic need opens consciousness to domination by another". Maslow's theory of motivation is explained below (See Figure 4.1):

 i.   Physical needs: They are fundamental human necessities like food water, warmth and rest.
 ii. Safety needs: These consist of security or protection needs. In both social and organisational set ups, safety is an essential factor people consider as a source of motivation. According to Maslow (1968), safety needs will only be satisfied once the physical needs have been satisfied.
 iii. Social needs: They are classified as psychological needs and are often referred to as belongingness or love needs. These needs drive people to feel loved and belonging. They entail that one cannot exist without the need of friends and family. From an organisational point of view, these needs are fulfilled when employees are involved and participate in organisational activities.
 iv. Esteem or Achievement needs: These are also classified as psychological needs. Examples of these needs are prestige, recognition and a feeling of accomplishment. Embedded in this level are desires to be valuable, knowledgeable, recognised and rewarded for accomplishing tasks.
 v.   Self-actualisation: The last is the uppermost need in the hierarchy. People make every effort to exhaust their full potential. The need for self-fulfillment is what drives an individual to go the extra mile. Though it is difficult to satisfy this

need, in the workplace, creativity, innovativeness, executing difficult and challenging assignments, and effective skills and knowledge sharing tend to satisfy this higher level need.
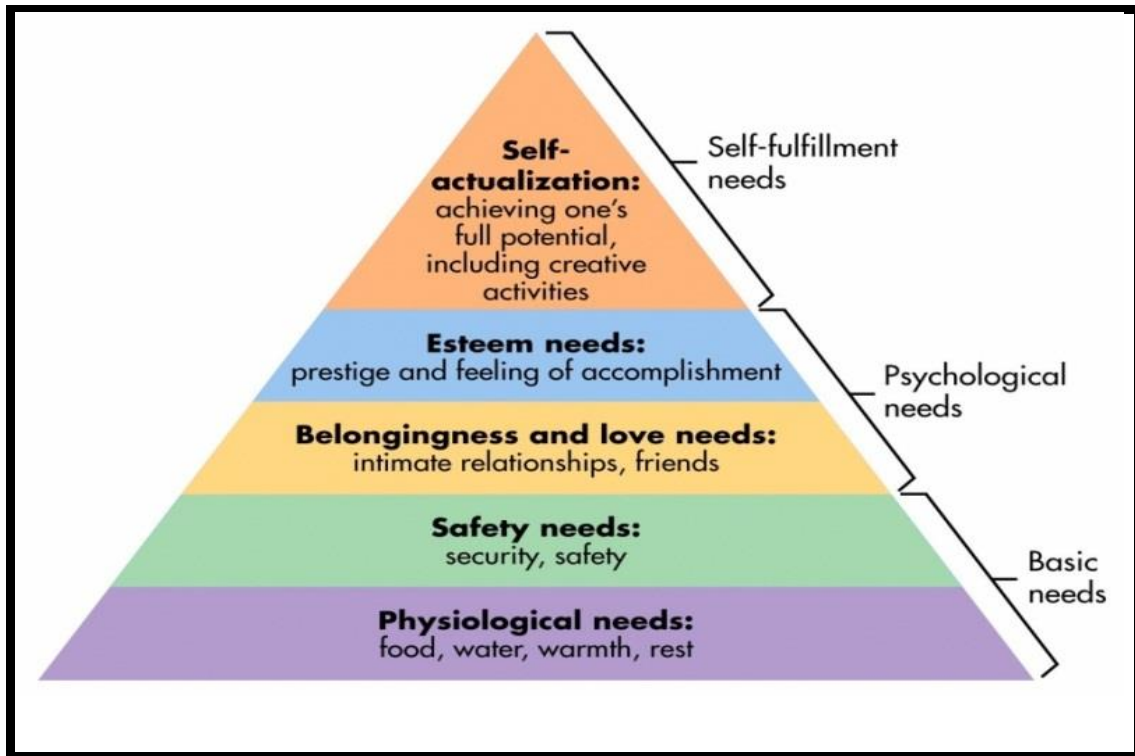
Figure 4.1: Maslow's Theory of Motivation (Martin, 2001)

Not much literature is available to support the needs hierarchy theory and the assumption is that the significance of a need is weakened once it has been satisfied (Baron et al., 2002:1). According to Schermerhon et al. (2004:93), the theory gives more value and recognition to higher needs as compared to lower level needs and does not take into consideration that a multiplicity of factors influence people's needs and thus it is improper to generalise and standardise the theory.

Even though the theory has received an amount of criticism, numerous scholars have acknowledged that Maslow's Theory established the foundation for most job satisfaction theories (Robbins, 2005:53). The theory encourages organisations not to underestimate the power of addressing employees' needs (Spector, 2003:40).

4.3.1.2 ERG Theory (Alderfer, 1969)
This theory (see Figure 4.2) has its roots in Maslow's hypothesis. It reclassified

Maslow's five needs into three components, "Existence (physiological and security needs), Relatedness (social and esteem needs) and Growth (self-actualisation)" (Shajahan & Shajahan, 2004:94).

The point of departure here is that, whereas Maslow's needs are depicted in a hierarchy, Alderfer (1969) depicts these needs on a continuum (Spector, 2003); and more often than not, they are experienced simultaneously (Alderfer, 1969:142-175). Contrary to the needs hierarchy, the ERG theory is highly practical and appropriate to employee motivation (Wanous & Zwany, 1977:78-98).
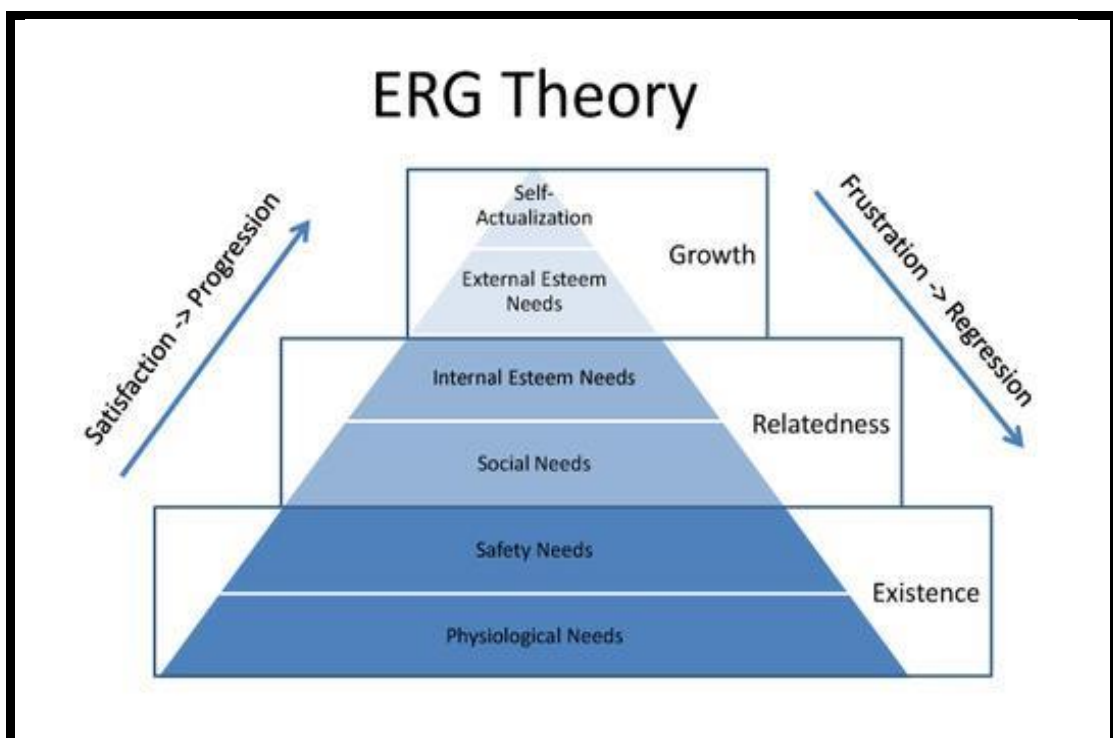
Figure 4.2: Alderfer's ERG Theory

The gulf between the ERG and Maslow's Theory is that the ERG theory makes no emphasis on satisfaction of lower level needs before one moves up the ladder (Luthans, 2005:244). In the same vein Schermerhon et al. (2004:93) note that, while Maslow suggests an upward progression, the ERG theory advocates a downward regression. They further maintain that, when a higher level need is not satisfactorily fulfilled, the lower level need is triggered or activated as a vital motivator.

4.3.1.3 Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (1959)

This theory differentiated the needs hierarchy into two factors namely: motivators and hygiene factors (Roos, 2005:25). Motivators are those factors which promote job satisfaction and organisational productivity. They have a direct positive influence on the work situation and fall in the category of Maslow's higher level needs. Examples of motivators are advancement, recognition, achievement, responsibility and work itself (Roos, 2005:25).

Hygiene factors do not promote job satisfaction but avert job dissatisfaction. They are linked to Maslow's lower level needs and comprises "interpersonal relations, company policy and administration, supervision, salary, and working conditions" (Roos, 2005:25). Figure 4.3 depicts a detailed analysis of the Herzberg (1966) Two Factor Theory:
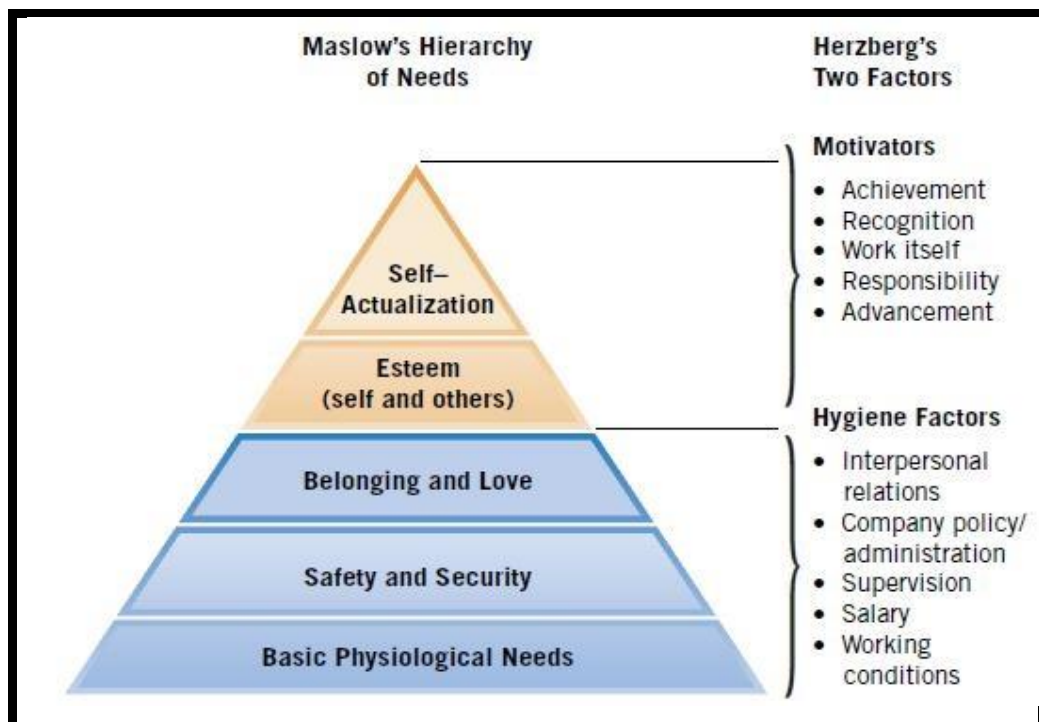
Figure 4.3: Two-Factor Theory by Herzberg (1959)

The Two-Factor Theory attracted little empirical support from other scholars but the distinctive nature of both motivators and hygiene factors also attracted mixed opinion. Just like Maslow's Theory, the Two Factor Theory cannot be generalised or standardised because people's needs are unique and diverse (Schermerhon et al.,

2004:94). Therefore, assuming that people respond or react to circumstances in a similar fashion might be misleading.

Despite the criticism, the Two Factor Theory has made substantial impact to the body of organisational behaviour. It has influenced the birth of constructs such as job redesign, job analysis and job enrichment (Schultz & Schultz, 1998:1).

4.3.1.4 Douglas McGregor's Theory X & Y (1960)

Having observed and understood the way managers relate with their subordinates, McGregor formulated two theories of human behaviour at work. He recognized that human behaviours are influenced by a set of assumptions people make in their everyday organisational life. These assumptions in turn influence the way managers and employees coexist (Robbins, 1998:170). Weihrich and Koontz (1999:466) explain these two assumptions below:

Theory X Supposition
  i. Generally people dislike work and will try to stay away from it if possible;
  ii. People must be forced and punished to work;
  iii. People desire to be directed, dislike responsibility, lack aspirations, and long for comfort and monetary rewards;
  iv. People are self-centered, and careless about the bottom line.

Theory Y Supposition
  i. People willingly take responsibility and are self-motivated to accomplish given tasks;
  ii. People seek and accept responsibility without much direction and supervision;
  iii. People regard work as natural part of life and resolve organisational glitches creatively;
  iv. People commit themselves to organisational objectives if rewards match their needs or expectations.

According to Roos (2005:25) Theory Y present a more precise and practical picture of people's behaviour in the workplace because it aligns personal goals with organisational goals.

4.3.1.5 Needs Achievement Theory (McClelland, 1961)

This theory is also known as the "Learned Need Theory", "Acquired Needs Theory", and "Three Needs Theory". The rationale behind this theory is that goal-oriented people have three common needs which are not inborn but are obtained through learning and experience. According to McClelland (1961), these needs have a unique code, as indicated below.

i.   The need for Power (n/PWR): This involves desire to be in command of others, the desire to control their feelings, thoughts and to be accountable for them (Robbins, 2005:53);

ii. The need for Affiliation (n/AFF): This involves the extent to which employees desire to have cordial associations with colleagues;

iii. The need for Achievement (n/ACH): This is regarded as attitudes exhibited to effectively embrace competition and to accomplish prescribed goals.

According to Beach (1980), even though the theory did not attract much needed empirical support, the theory highlighted essential but uncommon needs of employees.

4.3.2 Process theories

These theories focus mainly on the "how part of satisfaction or motivation". They lay emphasis on how to make people happy (Luthans, 2005:246). Below are some of the suggested process theories.

4.3.2.1 Equity Theory (Adams, 1963)

This theory was authored by Stacy Adams (1963). Adams recommended equity as a paramount source of motivation which employees have to strive for in everyday transactions (Adams, 1965:267-299). The theory entails that people make subjective evaluations concerning what they offer to the organisation (skills, qualifications, experience, etc.) and what they benefit from it (pay, benefits, working conditions, etc.). Having done their evaluations, they evaluate their input-output ratio in comparison to what their colleagues are getting. A state of equilibrium is only existent when an individual is certain that his or her input-output ratio is similar to that of specific others; and, should there be an imbalance, a state of inequality transpires (Robbins, 2005:58).

Baron et al. (2002), note that when a state of inequality exists or is perceived, people will try to redress the imbalance, either by increasing or decreasing their effort. Perceived equality is thus a vital ingredient for satisfaction. The theory has enabled organisations to understand and remedy the effects of inequality in the workplace.

Although the theory has attracted much empirical support and research, like any other, it has its shortcomings. Much emphasis has been given to financial compensation as an outcome, yet there are numerous outcomes derived from a job. The theory cannot ascertain the extent to which people understand or comprehend work equity rations (Greenberg, 1988:606). In the same vein, Perry et al. (2006:505) suggest that rewards only stimulate satisfaction when employees perceive them as equitable.

4.3.2.2 Locke's Goal-setting Theory (1968)

This theory was pioneered by Edwin Locke in 1968. It assumes that people assigned to perform complex but achievable tasks are in a better position to successfully accomplish the set goals than those with less complex tasks.

According to Shajahan and Shajahan (2004:95), intentions are vital motivation and satisfaction ingredients. Likewise, Locke (1968) noted that intentions, goals or objectives stimulated positive performance. For example, complex objectives (when embraced by employees) promote greater performance than simple objectives. Likewise, some feedback reinforces more positive performance than no feedback. In other words, people perform much better in the presence of proper feedback. Feedback allows employees to identify and address their deficiencies (Saif et al, 2012:1390).

According to Moynihan and Pandey (2007), the Goal-setting theory proposes that complex goals require employees to pay critical attention to the prevailing phenomenon, to acknowledge the significance of goal attainment and to persevere until goals are accomplished. In order to have a clear and detailed understanding of a phenomenon, the goal setting theory should be conceptualised in relation to cognitive theories.

4.4 ANTECEDENCE OF JOB SATISFACTION

Armstrong (2003:241) established that both "intrinsic" (motivational) and "extrinsic" (hygiene) factors influence job satisfaction. Intrinsic factors refer to those aspects of the job which promote job satisfaction and can be controlled by employees, for example the job itself, appreciation, accountability, feedback and progression. Likewise, extrinsic factors do not promote job satisfaction but avert job dissatisfaction. They cannot be controlled by an individual and include factors such as procedures, control, remuneration and affiliations (Herzberg et al., 1993:122).

From the concept of incentives, Basau (1996:23) categorised the antecedents of job satisfaction into two, economic and non-economic incentives. Economic incentives refer to payments received by an employee for work done, while non-economic incentives refer to stimuli such as job security, responsibility, recognition, opportunity for advancement, participation in decision-making and friendly supervision. Hezerberg's (1966) ground-breaking Two Factors theory significantly sets the stage for understanding the antecedents of job satisfaction.

4.4.1 Intrinsic factors

Intrinsic sources of job satisfaction are innate and have more far-reaching impacts than extrinsic sources of motivation (Atchison, 1999:18) and include aspects like accomplishment, appreciation, the job itself, accountability, progression, and advancement (Herzberg, 1966). Their absence does not necessarily lead to dissatisfaction. Conversely, when available, they likely enhance satisfaction. In line with the above, satisfaction is more often than not stimulated when employees accomplish desired goals, career advancement opportunities are present, leaders appreciate and reward the workforce for work done, people are empowered to be responsible and accountable for their actions, and opportunities for growth are present (Ramlall, 2004:52-63).

4.4.1.1 The job itself

Work in itself is considered most satisfying by employees when it presents prospects of self-gratification, appreciation and when it realises their potential. Quite a number of job characteristics exert a powerful impact on job satisfaction namely autonomy, skill variety, task significance and task identity.

According to Robbins (2005:7), there is a tendency among employees to select jobs which grant them an opportunity to exercise a degree of autonomy while executing their job functions. Theorists like Nel et al. (2008) and Robbins et al. (2007) note that for any job to be regarded as satisfying, it should be challenging; it should not be monotonous; it should present a great deal of autonomy; and should present opportunities for career advancement in the organization and chosen field. According to Iwu and Ukpere (2012:11539) the aforesaid confirms the main points raised by Hackman and Oldham's job characteristics theory which states that:

"people will be more motivated to work and more satisfied with their jobs to the extent that their jobs possess certain core fundamentals like skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback".

In line with the aforesaid, Syptak et al. (1999:1) considered work in itself as the most vital determinant for employee satisfaction. It is imperative for organisations to ensure that employees understand and acknowledge that their functions enhance organisational effectiveness. Assisting employees to perceive their work as meaningful, significant and rewarding is important in determining their satisfaction (Syptak et al., 1999:1).

4.4.1.2 Recognition

Recognition denotes "acts of notice, praise, or blame supplied by one or more superiors, peer, colleague, management person, client, and/or the general public" (Padilla-Vellez, 1993:20-21; Bowen, 1980:13-14). In the workplace, recognising and rewarding employees for delivering quality work enhances satisfaction. People desire to be appreciated for their effort or contributions. By the same token, Syptak et al. (1990:1) note that appreciating and acknowledging people's work is a vital source of motivation. Appreciation or recognition manifests in two ways, either material or immaterial, such as work elevations, pay raises and oral approvals. Thus recognition plays a paramount role in promoting job satisfaction.

4.4.1.3 Job autonomy

According to Padilla-Velez (1993:20-21) job autonomy is a degree or level of freedom and discretion given and exercised by an individual over his or her work or other people's work. According to Syptak et al. (1999:1) giving people free reign and

ownership to perform their work without being interrupted or monitored enhances job satisfaction. Job autonomy makes the workforce responsible and accountable for their actions. For Anderson (2001:31), job autonomy includes added responsibility, challenging tasks and power to make strategic decisions. These aspects make one's work more pleasant, meaningful and fulfilling (Chiboiwa, 2010:27).

4.4.1.4 Person-environment fit

Examining the importance of both the person and environment when determining the nature and consequences of job satisfaction can be traced back from the origins of stress theories which subsequently led to the promulgation of person–environment (P-E) theory of stress (Edwards et al., 1998:2).

According to Kristof (2006:246), person-environment fit is a process whereby an individual characteristics and environmental characteristics match. A compatible fit promotes job satisfaction and stability, whereas an incompatible fit triggers job dissatisfaction and high attrition. In other words, satisfaction increases when there is harmony between employees' expectations and what the organisation offers (Bowling & Hammond, 2008:63). In this knowledge world, people are always seeking a work environment which matches their career objectives and advancement (Sekiguch, 2004:179).

A good fit exists when all aspects of an individual and the environment are compatible. People collaborate with more than one aspect of an environment, not just one and these elements are interdependent. This entails that the impact of a person-environment should not only be accredited to a fit or misfit with one element of the environment but rather a multiplicity of factors (Kristof, 2006:246). As a result behavioural attitudes such as OCB, job satisfaction, commitment, and employee withdrawal, among others, are influenced by a combination of environmental factors, not just one factor.

In the same vein, Johns (1996:140) regards the person-environment as the "discrepancy theory" of job satisfaction. Furthermore, Johns (1996:140) asserts that "satisfaction is a function of the discrepancy between the job outcomes people want and the outcomes they perceive they obtain." Hence, where there is a minor

discrepancy, job satisfaction tend to be very high.

4.4.1.5 Personal growth

In line with Herzberg's Two Factor Theory, personal growth is one of the motivating factors which promotes job satisfaction. When employees perceive opportunities for career progression within the organisation their satisfaction tends to also increase. Herzberg (1993:1) suggests that even though there might be limited opportunities for promotion, organisations should strive to encourage and empower their employees with the necessary skills and knowledge. Furthermore, Herzberg (1993) notes that an environment which presents employees with greater opportunities for career growth, advancement and multi-skilling stimulates job satisfaction. To support this, Agho (1993:451), Muller-Smith (1999:300), and Liou et al. (1997:143) maintain that career progression and growth opportunities at both organisational and personal level, create a conducive environment for satisfaction and fulfilment.

4.4.1.6 Fairness of treatment

According to Ellis and Dick (2003), fairness draws on the principal of equity theory. People not only desire rewards for their own sake, but are also concerned about the rewards obtained by other people doing similar jobs (Ellis & Dick, 2003). According to Adams (1965:267), it is common practice for employees to compare their offering (input) to the organisation in relation to organisational outcomes (output) and how it differs from others'. Furthermore, the equity theory suggests that getting excessive compensation or moderate compensation constitutes unfair treatment. Adams (1965:267-299) further asserts that negative job attitudes occur when employees perceive that their organisation is not treating them fairly and justly. As a result employees may try to redress this imbalance by reducing their input (e.g., diminished creativity) or output (e.g., using company property without permission). The fairness process is a totally subjective process. Fairness includes the equity of working conditions, distributive and procedural justice (Fujishiro, 2005:5).

4.4.2. Extrinsic Factors

According to Herzberg et al. (1959, 1966) examples of extrinsic factors include, among others, "supervision, working conditions, co-workers, pay, policies and procedures, status, personal life, and job security". These factors are not regarded as satisfiers;

however, neglecting them might stimulate job discontentment. Generally, variables outside an individual's control or power influence these factors (Atchison, 1999:18).

4.4.2.1 Remuneration

Remuneration is an essential job satisfaction stimulus. Humans are sophisticated beings with complex needs and remuneration is the vital instrument which enhances need fulfilment (Arnold & Feldman, 1996:86-89). In consonance with Maslow's theory, pay is one fundamental human need which, according to Herzberg, inhibits job discontentment. Correspondingly, Furnham (2006:26) established that, when employees perceive an imbalance between their input and output they often reciprocate negatively to the detriment of the organisation. Moreover, Chung (1977:23) claims that employee unhappiness may also stem from salaries below the gazetted rates and employees may be grieved if the individual input-output ratio is not compatible. Job dissatisfaction also occurs when employees perceive that what they are getting from the organisation as unequal to what others are getting (Nel et al., 2004:552-553).

Nonetheless, there is insufficient literature to substantiate that pay as a lone variable increases job satisfaction and decreases discontentment. According to Basset (1994:61) an excellent salary package is not the chief job satisfaction stimulus, in some quarters well paid employees may tend to be unhappy if they strongly dislike their work. Furthermore, Bassett (1994:61) is of the opinion that there is lack of evidence to prove that pay as the only factor improves satisfaction or reduces dissatisfaction.

4.4.2.2 Supervision

Supervision is an association between a junior and a senior member of a given profession. Supervision influences employee satisfaction either positively or negatively. In support, Aamodt (2004) found that satisfaction tends to be high when employees enjoy working with their supervisors. The perceptions employees have towards their supervisors is equally the same directed towards their organisation. As such, the role of a supervisor is like a fountain from which desirable or undesirable behaviours springs out. According to Bishop and Scott (1997:107-112), the negative impacts of poor supervision are low employee morale, high attrition rates and low

productivity whereas good supervision leads to high productivity, high morale and sound employer employee engagements.

Anthony et al. (2002:291) suggests that the success of work teams is primarily owing to leaders' and workers' awareness of their roles. By the same token, Robbins et al. (2003:7) note that satisfaction plummets when upliners fail to support downliners. Furthermore, when downliners regard their upliners as rational, knowledgeable and genuine, their satisfaction levels abound. On the contrary, downliners who perceive their upliners as unjust, inexperienced and egocentric more often than not experience diminished satisfaction.

Friendly, caring, supportive and empowering leaders enable employees to feel valued, appreciated and this engenders a sense of belonging which, in turn, leads to job satisfaction (Bergh & Theron, 2001:191). Another vital element of supervision which influences job satisfaction is the supervisor's leadership style. A democratic leadership style promotes job satisfaction, whereas an autocratic leadership style stimulates job dissatisfaction (Foels et al., 2000:676).

A supervisor's state of mind can either enhance job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Cameron (2011:32) points out that the state of mind of a manager either constructively or destructively affects the workforce. In his words

> "the emotional state of leaders has a significant impact on the emotional climate of a team and, therefore, their performance output. Stressed leaders not only lose their self-awareness and social awareness, which are keys to emotional intelligence competencies, but also trigger their staff's stress response".

4.4.2.3 Working conditions

Employees spend most of their life time at work, as such, employers need to ensure that their employees are exposed to healthy working conditions. Arnold and Feldman (1996:90-91) suggest that variables like "temperature, lighting, ventilation, hygiene, noise, working hours, and resources form all part of working conditions". In this line of understanding, working conditions which do not appeal to employees' needs and expectations lead to job dissatisfaction.

Following the above discussion, it is thus imperative for organisations to create a

conducive working environment which enhances employee satisfaction. In support, Syptak et al. (1999:1) have established that good working conditions instill a sense of pride among employees. Correspondingly, Baron and Greenberg, (2003:159-160) assert that workers prefer working in an environment which safeguards their well-being, rather than in one which risks their social and psychological identity.

Arnold and Feldman (1996:90-91) present a contrasting view of the impact of working conditions on the workforce. They argue that working conditions should not be excessively pleasant lest employees neglect or fail to appreciate the goodness of their environment. Furthermore, they note that, more often than not, employees justify their unpleasant behaviours, like high absence, mass exodus and low productivity by putting the blame on poor working conditions (Arnold & Feldman, 1996:90-92).

Without doubt, working conditions significantly affect employee satisfaction and it is the task of every organisation to create favourable conditions which do not pose a threat to employees' physical and psychological well-being.

4.4.2.4 Co-workers

The third level of Maslow's 1954 Hierarchy of Needs comprises social needs, which include belonging to a group, love and acceptance by other people. Facets of job satisfaction, which were developed by Smith et al. (1969), include co-worker support. This essentially means that supportive co-workers positively stimulate the satisfaction levels of their colleagues (Iwu & Ukpere, 2012:11538). The structure of a formal organisation depends on the interaction of individuals and groups (Schultz et al., 2003:7). Groups and teams are fundamental to human existence (Hellriegel et al., 2006:335). An organisation depends on groups for the achievement of its goals. The ideal state for each group is one of harmonious cooperation to accomplish the strategic bottom line (Nel et al., 2008:19). Co-worker support is part of an employee's job environment which also influences job satisfaction (Iwu and Ukpere 2012:11538).

Co-worker support can also be referred to as interpersonal relationships with colleagues. As such, the extent to which workers mutually associate with one another across the organisation encourages the manifestation of satisfaction gestures (Harris et al., 2007:150). Good interpersonal relationships diminish attrition levels and

facilitate continuous skills or knowledge transfers among employees (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978:224-253). Likewise, Shirey (2004:1) comments that positive relationships contribute to motivation, mediate against stress and reduce the intent to quit. Contrastingly, an unsupportive environment is a breeding place of high attrition, chaos, anxiety and stress. Luthans (2002:1), however, argues that positive interpersonal relationships amongst workers do not directly stimulate job satisfaction; rather, it seems that excessively subdued associations decrease employee satisfaction.

4.4.2.5 Promotional opportunities

In the words of Pergamit and Veum (1999:581–601), a significant number of scholars acknowledged that job satisfaction positively correlates with promotional opportunities, and that perceived equality strengthens the correlation between job satisfaction and promotion (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001). In comparison with recognition and achievement, promotion tends to have a greater impact on job satisfaction. Job satisfaction tends to be high when employees perceive that opportunities for career progression and self-gratification are equally distributed within organisations. Locke (1976:1297) notes that workers' ambitions to be elevated to more senior and challenging positions stem from their great desire to upgrade their status quo justly.

Likewise, Luthans (2002:1) asserts that generally promotion transpires when an individual is rewarded for his or her contribution to organisational bottom line. In support, Chelladurai (2006:270) highlights that job satisfaction is enhanced by promotion in cases where employees are satisfied with the pace and significance of their career growth or progression and the organisation's policies and procedures.

There is a correlation between promotion and perceived fairness. The more employees perceive promotion as fair, the higher the chances of them experiencing satisfaction. Ospina (1996:173) notes that employee perception of fairness moderates the relationship between satisfaction and promotion. When workers perceive that opportunities for promotion are fairly administered across the organisation, satisfaction and productivity levels tend to increase simultaneously.

4.4.2.6 Policies and procedures

The birthplace of satisfaction or dissatisfaction in any organisation may be policies and procedures. Herzberg (1966) integrated this variable with employee perceptions about communication, organisational practices, and overall gains. In other words, when policies and procedures are incompatible with employee expectations, job satisfaction tends to decline (Anuna, 1997:1). The manner in which policies and procedures are administered within an organisation influences the degree of employee satisfaction. Job dissatisfaction is created when employees perceive that policies are not applied fairly and justly (Syptak et al., 1999:1).

Syptak et al. (1999:1) further recommend that organisations ought to compare their policies and procedures with those of other organisations in order to establish whether their policies are reasonable, just and fair. This reduces dissatisfaction among employees.

4.4.3 Demographic factors and job satisfaction

The relationship between demographic factors and job satisfaction is inconclusive. Some scholars have established a strong relationship, while others found no significant relationship between the two variables.

4.4.3.1 Gender

Research findings concerning the correlation between gender and job satisfaction are conflicting and inconsistent. Scholars like De Vaus and McAllister (1991) found no significant relationship between the two variables, while others recorded a significant relationship. Roos (2005) notes that satisfaction was high among women who voluntarily chose a career in comparison to those who were forced to work due to family responsibilities.

The impact of gender on job satisfaction can also be discussed in relation to the differences in work-life balances between men and women. The state of equilibrium between the needs of an employee at work and in his or her personal life is what is referred to as work-life balance. For women, work-life balance plays a crucial role in determining their satisfaction, whereas for men, factors such as reward, salary, promotion, job security and working conditions matter the most (Mello, 2006:99).

Scholars such as Carr and Human (1988:60) and Alavi and Askaripur (2003:591) found insignificant variations between job satisfaction of men and women. They considered that work in itself influences men and women differently. A study conducted by Alavi and Askaripur (2003:591) on variations between men and women's job satisfaction, covering 310 government workers, established that satisfaction levels between men and women were relatively similar.

4.4.3.2 Age

According to Schultz and Schultz (1998:1), job satisfaction increases with age. The career stage theory clearly highlights the correlation between job satisfaction and age (Moyes et al., 2006:153). The basic assumption behind this theory is that, senior management positions are more often than not occupied by older people rather than young people and, as a result, only older people enjoy the benefits that come with these senior positions. Ultimately, it is only older people who experience job satisfaction. Some of the reasons why older employees experience job satisfaction are that they are easily motivated by extrinsic rewards, they easily move up the career progression ladder because of their seniority and experience, and they occupy prestigious and more fulfilling positions in an organisation. This notion is supported by authors like Saal and Knight (1988:246) and Mello (2006:67) whose findings have established a positive correlation between job satisfaction and age.

4.4.3.3 Cognitive ability and level of education

Cognitive ability refers to one's level of intelligence. The impact cognitive ability has on job satisfaction should be analysed in relation to the type of work. An intelligent person easily gets bored and dissatisfied with his or her job, particularly when the job is not compatible with his or her intelligence levels. By contrast, a less intelligent person's frustrations are influenced by his or her inability to handle job demands.

Education harnesses the relationship between cognitive ability and job satisfaction. Several studies (e.g. Okpara, 2004:327-338) have shown the closeness of job satisfaction to the educational dimension of demography. Education and experience combined contributes significantly to satisfaction with pay, which to some extent, indicates that 62% of the discrepancy in pay satisfaction could be attributed to education and experience, among other variables. Well educated employees tend to

have lower commitment, especially if they perceive the organisation as not necessarily supporting them. Other studies (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Martin & Roodt, 2008) support this submission. A higher academic qualification resulting in more job opportunities and task diversity tends to promote job satisfaction (Iwu et al., 2012:9663).

4.4.3.4 Tenure and experience

Past investigations on the bond between job satisfaction and tenure have acknowledged that a positive relationship exists (Oshagbemi, 2000:213). Okpara (2004:327), found a noteworthy relationship between job satisfaction and tenure. In other words, Okpara's findings indicate that workers with extensive experience display satisfaction gestures more than workers with minimum experience.

Contrastingly, Clark et al. (1996:57) established a negative correlation between job satisfaction and tenure. They noted that workers with lengthy experience tend to be more dissatisfied with their jobs than employees with little experience. In an attempt to qualify the aforesaid, Clark et al. (1996:57) argued that length of experience leads to monotony and subdued job satisfaction, either because of little job flexibility or marginal employment opportunities. Moreover, during the infancy stage of employment, work tends to be very exciting, challenging and satisfying, but as opportunities for growth and advancement diminish over time, employees tend to be more discouraged and dissatisfied.

4.4.3.5 Marital status and race

Marital status (such as married, divorced and single) influences job satisfaction in different ways. According to Robbins (1989:1), marriage amplifies an individual's responsibilities which, in turn, necessitate workers to regard stable jobs as extremely precious and valuable. Furthermore, Robbins et al. (2003:1) found that existing literature only differentiates between being unmarried and married and does not look at divorced or cohabiting couples and those who are widowed. The latter group also needs to be investigated.

Investigations concerning the connection between race and job satisfaction, in particular differences between White, Blacks Indians and Asians, found a significant correlation. It was established that Whites experience more satisfaction than non-white

employees. Nonetheless, high joblessness predominantly amongst non-white workers certainly moderates the correlation between race and job satisfaction. Furthermore, the majority of non-white workers occupy junior positions which hardly ever present prospects for fulfilment (Greenhaus et al., 1990:64-86; Tuch & Martin, 1991:103-116).

4.5 CONSEQUENCES OF JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction affects the organisation and its employees in many ways and the consequences can either positively or negatively influence the organisation. Moreover, the outcomes of employee satisfaction or dissatisfaction are heterogeneous and thus cannot be forecast or generalised. Locke (1976:1328-1329) suggests that, since satisfaction/ dissatisfaction are two different behavioural manifestations, organisations should avoid oversimplifying workplace attitudes.

Robbins (2005:3) suggests that employees' satisfaction constitutes one of the fundamental areas managers ought to be concerned with specifically for three main reasons:

> "there may be a link between satisfaction and productivity; satisfaction appears to be negatively related to absenteeism and turnover; and managers have a responsibility to provide their employees with jobs that are challenging, intrinsically rewarding and satisfying".

The consequences of job satisfaction are, however, more than these three and are reviewed in detail below.

4.5.1 Productivity

According to Arnold and Feldman (1996:92-94), the adage "a happy worker is a productive worker", is often a misleading statement because satisfaction does not entail or enhance productivity. The reality is that satisfaction is an outcome of productivity or job performance.

Furthermore, Arnold and Feldman (1996:93-94) found no significant correlation between job performance and job satisfaction. They suggested that good work tools and an individual's skills, knowledge and aptitudes lead to productivity instead of satisfaction.

Lawler and Porter (1967:1) assert that satisfaction is an outcome of performance and employees' perceptions about rewards significantly control this relationship. They further note that it is common practice for employees to desire equitable rewards and recognition for their input. Moreover, if organisations fail to equitably reward their workers, the ultimate result will be employee dissatisfaction.

4.5.2 Performance

Findings on the correlation between performance and job satisfaction are inconclusive. Some scholars believe that satisfaction stimulates performance whereas others think that performance arouses satisfaction (Chiboiwa, 2010:57). According to Bowling (2007:167), traditionally, the prevailing thought has been that a satisfied worker performs better than an unhappy worker. However, over the past years, this school of thought has received a fair amount of criticism.

Furthermore, Bowling (2007:167) has established that the two variables are distinct and not related in any way and that they are both stimulated by diverse employee personality characteristics. In the same vein, Schermerhorn et al. (2004:101) found no relationship between job satisfaction and work performance.

In an attempt to qualify the traditional school of thought between satisfaction and performance, Robbins et al. (2003:77) contend that contemporary research findings are reinforcing the first hypothesis, namely that satisfaction leads to performance. The reason is that, when the benefits of satisfaction and productivity are integrated at organisational level, more often than not, organisations with highly satisfied workers display remarkable competitiveness compared to organisations with highly dissatisfied workers.

4.5.3 Union Activity

Research findings on the study of union activity have established that unionisation is a result of employees' continued dissatisfaction with organisational conditions, systems, policies and procedures. For example, people express their unhappiness with poor salaries, poor working conditions, lack of promotional opportunities and perceived inequalities by joining a trade union of their choice (Arnold & Feldman, 1996:95). Similarly, findings by Kreitner and Kinicki (1995:163) reveal that union

membership tends to increase when employees are dissatisfied with their jobs and consider unionisation as the only resolution at their disposal to address their disgruntlements.

4.5.4 Organisational commitment

Organisational commitment refers to the level of willingness or dedication by an individual to give his or her time and energy to the organisation (Robbins et al., 2003:192). Feinstein and Vondrasek (2001:6) distinguished organisational commitment from job satisfaction. They established that satisfaction is a behavioural attitude triggered by different facets of the job while commitment is an attachment an individual has towards an organisation as a whole (Mowday et al., 1982:82).

Regardless of this distinction a number of scholars still believe that commitment and job satisfaction are strongly correlated. Porter et al. (1974:603) suggest that job satisfaction stimulates commitment. Elaborating on this view, Mowday et al. (1982:82) assert that even though employees are exposed to a multiplicity of factors which influence their satisfaction levels in the workplace, their daily experiences should not negatively influence their attachment to the organisation. However, scholars like Bateman and Strasser (1984:95) regard job satisfaction as an outcome of organisational commitment.

Even though investigations on the relationship between commitment and job satisfaction are still ongoing, it is paramount for organisations to acknowledge and maintain this relationship because the benefits accrued far outweighs the losses. The benefits include, among others, low absenteeism, high productivity, low attrition, and reduced production costs.

4.5.5 Withdrawal behaviours

Withdrawal behaviours refer to the tendency by employees to avoid unfamiliar or unpleasant work situations by either permanently or temporarily staying away from work (Borda & Norman, 1997:789). According to Saal and Knight (1988:243), it is a conscious act through which an employee temporarily or permanently eliminates himself or herself from the workplace. According to Greenberg and Baron (1997:186), when workers are highly dissatisfied with work, they try by all means to employ

different ways of reducing their exposure to the job, for example, they stay away, which is known as "employee withdrawal", or they resign, which is referred to as "voluntary turnover". Therefore, when employees fail to turn up for work, or quit their present jobs for better prospects, it is highly likely that they will be trying to communicate their negative attitudes towards work, or making an effort to flee from the unpleasant working environment at their disposal. Two common forms of withdrawal behaviours are absenteeism and turnover (Cohen & Golan, 2007:416).

4.5.6 Organisational citizenship behaviour

The relationship between OCB and job satisfaction was discussed in the previous chapter. However, it is imperative to note that job satisfaction enhances the manifestation of OCB and the effective functioning of the organisations (Murphy et al., 2002:289).

4.6 MEASURING JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction is "a pleasant or positive emotional state resulting from the individual's assessment of the work or work experience" (Locke, 1976:1300). It is therefore paramount to note that the only way to adequately comprehend workplace attitudes is by looking at:

1) The behaviour of Employees,
2) Surveys and questionnaires,
3) Confrontational meetings.

According to Nel et al. (2004) there are numerous systematic and dependable techniques for measuring job satisfaction and these include among others:

i. **Rating scales:** This research instrument is used to report how people feel about their jobs by responding to a series of questions on a questionnaire. The Job Description Index (JDI) is a prototype of this research instrument. The advantages of using this instrument are that it is simple to use, it is not time consuming and gives room for differentiation. The benefits of the rating scale include, amongst others, it is user friendly, takes little time to complete, addresses several job aspects, can be standardised and there is scope for generalisation. The shortcomings of this method are that it does not reflect people's level of honesty and straightforwardness, it is difficult to apply

consistently, the reliability and validity of the questionnaire are uncertain and data can easily be distorted (McKenna, 2000:279).

ii. **Critical incidents:** This research instrument allows the workforce to explain situations that either made their jobs satisfying or dissatisfying. The advantage of this approach is that, unlike the rating scale, there is enough room for participants to express themselves freely; but the disadvantage in comparison with the rating scale is that it is time consuming (McKenna, 2000:278).

iii. **Interviews:** This technique can either be structured or unstructured. It gives researchers an opportunity to cover broad aspects and ask relevant questions about the research problem. The benefits of using interviews are that, you can tell whether or not someone is being honest, you can ask for clarification if you are not sure about something, and you can probe the participant till you get what you want. The disadvantages of this method are that it consumes much time, biases of the interviewer can influence the process, and it is very costly (McKenna, 2000:280).

When organisations investigates workplace satisfaction levels, employees always have an impression or anticipates that it will be accompanied by positive transformations. However, should organisations fail to address employees' expectations and resolve prevailing complications they risk breeding an unhappy workforce (Nel et al., 2001).

4.6.1 Instruments used for measuring job satisfaction

4.6.1.1 Job Description Index (JDI)

The JDI is a research instrument used to measure satisfaction levels in the workplace. Initially the instrument conceptualised job satisfaction as a two-dimensional construct. The first dimension is referred to as the evaluative-general-long-term domain. This domain compares one's job satisfaction in relation to others over a long period of time. The second dimension is known as the descriptive-specific-short-term domain. This domain assess an individual's job satisfaction in comparison to others on a daily basis. However, with time a more improved and detailed JDI version was developed with five sub-dimensions namely: satisfaction with remuneration, promotional opportunities, work supervision and co-workers (Kinicki et al., 2002:14-15).

4.6.1.2 Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)

The MSQ has been popular among researchers over the past decades (Spector 1997:13) and was originally pioneered by Weiss et al. in 1976. According to Fields (2002:15), MSQ is a remarkable job satisfaction measuring instrument. Three formats of MSQ were designed: two questionnaires each included 100 items (the 1967 and 1977 versions) and the third was a 20-item questionnaire (Spector, 1997:13).

The MSQ was developed to assess the distinct features of the job rather than to effect additional measures of job satisfaction. This instrument has been extensively utilised by scholars investigating "client vocational needs, counselling, follow-up studies and in general information about the reinforcers in jobs" (Spector, 1997:13). Furthermore, Spector (1997:13) notes that "MSQ is a gender neutral, self-administered paper and pencil inventory that is written at fifth-grade level". This instrument highlights equally facets of the job which are extrinsic and intrinsic. These facets "are measured on a five-point Likert scale" Spector (1997:13). The instrument is applicable both at individual or group level.

4.6.1.3 The Job In General Scale (JIG)

JIG measures overall job satisfaction and not different facets of a job. It is an 18-item questionnaire with a similar formula to JDI (Spector, 1997:18). Each item on the questionnaire is presented in the form of a common catchphrase concerning a job or work. The overall rating is a summation of all items. The instrument also correlates with other job satisfaction measuring instruments (Spector, 1997:18).

4.6.1.4 Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

Paul E. Spector designed the JSS in order to measure the attitudes of employees concerning different aspects of their jobs, or the job itself. The JSS is a questionnaire which consists of 36 items. These items address nine distinct aspects or facets of job satisfaction namely: "pay, promotion, benefits, supervision, contingent rewards, operating procedures, co-workers, nature of work and communication" (Spector, 1997:11). Each facet is evaluated with four items using a Likert-type rating scale format with six ordered response options ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" and a total score is computed from all 36 items (Spector, 1997:11).

4.7 The relationship between change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction

Drawing on the discussed constructs in the preceding chapters, this section will highlight the relationship between change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction. To begin with, this section will address how change implementation impacts job satisfaction and how OCB moderates the relationship.

Organisations today are more concerned with the effectiveness of change, and selecting the right methodology to implement it. Contrastingly, employees' expectations and considerations are explicitly dissimilar. Doubtfulness with the nature and outcome of change and the influence these uncertainties have on their work and social interactions are common concerns. The uncertainty employees experience with organisational change, inevitably, has a bearing on their job security, stress levels, trust, commitment, organisational identification, performance, employee work attitude and, ultimately, job satisfaction. As a result, these perceived evaluations affect the relationship between employees and the organisations. In line with this, Mack et al. (1998:219-232) point out that organisational change transfigures employees' traditional working arrangement. The uncertainties experienced during the change process stimulate job dissatisfaction among employees (Mack et al., 1998).

The manner in which the change process is administered directly influences employee attitudes in the workplace. Organisational change in this current study includes, among others, organisational downsizing, growth, workforce rearrangement, total quality management, job redesign, leadership change, mergers and acquisition, restructuring, business process re-engineering and introduction of new technology. The aforesaid types of change influence employee behaviours or attitudes differently and either affect the entire organisation or just specific sections or divisions.

The effects of organisational downsizing are dependent on employees' past experience, particularly with identical transformations. For Svensen et al. (2007:153-159), if employees have had bad experiences with past changes, their satisfaction levels are likely to be negative. However, if previous changes were perceived as positive job satisfaction is likely to be high. Contrastingly, Cross and Travaglione (2004:275-290) suggest that job satisfaction is predominantly high after organisational downsizing because those who are left behind will be more content than the victims of

change. However, organisational downsizing increases employees' workload because the remaining employees will be required to perform their work and that of affected others. Inevitably, the consequence of increased workload manifests in the form of high job dissatisfaction (Karasek, 1979:285-308).

According to Beer (1964:34-44), more often than not, organisational growth stimulates job dissatisfaction. Growth changes the prevailing status quo. It alters aspects such as leadership style, roles and responsibilities, reporting structures, which in turn might negatively affect employees' satisfaction levels particularly in large organisations. In support of this, Karasek (1979:285-308) points out the more bureaucratic an organisation becomes, the lower the satisfaction in the workplace. Employees working in bureaucratic structures tend to be neglected in decision making processes because of the huge gulf between leaders and their members. Field and Johnson (1993:1625-1633) investigated the impact of growth in an organisation employing permanent and voluntary workers but which grew from a small firm to a very large firm with numerous branches. Their findings revealed that the growth that resulted from the firm adopting bureaucratic structures and processes in turn became the greatest source of employee dissatisfaction among both permanent and voluntary employees.

Research has proved that job design is a vital determinant of job satisfaction (Humphrey et al., 2007:1332-1356). Scholars like Salancik and Pfeffer (1978:224-253) and Griffin (1991:425-435) suggest that when employees perceive that there is compatibility between their expectations and job characteristics due to job design, then job satisfaction is considered a likely outcome. For Karasek (1979:285-308), job redesign encourages employees to feel content with their jobs only when they feel empowered to make work-related decisions. Along the same lines, Hackman and Oldham (1980) investigated the before and after effects of job redesign. Their research encompassed three methods of job redesign, namely job enrichment, no change and job variety. They established a significant or positive correlation between job satisfaction and job redesign. This confirms Salancik and Pfeffer's (1978:224-253) argument that satisfaction is high when employees' expectations are already compatible with changing work characteristics.

According to Jimmieson et al. (2004:11-27), the main reason why organisations

undergo massive transformation is to change vital organisational structures, processes, systems and working arrangements. However these transformations challenge the traditional customs or status quo, such as job security, career progression or advancement, power and prestige. The implications of these transformations manifest in the form of stress, anxiety, chaos, depression and confusion, among others.

Oreg's (2006:73-101) work on resistance to organisational change indicates that perceived threats to intrinsic motivation, such as autonomy, are positively related to resistance to change. That said, organisational change can threaten the individual's motivation and thus lead to higher resistance to change. This is in line with work based on self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan 1985) which shows that a supportive work environment that promotes autonomy facilitates acceptance of change (Gagné et al. 2000:1843-1852).

Mann and Williams (1960:217-256) suggested that generally happy employees reject change when they perceive that they have more to lose than unhappy employees. In an attempt to explain the link between organisational change and job satisfaction, Schweiger and DeNsi (1991:110-135) suggest that organisational transformations are regarded as the supreme birthplace of work-related traumas and impact workers' lives. In the same vein, Kotter and Cohen (2002) comment that, the real issues of organisational transformation do not concern "strategy, structure, culture, or system", but deciding how to assist employee adaptation to these transformations. Likewise, Schabracq and Cooper (1998:625-648) argue that, when employees perceive that this transformation may lead to inevitable alterations, reassignments, refinements and rearrangements of work processes, systems, functions and procedures, their stress levels tend to rise astronomically. Should employees fail to adjust or adapt to these alterations, insecurities about the unfamiliar future tend to traumatise them, thus creating extreme stress, anxiety and chaos which subsequently negatively influence their job satisfaction.

Wu (2001) argues that once an organisation implements change, workers often become insecure about their jobs, status quos, reporting relationships and associations. The snowballing effects of these insecurities are reflected in their

attitudinal expositions to the organisations. Wu (2001:1) further notes that when organisations contemplate changing, workers are left with no choice but to constantly conceptualise the benefits and threats likely to be presented by change outcomes. These thought processes determine whether change is going to be successful or unsuccessful.

According to Hodge and Johnson (1970) change is likely to be resisted particularly when it has the potential to alter a person's status, level of influence, working relationships and job description. Investigations by Storseth (2004:267-287) show that job insecurity and dissatisfaction are related to an individual's perception of changes. Perceptions of job insecurity increase simultaneously as change continues to threaten an individual's status quo.

Following the above discussion, it is clear that the adverse effects of change are inevitable and include, among others, anxiety, job insecurity, stress, loss of social identity, high absenteeism and high labour turnover. These effects are reflected in employees' levels of job satisfaction and has negative psychological connotations on employees. In line with this reasoning, Hui and Lee (2000:215-232) established that undergoing transformation generally creates negative psychological traumas on employees. These traumas are further exacerbated by negative experiences often associated with change such as fear of losing a job, fear of losing social and economic identity and fear of new roles and responsibilities.

Mael and Ashforth (1992:103-123) define organisational identification as the degree at which an employee identifies himself or herself with the organisation. Organisational identification or satisfaction increases when change is timeously, accurately and openly communicated. Contrastingly, organisational identification or satisfaction decreases when workers lose confidence in the organisation because of insufficient information about change. In support, Reichers et al. (1997:48-66) note that when employees greatly comprehend organisational changes, it is highly likely that they tend to easily identify themselves with the organisation and also actively participate in change management programmes. This in turn enhances organisational effectiveness. Griffeth et al. (2000:577-590) highlight that insecurities about change outcomes leads to job dissatisfaction.

Having ascertained the correlation between change implementation and job satisfaction, and cognisant of the literature reviewed in Chapter Three regarding the correlation between OCB and job satisfaction, there clearly exists a relationship between change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction. Whether positive or negative, the impact which change implementation has on job satisfaction ultimately influences OCB.

A significant proportion of research papers have established a strong correlation between OCB and job satisfaction. In 15 independent studies conducted by Adam (2000:1), a strong correlation was established. Likewise, Organ and Konovsky (1989:157) identified job satisfaction as the only variable with a robust attitudinal correlation with OCB. In agreement, Williams and Anderson (1991:601) asserted that high satisfaction levels encourage employees to display pro-social behaviours which enhance the effective functioning of the organisation. The presence of employee satisfaction signifies the presence of citizen gestures.

In consonance with the aforementioned, Werner (2004:98) maintains that employees only display extra-role behaviours when they perceive that their organisation cares about their wellbeing. In the same line of reasoning, Bateman and Organ (1995:587) note that the extent to which employees display extra-role behaviours is largely determined by their feeling of satisfaction towards their work as compared to the support expended by their leaders or colleagues.

Chiboiwa's (2011) findings concur with the aforesaid research findings. His investigations covering administrative employees of five organisations in Zimbabwe established a moderate correlation between OCB and job satisfaction. Research by Ghazzawi (2008:4) concerning the link between factors that promote job satisfaction or dissatisfaction and the effects or consequences thereof revealed that OCB is an outcome of job satisfaction.

Gadot and Cohen (2004:133) argue in line with social exchange theory that, as a way of expressing their appreciation or satisfaction, employees always reciprocate good leader behaviour by displaying citizenship behaviours. As highlighted previously while discussing social exchange theory, a strong leader-member exchange relationship

cultivates positive attitudes which stimulate employees to engage in OCB.

Concerning the relationship between job satisfaction and a few selected OCB dimensions, research findings indicate that only job satisfaction reflected the inconsistency or discrepancy found only in two variables namely altruism and compliance, of the five OCB variables (Smith et al, 1983; Schnake, 1991:735; Fahr et al., 1997:421). On the contrary, Adam (2000:1) established a strong correlation between job satisfaction and altruism, but not with compliance. Furthermore, Schnake et al. (1995:209) investigated the relationship between perceived equity, leadership, job satisfaction and OCB. Their findings revealed a strong correlation between leadership, perceived equity and OCB, while job satisfaction was only related to two OCB dimensions.

Research studies by other scholars have proposed that the correlation between OCB and job satisfaction is only effectual when accompanied by a moderating factor. In this line of reasoning, Moorman (1991:759) investigated the association between organisational commitment, job satisfaction, procedural justice and OCB. His findings revealed that a correlation between job satisfaction and OCB is only significant when the relationship between procedural justice and OCB is controlled. Furthermore, Moorman (1991:845) notes that when employees' perception of fairness is controlled, the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB is non-existent because the perception of fairness determines whether employees will engage or not engage in OCB. Similar investigations addressing the bond between OCB, job satisfaction and perception of fairness by Organ (1997:85) have revealed that the perception of fairness proved the upsurge in discrepancy in OCB. Research findings by Scholl et al. (1987:113) established a correlation coefficient of 0.41 between pay equity and OCB, and 0.19 between pay satisfaction and OCB. Accordingly, they concluded that justice stimulates OCB, unlike job satisfaction.

While highlighting the correlation between OCB and job satisfaction, numerous scholars have argued that, to enhance the manifestation of organisational citizenship behaviours in an organisation, job satisfaction should be regarded as a mediating or moderating factor. Elaborating upon the aforementioned, Chiu and Chen (2005:523) encourage organisations to create an enabling environment which intrinsically

motivates employees, and in turn stimulates them, to display citizenship behaviours. Podsakoff et al. (2000:513) note that satisfied employees express their satisfaction by displaying extra-role behaviours which go beyond their job descriptions or prescribed roles and responsibilities. With reference to the above, job satisfaction is thus an imperative OCB catalyst.

A number of scholars are still unconvinced about the correlation between OCB and job satisfaction. Adam (2000:1) points out that the complexion of job satisfaction measures causes the correlation between the two variables to be insignificant or non-existent. However, despite the heterogeneous findings at hand, the assumption that OCB correlates with job satisfaction is widely accepted in the body of organisational behaviour.

Following the above discussion, we can therefore conclude that the old adage that job satisfaction significantly correlates with OCB still make sense. Also, whether positive or negative, the relationship between change implementation and job satisfaction holds a knock-on effect on OCB and one can only conclude that there is a significant relationship between change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction.

4.8 CONCLUDING REMARKS

This chapter has brought under the spotlight the concept of job satisfaction. The chapter commenced by discussing various schools of thought regarding the concept with the aim of bringing more clarity and understanding to this field of study. To shed light further, an array of job satisfaction theories, drawn from content and process motivational theories was examined. Like any other workplace attitudes, job satisfaction is triggered by a multiplicity of intrinsic and extrinsic factors and these have been denoted to as antecedents of job satisfaction. Moreover, the chapter discussed the consequences of job satisfaction, various approaches to measuring job satisfaction and concluded by establishing the relationship between change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction.

CHAPTER FIVE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapter discussed the concept of job satisfaction. The chapter outlined the origins of the concept, its significance, theories, and the antecedents guiding the concept, then concluded by highlighting the relationship between change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction.

This section will ascertain the rationale for using the selected research methods or techniques and for matching research design and methods in the present study. To be reviewed are aspects like the research design, research population, sample, sampling procedure, methods of data collection and analysis, an explanation of the research instruments used and how they were administered.

5.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Marvasti (2004:8), research design can be defined as phases which researchers observe while conducting their research studies from the beginning to the end such as soliciting information relevant to the research study, deciding on the research population, gathering research information and presenting the research findings. In the same vein, Kumar (2005:84) suggests that research design refers to a guiding research framework streamlined to provide solutions to complex research problems or questions.

For Leedy and Ormrod (2001), researchers use a research design as a strategy for investigating the research problem. A research design gives a detailed framework of how research should be done, data collected and analysed.

Depending on the researcher's choice, a research design can either be quantitative or qualitative. For Blanche et al. (2006:47), quantitative research involves gathering and analysing research data using numeral or statistical methods. Likewise, Goodwin (2002:521) describes quantitative research as a unique method of presenting research data in the form of numbers or descriptive statistics in order to organise and summarise data in a meaningful way either graphically or numerically and inferential statistics; to

generalise or draw conclusions about the population using probability theory. In the same vein Maree (2007:145) defines quantitative research as a methodical and impartial process of analysing and generalising numerical data or findings collected from a designated subgroups of a universe (or population). The quantitative approach presents a platform for researchers to address and clarify correlations between measured variables, at the same time granting researchers an opportunity to explain, predict and control certain phenomena (Leedy, 2001:67). According to Blanche et al. (2007:132), quantitative research findings may be generalised and the data objectified. Quantitative research is also known as "traditional, experimental, or positivist approach" (Blanche et al., 2007:132).

By contrast, Goodwin (2002:521) notes that qualitative research constitutes "a series of narrative analysis of the research findings with no statistical summaries or analysis". Interviews and observations are chiefly used in qualitative research to obtain research data which enables researchers to "describe individuals, groups and social movements" (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1997:44).

It is against the aforesaid background that the quantitative research method was adopted to ascertain the correlation between change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction.

5.3 RESEARCH STRATEGY

According to Babbie (2007:34), research strategy refers to a methodical approach or plan to research study designed to guide the researcher's efforts and plans such as surveys, experimental studies, exploratory studies and case studies.

This research adopted the survey approach which, according to Goodwin (2002:523) refers to a descriptive method of gathering information about a specific subject matter or topic from an identified research population. The information is solicited by asking or encouraging participants to answer a set of questions about a specific subject. Likewise, the term survey research was defined by McMillan and Schumacher (2001:602) "as the assessment of the current status, opinions, beliefs and attitudes of participants from a known population by questionnaires or interviews". Furthermore it was established that before researchers employ a survey research, there is always a

need for them to first select the sample size. Selecting research participants enables researchers to ascertain information about their "attitudes, values, habits, ideas, demographics, feelings, opinions, perceptions, plans and beliefs" (Maree, 2007:155).

According to Haslam and McGarty (2003:54) the survey method has many advantages which include among others:

- It is easy to administer;
- It gives room to make predictions; and
- It allows researchers to examine numerous research aspects simultaneously within a selected geographical area.

5.4 RESEARCH POPULATION

Research population refers to a pool of possible units or elements of interest which the researcher desires to investigate (McClendon (2004:131). By the same token, Hair et al. (2008) define population as a group of people or events of identifiable interests or specifications to be investigated. These specifications refer to the elements of the target group and the elements that should be included.

The main aim of this research study was to examine the relationship between change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction in the BPO industry in Cape Town, Western Cape, South Africa. The population consisted of managerial (first line, middle and top managers) and non-managerial employees in selected companies in the BPO industry in Cape Town, namely 121 BPO Client Services (Pty) Ltd, Ismart (Pty) Ltd, Summer Mobile (Pty) Ltd and Achievement Awards (Pty) Ltd. The population of the four selected companies in the BPO industry consisted of approximately 1,000 employees.

5.5 SAMPLING FRAME

Sampling frame refers to "a list of individuals or any other record of the population from which the sample is drawn" (Goodwin, 2002:404). For Singh (2007:88), it is "a subset of the population, from which a sample is drawn, which gives a comprehensive framework for selection of sampling units". Sampling frame can also be known as "a list of all eligible sampling units from which a sample will be drawn" (Hair et al., 2008). In addition, Saunders et al. (2003:154) note that the research questions and objectives

of the study determine the form or nature of the sampling frame. For this research study, the sampling frame incorporated both managerial ("first line managers, middle level managers and top level managers") and non-managerial (rank and file employees) from four organisations in the BPO industry based in Cape Town.

5.5.1 Sampling

According to Sangor (2007:106), sampling is a procedure which involves selection of participants for a particular research study with the ultimate objective of using the findings to make extrapolations about the research population. Correspondingly, Durrheim and Painter (2006) as cited by Blanche et al. (2007:133) maintain that sampling involves deciding on various aspects to consider when conducting research. These decisions are often determined by the research problem, questions and objectives.

For Kumar (2005:169), the need to achieve maximum precision and avoid selection bias constitutes the main reason why sampling is paramount for researchers. In support, McClendon (2004:5) asserts that the fundamental reason for sampling is to curtail selection bias. Selection bias simply refers to the probability of selecting some units of the population at the expense of others. The presence of selection bias in any research study causes the sample units not to be factual representatives of the whole population. In the same line of reasoning, Cooper and Schindler, (2003) note that the prime objective of selecting certain components of the population is to allow the researcher to draw inferences.

5.5.2 The sample

According to Gray (2004:405), a sample refers to a subset of a population (substances, occurrence or characters) drawn from a sampling frame. In the same vein, a sample is a "subset of elements from the population which perfectly reflects the true characteristics of the population from which it is taken" (Churchill & Brown, 2004). By the same token, the sample must accurately reflect the characteristics of the population so that inferences can be drawn (Bryman & Bell, 2003:93). In this study, the sample was comprised of employees from both management and non-management levels. Their opinions and preferences were used to provide information concerning the correlation between change implementation, OCB, and job satisfaction

in the BPO industry.

5.5.3 Sampling methods or procedure

Probability and non-probability sampling are the two main basic sampling procedures. For probability sampling, each individual or character has an equal opportunity of being nominated (Spatz & Kardas, 2008:53). The most important characteristics of probability sampling, according to Saunders et al. (2003:156), are that the sample represents the sampling frame, inferences can be drawn and the selection of individuals or characters from the sampling frame is founded on a number of random procedures, such as "cluster sampling, systematic sampling, simple random sampling and stratified random sampling". These are described here:

- Simple random sampling: Entails that each character, person or element of the sampling frame has one and the same opportunity of being nominated or chosen;
- Systematic sampling: Almost parallel to simple random sampling, this involves the selection of each member of the sampling frame according to a pre-set sequence. Instead of depending on random numbers, selection is in accordance with agreed set intervals;
- Stratified random sampling: This involves dividing the target population into mutually exclusive homogenous strata. This type of sampling is more suitable for a heterogeneous population; and
- Cluster sampling: This method is usually prescribed when it is difficult to deduce the holistic characteristics of a given population. Similar to stratified random sampling, the process also involves subdividing the components of the population into identical units known as clusters.

According to Spatz and Kardas (2008) as cited by Chipunza (2009:205), contrary to the probability sampling method, non-probability sampling entails that each individual or character in the sampling frame has an unknown probability of being selected. In this approach, researchers are unable to forecast or guarantee total representation of each population element. Three types of non-probability sampling methods are discussed below:

- Convenient sampling: This process entails the selection of the sampling units on the basis of accessibility or availability. It is also known as the accidental approach because any case, unit or element that accidentally crosses the researcher's path with the potential to contribute substantially to the phenomenon has the probability of being included in the sample;

- Quota sampling: In this approach, selection is purely based on well-defined criteria, such as, among others, age, race, or gender. The process takes into account that the features of the selected sample bear a resemblance to the characteristics of the actual population. The only point of departure in this approach is that it depends heavily on fortuitous selection as an alternative to random selection; and

- Purposive sampling: This method is based on the judgment and extensive research experience of the researcher concerning the characteristics of the sample. The researcher selects units that are considered as common or typical of the group from which the sample is drawn.

Having highlighted the major sampling methods, the researcher considered stratified random sampling which falls under probability random sampling, as the most suitable method for this study because of its simplicity, its scope to generalise results and ability to produce impartial estimates of the population characteristics. For this study, the target population was divided according to departments, for example, the accounting department, human resources department, information technology and finance department, Quality Assurance, Inbound department, Outbound department, Business Analytics department and Back Office department. Each department represented a stratum. To ensure that samples adequately represented the relevant strata (departments), respondents were randomly selected from within each stratum, that is, from each department. Managerial employees from these various departments comprised of first line managers, middle managers and top managers. These groups or strata were formed based on members' shared attributes or characteristics.

5.5.4 Sample size

Sample size generally denotes the number of elements or units that were selected and from which data were gathered. It is an important feature of any empirical study

in which the goal is to draw inferences about a population from a sample. The value and the extent to which inferences can be drawn, or generalisations can be made, are influenced by the sample size (Cant et al., 2003). According to Haslam and McGarty (2003:110), a sample should be representative of, or reflect the true characteristics of a population. They suggest that the larger the sample, the more representative it becomes; and the lesser the sampling bias, the easier it becomes for inferences to be drawn from the parent population (Blanche et al., 2007:49). When determining the sample size, the following points should be considered:

- The degree of accuracy of the results;
- Population size and units of analysis;
- Characteristics of the population under investigation;
- Probable response rate;
- The extend of variability and diversity of the population under investigation; and
- Availability and accessibility of research resources (Blanche et al., 2007:49).

In line with the above, the sample size for this research study was 250 consisting of both managerial and non-managerial employees. Nonetheless, a total number of 260 questionnaires were distributed and 201 usable questionnaires were returned and this was considered as the actual sample size. In this study, the sample was composed of a total number of 41 managerial employees and 160 non-managerial employees (125 females and 76 males) from the four selected organisations in Cape Town. The majority of the employees were between the age group of 20 and 40 years.

5.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical considerations were observed in this research study in order to encourage co-operation from participants and to avoid non-response, incomplete questionnaires and unreliable results. According to Goodwin (2002:516), ethics are moral principles which govern our behaviour or conduct. In addition, Saunders et al. (2003:131) found that key research ethics that are commonly maintained in research studies include, among others, anonymity of participants, confidentiality of information, objectivity, sensitivity

and integrity.

For this research study, below is a list of ethical issues that were observed:

i.   The researcher informed the participants of their right to voluntarily participate and withdraw partially or completely at any given time during this research.

ii. Participants' informed consent was obtained.

iii. Confidentiality of the information was assured. A considerable number of participants were willing to disclose sensitive information on condition that they remain anonymous.

iv. Assurance was given to participants that the gathered information would be used purely for academic purposes and for organisational enhancement. This enabled participants to feel free to give honest and complete information (Saunders et al., 2003:131).

5.7 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

The main instruments used to collect data in this research study were questionnaires. For Hair et al. (2008:170), a questionnaire refers to a form with a list of questions on it and is used to gather data in respect of a specific research project. Questionnaires commonly take two forms, open-ended or closed-ended, and can be further distinguished as self-administered or email-administered questionnaires. For this particular study the researcher used closed ended questionnaires.

The primary reasons for using questionnaires according to Hair et al. (2008:170) are:

i.   Research objectives are easily formulated or constructed into a series of questions for the respondents to answer;

ii. They exhibit common characteristic of the population under investigation;

iii. Research questions are standardised and respond to the same set of questions;

iv. They simplify and quicken the data analysis process because participants respond to the same set of questions;

v.   Questionnaires are very cheap to administer and anonymity is guaranteed.

5.7.1 Research study questionnaires

Only two sets of questionnaires were employed to collect information on change management, organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction. Both questionnaires were accompanied by a covering letter. The letter is the first contact respondents will have with a questionnaire. The objective of having a cover letter is to win the co-operation of respondents by explaining the aim of the survey. Leedy (2001:69) further notes that the purpose of a covering letter is to address the respondents' concerns and convey a sense of authority for the research project. The two questionnaires were divided into four sections as follows:

- Section A required respondents to provide their biographical data relating to their gender, age, work experience, qualification and position.

- Section B of the non-managerial questionnaire contained questions about employees' perception about change implementation or management in the BPO industry whereas Section B of managerial questionnaire required managers to indicate the type of changes experienced by their organisations and their degree of involvement in managing the respective changes. Change management questions were derived from the "Attitudes to Change Questionnaire (ACQ)" which Vakola and Nikolaou (2005) developed.

- Section C of the non-managerial questionnaire contained questions about OCB whereas Section C of the managerial questionnaire required managers to explain how they managed or implemented change initiatives. The list of questions in this section particularly for non-managerial questionnaire were extracted from the research instrument (questionnaire) developed by Konovsky and Organ (1996:255). OCB questions were subdivided into five facets, namely: "altruism, civic virtue, conscientiousness, courtesy and sportsmanship".

- Section D of the non-managerial questionnaire contained questions about employee job satisfaction in the BPO industry whereas Section D of the managerial questionnaire required managers to highlight factors which influence employees' attitude towards change. The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) by Weiss (1966:110) was employed to draw up intrinsic

and extrinsic job satisfaction questions specifically for the non-managerial questionnaire.

5.7.2 Attitudes to Change Questionnaire (ACQ)

The ACQ is designed to measure employees' attitudes towards organisational change. The researcher adopted Vakola and Nikolaou's (2005) instrument which comprised of items referring to general factors influencing employees' and management's attitudes towards change. This was done to measure the factors which influence employees' and management's attitude towards organisational change implementation. The researcher requested participants to rate items on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). In doing so, participants could indicate the extent to which their attitudes towards change were influenced by specific factors. The researcher used a standardised questionnaire that was self-administered and semi-structured. This format enabled the researcher to collect data that could be adapted for statistical purposes (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001).

5.7.3 The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)

MSQ is one of the most common instruments used to measure workers' job satisfaction levels. Three forms of MSQ were developed: two long hundred 100-item questionnaires (the 1967 and 1977 versions) and a short 20-item questionnaire (Spector, 1997:13). The present study adopted 32 relevant questions from the 100-item version related to this research study. The MSQ items or questions were selected on the basis of their applicability to the BPO industry, the extent to which they intrinsically or extrinsically motivate employees and how they relate with or encourage OCB behaviours. Most importantly, special care was taken in formulating the validity of the instrument used so to comply with content, face and construct validity. Like the ACQ, the MSQ also measured items on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from, Highly dissatisfied (1), Dissatisfied (2), Not sure (3), Satisfied (4), to Highly Satisfied (5).

5.7.4 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) questionnaire

The OCB questionnaire was designed to measure employees' engagement in OCB. This questionnaire classified questions into five OCB dimensions namely civic virtue, altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship and conscientiousness. These dimensions were

measured on a five-point Likert scale which ranged from, Strongly Agree (5), Agree (4), Neutral (3), Disagree (2), to Strongly Disagree (1). Examples of questions included on this questionnaire are shown in Table 5.1:

Table 5.1: Sample of questions on OCB

Altruism	I help with heavy workloads
Courtesy	I inform others before taking important action
Civic virtue	I attend functions that are not required but help the company image
Conscientiousness	I do not take extended lunch breaks
Sportsmanship	I can handle work pressure

5.7.5 Reliability and validity of the questionnaire

Questionnaires are vital research instruments. When formulating research questions, researchers need to take into consideration the value or relevance of the information which needs to be gathered. The reliability and validity of the tools which are used to gather this information also need to be tested in order for the research study to be considered as meaningful and relevant.

According to Kalof et al. (2008:156) and Gravetter and Forzano (2003:87) the degree to which the instruments selected for the research study measures accurately and repeatedly what they are intended to measure is known as validity. A good measuring instrument does what it is supposed to do: it measures what it is intended to measure, produces results that reflect the true nature of the population, elements or units under study, and does so consistently and accurately. The same applies to reliability. According to Goodwin (2002:521) reliability can be defined as "the extent to which measures of the same phenomenon are consistent and repeatable". More often than not, errors tend to be minimal when the reliability coefficient is very high (Goodwin, 2002:545).

Attitude towards change was measured using Vakola and Nikolaou's (2005) instrument which comprised of items referring to general factors influencing employees' and management's attitudes towards change. The internal consistency

(Cronbach's Alpha) for overall attitude towards change was 0.92. Research results by Harunavamwe (2010:74) found a strong Cronbach alpha value of 0.85 thus confirming positive reliability.

Research results by Chan et al. (2004:453) reflected that MSQ has strong predictive reliability. They established "an internal median consistency reliability" of 0.83, "whilst the median retest reliability was 0.83". Other scholars such as Larson et al. (1998:47), using the MSQ, established "the internal consistency of their questionnaire ranging from 0.87 to 0.92, with a median of 0.90".

A considerable number of scholars who implemented the OCB questionnaire developed by Konovsky and Organ (1999:255) in their studies found that it has a strong predictive reliability. While investigating the relationship amongst organisational citizenship behaviour, burnout dimensions and altruism, Van Emmeriki et al. (2005:96) found a strong Cronbach alpha value of 0.79, thus confirming positive reliability. For Nadiri and Tanova (2009:31), the internal consistency reliability was 0.63.

5.7.6 Pretesting the questionnaire

Pretesting a questionnaire entails testing the questionnaire with a small or limited number of people before administering it to the actual sample being studied. The process is known as pilot testing. The amount of pilot testing is dependent on the availability of resources, time, population size, project size, research objectives, research questions and the research design (Saunders et al., 2003:308). The primary reasons for pilot testing, according to Saunders et al. (2003:308), are listed below:

i.   To revise a questionnaire should possible flaws or weaknesses be detected;
ii.   To ascertain the likely validity or reliability of the data to be collected;
iii.   To identify ambiguously formulated questions that may generate vague answers; and
iv.   To ascertain the possible research responses or reactions.

For this research study, piloting was done with at least 15 academic staff and human resource professionals in the BPO industry. Feedback from the pilot study exposed the weaknesses of the questionnaires and necessary amendments were made before the questionnaire was distributed to the intended target population. The

questionnaires were also examined by a statistician to ascertain their reliability, validity, usability and practicality in research studies.

5.7.7 Administering the questionnaire

A questionnaire can only be administered to the intended target population once pilot testing and other refinements have been successfully implemented (Saunders et al., 2003:310). Furthermore, Saunders et al. (2003:311) suggest that, before distributing the questionnaire, pre-survey permission to access the respondents should be granted by relevant personnel from the target organisations.

In the present study, two consent letters were forwarded to personnel managers of the four chosen organisations in the BPO industry. One letter had been prepared by the supervisor and the other by the researcher himself; there was also a sample of the questionnaires. Getting management's permission to conduct research was the prime objective. The researcher also intended to provide management considerable time to study the researcher's request and to enlighten their employees about the research study. Once permission had been obtained with the assistance of human resources managers questionnaires were distributed randomly to managerial and non-managerial employees representing different departments within the four target organisations. In order to avoid production disruptions, the process of administering the questionnaires was conducted by the HR departments at their most convenient time during working hours. According to Saunders et al. (2003:314) when employees respond to questionnaires during working hours, researchers are likely to get a very high response rate of 98%. For the present research study, the response rate was 80.4%. The total data collection period was three months.

5.8 DATA ANALYSIS

This present study adopted a quantitative approach to data analysis. This involves the application of numbers to explain, describe or give meaning to the phenomena under investigation (Babbie & Mouton, 2005:646). Statistics has two main streams namely inferential statistics and descriptive statistics. This research study is quantitative and therefore in order to analyse the data, the researcher employed both inferential and descriptive statistical analysis.

Inferential statistics were applied to ascertain the association between the implementation of change, organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction. Applying inferential statistics enhances researchers' ability to draw inferences on the population, elements or units under investigation (Gray, 2004:335). In the same vein, descriptive statistics were applied to explain the significance of demographic data and to unfold the salient features of the data collected from the population under investigation (Goodwin, 2004:516).

Descriptive analysis is used to examine and present data in the form of graphs, frequency distribution or "measures of variability" (Welman & Kruger, 2006). The researcher used a computer programme, Statistical NCSS 9 to collate and code the data. The NCSS 9, statistical software was employed to analyse the data. The researcher used data analysis techniques such as descriptive statistics, frequency tables, cross tabulation and correlations. The researcher used bar graphs and pie charts to present the findings. Thereafter, conclusions were drawn using descriptive statistics and correlations on the correlation between change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction.

5.9 CONCLUDING REMARKS

This section highlighted the appropriate research design approach for this study. This research used a quantitative research approach and a survey research methodology. Aspects such as the population of the study, sampling, sampling procedures, data collection methods and research instruments were also discussed. The next chapter will present and analyse the research findings of this study.

CHAPTER SIX
DATA ANALYSIS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed the research methodology of the study. This chapter presents the findings of the research study. The chapter commences with an overview of the most salient sample characteristics depicted in graphical format. The descriptive and inferential statistical results are presented thereafter. According to Maree (2007:238), the Pearson Product Moment correlation method will ascertain the correlation between change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction.

6.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

6.2.1 BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

The biographical data of 201 (80.4%) of the 250 managerial and non-managerial employees who participated in this research study are presented below, along with clear calculation of their demographic factors, such as age, gender, educational qualifications and tenure.

Figure 6.1 below illustrates the gender distribution of the respondents. The results depict that among managerial employees, 46% (n=19) were females while 54% (n=22) were males: and, of the non-managerial employees, 66.25% (n=106) were females, while 33.7% (n=54) were males.
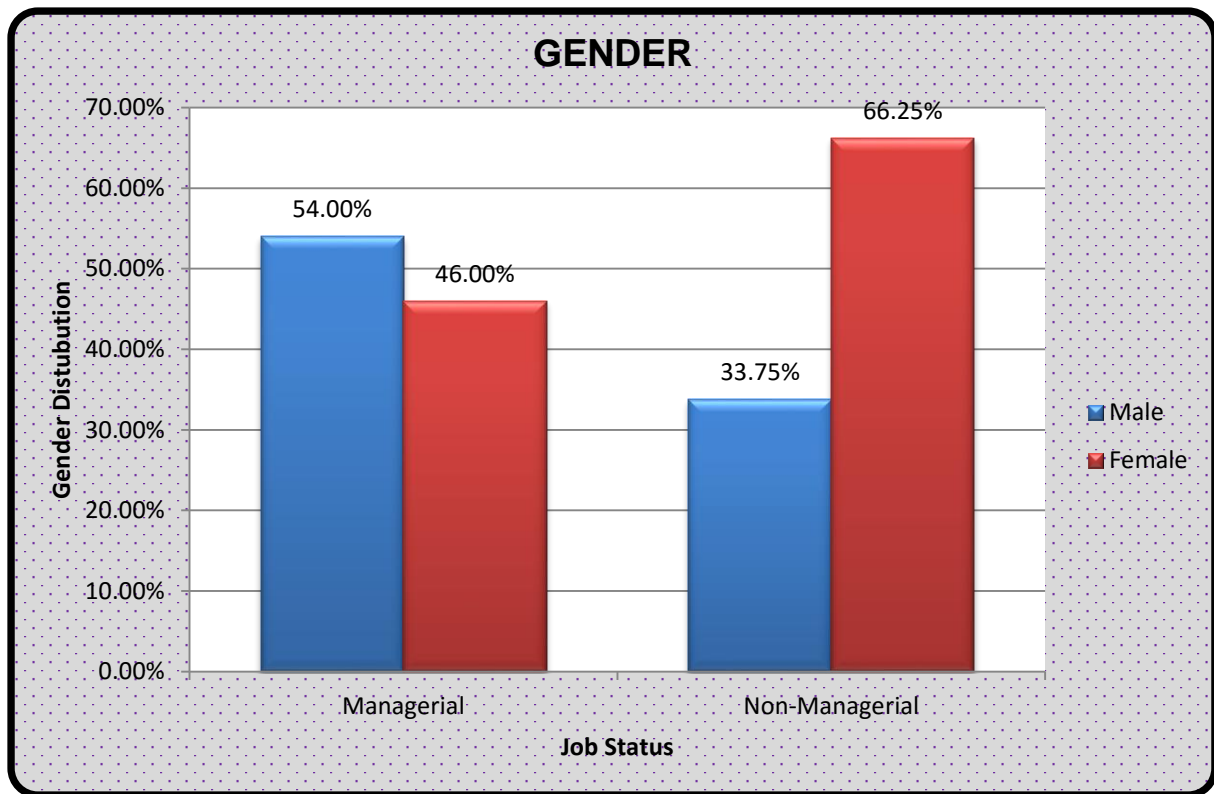
Figure 6.1: Gender Distribution

The age frequency distributions of the respondents are presented graphically in Figure 6.2. It can be seen that, in the managerial category 24.39% (*n*=10) respondents were aged between 20-30 years, 53.66% (*n*=22) were between 31-40 years, 14.63% (*n*=6) were between the age of 41-50, 7.32% (*n*=3) were between the age of 51-60 and there was none above the age of 61-80. For non-managerial employees, 62.50% (*n*=100) of the respondents were in the age group 20-30 years, 26.88% (*n*=43) were between the age of 31-40 years, 6.25% (*n*=10) were between the age of 41-50, 3.13% (*n*=5) were between the age of 51-60, 0.63% (*n*=1) were between the age of 61-70 and 0.63% (*n*=1) were between the age of 71-80.
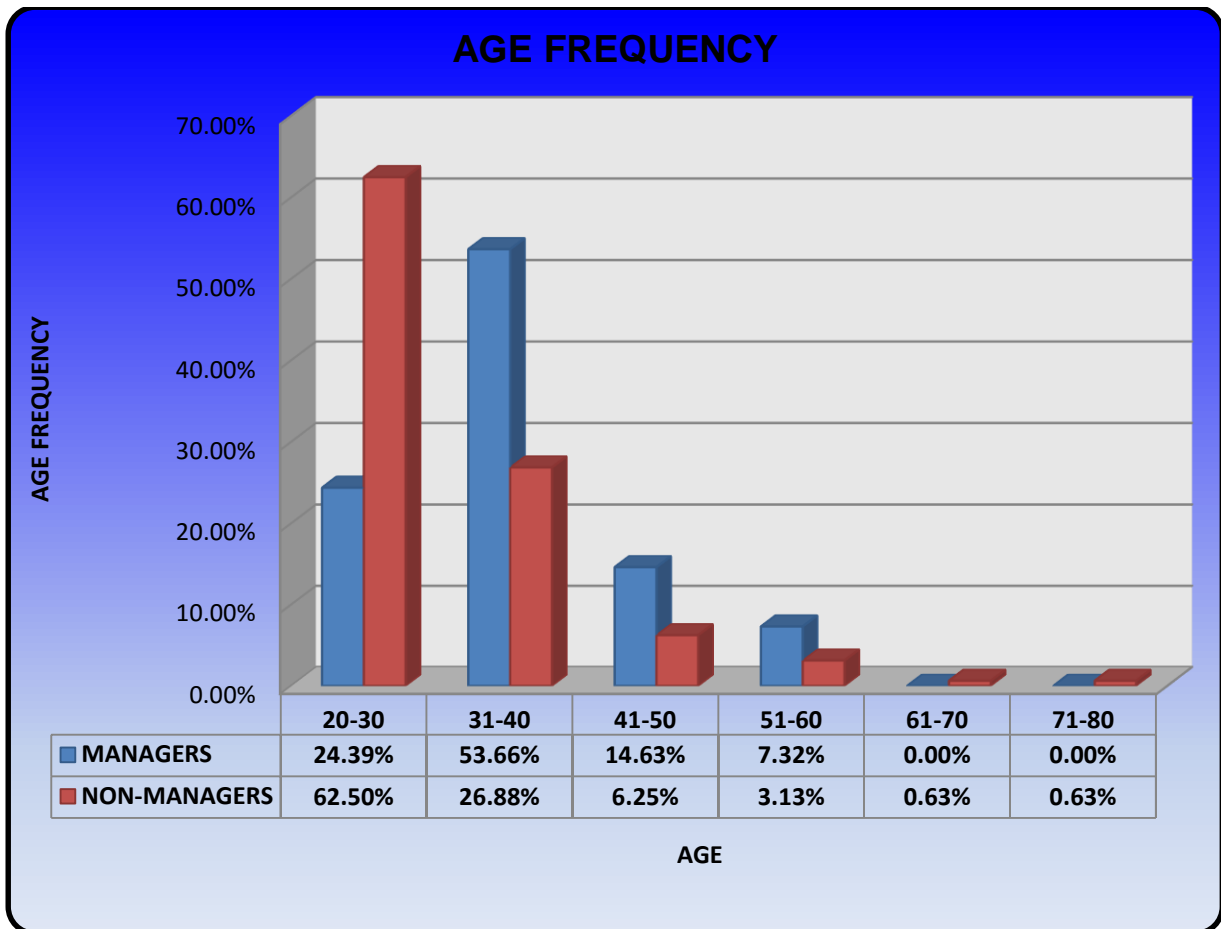
Figure 6.2: Age Frequency

Figure 6.3 below displays the year of service of the respondents. The results indicate that in the managerial category, the largest percentage of respondents, 46.34% (n=19), have 6-10 years of work experience followed by 29.27% (n=12) with more than 10 years of work experience; 21.95% (n=9) have 3-5 years of work experience; and 2.44% (n=1) have 1-2 years of work experience.

For non-managerial employees, the largest percentage of respondents, 32.48% (n=51), have 3-5 years of work experience, followed by (n=39, 24.84%) with more than 10 years of work experience; 15.29% (n=24) have 6-10 and 1-2 years of work experience; and 12.10% (n=19) have less than a year of work experience.
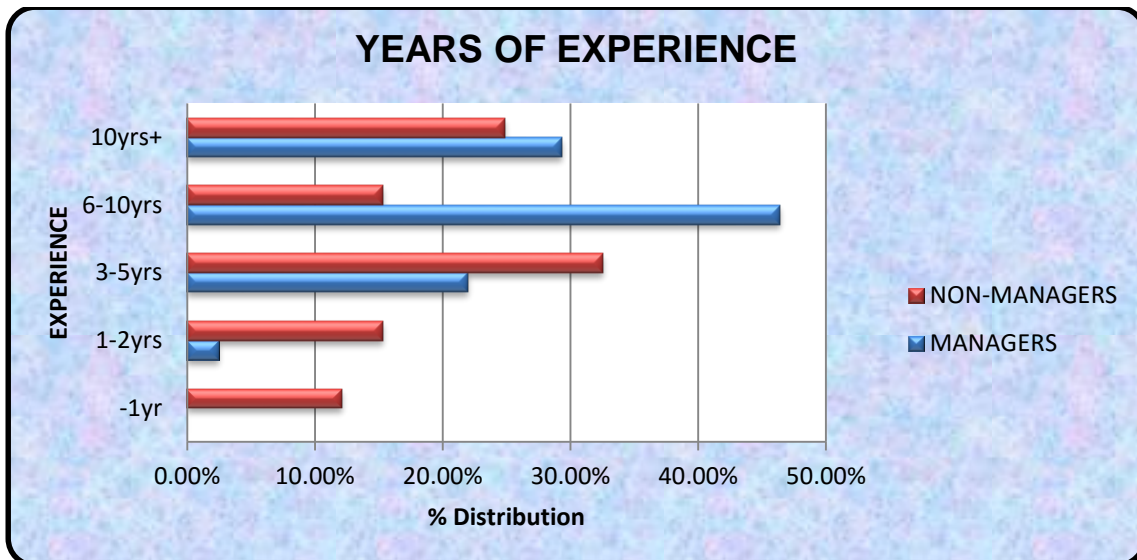
Figure 6.3: Years of experience

Figure 6.4 below highlights the qualification levels of the sample. It is worth noting that 39.02% (*n*=16) of the managers had matric certificates, followed by 31.71% (*n*=13) with diplomas. A small cluster of managers were highly educated with degrees (14.63%, *n*=6) and one (2.44%, *n*=1) with a postgraduate qualification. Thirteen percent, (13%, *n*=5) of the managers had professional certificates. With reference to non-managerial employees, the majority of them had matric certificates (62.50%, *n*=100); 17.50% (n=28) had professional certificates; a small group had tertiary qualifications, 13.75% (*n*=22) had diplomas, 5% (*n*=8) had degrees and 1.25% (*n*=2) had postgraduate qualifications.

Figure 6.4: Qualification levels

Figure 6.5 below highlights the position of managers who participated in this research study: 58.55% (*n*=23) were mid-level managers and 41.47% (*n*=18) were first line managers. None of the top level managers partook in this research study.
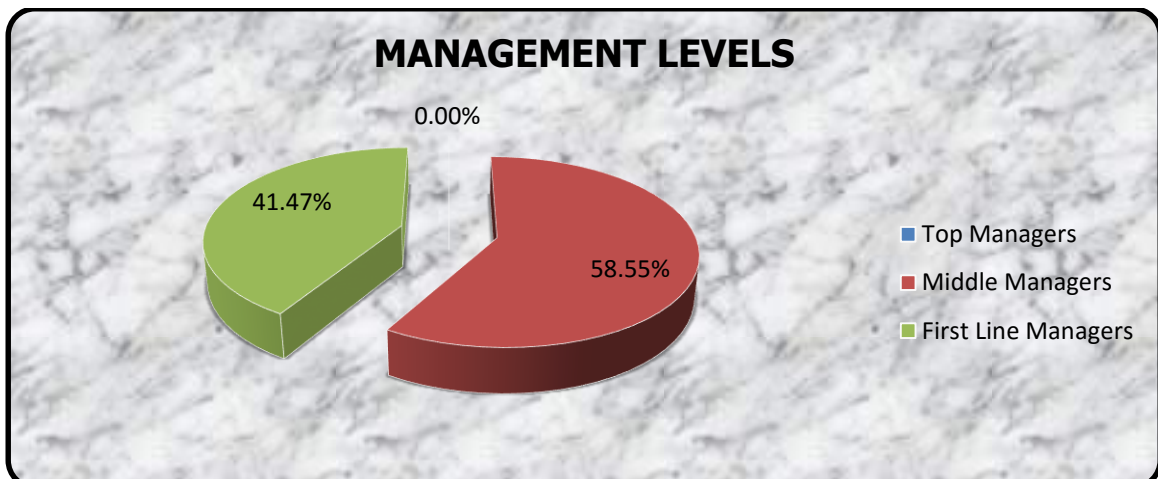
Figure 6.5: Management levels

Concerning the occupation of non-managerial employees, Figure 6.6 below indicates that, the majority of the non-managerial employees were contact centre consultants

(75.64%, *n*=121), followed by administrators (17.52%, *n*=28); then IT technicians (3.15%, *n*=5). Logistics and office assistants were the lowest in number, with the former 1.89% (*n*=3) and the latter having 1.88% (*n*=3).
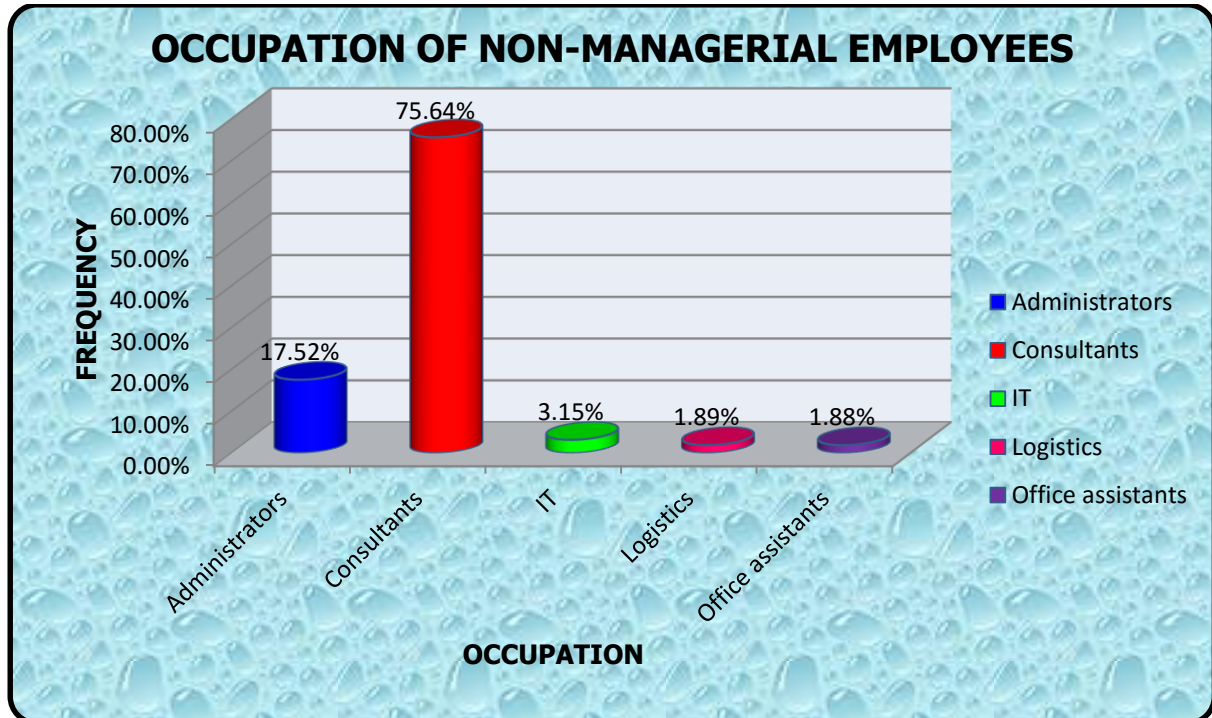
Figure 6.6: Occupation of non-managerial employees

6.2.2 MEASURES OF CENTRAL TENDENCY AND DISPERSION

Measures of central tendency or dispersion are often known as averages. An average is a distinctive representative value of set data (Spiegel & Lindstrom (2000:12). In this research study, these distinctive representative values were used to determine the nature of the relationship between the implementation of change, satisfaction levels and OCB in the BPO industry. The Likert scale was used to determine whether the nature of change implementation and levels of OCB or job satisfaction levels was high, moderate or low. As discussed in Chapter Five, the Likert scale measured items on a five-point scale ranging from Highly dissatisfied (1), Dissatisfied (2), Not sure (3), Satisfied (4), to Highly Satisfied (5); it also measured items ranging from Strongly Disagree (1), Disagree (2), Neutral (3), Agree (4), to Strongly Agree (5). Statistics (highlighted in the tables and graphs to follow) denote a negative inclination towards change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction when the mean value is lower than 3, whereas mean values greater than 3 indicate a positive inclination.

6.2.2.1 THE NATURE OF CHANGE IMPLEMENTATION IN THE BPO INDUSTRY

Table 6.1: Descriptive statistics of the types of change to which managers were exposed

TYPES OF CHANGE	Frequency (Yes)	Valid Percentage %	Frequency (No)	Valid Percentage %
X6A01: Introduction of new technology	35	87.50%	5	12.50%
X6A02: Re-organisation of work	40	97.56%	1	2.44%
X6A03: Transformation of work processes	40	97.56%	1	2.44%
X6A04: Introduction of new products or services	37	90.24%	4	9.76%
X6A05: Leadership change	38	92.68%	3	7.32%
X6A06: Total Quality Management	14	38.89%	22	61.11%
X6A07: Mergers and Acquisitions	11	30.56%	25	69.44%
X6A08: Introduction of new ideas or initiatives	38	92.68%	3	7.32%
X6A09: Organisational restructuring	34	82.93%	7	17.07%
X6A10: Business process re-engineering	27	75.00%	9	25.00%
X6A11: Organisational growth	33	84.62%	6	15.38%
X6A12: Organisational downsizing	29	70.73%	12	29.27%

Table 6.1 above highlights the descriptive statistics of the types of change to which managers in the BPO industry were exposed. In table 6.2 below, it can be seen that the majority of the managers experienced, or were exposed to, all forms of change listed above, but only a small percentage witnessed, or were exposed to, Total Quality Management [38.89% (n=14)] and Mergers and Acquisitions [30.56% (n=11)]. For the majority who witnessed or experienced change, the statistical distribution of their exposure to change ranges from 70.73% to 97.56%.

To further explore the level of knowledge that managerial employees possess about change and the degree or extent of their involvement, Table 6.2 depicts that managers were involved in most of the change implementation programmes, even though their degree of involvement varied from 'Highly involved' to 'Slightly involved'.

Table 6.2: Descriptive statistics for rate of management involvement

TYPE OF CHANGE	RATE OF INVOLVEMENT				
	Not Involved	Slightly Involved	Moderately Involved	Highly Involved	Not Sure
X6B01: Introduction of new technology	2.78%	47.22%	27.78%	16.67%	5.56%
X6B02: Re-organisation of work	0.00%	42.50%	37.50%	17.50%	2.50%
X6B03: Transformation of work processes	0.00%	45.00%	42.50%	12.50%	0.00%
X6B04: Introduction of new products or services	0.00%	37.84%	40.54%	10.81%	10.81%
X6B05: Leadership change	2.63%	31.58%	28.95%	23.68%	13.16%
X6B06: Total Quality Management	27.78%	22.22%	5.56%	33.33%	11.11%
X6B07: Mergers and Acquisitions	31.25%	31.25%	6.25%	18.75%	12.50%
X6B08: Introduction of new ideas or initiatives	0.00%	34.21%	47.37%	18.42%	0.00%
X6B09: Organisational restructuring	2.94%	23.53%	35.29%	20.59%	17.65%
X6B10: Business process re-engineering	15.63%	28.13%	37.50%	9.38%	9.38%
X6B11: Organisational growth	2.94%	35.29%	41.18%	14.71%	5.88%
X6B12: Organisational downsizing	0.00%	20.69%	41.38%	17.24%	20.69%

The statistics depicted in the two tables above therefore reflect that there has been ongoing change within the BPO industry and both middle and first line managers have been involved and thus hold significant change management knowledge.

Figure 6.7 below is a graphical representation of Table 6.1 and 6.2 depicting the type of change to which managers in the BPO industry were exposed and their involvement in change management programmes.
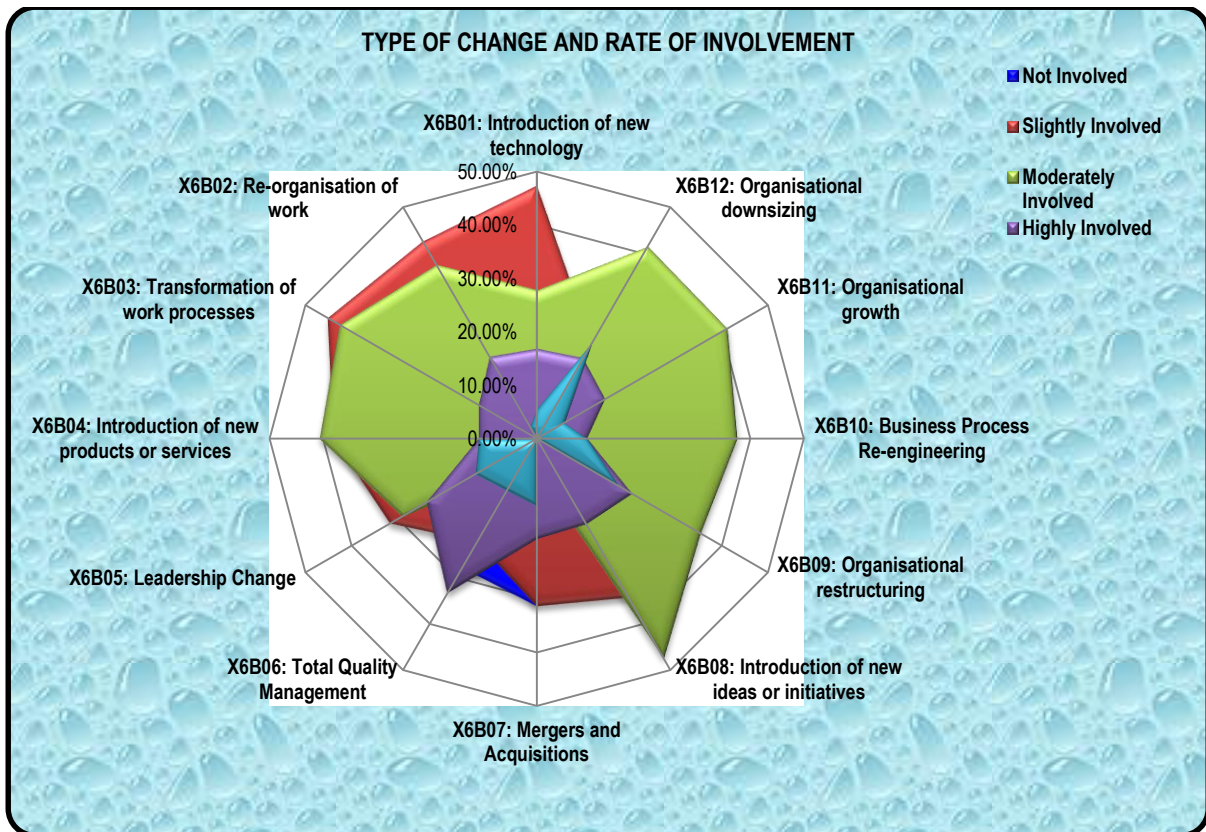
Figure 6.7: Type of change and rate of management involvement

Figure 6.8 depicts managers' perception about the statement, *"Change is ambiguous, tiresome, time consuming and disturbs the smooth flow of processes in the organisation"*. The statistics above indicate that 14.63% (*n*=6) strongly disagreed, 31.71% (*n*=13) disagreed, 9.76% (*n*=4) strongly agreed, 9.76% (*n*=4) agreed and 34.15% (*n*=14) were neutral. Of the forty-one (41) managers, nineteen (19) disagreed with the notion raised in question 7, only 8 agreed and fourteen (14) could not either agree or disagree.
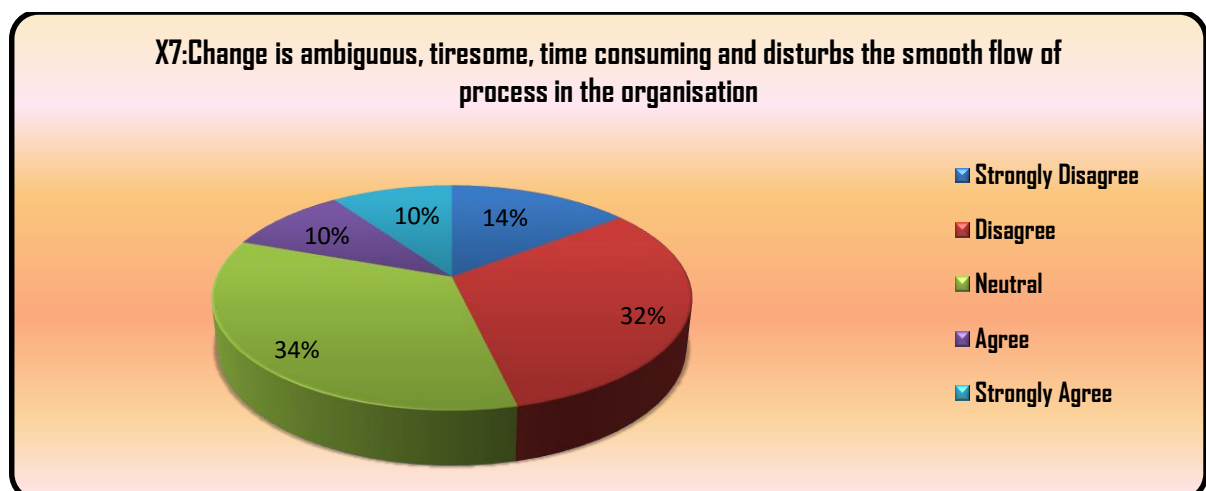
Figure 6.8: Change is ambiguous, tiresome, time consuming and disturbs the smooth flow of processes in the organisation

Concerning empowerment to decide on what change to implement, Figure 6.9 shows that 5% of the managers strongly disagreed, 10% disagreed, 41% were neutral, 24% agreed and 20% strongly agreed.
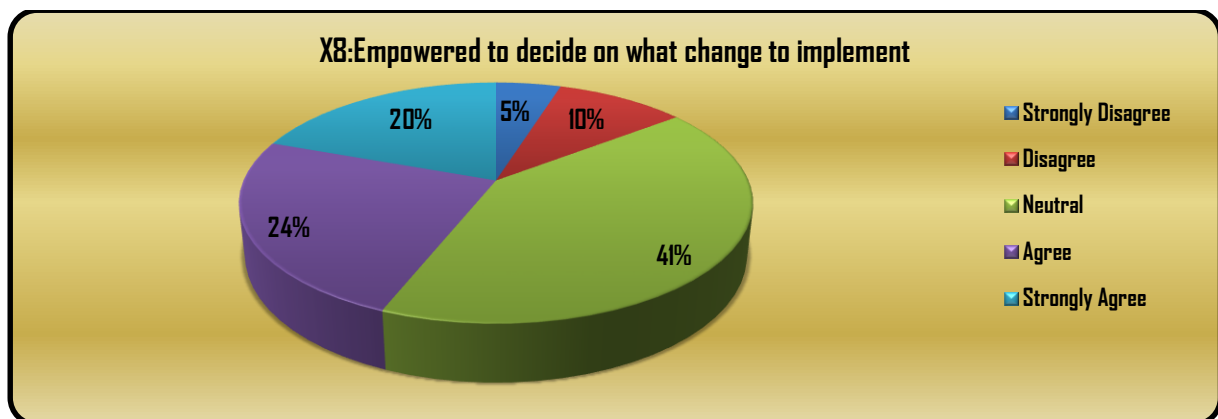
Figure 6.9: Empowered to decide on what change to implement

Figure 6.10 indicates that 51% of the managers adjusted to change to a smaller extent, 22% adjusted to a medium extent, 27% to large extent, while 0% of the managers failed to adjust. With regards to non-managerial employees 22% adjusted to a smaller extent, 42% adjusted to a medium extent, 29% to a larger extent and only 7% never adjusted.
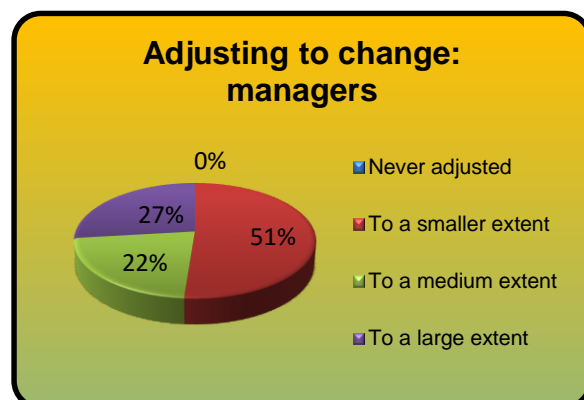
Figure 6.10a: Adjusting to change
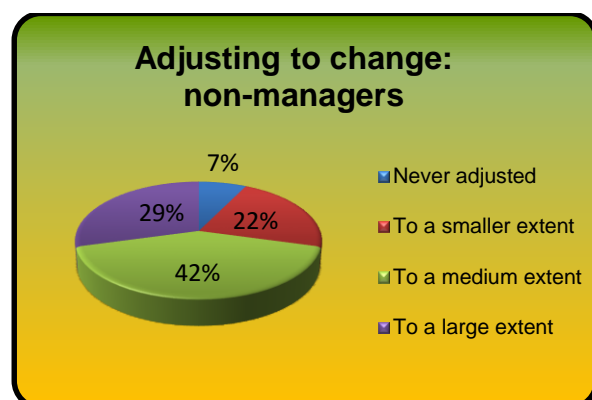
Figure 6.10b: Adjusting to change

The statistics in Table 6.3 below illustrate the mean value of each question, from question 11 to question 40. These questions were segmented into six fragments, that is: shared change vision, communication, upline support, compensation systems,

training, and feedback. The arithmetic mean score of each segment or dimension was calculated, as highlighted below, with a view to determine the nature of change implementation as professed by the managerial workforce.

Table 6.3: Descriptive statistics for change implementation (Managerial employee perception)

Change Initiative Variables	Average Mean	Standard Deviation	Cronbach's Alpha
Shared Change Vision	3.40	5.23	0.89
Communication	3.72	3.96	0.87
Upline Support	3.89	4.01	0.81
Compensation Systems	3.85	0.81	0.93
Training	3.68	2.94	0.84
Feedback	3.60	3.60	0.88

Table 6.3 highlights the perception of managers concerning the nature of change implementation in the BPO industry. The highest mean value was for Upline support (Mean = 3.89, SD = 4.01, Cronbach' alpha = 0.81), followed by compensation system (Mean = 3.85, SD = 0.81, Cronbach' alpha = 0.93); then Communication (Mean = 3.72, SD = 3.96, Cronbach's alpha = 0.87); Training (Mean = 3.68, SD = 2.94, Cronbach's alpha = 0.84); Feedback (Mean = 3.60, SD = 3.60, Cronbach's alpha = 0.88); and Shared change vision (Mean = 3.40, SD = 5.23, Cronbach's alpha = 0.89).

In line with Table 6.3, it is notable that the mean values are predominantly concentrated between 3 and 4, thus reflecting a moderate positive inclination towards change implementation, denoting that managerial employees were relatively or moderately content with the change initiatives at their disposal.

In other words, managers acknowledged that they always have a change vision, communicate change intentions, encourage employee participation and involvement, recognise and reward employee change efforts, adequately train, and provide necessary change feedback to their subordinates.
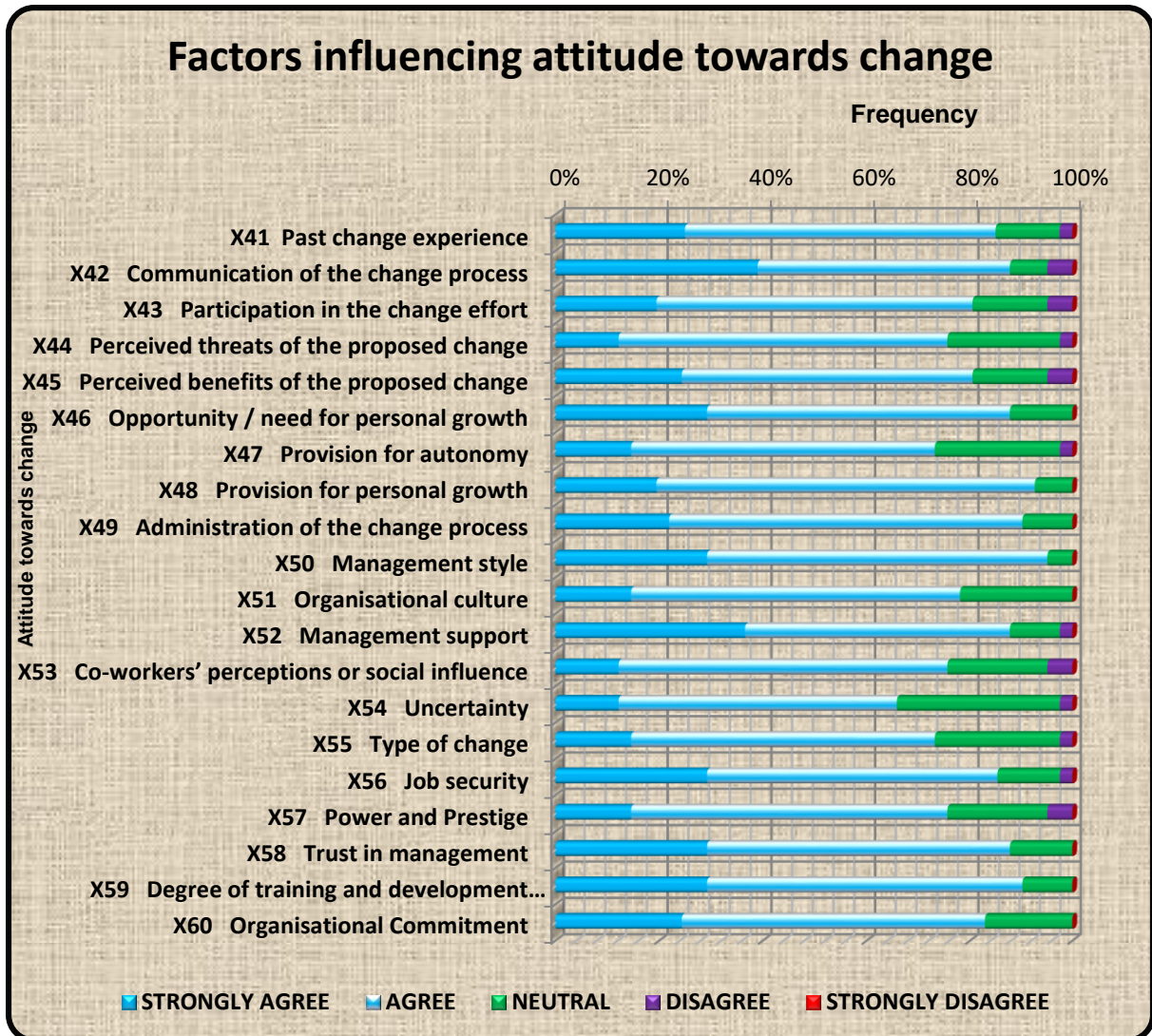
Figure 6.11: Factors influencing attitude towards change

This figure reflects management perspectives regarding factors that influence attitude towards change. The graph denotes that all the factors listed positively influence attitude towards change implementation.

For question 41 to 60, managers were tasked to indicate whether the listed factors were significant contributors of attitude towards change implementation. Statistics in Figure 6.11 clearly display that a greater proportion of managers either 'Strongly agreed' or 'Agreed' with the factors listed above, while a smaller proportion were 'Neutral', meaning that they were not sure whether they should agree or disagree. An insignificant proportion 'Disagreed' or 'Strongly disagreed' with the factors listed above. One can therefore conclude that all the factors listed in Figure 6.11 have potential to determine either the success or failure of change programmes and thus

should not be overlooked.

Having highlighted the demographic statistics of managerial and non-managerial employees and also presented the types of change experienced by managers in the BPO industry, their degree of involvement in change implementation, their ability to adjust to various change programmes, their perspectives on change management and factors that influence change, the descriptive statistics below reflect non-managerial employees' perspectives about change implementation in the BPO industry.

The statistics in Table 6.4 below illustrate the mean value of each question from question 6 to question 29. These questions were segmented into six fragments that is shared change vision, communication, upline support, compensation systems, training and feedback. The arithmetic mean score of each segment or dimension was calculated as highlighted below in order to determine the nature of change implementation as perceived by non-managerial employees.

Table 6.4: Descriptive statistics for change implementation (non-managerial employees' perceptions)

Change Initiative Variables	Average Mean	Standard Deviation	Cronbach's Alpha
Shared Change Vision	3.37	4.88	0.92
Communication	3.25	4.05	0.86
Upline Support	3.04	3.36	0.86
Compensation Systems	3.26	2.03	0.87
Training	3.28	1.64	0.64
Feedback	3.46	3.02	0.86

Table 6.4 above highlights the descriptive statistics for the dimensions of a change management initiative. The highest mean value was for Feedback (Mean = 3.46, *SD* = 3.02, Cronbach' alpha = 0.86), followed by Shared change vision (Mean = 3.37, *SD* = 4.88, Cronbach' alpha = 0.92), Training (Mean = 3.28, *SD* = 1.64, Cronbach's alpha = 0.64), Compensation system (Mean = 3.55, *SD* = 2.95, Cronbach's alpha = 0.87), Communication (Mean = 3.25, *SD* = 4.05, Cronbach's alpha = 0.86) and Upline support (Mean = 3.04, *SD* = 3.36, Cronbach's alpha = 0.86).

With reference to Table 6.5 below it is notable that the mean values are predominantly concentrated between 3 and 3.5, thus reflecting a moderate positive inclination towards change implementation, and implying that non-managerial employees were relatively or moderately satisfied with the change initiatives at their disposal.

In other words, non-managerial employees confirmed that their superiors do share their change vision, timeously communicate change intentions, encourage employee participation and involvement in change programmes, recognise and reward employee change efforts, adequately train employees and provide necessary change feedback to their subordinates.

6.2.2.3 RESULTS FOR ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR SURVEY

Table 6.5 presents organisational citizenship behaviours of non-managerial employees. The statistics depict the mean value of each question from question 30 to question 58. In order to simplify the analysis of OCB in the BPO industry, these questions were segmented into five dimensions, namely: altruism (questions 30-34), civic virtue (questions 35-38), conscientiousness (questions 39-43), sportsmanship (questions 44-50) and courtesy (questions 51-58). The mean value or average mean score of each question, or each segment or dimension, was calculated as highlighted below in order to determine the nature of OCB.

Table 6.5: Descriptive statistics for OCB

OCB Variables	Average Mean	Standard Deviation	Cronbach's Alpha
Altruism	3.91	2.78	0.80
Civic Virtue	3.55	2.95	0.75
Conscientiousness	4.13	3.11	0.766
Sportsmanship	2.86	4.02	0.65
Courtesy	3.85	3.70	0.64
Overall OCB	**3.66**	**3.31**	**0.72**

Table 6.5 above provides the descriptive statistics for the dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour. The highest mean value was for Conscientiousness (Mean = 4.13, SD = 3.11, Cronbach' alpha = 0.766), followed by Altruism (Mean = 3.91, SD = 2.78, Cronbach' alpha = 0.80); then Courtesy (Mean = 3.85, SD = 3.70, Cronbach's

alpha = 0.64), Civic virtue (Mean = 3.55, *SD* = 2.95, Cronbach's alpha = 0.75) and, lastly, Sportsmanship (Mean = 2.86, *SD* = 4.02, Cronbach's alpha = 0.65). Overall, the average organisational citizenship was 3.66, with a standard deviation of 3.31 and Cronbach's alpha of 0.72.

6.2.2.4 RESULTS FOR JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY

Table 6.6 below presents the job satisfaction status in the BPO industry. The mean values of each question, from question 59 to question 92, are well depicted in the Appendices section. These questions were segmented into two, namely; Extrinsic job satisfaction (questions 59-73 and 77-78) and Intrinsic job satisfaction (questions 74-76 and 79-92), for the purpose of simplifying the analysis of job satisfaction in the BPO industry.

Table 6.6: Descriptive statistics for job satisfaction

OCB Variables	Average Mean	Standard Deviation	Cronbach's Alpha
Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	3.31	12.48	0.94
Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	3.34	10.72	0.91
Overall Job Satisfaction	**3.32**	**11.60**	**0.92**

The descriptive statistics for extrinsic job satisfaction is as follows: Mean = 3.31, *SD* = 12.48, Cronbach's alpha = 0.94: and for intrinsic job satisfaction is: Mean = 3.34, *SD* = 10.72, Cronbach's alpha = 0.91. Overall, the average for job satisfaction is 3.32 with a standard deviation of 11.60 and Cronbach's alpha = 0.92. The results depict a positive inclination towards job satisfaction and a very high or strong level of internal consistency.

6.3 INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

In this section, the outcomes of the inferential statistics instituted in this research are highlighted. Sekaran (2000:401) describes the value of inferential statistics: "Inferential statistics allow researchers to infer from the data through analysis of the relationship between two variables; differences in variables among different subgroups, and how several independent variables might explain the variance in a dependent variable".

Inferential statistics were adopted to test the research aims or objectives which are:

i. To examine the nature of the implementation of change in the BPO industry;

ii. To determine the effects of the implementation of change on OCB and job satisfaction in the BPO industry; and

iii. To examine the relationship between change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction.

Correlation coefficients are used to examine relationships between two or more quantitative or numerical variables. They measure the degree or extent of connectivity between variable and nature of the correlation (Cooper & Schindler, 2003:231-236).

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2001:4), "the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient, sometimes called the Pearson r is the most common of all correlation techniques". In this study, the Pearson r was adopted to establish the correlation between change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction because the method measures the strength of agreement or the direction of a relationship connecting quantitative/numerical variables.

The strength or weakness of the relationship between variables under study is reflected by the descriptive statistic, often referred to as the correlation coefficient which ranges from -1 to +1, with -1 indicating negative correlation, 0 indicating no relationship, and +1 denoting positive correlation, (Goodwin, 2002:286). Conclusions or decisions are then established about the population from which the sample was taken and with reference to the research objectives or hypotheses.

Table 6.7 below presents the Pearson Product Moment correlation matrix representing the relationship between change management initiative variables and OCB variables.

Table 6.7: The Pearson product moment correlation matrix between change implementation and OCB

	Altruism	Civic Virtue	Conscientiousness	Sportsmanship	Courtesy	
Shared Change Vision	0.219582	0.344233	0.164749	-0.486652	0.326517	r
	0.005273	0.000008	0.037358	0	0.000025	p-value
	160	160	160	160	160	Number
Communication	0.19542	0.338618	0.117486	-0.448282	0.308771	
	0.01327	0.000012	0.138987	0	0.000071	
	160	160	160	160	160	
Upline Support	0.242689	0.301344	0.128127	-0.444456	0.287116	
	0.001988	0.000108	0.106387	0	0.000232	
	160	160	160	160	160	
Compensation Systems	0.196882	0.328461	-0.023182	-0.471366	0.180962	
	0.012584	0.000022	0.771075	0	0.022021	
	160	160	160	160	160	
Training	0.102559	0.364282	0.125558	-0.375002	0.309101	
	0.196872	0.000002	0.113646	0.000001	0.00007	
	160	160	160	160	160	
Feedback	0.105308	0.282291	0.141425	-0.395955	0.288266	
	0.185073	0.000299	0.074447	0	0.000219	
	160	160	160	160	160	

In terms of Table 6.7, it can be seen that there is a positive but moderate relationship between the majority of change management initiative variables and OCB variables, with the exception of sportsmanship which has a negative correlation with all change variables, and conscientiousness, which recorded a negative relationship only with compensations system (r=-0,0232, p=0.7711). Table 6.7 depicts positive relationships between shared change vision and altruism (r=0.2196, p=0.0053), civic virtue (r=0.3442, p=0), conscientiousness (r=0.1647, p=0.0374) and courtesy (r=0.3265, p=0). Positive relationship were also recorded between communication and altruism (r=1.954, p=0.0132), civic virtue (r=0.3386, p=0), conscientiousness (r=0.1175, p=0.1390) and courtesy (r=0.3088, p=0). Upline support recorded a strong correlation with altruism (r=0.2427, p=0.0020), civic virtue (r=0.3013, p=0.0001), conscientiousness (r=0.1281, p=0.1064) and courtesy (r=0.2871, p=0.0002). In addition, there were significant relationships between compensation systems and altruism (r=0.1969, p=0.0126), civic virtue (r=0.3285, p=0) and courtesy (r=0.1810, p=0.0220). Furthermore, training also recorded significant correlations with altruism

(r=0.1026, p=0.1969), civic virtue (r=0.3642, p=0) conscientiousness (r=0.1256, p=0.1136) and courtesy (r=0.3091, p=0.0001). Lastly, feedback recorded significant correlations with altruism (r=0.1053, p=0.1551), civic virtue (r=0.2823, p=0.0003), conscientiousness (r=0.1414, p=0.0744) courtesy (r=0.2883, p=0.0002).

Table 6.8 below presents the Pearson Product Moment correlation matrix representing the correlation between change management initiative variables and job satisfaction variables.

Table 6.8: The Pearson product moment correlation matrix between change implementation and job satisfaction

	Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	
Shared Vision	0.701132	0.59356	r
	0	0	p-value
	160	160	number
Communication	0.753491	0.632876	
	0	0	
	160	160	
Upline Support	0.697741	0.542619	
	0	0	
	160	160	
Compensation Systems	0.620638	0.533068	
	0	0	
	160	160	
Training	0.659433	0.562884	
	0	0	
	160	160	
Feedback	0.606531	0.499425	
	0	0	
	160	160	

The results indicated in Table 6.8 depict a strong or high positive correlation between the implementation of change initiative variables and job satisfaction variables. In terms of Table 6.8, there were significant relationships between extrinsic job satisfaction and shared change vision (r=0.7011, p=0), communication (r=0.7535, p=0), upline support (r=0.6977, p=0), compensation systems (r=0.6206), training (r=0.6594, p=0), as well as feedback (r=0.6065, p=0). In addition, there were

statistically significant relationships between intrinsic job satisfaction and shared change vision (r=0.5936, p=0), communication (r=0.6329, p=0), upline support (r=0.5426, p=0), compensation systems (r=0.5331, p=0), training (r=0.5629, p=0) and feedback (r=0.4994, p=0).

Table 6.9 below presents the Pearson Product Moment correlation matrix representing the relationship between job satisfaction variables and OCB variables.

Table 6.9: The Pearson product moment correlation matrix between job satisfaction and OCB variables

	Altruism	Civic Virtue	Conscientiousness	Sportsmanship	Courtesy	
Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	0.136522	0.341985	0.081492	-0.572679	0.270467	r
	0.085177	0.00001	0.305635	0	0.000542	p-value
	160	160	160	160	160	Number
Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	0.260378	0.318447	0.09588	-0.504899	0.284687	
	0.185073	0.000299	0.074447	0	0.000219	
	160	160	160	160	160	

Table 6.9 denotes a positive but moderate correlation between OCB variables and job satisfaction variables with the exception of sportsmanship that has a negative correlation with both extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction.

Positive relationships were recorded as follows: altruism versus extrinsic job satisfaction (r=0.1365, p=0.0852) and intrinsic job satisfaction (r=0.2604, p=0.1851); civic virtue versus extrinsic job satisfaction (r=0.3420, p=0) and intrinsic job satisfaction (r=0.3184, p=0.0003); conscientiousness versus extrinsic job satisfaction (r=0.0815, p=0.3056) and intrinsic job satisfaction (r=0.0959, p=0.0744); and courtesy versus extrinsic job satisfaction (r=0.2705, p=0.0005) and intrinsic job satisfaction (r=0.2847, p=0.0002). Only sportsmanship depicted a negative relationship with both extrinsic job satisfaction (r=-0.5727, p=0) and intrinsic job satisfaction (r=-0.5049, p=0).

Table 6.10 below illustrates the overall reliability matrix between change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction.

Table 6.10: Overall reliability matrix between change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction

RELIABILITY SECTION		Standard	Total	Total	Coef	Corr	Other
Variable	Mean	Deviation	Mean	Std.Dev.	Alpha	Total	Items
Change	3.29365	0.7096828	6.988213	0.7568033	0.2094	0.7202	0.5916
OCB	3.659235	0.3463004	6.622628	1.255587	0.8627	0.1766	0.0364
Job Satisfaction	3.328978	0.6267816	6.952885	0.8468612	0.261	0.697	0.5843
Total			10.28186	1.360145	0.6759		
Cronbach's Alpha 0.675866 Std. Cronbach's Alpha 0.632256							

Table 6.11: Correlation matrix between change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction

CORRELATION SECTION	Change Implementation	OCB	Job Satisfaction
Change Implementation	1	0.19	0.76
OCB	0.19	1	0.14
Job Satisfaction	0.76	0.14	1
Cronbach's Alpha 0.675866 Std. Cronbach's Alpha 0.632256			

Table 6.11 shows a positive relationship between change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction. Change implementation recorded a positive but moderate relationship with OCB (r=0.19), whereas with job satisfaction (r=0.76), it reported a very strong or positive correlation. OCB versus job satisfaction recorded a positive but moderate relationship (r= 0.14).

The correlation matrix between change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction was recalculated with the exclusion of one OCB variable, namely sportsmanship which negatively correlated with all the variables, as highlighted in Tables 6.7, 6.8 and 6.9. The idea was to ascertain whether, in the absence of sportsmanship, change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction could record a very strong positive relationship. Table 6.12 and 6.13 below highlight the recalculated findings.

Table 6.12: Reliability matrix between change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction (sportsmanship excluded)

RELIABILITY SECTION		Standard	Total	Total	Coef	Corr	Other
Variable	Mean	Deviation	Mean	Std. Dev.	Alpha	Total	Items
Change Implementation	3.29365	0.709683	7.050225	0.880751	0.5953	0.7497	0.5981
Job Satisfaction	3.32898	0.626782	7.014897	0.955391	0.5635	0.7606	0.6018
OCB_Negative	3.72127	0.389813	6.622628	1.255587	0.8627	0.4986	0.2491
Total			10.34387	1.488802	0.7905		
Cronbach's Alpha 0.790473			Std. Cronbach's Alpha 0.797248				

Table 6.13: Correlation matrix between change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction (sportsmanship excluded)

CORRELATION SECTION	Change Implementation	Job Satisfaction	OCB_Negative
Change Implementation	1	0.7644	0.4648
Job Satisfaction	0.7644	1	0.4725
OCB_Negative	0.4648	0.4725	1
Cronbach's Alpha 0.790473	Std. Cronbach's Alpha 0.797248		

Table 6.13 depicts a slight improvement in the correlation between change implementation and OCB (r=0.4648), as well as between OCB and job satisfaction (r=0.4725). However, even though there is an improvement, the overall correlation matrix between change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction remains positive but moderate.

6.4 CONCLUDING REMARKS

This chapter has presented a synopsis of the essential findings which emerged from the empirical analysis. The ensuing chapter presents a discussion of the findings and compares results obtained with other studies conducted in this field.

CHAPTER SEVEN
DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This section will discuss in detail the findings presented in Chapter 6 and integrate these with relevant literature. In addition, this chapter will expound upon some of the limitations of the study and suggestions for future research will be addressed. The information and discussions presented in the preceding chapters form the basis upon which the present research findings will be scrutinised and construed. The main objective of this chapter is to ascertain the relationship between change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction.

7.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE SAMPLE

The sample consisted of 250 managerial and non-managerial employees drawn from three organisations in the BPO industry situated in the Western Cape, South Africa. However, only 201 employees contributed to the research study.

The majority of the participants were females (n=125) constituting 62.2% of the total sample, representing both managerial employees (n=19) and non-managerial employees (n=106). Males (n=22, 54%) dominated managerial positions in comparison to their female counterparts (n=19, 46%). This indicates that managerial positions within the BPO industry were mainly dominated by males, whereas non-managerial positions were occupied mainly by females.

The age group 31-40 constituted the biggest percentage of managers (n=22) and the age group 20-30 represented the biggest portion of non-managerial employees (n=100). This indicates that the contact centre or BPO industry environment is dominated by young people. Perhaps this explains why young people were more receptive to change implementation. In line with this reasoning, Maaja (2004:1) notes that older members of the organisation do not support organisational goals as much as younger members. Furthermore, Maaja (2004:1) believes that older employees have some difficulties due to their previous experience and hence find it difficult to support or accept change.

The bulk of the managerial employees (n=19, 46.34%) have 6-10 years of work experience followed by (n=12, 29.27%) with more than 10 years of work experience. Contrastingly, looking at the non-managerial bracket, the largest percentage of respondents (n=51, 32.48%) have 3-5 years of work experience followed by (n=39, 24.84%) with more than 10 years of work experience.

The majority of the respondents had matric certificates. Most of the managerial positions (middle and first line) were occupied by people with matric certificates (n=16, 39.02) and a small cluster had tertiary qualifications. Of the sample of 41 managers, 13 (31.71%) had diplomas, 6 (14.63%) had degrees and only 1 (2.44%) possessed a postgraduate degree.

7.3 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE NATURE OF CHANGE IMPLEMENTATION IN THE BPO INDUSTRY

Looking at Table 6.1 and 6.2 from the previous chapter, it can be seen that the majority of the managers experienced or were exposed to all forms of change listed in Section B, question 6. However, a small percentage were exposed to Total Quality Management [38.89% (n=14)] and Mergers and Acquisitions [30.56% (n=11)]. For the majority who experienced change, the statistical distribution of their exposure to change ranges from 70.73% - 97.56%.

The statistics depicted in Table 6.1 and 6.2 therefore confirm that there has been on-going change within the BPO industry and both middle and first line managers have been involved and thus hold significant change management knowledge. Perhaps this explains why the majority of the managers did not agree with the idea raised in question 7, namely that "Change is ambiguous, tiresome, time consuming and disturbs the smooth flow of processes in the organisation". Had they not been involved in the administration of the change management process, they could have commented otherwise, and adjusting to the dictates of change would not have been possible both for managerial and non-managerial employees as reflected in Figure 6.10.

Drawing from these findings, one can therefore conclude that change is inevitable and organisations constantly have to stay abreast of the ever-changing BPO industry.

Concerning the notion **"Change is ambiguous, tiresome, time consuming and disturbs the smooth flow of processes in the organisation"** raised in question 7, Figure 6.8 revealed that, of the forty-one (41) managers, nineteen (19) disagreed with the notion, only 8 agreed, and fourteen (14) either could not agree nor disagree. Ultimately, the conclusion was that most managers rejected the notion that change is ambiguous, tiresome, time consuming and that it disturbs the smooth flow of organisational processes. Interestingly, question 7 is a follow-up question to question 6. As a result, since the majority of the managers were involved in the change process and were exposed to all the types of changes listed, as depicted in Table 6.1 and 6.2, it therefore makes them eligible change agents and thus it is logical for them not to view change as ambiguous, tiresome, time consuming and disruptive to organisational processes. Perhaps their participation and involvement in change programmes compelled them to view change positively.

The statistics highlighted in Figure 6.9 illustrate that a significant number of managers agreed that they were empowered to decide how to manage and implement change. This confirms that managers actively participated in the change process, or rather were pioneers of the change process. In consonance with question 6 and 7, one can therefore conclude that these managers were the custodians of the change process and had a mandate to ensure that it was positively administered and embraced by its recipients.

Drawing from Figure 6.10 concerning adjusting to change, it can be established that whether the adjustments were to a small, medium or large extent, a significant proportion of managerial and non-managerial employees were ultimately able to adjust to change. Moreover questions 9 and 10, as highlighted in Figure 6.10 cannot be conceptualised in isolation from the preceding questions. In line with questions 6, 7 and 8, it is noteworthy that the degree of participation and involvement of managers in change management programmes has a snowballing effect on their level of adjustments, as reflected in Figure 6.10.

Table 6.3 highlighted the perception of managers concerning the nature of change implementation in the BPO industry. In line with Isa et al's. (2011) Change Management Framework, Section B (Managerial questionnaire) and Section C (Non-

managerial questionnaire) were segmented into six dimensions for the purpose of establishing the relevance of change management initiatives on change success in the BPO industry: shared change vision, communication, upline support, training, compensation systems and feedback.

What is notable from the mean values obtained in Table 6.3 is that all the six variables recorded a positive inclination towards change management. Results from managerial employees clearly indicate that change management initiatives are paramount in harnessing the relationship between change, OCB and job satisfaction.

Non-managerial employees shared the same sentiments concerning the nature of change implementation in the BPO industry. With reference to Table 6.4, it is notable that the mean values are predominantly concentrated between 3 and 3.5, reflecting a moderate positive inclination towards change implementation. This implies that, just like managerial employees, most non-managerial employees were happy with how their organisation managed change implementation. If change management initiatives had been neglected, results in Table 6.4 would have reflected negative outcomes.

7.4 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR OCB IN THE BPO INDUSTRY

Table 6.5 indicates that the highest mean value was for conscientiousness (4.1316456), followed by altruism (3.9056602), courtesy (3.8544304), Civic virtue (3.5537973) and sportsmanship (2.8562331). Even though sportsmanship recorded the lowest mean value, the overall mean value of OCB was 3.66.

There are two possible explanations why OCB recorded a moderate mean score of 3.66. The first one might be because sportsmanship recorded the lowest mean value, and the second because job satisfaction also recorded a positive but moderate mean score. In relation to the latter, social exchange theory provides a suitable explanation. The theory highlights the importance of reciprocity between variables, in this case between job satisfaction and OCB. Central to this relationship is that the employer is entitled to ensure that satisfaction levels among employees are high and, in turn, employees will reciprocate by engaging in OCB. In this reasoning, the reciprocal nature of this relationship explains why OCB recorded a moderate mean score.

7.5 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR JOB SATISFACTION IN THE BPO INDUSTRY

Table 6.6 shows that the average arithmetic mean for extrinsic job satisfaction is 3.3065, for Intrinsic job satisfaction it is 3.3379 and for overall job satisfaction it is 3.3222. The results depict a positive inclination towards job satisfaction and a very high or strong level of internal consistency. In other words, the satisfaction levels of employees were very encouraging.

Extrinsic job satisfaction is derived from factors that are outside the job itself (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005:929). It is influenced by factors outside an employee's control or power (Atchison, 1999:18). Examples of extrinsic factors as proposed by Herzberg (1966), are financial rewards, praise and recognition, peer pressure, and punishment, among others. The mean score of 3.3065 therefore depicts the level of extrinsic satisfaction within the BPO industry.

Likewise, intrinsic job satisfaction recorded a mean value of 3.3379, which implies a positive inclination towards satisfaction. Intrinsic gratification is stimulated from within, or from people's own lifelong interior motivations, rather than by external factors (Atchison, 1999:18). It includes aspects like feeling capable, enjoying a sense of challenge, reinforcing self-esteem, satisfaction with accomplishments, general enjoyment in one's work, satisfaction at realising one's potential and feeling appreciated (Herzberg, 1966). In addition, Chiboiwa (2010:140) maintains that the effort exhibited by employees to redress their displeasures is the fundamental source of their joy or intrinsic motivation. As such, one can suggest that employees in the BPO industry obtained their satisfaction from the challenges that came with change.

The average mean score of 3.3222 for overall job satisfaction indicates a positive but moderate inclination towards job satisfaction. The findings above concur with the findings by Chiboiwa (2010:142), who reported a moderate mean value for job satisfaction. His investigations were conducted in Zimbabwe among five organisations employing approximately 2,500 employees. In this line of reasoning, it is therefore paramount for organisations in the BPO industry to facilitate both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. For Herzberg (1959) in order to enhance employee satisfaction, employers should simultaneously and satisfactorily deliver intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction methodologies to their employees because the two are interdependent. Neglecting

extrinsic job satisfaction leads to job dissatisfaction, whereas intrinsic measures stimulate above average performances and efforts.

7.6 INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

The discussion of results will be presented in this sections as per the objectives and hypotheses in Chapter One.

7.6.1 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CHANGE IMPLEMENTATION AND OCB

Little empirical research has investigated the relationship between change management and OCB. In most research, OCB has rather played a mediating or moderating role between two or more variables. Nonetheless, this section will present the findings on the relationship between these two variables. Results in Table 6.7 show that change implementation is positively correlated to OCB variables, but with the exclusion of sportsmanship. However, when all the OCB variables are combined as reflected in Tables 6.10 and 6.12, there is still a positive but weak correlation between change implementation and OCB (r=0.1904).

The aforementioned validates previous research findings on the relationship between OCB and change implementation. Folger and Skarlicki (1999:43) established a significant correlation between change and OCB. They reported that positive attitudes and citizenship behaviours are essential ingredients for effective change management.

Chreim (2006:1) investigated the relationship between change implementation and attitude towards change and found that there existed a strong relationship between these two variables. He recommended that, whenever change occurs, attitudes towards such change should be taken into consideration because attitude predicts success and failure of the programme. In line with this reasoning, Eby et al. (2000:419) indicate that positive attitudes to change are vital in achieving organisational goals and in succeeding in change programmes. Furthermore, Diamond (1986), argues that resistance is ignited when attitudes are negative, or when competences and security are threatened. Therefore, corresponding with Folger and Skarlicki's (1999:43) findings, we can conclude that positive attitudes to change encourage employees to behave as citizens or exhibit citizenship behaviours, thus making change a success.

Beal III et al. (2013:7) investigated the effect of psychological capital and resistance to change on organisational citizenship behaviour amongst employees of a government organisation that provides personnel and career management support. The quantitative analysis of the data from 97 employees showed that psychological capital had a positive relationship with OCB, but a negative relationship between resistance to change and psychological capital and OCB.

To add to this, Choi (2007:467) investigated the relationship between workplace characteristics and change-oriented OCB. The study was conducted amongst 4,805 employees of a giant electronics company in Korea. His findings indicated that change-oriented OCB had a significant relationship with organisational variables like strong vision and innovative climate. In other words, Choi (2007) established that employees' feelings or thought processes about the aforesaid variables somehow stimulated change oriented OCB.

In line with Choi's (2007) findings, Zaccaro and Banks (2004:367) comment that, even though there are not extensive empirical findings concerning the influence vision has on change-oriented OCB, few researchers have concluded that vision is a paramount stimulus of change success. Following results from the present study shown in Table 6.7, change was timeously planned, communicated and executed and employees actively participated and were rewarded for achieving the change vision. One can therefore conclude that well shared change vision stimulates change-oriented OCB. This could be the reason why, in this research study, change was positively accepted and both managerial and non-managerial employees significantly adjusted to all forms of change.

In another study, Williams and Anderson (1991:601) established a significant correlation between innovative climate and change-oriented OCB. They argued that, far from helping behaviours, change-oriented OCB tended to profit the whole organisation rather than only certain facets or units, and change-oriented OCB was thus influenced by various organisational level factors.

Investigations by Choi (2007:480) on the relationship between supportive leadership, as a workplace characteristic, and change-oriented OCB, found no significant

relationship between the two variables. However, Bettencourt (2004:169) found a significant relationship between the two. Choi (2007) concluded that leadership support in the form of empowering or granting employees a higher degree of autonomy to execute their jurisdictional functions without much management involvement capacitated them to identify the organisation's deficiencies or areas of ineffectiveness, which consequently might influence them to advocate constantly for enhancements. Furthermore, leadership support encourages employees to perform their duties beyond prescribed expectations. Similarly, LePine and Van Dyne (1998:853) found that increased autonomy stimulates the workforce to constructively suggest constructive ways of improving or refining existing systems and processes.

According to Smith et al. (1983:653), leader supportiveness has a direct influence on OCB or can indirectly influence OCB through its effects on job satisfaction. They further postulated that empirical support for the relationship between supportive leadership style and OCB can be found in various research studies. In agreement, in their study carried out on a sample of petrochemical employees, Podsakoff et al. (1990:107), found positive correlations between transformational leadership and OCB. More so, Konovsky and Organ (1996:136) found that OCB behaviours of employees are determined more by the leadership characteristics and the work environment, as opposed to by the employees' personality. Thus, if employees perceive inadequate support from their supervisor, the possibility exists that they will withhold OCB (Podsakoff et al., 1996:259).

Analysis depicted in Figure 6.10, Tables 6.3 and 6.4 in this present study concurs with Bettencourt's (2004) ideology, that supportive leadership influences change-oriented OCB. Both managerial and non-managerial employees confirmed that they were custodians of the change process in their organisations and empowered to decide on what change to implement and how to implement it. This might explain why a positive but moderate correlation exists between change implementation and OCB.

While observing the relationship between workplace characteristics and change-oriented OCB, Choi (2007:480) found a positive correlation between psychological empowerment, felt responsibility for change and change-oriented OCB. Spreitzer (1995:1443), commenting on the relationship between psychological empowerment

and change-oriented OCB, argues that psychological empowerment induces the workforce to exhibit creative or innovative ideas which enhance the effective functioning of an organisation. Autonomy empowers employees to perform effectively without restrictions or constraints from an employer's rules and regulations. In the same vein, Staw and Boettger (1990:534) argue that, when employees perceive that they are psychologically empowered, they tend to take ownership and accountability for organisational processes and outcomes. As a result, they become more willing to exhibit citizenship gestures and amend all inefficiencies. Therefore, when employees are empowered and involved in change processes, they feel universally indebted to exhibit extra role behaviours which enhance the effective functioning of the organisation.

7.6.2 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CHANGE IMPLEMENTATION AND JOB SATISFACTION

Comprehending the impact of change management on job satisfaction or job commitment constitutes one of the most paramount subject matter in organisational behaviour (Gomes, 2009:189). One of the objectives of the current research was to establish the correlation between the implementation of change and job satisfaction. The results in Table 6.9 have confirmed that there is a strong relationship between change implementation and intrinsic job satisfaction (r=0.6340) and extrinsic job satisfaction (e=0.7634). After the two satisfaction variables were combined, change implementation and job satisfaction recorded a very strong positive relationship (r=0.7644).

According to Liu and Norcio (2008:62), these results are consistent with previous research findings which acknowledge the significance of assessing the relevance of job satisfaction as a consequence of perceived change efficacy. Cohen (1999:373) suggests that employee behaviours are directly influenced by the way the change process is administered or managed.

Gomes (2009:177) investigated the correlation between organisational commitment, job satisfaction and organisational change. The study was conducted amongst 153 employees in the hospitality industry. Gomes's (2009) findings revealed that there is a positive relationship between organisational change and job satisfaction. Having

ascertained this relationship, Gomes (2009) concluded that the extent to which employees perceive change as effectual or beneficial reinforces their attachment to the organisation and ultimately leads to job satisfaction. Hypothetically, if workers fail to understand the change process and perceive it as devious, it is logical for them to miscarry or abort its efficacy and ultimately experience zero satisfaction.

Investigations on the correlation between resistance to change and job satisfaction presented puzzling pictures and reactions in some research (Giauque et al., 2010:159). Coch and French (1948:512) established a strong correlation between employee morale and a willingness to change. They argued that dissatisfied employees are more hostile to change. For Hage and Aiken (1967:503), one of the variables that strongly correlate with change management is job satisfaction.

Mack et al. (1998:219) asserts that organisational changes influence job and organisational characteristics and, therefore, job satisfaction. Based on their research, Mack et al. (1998) conclude that, in general, organisational changes result in increasing levels of job dissatisfaction, mainly as a result of increased uncertainty during the process of change. Nonetheless, numerous researchers present diverse relationships between organisational change and job satisfaction. For example, Schouteten and Van De Vleuten (2009) investigated the effects of organisational change brought about by New Public Management (NPM) on job satisfaction among 570 voluntary and 70 paid workers in a Dutch voluntary organisation. Their findings revealed that organisational changes brought about by NPM in a voluntary association have an effect on the work characteristics (job design) and job satisfaction of paid and voluntary workers.

Struijs (2012:19) investigated the mediating role of job satisfaction in explaining the relationship between resistance to change and turnover intention among 420 employees in the health-care sector in the Netherlands. Struijs's (2012) findings showed that the direct relationship between resistance to change and turnover intention disappeared when job satisfaction was added as mediator, which implied a full mediation effect of job satisfaction. This meant that people, who experienced more resistance to change, were less satisfied with their job.

In an attempt to establish the relationship between change management and job satisfaction, Alas (2007:28) examined the effects of employee participation on job satisfaction during a change process among 41 companies with 1,398 respondents in Estonia. The findings revealed that satisfaction and participation are positively correlated, and employees with higher job satisfaction are more willing to participate in the organisational change process than employees with a lower job satisfaction level.

Several researchers as cited by Gomes (2009:189) acknowledged the diverse effects change has on job satisfaction. Furthermore, different forms of organisational change impact employee satisfaction levels differently. In the same sense of reasoning, as reflected in Tables 6.1 and 6.2, this present study also acknowledges that work characteristics (work content and context) and the perception of these characteristics, or the change, mediate the relationship between organisational change and job satisfaction. However, the diversity and complexity of the change process in the present study require a nuanced explanation of the results. The main problem statement of this research study was that the BPO industry in South Africa fails to implement initiatives for change sufficiently effectively, which results in low levels of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour or OCB, and correspondingly low levels of job satisfaction. The main focus of this section, therefore, is to review the efficacy of change management initiatives on job satisfaction.

The strong positive relationship between change implementation and both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction indicates the significance of change management initiatives in promoting job satisfaction. Based on the review of questions in Section B (6-29) on the non-managerial employee questionnaire, and Section C (11-40) on the managerial questionnaire, six change implementation initiatives were established to explain the positive relationship between change implementation and job satisfaction. With the results of this present study recording very strong positive relationship (r=0.7644) between change implementation and job satisfaction, one can therefore conclude that there is a strong relationship between change initiative variables and job satisfaction variables.

The aforementioned results correspond with the findings of Isa et al. (2011:106) who investigated the correlation between change implementation initiatives and job satisfaction amongst 690 salespersons in the direct selling industry of Malaysia. Even though their findings failed to establish a positive relationship between job satisfaction and all change initiative variables, shared change vision, training and upline support positively correlated with job satisfaction.

Isa et al.'s (2011) findings were in line with Abraham et al.'s (1997:616) findings which highlight the significance of a shared change vision when implementing change. Similarly, Hurley (1998:57) notes that a shared vision translates change objectives into a clearly laid down plan of action and aligns policies, procedures, processes and systems with the strategic bottom line. Furthermore, Hurley (1998:57) asserts that a vision also has psychological implications for sales personnel behaviour and performance. It determines their satisfaction levels and ability to adjust to different change manifestations. Correspondingly, Sashkin (1985:36) declares that, the more organisations share change visions, the greater the scope for change success.

Commenting on the relationship between communication as a change management initiative and job satisfaction, Klein (1996:32) asserts that communication is an essential component of change success. It diminishes resistance, ambiguity and anxiety and stimulates cooperation, involvement, commitment and satisfaction. Likewise, Pettit et al. (1997:81) found a significant correlation between communication and job satisfaction. In the words of Javed et al. (2004:1-7), "effective communication at the work place may improve the performance of employees by enhancing their job satisfaction, feeling of personal accomplishment and also by increasing their productivity".

Concerning the relationship between upline support and job satisfaction, investigation by Griffin et al. (2001:537) among 48 manufacturing companies with 4,708 employees found a positive correlation between supervisory support and job satisfaction. Reporting on the role of upline support in the direct selling industry of Malaysia, Burke et al. (1992:717-729), highlight that uplines normally provide organisational support to their downlines. As a result, if downlines are confident and satisfied with upline's explanations or support, they will become more receptive and adaptive to change

(Wotruba & Rochford, 1995:35-51). Similarly, Tierney (1999) notes that a mutually harmonious relationship between management and employees is paramount for change success.

Unlike the findings by Isa et al. (2011), this research found a strong positive relationship between compensation or rewards and job satisfaction. However, as cited by Hin and Yunus (2011:116), the present findings re-affirm the positive role that properly constituted compensation or reward systems play in ensuring change success. Similarly, VanYperen et al. (1999:377) note that employees' perceptions about change determine the degree of their receptiveness. Therefore, in order for the change processes to be successful in the BPO industry in South Africa, organisations should consider offering competitive rewards to their employees as a way of motivating them to perform satisfactorily without negative perceptions about change.

Similar to Isa et al.'s (2011:115) findings, the present study confirms a significant correlation between training and job satisfaction. Likewise, Babakus et al. (1996) established a direct relationship between training and both intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction. Furthermore, Isa et al. (2011:116) consider training as the most vital form of skills transfer, particularly in the sales environment. They note that, because they are constantly in contact with various stakeholders, sales personnel training becomes an essential channel for acquiring or disseminating knowledge and skills. Correspondingly, Kappelman and Richards (1996) maintain that only through training are organisations able to impart knowledge to their employees and create new working cultures which facilitate change success.

Again, contrary to the findings by Isa et al. (2011), which showed a negative relationship between feedback as a change initiative and job satisfaction, the present study found feedback to be one of the most fundamental ingredients of change success. According to Steelman and Rutkowski (2004:6-16), feedback can be used to reinforce, refine, realign and reposition change objectives, processes and systems. It can also be used as a behavioural modification tool. According to Hurley (1998:57-71), organisations in the sales environment which regard feedback as a vital change instrument are highly likely to experience and implement change successfully in comparison with those that turn a blind eye to feedback.

7.6.3 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND OCB

Results from numerous experimental studies carried out to establish the relationship between OCB and job satisfaction have been inconsistent or contradictory. Nonetheless, 15 autonomous research findings across diverse contexts have established a positive correlation between the two variables (Organ & Lingl, 1995:339). In line with this, Organ and Konovsky (1983) identified job satisfaction as the strongest measure correlating with OCB. Furthermore, this view is supported by Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:213), who acknowledge that several research studies have found a positive but moderate correlation between OCB and job satisfaction.

Highlighting the efficacy of this relationship, Gibson et al. (1994:123) note that OCBs are likely to be found among satisfied employees. Likewise, Werner (2007:1) notes that, the happier the employees, the greater the chances of them displaying positive behaviours which substantially promote organisational success. According to Bateman and Organ (1983:587), job satisfaction triggers citizenship behaviours, as compared to other support systems provided by the organisation.

Unlike the findings of Adam (2000:1), who found no correlation between job satisfaction and OCB, the current research findings, as highlighted in Table 6.11 reflect a positive but weak correlation between job satisfaction and OCB (r=0,1382). Table 6.9 indicates the relationships between each OCB variable and job satisfaction variables. A positive but weak relationship was recorded between most of the variables, Altruism versus Extrinsic job satisfaction (r=0,1365) and Intrinsic job satisfaction (r=0,2604), Civic virtue versus Extrinsic job satisfaction (r=0,3420) and Intrinsic job satisfaction (r=0,3184), Conscientiousness versus Extrinsic job satisfaction (r=0,0815) and Intrinsic job satisfaction (r=0,0959) and Courtesy versus Extrinsic job satisfaction (r=0,2705) and Intrinsic job satisfaction (r=0,2847). Only sportsmanship depicted a negative relationship with both Extrinsic job satisfaction (r=-0.5727) and Intrinsic job satisfaction (r=-0.5049). The reason why overall job satisfaction and overall OCB recorded a weak positive relationship could be because both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction recorded a significant negative relationship with sportsmanship.

The findings above correspond with and fortify previous research findings. Investigations by Chiboiwa (2010:145) found a positive but moderate correlation between job satisfaction and OCB (r=0.198, p<0.05). His investigations were conducted among five organisations in Zimbabwe employing approximately 2,500 employees. Similar studies by Murphy et al. (2002:287) among human resource professionals recorded a positive correlation between job satisfaction and OCB.

The above research findings are supported by Booysen's (2008:95) findings which revealed that a strong significant and direct correlation exists between OCB and job satisfaction (r=0.428). Booysen (2008) conducted her research amongst 350 employees in a retail organisation in the Western Cape. Similarly, in a meta-analysis including 6,747 people in 28 separate studies, a significant correlation was established between the two variables (Organ & Ryan, 1995:775). Likewise, Murphy et al. (2002:287), in their studies in Australia, found positive correlations between job satisfaction and OCB.

A study conducted by Murphy et al. (2001:287) examined the role of OCB as a component of job performance. The study was conducted on a sample that comprised of 41 human science workers. The findings indicated that a significant positive relationship exists between job satisfaction and OCB. Findings were consistent with the notion that satisfaction may not be reflected in productivity, but is reflected in the employees' discretionary involvement in the workplace.

In support of the above, Williams and Anderson (1991:601) investigated the correlation between job satisfaction and OCB. Their findings indicated that the cognitive component of job satisfaction actually predicts altruism and general compliance. Producing similar results, research findings of Moorman (1993:759), who investigated the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB, could depend on the nature of job satisfaction measures used.

Investigations conducted by Bateman and Organ (1983:587) to ascertain the degree of correlation between job satisfaction and OCB, recognised a substantive correlation of 0.41. In the same manner, Smith et al. (1983:653) investigated the degree of association between these variables in the banking sector and recorded a positive

correlation between job satisfaction and two OCB dimensions namely altruism and compliance. Similarly, this research also found a positive relationship between Altruism, Conscientiousness and both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction.

Unlike Chiboiwa (2010:144), who found a positive correlation between extrinsic job satisfaction and sportsmanship (r=0.171, p<0.05), this present study indicates a negative relationship between sportsmanship and both extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction. These findings disqualify the assertion that sportsmanship involves employees' willingness to exhibit expected behaviour, despite uncomfortable circumstances which confront them every day. As a result, questions 46 and 47 were removed to strengthen the relationship of the questions. Therefore, the reason why only sportsmanship recorded a negative relationship with both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction could be that the questions were wrongly articulated.

On the other hand, if we take the statement of Organ and Lingl (1995:339) that job satisfaction and OCB have a robust relationship, then it would be very difficult to support this statement as the current study only shows a weak relationship between job satisfaction and OCB. Moreover, findings of a study conducted by Schappe (1998) indicated that neither job satisfaction nor procedural justice was correlated to OCB. However, the one significant correlate to OCB was organisational commitment (r=.21, p<.01). According to Schnake et al. (1995:205), job satisfaction is not a strong predictor of citizenship behaviour.

The nonexistence of a positive correlation between all the variables of job satisfaction and all the dimensions of OCB is clearly in line with other research findings which recorded a strong correlation between job satisfaction and few OCB dimensions. A research study by Fahr et al. (1997:421) established a negative correlation between job satisfaction and altruism and compliance. Cognisant of the above, one can therefore conclude that it is for this same reason that job satisfaction failed to correlate with sportsmanship in this current study. Schnake et al. (1995:205) investigated the impacts of perceived equity, leadership and job satisfaction on OCB. Their findings revealed that job satisfaction is only correlated to two OCB dimensions.

Investigations by Organ and Ryan (1995:775) demonstrated that OCB dimensions, such as courtesy, civic virtue and sportsmanship correlated with job satisfaction. Further, they indicated that civic virtue is less related than other OCB measures. Contrastingly, the present research study found that civic virtue is more related to both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction than other OCB dimensions. Furthermore, Organ and Ryan (1995:775) noted that, when the OCB dimensions are treated as separate indicators and are aggregated into an overall OCB measure, the correlation between satisfaction and the composite OCB is 0.38. This serves as evidence, and provides some support for the hypothesis that measures of OCB will be more related to satisfaction than in-role performance.

According to Ladebo (2008:479), the performance of OCB by employees contributes to overall organisational effectiveness and, where inequity, unfair treatment, and unfulfilled personal goals by employees characterise the work environment, there has been a reported reduction of OCB. Research on OCB has tended to examine both antecedent factors predicting the OCB relationship, or the relationship between OCB and outcome factors. In addition, Ladebo (2008:479) conducted research among two agricultural organisations with a sample size of 270 employees. Ladebo (2008) proposed that a potential situational factor in the workplace that may foster employee satisfaction relates to the quality of the relationship between an employee and the supervisor. Drawing on the social change framework, he postulated that the supportive action of supervisors towards their subordinates tends to increase employees' satisfaction with their jobs. Without a doubt, empirical evidence supports the supposition that satisfied employees engage in cooperative behaviour, such as citizenship behaviours (Vigoda-Gadot & Angert, 2007:1-10).

Even though this present study established a positive but moderate correlation between job satisfaction and OCB it is paramount to note that there are other antecedents or measures researchers need to take into consideration when studying OCB.

7.6.4 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CHANGE IMPLEMENTATION, OCB AND JOB SATISFACTION

Following the above discussions in sections 7.6.1, 7.6.2 and 7.6.3 we can therefore conclude and confirm the hypothesis in Chapter one that change implementation positively correlate with OCB and job satisfaction. This finding thus confirms that the way employees comprehend change management and perceive it as beneficial to both the organisation and the workforces, determines the magnitude of their satisfaction which, in turn, promotes citizenship behaviours. In agreement, Cohen (1999) maintains that employee behaviour in organisations is directly influenced by the manner in which change is administered.

Research has established that in order to enhance the manifestation of organisational citizenship behaviours in any organisation, job satisfaction should be regarded as a vital mediating or moderating factor. Elaborating the aforementioned, Chiu and Chen (2005:523) encourage organisations to create an enabling environment which compels employees to display citizenship behaviours. This is achieved by reinforcing the bond between job characteristics and OCB, and encouraging organisations to promote intrinsic job satisfaction in order for the workforce to exhibit citizenship behaviours.

According to Podsakoff et al. (2000:513) satisfied employees give back to their organisations by performing duties beyond their job descriptions or prescribed roles and responsibilities. Similarly, Gadot and Cohen (2004:133) maintain that, due to the reciprocal exchange, or the 'give and take relationship' between job satisfaction and OCB, it can be concluded that, in relation to the social exchange theory, in response to the way they are treated by their employers, employees can either display positive or negative citizenship behaviours.

Ghazzawi (2008:4) investigated OCB as a potential consequence of job satisfaction. From his research findings and in line with the studies conducted by Organ and Ryan (1995:775), he concluded that OCB is a product of job satisfaction.

Cognisant of a strong positive correlation between change implementation and job satisfaction, and a positive but moderate correlation between job satisfaction and OCB, it not a fallacy to confirm that job satisfaction is an imperative OCB catalyst.

7.7 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

This present study examined the bond between change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction in the BPO industry in the Western Cape, South Africa. The results of the study revealed that:

i. Change management is inevitable in the BPO industry and organisations have to be constantly alert to tackle its demands.

ii. The nature, extent and magnitude of its occurrence vary from organisation to organisation; therefore, if not well managed, organisational change can become the greatest source of job dissatisfaction.

iii. Properly instituted change management initiatives significantly enhance change success.

iv. A positive but moderate correlation exists between change implementation and OCB. Nonetheless, change does not positively influence each OCB variable.

v. One OCB variable, sportsmanship, failed to correlate with any change management initiative and job satisfaction variables. The reason could have been either that the sportsmanship questions were not well articulated and related, or there is no relationship whatsoever between sportsmanship and all other variables.

vi. A significant or strong correlation exists between change implementation and job satisfaction. Indeed, the findings confirm that employees' attitude towards organisational change affects not only the success of the change process, but other important organisational outcomes, such as job satisfaction and OCB.

vii. There is a positive but moderate relationship between OCB and job satisfaction. Nevertheless, the degree of influence of job satisfaction on OCB is not holistic. In this study, only sportsmanship negatively correlated with both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction in comparison with others.

viii. The results have confirmed the hypothesis that there is a positive correlation between change implementation, job satisfaction and OCB.

7.8 LIMITATIONS

The shortfalls of this research include, among others:

i. The number of respondents in this present study, although adequate for statistical testing, represents a relatively low response rate. For future research studies, a large sample size will be appropriate.

ii. The sample drawn from the BPO industry was only drawn in the Western Cape, South Africa, therefore, generalisability of the research findings may be limited.

iii. There is very little empirical research on the relationship between change implementation or initiatives and OCB. The present study could not relate adequately to the previous studies.

iv. The direct focus of the investigation on only the BPO industry also raises concerns about limited generalisability. As a result, the study remains in reality, not representative of all other industries.

v. Due to inevitable financial constraints, this research study could not cover other provinces across South Africa.

vi. Three targeted companies pulled out on the last minute due to operational reasons and compelled the researcher to revise his sample size and identify new target companies within a short period of time.

7.9 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Even though a positive relationship exists, the present findings established a moderately weak correlation between change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction. Below, are some of the factors that future research studies need to embrace in order to ascertain the relationship between change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction.

i. Future studies should consider embracing a qualitative research approach to counter the limitations of the quantitative approach.

ii. Further replications of the study with a different sampling group or industry might provide a great deal of information.

iii. There is little empirical research on the relationship between change implementation and OCB. Future research studies should explore the effects that change management types or initiatives have on OCB, or ascertain whether change management influences all OCB variables.

iv.   More research should be done on the relationship between sportsmanship and change management since the present study could not establish any relationship between these variables.

v.   There is considerable literature addressing the association between change management and job satisfaction. However, not much has been reported on the relationship between change implementation initiatives and job satisfaction. Future research studies should focus on establishing change implementation initiative models and determining their influence on both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction.

vi.   Much emphasis in this research study was placed on the relationship between change implementation, job satisfaction and OCB and neglected to ascertain the effects of demographics on these three variables. Perhaps future studies could investigate the effects of demographics on change management, OCB and job satisfaction.

vii.   Future studies should replace the OCB variable with newer conceptualised change-oriented OCB.

viii.   Cognisant of the discussed outcomes change implementation has on employees or the established strong positive relationship between change implementation and job satisfaction, it is therefore paramount for the BPO industry to effectively manage and incorporate their employees as vital change agents, in all change implementation initiatives.

7.10 CONCLUSION

Globalisation, driven by complex, ambiguous and burgeoning transformations, has seen many organisations embark on convoluted changes, such as restructuring, downsizing, business process re-engineering, shared services, total quality management, mergers and acquisitions, just to keep the competitive edge.

In the flux of change, these organisations are increasingly challenged to balance the clamorous expectations of multiple stakeholders from investors, clients, management, customers and employees. Such constant change, without balance and consistency, is a double-edged sword which may lead to an anxious workforce and diminishing productivity.

Cognisant of the above, it is worth remembering that the current study examined the relationship between change implementation, organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction. Specifically, the study sought to achieve the following objectives:

- To examine the nature of change implementation in the BPO industry
- To determine the effects of change implementation on OCB and job satisfaction in the BPO industry
- To examine the relationship between change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction.

Based on the research analyses and findings, it was established that there is a positive correlation between change implementation, OCB and job satisfaction.

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QUESTIONNAIRE FOR NON- MANAGERIAL EMPLOYEES

I am a Masters student in the Department of Human Resources Management, Business Faculty at Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT). I am conducting research on the relationship between change implementation, organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction. It will be greatly appreciated if you could assist by completing this questionnaire accurately and honestly.

It should take approximately 15 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Please note that there are no right or wrong answers.

Please be assured that all responses will remain confidential; all the respondents will remain anonymous and only grouped data will be presented.

Thank you for your willingness to complete this questionnaire.

Section A

Please complete the following details for the purpose of the research by marking the box (with an X) that is appropriate to you.

1. Gender

| Male | |
| Female | |

2. Age

20-30		31-40		41-50		51-60		61-70		71-80		81+	

3. Work Experience

-1yr		1-2yrs		3-5yrs		6-10yrs		+10yrs	

4. Qualifications

1. Post graduate		2. Degree		3. Diploma		4. Certificate		5. Matric	

5. Position in the organisation..

Section B

This section of the questionnaire relates to how your organisation manages change. Please read each statement carefully and indicate, using the scale below, the extent to which you agree or disagree. Mark with an (X) in the appropriate box.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
6. My organisation examines external trends that call for change.	5	4	3	2	1
7. My organisation examines internal trends that call for change.	5	4	3	2	1
8. My organisation examines issues or problems that call for change.	5	4	3	2	1
9. My organisation identifies actual or potential change threats or opportunities.	5	4	3	2	1
10. My organisation discusses actual or potential change threats or opportunities.	5	4	3	2	1
11. My organisation creates a vision or strategy to help guide the change effort.	5	4	3	2	1
12. My organisation follows a vision or strategy to help guide the change effort.	5	4	3	2	1
13. My organisation monitors strategies in response to problems in the change process.	5	4	3	2	1
14. My organisation adjusts strategies in response to problems in the change process.	5	4	3	2	1
15. My organisation timely communicates the need for change.	5	4	3	2	1
16. My organisation openly communicates the need for change.	5	4	3	2	1
17. My organisation encourages employee involvement in change programmes.	5	4	3	2	1
18. My organisation integrates employee ideas and initiatives in change programmes.	5	4	3	2	1
19. My organisation aligns all policies and procedures with the change vision.	5	4	3	2	1
20. My organisation aligns all systems and processes with the change vision.	5	4	3	2	1
21. My organisation aligns the organisational culture with the change vision.	5	4	3	2	1
22. My organisation eliminates obstacles to the planned change.	5	4	3	2	1
23. My organisation recognises people who make change a success.	5	4	3	2	1
24. My organisation rewards people who make change a success.	5	4	3	2	1
25. My organisation train employees to embrace organisational change.	5	4	3	2	1
26. Reasons for change are ever reasonable.	5	4	3	2	1
27. Goals for change are ever transparent.	5	4	3	2	1
28. My organisation empowers employees to decide on what type of change to implement	5	4	3	2	1

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly
29. My organisation empowers employees to decide how to implement the type of change	5	4	3	2	1

Section C

This section of the questionnaire relates to how you behave at the workplace. Please read each statement carefully and indicate, using the scale below, the extent to which you agree or disagree. Mark with an (X) in the appropriate box.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly
30. I help others who have heavy workloads.	5	4	3	2	1
31. I help others who have been absent.	5	4	3	2	1
32. I train or help others to perform their jobs better.	5	4	3	2	1
33. I help new people to get accustomed to the work environment.	5	4	3	2	1
34. I help others with demanding work assignments.	5	4	3	2	1
35. I keep up with developments in the organisation.	5	4	3	2	1
36. I attend functions that are not required but help the company image.	5	4	3	2	1
37. I attend and participate in formal meetings regarding the organisation.	5	4	3	2	1
38. I attend and participate in informal meetings regarding the organisation.	5	4	3	2	1
39. I arrive at work on time.	5	4	3	2	1
40. I never take long lunch breaks.	5	4	3	2	1
41. I never take extra breaks.	5	4	3	2	1
42. I always obey company rules and regulation even if there is no one watching me.	5	4	3	2	1
43. I always complete my work on time.	5	4	3	2	1
44. I think my company has a lot of problems.	5	4	3	2	1
45. I constantly talk about wanting to quit my job.	5	4	3	2	1
46. I feel positively about my department.	5	4	3	2	1
47. I feel positively about the organisation.	5	4	3	2	1
48. I am not satisfied with the way the organisation is being run.	5	4	3	2	1
49. My work quality is up to standard.	5	4	3	2	1

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
50. I think my company has big problems.	5	4	3	2	1
51. I inform others before taking important actions.	5	4	3	2	1
52. I go out of my way to protect other employees.	5	4	3	2	1
53. I show displeasure with other employees.	5	4	3	2	1
54. I visit other employees at their work stations during work periods.	5	4	3	2	1
55. I do not complain about work assignments.	5	4	3	2	1
56. I can handle work pressure.	5	4	3	2	1
57. I always act cheerfully.	5	4	3	2	1
58. I co-operate well with those around me.	5	4	3	2	1

Section D

This section of the questionnaire measures the extent to which you are satisfied with your job. Please read each statement carefully and indicate, using the scale below, the extent to which you are satisfied or dissatisfied. Please mark with an (X) in the appropriate box.

Please indicate your satisfaction/dissatisfaction with the following:	Highly satisfied	Satisfied	Not sure	Dissatisfied	Highly dissatisfied
59. The company policies and procedures.	5	4	3	2	1
60. The organisational culture.	5	4	3	2	1
61. The way company policies are administered.	5	4	3	2	1
62. The way employees are informed about company policies.	5	4	3	2	1
63. The way my supervisor and I understand each other.	5	4	3	2	1
64. The way my boss treats his/her employees.	5	4	3	2	1

Please indicate your satisfaction/dissatisfaction with the following:	Highly satisfied	Satisfied	Not sure	Dissatisfied	Highly dissatisfied
65. The way my boss takes cares of the complaints of his or her employees.	5	4	3	2	1
66. The way my boss trains his or her employees.	5	4	3	2	1
67. The technical know-how of my supervisor.	5	4	3	2	1
68. How my pay compares with that of similar jobs in other companies.	5	4	3	2	1
69. My pay in relation to the amount of work I do.	5	4	3	2	1
70. How my pay compares with that of other workers.	5	4	3	2	1
71. The working conditions (heat, lighting, ventilation, ergonomics) of this job.	5	4	3	2	1
72. The pleasantness of the working conditions.	5	4	3	2	1
73. The physical working conditions of this job.	5	4	3	2	1
74. The opportunities for advancement on this job.	5	4	3	2	1
75. The way promotions are handled on this job.	5	4	3	2	1
76. The way my co-workers get along with each other and are easy to make friends with.	5	4	3	2	1
77. The way my job provides for a secure future.	5	4	3	2	1
78. The way my job provides for a stable employment.	5	4	3	2	1
79. The way I gets full credit for the work I do.	5	4	3	2	1
80. The recognition I get for the good work I do.	5	4	3	2	1
81. The chance to be important in the eyes of others.	5	4	3	2	1
82. The feelings of achievement I get from the job.	5	4	3	2	1
83. The chance to do the work that is well suited to my abilities.	5	4	3	2	1
84. The routine in my work.	5	4	3	2	1
85. The chance to do different things from time to time.	5	4	3	2	1
86. The chance to be responsible for planning my work.	5	4	3	2	1
87. The chance to be responsible for the work of others.	5	4	3	2	1

Please indicate your satisfaction/dissatisfaction with the following:	Highly satisfied	Satisfied	Not sure	Dissatisfied	Highly dissatisfied
88. The responsibility of my job.	5	4	3	2	1
89. The chance to try out some of my ideas.	5	4	3	2	1
90. The chance to make decisions on my own.	5	4	3	2	1
91. The chance to supervise other people.	5	4	3	2	1
92. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.	5	4	3	2	1

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THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING!!

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR MANAGERIAL EMPLOYEES

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Thank you for your willingness to complete this questionnaire.

Section A

Please complete the following details for the purpose of the research by marking the box (with an X) that is appropriate to you.

1.   Gender

Male	
Female	

2. Age

20-30		31-40		41-50		51-60		61-70		71-80		81+	

3. Work Experience

-1yr		1-2yrs		3-5yrs		6-10yrs		+10yrs	

4. Qualifications

1. Post graduate		2. Degree		3. Diploma		4. Certificate		5. Matric	

5. Position in the organisation..

Section B

6. Has your organisation or department experienced change in the following aspects? Please also indicate whether the listed type of change has been experienced, and also how much you were involved.

Type of Change	Yes	No	Not at all involved	Slightly Involved	Moderately involved	Highly involved	Not Sure
Introduction of new technology							
Re-organisation of work (Change in work systems)							
Transformation of work processes							
Introduction of new products or services (Diversification)							
Leadership Change							
Total Quality Management							
Mergers and Acquisitions							
Introduction of new ideas or initiatives							
Organisational restructuring							
Business Process Re-engineering							
Organisational growth							
Organisational downsizing							

7. How far do you agree with the statement, "Change is ambiguous, tiresome, time consuming and disturb the smooth flow of processes in the organisation? "

Strongly Agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	

8. As a manager I am empowered to decide on what type of change to implement and how to implement it. Mark with an **X** where appropriate.

Strongly Agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	

9. To what extent were you able to adjust to the changes that were introduced? Mark with an **X** where appropriate.

Never adjusted		To a smaller extent		To a medium extent		To a large extent		Not Sure	

10. To what extent were your subordinates able to adjust to the changes that were introduced? Mark with an **X** where appropriate.

Never adjusted		To a smaller extent		To a medium extent		To a large extent		Not Sure	

Section C

This section of the questionnaire relates to how you manage organisational change implementation. Please read each statement carefully and indicate, using the scale below, the extent to which you agree or disagree. Mark with an (X) in the appropriate box.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
11. I constantly examine external trends that call for change.	5	4	3	2	1
12. I constantly examine internal trends that call for change.	5	4	3	2	1
13. I constantly examine issues or problems that call for change.	5	4	3	2	1
14. I regularly identify actual or potential change opportunities.	5	4	3	2	1
15. I regularly identify actual or potential change threats.	5	4	3	2	1
16. I discuss actual or potential change threats or opportunities with employees.	5	4	3	2	1
17. I have a clear vision that helps guide the change effort.	5	4	3	2	1
18. I have a clear strategy that helps guide the change effort.	5	4	3	2	1
19. I monitor strategies in response to problems in the change process	5	4	3	2	1
20. I adjust strategies in response to problems in the change process	5	4	3	2	1
21. I timely communicate the need for change to my employees.	5	4	3	2	1
22. I openly communicate the need for change to my employees.	5	4	3	2	1
23. I encourage employee involvement in change management programmes.	5	4	3	2	1
24. I integrate employees' ideas and initiatives in change implementation programmes.	5	4	3	2	1
25. I align all policies and procedures with the change vision.	5	4	3	2	1
26. I align all systems and processes with the change vision.	5	4	3	2	1
27. I align the organisational culture with the change vision.	5	4	3	2	1
28. I eliminate negative attitudes to planned change.	5	4	3	2	1
29. I eliminate obstacles to the planned change.	5	4	3	2	1
30. I recognise people who make change a success.	5	4	3	2	1

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
31. I reward people who make change a success.	5	4	3	2	1
32. I train employees to embrace organisational change.	5	4	3	2	1
33. I ensure that reasons for change are ever reasonable.	5	4	3	2	1
34. I ensure that Goals for change are ever transparent.	5	4	3	2	1
35. I empower employees to decide on what type of change to implement.	5	4	3	2	1
36. I empower employees to decide how to implement the type of change.	5	4	3	2	1
37. I believe in using a democratic management style	5	4	3	2	1
38. I strengthen interpersonal relationships between management and employees.	5	4	3	2	1
39. I emphasise teamwork to effectively manage change.	5	4	3	2	1
40. I spent adequate time implementing organisational change.	5	4	3	2	1

Section D

This section of the questionnaire relates to the factors influencing attitudes towards change. Please read each statement carefully and indicate, using the scale below, how much these aspects influence the way you view change and the extent to which you agree or disagree. Mark with an (X) in the appropriate box.

Please indicate your agreement with each of the following statements as factors which influence attitudes towards change	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
41. Past change experience	5	4	3	2	1
42. Communication of the change process	5	4	3	2	1
43. Participation in the change effort (Degree of involvement)	5	4	3	2	1
44. Perceived threats of the proposed change	5	4	3	2	1
45. Perceived benefits (Rewards) of the proposed change	5	4	3	2	1
46. Opportunity / need for personal growth	5	4	3	2	1
47. Provision for autonomy	5	4	3	2	1
48. Provision for personal growth	5	4	3	2	1

Please indicate your agreement with each of the following statements as factors which influence attitudes towards change	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
49. Administration of the change process	5	4	3	2	1
50. Management style	5	4	3	2	1
51. Organisational culture	5	4	3	2	1
52. Management support	5	4	3	2	1
53. Co-workers' perceptions or social influence	5	4	3	2	1
54. Uncertainty	5	4	3	2	1
55. Type of change such as technology, restructuring or downsizing	5	4	3	2	1
56. Job security	5	4	3	2	1
57. Power and Prestige	5	4	3	2	1
58. Trust in management	5	4	3	2	1
59. Degree of training and development offered	5	4	3	2	1
60. Organisational Commitment	5	4	3	2	1

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THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING!!