THE PSYCHOLOGICAL ADJUSTMENT OF MIDDLE MANAGERS AFTER REVOLUTIONARY ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

THESIS

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In memory of my Father...

For time changes the nature of
the whole world
and all things must pass on
from one condition to another,
and nothing continues like
to itself;
all things quit their bounds
all things nature changes and
compels to answer.

(Lucretius)

ABSTRACT

With the accelerated process of political and socio-economic transformation in South Africa, revolutionary organisational change has become a given in contemporary South African business life (Human & Horwitz, 1992). For revolutionary organisational change to succeed in South Africa, middle managers who represent the 'cement' of the organisation, need to adjust at the individual level. However, the literature on organisational change remains curiously silent about individual adjustment (Ashford, 1988).

The goals of the research were firstly, to recount the middle manager's perceptions and experiences of revolutionary organisational change. Secondly, to detail the psychological re-orientation and re-identification of middle managers within their 'changed' organisational context. Thirdly, to understand the relative success of middle managers' psychological adjustment.

A single case study design was most appropriate as the study represented a unique case in that it was the most transformed public organisation in South Africa. An initial research group and two theoretically relevant sub-groups were created through theoretical sampling. The data collected through in-depth interviews, direct observation and documentation, and the analysis of this data were jointly undertaken.

The results indicate that the respondents perceived a necessity for revolutionary organisational change due to the political changes within South Africa. However, the actual management of the change process was perceived to be poor as the respondent's experienced a lack of participation and a lack of communication. The traumatic 'side effects' of these experiences included feelings of powerlessness and uncertainty which increased the level of organisational stress. Specific individual differences proved largely ineffective in moderating the increased stress. This was attributed to the violation of the individual respondents' psychological contract and the subsequent shared psychological disorientation. The violation resulted in feelings of hurt, betrayal and resentment which shifted the respondents view of the employment relationship. The respondents were therefore unable to identify with the 'new' organisation. This was evident in their attitudinal and behavioural responses which included a lack of trust, lack of organisational commitment and a shift in work satisfaction as well as ensuing 'offsetting' behaviour and a reluctance to engage in organisational citizenship behaviour. These attitudinal and behavioural responses strongly suggested that the respondents' psychological adjustment was predominantly ineffectual.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF APPENDICES

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

> The need to understand change processes is particularly critical now, when dramatic alterations are underway in the economic, technological, social, and political features of our environment, and people in organizations are struggling to keep pace (Gersick, 1991, p.10).

"Today whole worlds break up, producing a dizzying and disarming spectre of change with which to contend" (Marks, 1994, p.24). This spectre of change is having a dramatic impact on all kinds of organisations, both private and public (Huhn, 1991). Human organisations being open systems are continually pervaded by environmental influences which demand a perpetual interaction with the environment (Beer, 1980; Kiggundu in Blunt & Jones, 1992; Robbins, 1987). Accordingly, organisations cannot exist in any way that is separate from their environment (Morgan, 1986).

The increasingly permeable boundary separating the organisation from its external environment does not allow the organisation to develop in ways which reflect the goals, motives or needs of its members, since it must always acquiesce to the constraints imposed by the environmental influences (Sadler & Barry, 1970). These influences include changes in political, economic and social structures where the organisation's ability to handle and sustain these changes has become directly attributable to its survival and success (Wilson, 1992). This requires the organisation to react to new environmental changes which illustrates a need for change in the internal co-ordination of the parts of the organisation, in terms of individuals, groups and organisational units working together to perform their tasks (Kanter, Stein & Jick, 1992; Kubr, 1996). Part of this change lies in trying to realign the organisation's internal behaviours with the external demands of a changed environment (Clarke, 1994; Tushman, Newman & Romanelli., 1986). This demands a revolutionary change of present "in-company" business practices where underlying organisational structures are fundamentally altered (CBMNT, 1993; Gersick, 1991). More specifically, these changes may include organisational "downsizing" and "delayering" (Kennedy, 1994; Morris & Brandon, 1994; Schreuder & Theron, 1997). Revolutionary organisational change therefore necessitates the transformation of organisational identity, co-ordination and control through a "wholesale upheaval" of the organisations' existing parameters (Gersick, 1991; Kanter et al., 1992; Wilson, 1992).

> For change to occur at the organizational level, however, it must occur at the individual level and, in particular, the ways people interpret the environment in which they operate (Marks, 1994, p.33).

Individual change is therefore the basis for all subsequent change where unless the individual changes, nothing will change (Makin, Cooper & Cox, 1996). Hence, the acceptance of change by all employees is critical but more so by the middle managers of an organisation. Middle management are crucial to any change process where the success of the change often depends on their acceptance of the process. As the people in the middle of an organisation, they are frequently seen as the "cement" of the organisation, where if change is to be achieved the cement must move (Clarke, 1994). Middle managers are therefore required to be flexible and adaptive in the face of organisational change (Hall & Moss, 1998). However, the impact of revolutionary organisational change on employees, and especially middle management has largely been underestimated by organisations embarking on change (Clarke, 1994). Middle managers in particular have been exceptionally 'hard hit' by revolutionary change as they find themselves being the implementors of the change process and subsequently feel caught in the 'middle' of the conflicting agendas, perspectives and demands of those at the top and the bottom of the organisation (Kanter, 1989b; Marks, 1994).

Blunt and Jones (1992) emphasise an urgency for organisational change in Africa, especially in public organisations which are powerfully change resistant. Likewise, it is essential for South African organisations to change in order to survive new threats and take advantage of new opportunities. This change has to be effectively achieved and requires the full participation and commitment of everyone within the organisation. Considering that organisations are human systems, the human dimension in organisational change is fundamental in determining whether change happens (Kubr, 1996). Top management tend to implement change without considering the employees already within the organisation, as the aim is to make the change as quickly as possible. Part of understanding and managing this change is to appreciate the psychological adjustment of all parties in the organisation. Unfortunately, the people side of organisational change is largely under emphasised or barely even mentioned (Kennedy, 1994; Wegerle, 1997). Ashford (1988) notes that the change management literature is surprisingly silent about the impact of revolutionary organisational change on employees or the way employees attempt to adjust to these situations. It is precisely for these reasons that the research has been undertaken.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Understanding organisations

> Our society is an organizational society. We are born in organizations and most of us spend most of our lives working for organizations. We spend much of our leisure time paying, playing and praying in organizations. Most of us will die in an organization and when the time comes for burial, the largest organization of all - the state - must grant official permission (Etzioni, 1964 p.1).

2.1.1 Organisations as metaphor

Organisations are very complex entities which are profoundly difficult to understand. Makin et al. (1996) propose the use of metaphors if we are going to have any hope of making sense of this complexity in order to analyse and solve organisational problems. Metaphors are used for making comparisons between two phenomenon where a clearer understanding of a less understood phenomena is obtained through comparing it with another well established and clearly axiomatic phenomena (Robbins, 1987). Organisational metaphors build on what people already know and do quite naturally (Morgan, 1986). "We are simply encouraged to learn how to think about situations from different standpoints. We are invited to do what we do naturally, but to do so more consciously and broadly" (Morgan, 1986, p.336).

In the first instance, modern organisations can metaphorically be seen as complex living organisms (Human & Horowitz, 1992) as "organizations are alive; that is, they display the same basic functions, structures, and processes as other life forms such as amoeba, plants, and animals" (Tracy, 1989, p.xi).

"Organizations do not exist in any way that is separate from their environment" (Morgan, 1986, p.298). The organisation and the environment are in a state of mutual dependence. In order to create the necessary conditions for survival and prosperity, organisations need to receive "inputs", such as people, machines, money and materials from the external environment and transform them into "outputs" which include goods and services (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1978; Lawrence & Lorsch, 1969; Morgan, 1997; Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn, 1994; Tracy, 1989). All human organisations, like organisms, are therefore *open systems* in that the input of energy and the subsequent conversion of output into further energetic input requires the continual interaction between the organisation and its environment (Beer, 1980; Morgan, 1986; Katz & Kahn, 1966; Robbins, 1987). Organisations are however also social systems as they consist of individual employees performing interdependent activities in the pursuit of a

common output (Beer, 1980; Katz & Kahn, 1966). Lawrence and Lorsch (1969, p.3) therefore define organisations as "the co-ordination of different activities of individual contributors to carry out planned transactions with the environment".

Open systems theory is applied in order to "explain the dynamic interrelationships of several parts of a larger whole as it interacts with its environment" (Beer, 1980, p.17). Organisations as open systems do have unique properties. By virtue of being open systems, they share a number of common characteristics with other living organisms (Beer, 1980; Katz & Kahn, 1992).

The first characteristic of open systems is the receiving of informative inputs which relate to their functioning within the environment (Katz & Kahn, 1992). Similarly there is an "information flow between the organisation and its environment" (Beer, 1980, p.17). The simplest type of information input found in all systems is negative feedback. "Information feedback of a negative kind enables the system to correct its deviations from course" (Katz & Kahn, 1992, p.275) by adjusting various internal components (Beer, 1980). Negative feedback provides a means of ensuring organisational survival as open systems need to maintain an energy reserve by importing more energy from its environment than is needed (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1978). This ensures negative entropy which prevents the disorganisation and "death" of the system (Beer, 1980; Hellriegel & Slocum, 1978; Katz & Kahn, 1992). Beer (1980) and Hellriegel and Slocum (1978) suggest that organisations reduce entropy through maintaining a monetary reserve, training and motivating employees to meet the demands placed on the organisation, and lowering production costs. To maintain a state of negative entropy, the open system demands a constant energy exchange with its environment where inputs are continuously imported to the system and outputs exported to the environment. When this process is disrupted forces restore the system to its previous state (Katz & Kahn, 1992). Open systems are therefore stable and adaptive as a steady state is maintained through the homeostatic process of self regulation (Bennis, Benne, Chin & Corey, 1976; Hellriegel & Slocum, 1978; Katz & Kahn, 1992). A further characteristic of open systems is that they are differentiated in that they become elaborate and complex (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1978; Katz & Kahn, 1992). Differentiation when applied to organisations can be defined as "the state of segmentation of the organizational system into subsystems each of which tends to develop particular attributes in relation to the requirements posed by its relevant external environment" (Mintzberg in Hellriegel & Slocum, 1978, p.82). The organisation does however retain holism as the subsystems are integrated in an effort to accomplish the organisational tasks (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1978). The final characteristic of open systems is the principle of equifinality where "a system can reach the same final state from differing initial conditions and by a variety of paths" (von Bertalanffy in Katz & Kahn, 1992, p. 227). Hellriegel and Slocum (1978) suggest that equifinality has implications for organisations as there may be a

number of solutions to certain problems. Consequently, different organisations may apply different strategies when dealing with the same problems depending on their unique character and environment.

Open systems theory is therefore useful when applied to organisations as emphasis is placed on the importance of the environmental forces which impact on the functioning of the system where the necessity to study these forces is imperative in understanding organisations (Katz & Kahn, 1992). Senge (1990) does however suggest that it is difficult to view the whole organisational system as we tend to focus on "snapshots" of isolated parts of the system. Consequently, he proposes "systems thinking" which is a discipline for seeing the organisational system as a whole. Senge (1990, p.69) further argues:

> Today, systems thinking is needed more than ever because we are becoming overwhelmed by complexity. Perhaps for the first time in history, humankind has the capacity to create far more information than anyone can absorb, to foster far greater interdependency than anyone can manage, and to accelerate change far faster than anyone's ability to keep pace.

2.1.2 The changing organisational environment

Blunt and Jones (1992) argue that the overwhelmingly distinctive characteristic of the twentieth centuary is the disturbingly rapid, continuous and turbulent change. The entire world is undergoing major transition with unprecedented pace, complexity and magnitude that has never before been experienced (Beckhard & Pritchard, 1992; Kanter, Stein & Jick, 1992; Kubr, 1996). Schein (in Blunt & Jones, 1992) observes that in recent years there has been an acceleration in the rate of technological, socio-cultural, political and economic change which "clearly suggest the emergence of a change in the environment that is suggestive of turbulence" (Bennis et al., 1976, p.181). Vaill (1989) describes the organisational environment as being in a state of "permanent white water" where "organizations operate in an environment which is continually changing" (Kubr, 1996, p.72). Consequently, some of these changes impact on the shape and character of organisations (Kanter et al., 1992).

The interdependence between organisations and their environments has increased (Bennis et al., 1976) as the boundaries separating organisations from their external environment have become more "fluid" and "permeable" (Clarke, 1994; Kanter et al., 1992). Consequently, ubiquitous change produces numerous "forces" that impact on the organisation. These forces include the availability and dissemination of information; changes in the composition and demographic profile of workforces; product obsolescence; and the eradication of international trade barriers allowing for global competition (Huhn, 1991; Mullins in Blunt & Jones, 1992; Schreuder & Theron, 1997).

"An organizational system shares with biological systems the property of an intense interdependence of parts such that a change in one part has an impact on the others" (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1969, p.9). Consequently, changes in the environment have tumultuous effects on individuals, groups and organisations (Bennis et al., 1976).

Morgan (1986) suggests that changes in the external environment are the primary problem facing modern organisations. Rapid change has made it fundamental for organisations to manage their interactions with their turbulent environments. This can only be accomplished through organisations producing equally fast adaptive responses (Kubr, 1996; Mullins in Blunt & Jones, 1992; Porras & Silvers, 1991). Reed (1992, p.82) notes that in order for organisations to ensure their long term survival and effectiveness, they need "to achieve a suitable balance between their internal operational core and their external environmental circumstances". This implies a need for change in the internal co-ordination of the parts of the organisation in terms of individuals, groups or organisational units working together to perform their tasks (Kanter et al., 1992). Part of this change lies in trying to rearrange the organisation's internal behaviours with the demands of the external environmental. This leads to bold changes across structures, systems, people and culture (Clarke, 1994).

Consequently, organisations can no longer "evolve or develop in ways which merely reflect the goals, motives or needs of its members or of its leadership, since it must always bow to the constraints imposed on it by the nature of its relationship with the environment" (Sadler & Barry, 1970, p.58). Organisations therefore need to organise with the environment in mind where cognisance is taken of the specific interactional "task environment" containing market and technological factors and the broader "contextual environment" composed of general society (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1978; Morgan, 1986).

2.2 The changing South African contextual environment

> The assumption cannot be made that change is a simple matter of adjustment to external pressures. Certainly they act as constraints and produce pressures to which there has to be a response. But such contextual features have to be recognised and responses have to be worked out by the members of an organisation (Hinings & Greenwood, 1988, p.42).

"In Africa, as elsewhere in developing countries, society and environment pervade organisations" (Kiggundu in Blunt & Jones, 1992, p.1). "South Africa is no exception to the rule, since it finds itself in an accelerated process of change at this stage of its development" (Schutte in van Vuuren, Wiehahn, Rhoodie & Wiechers, 1988, p.7).

Rapid transformation in South Africa was inevitable as smaller changes in the country necessitated urgent reform (Consultative Business Movement National Team, 1993; Schutte in van Vuuren et al., 1988). Hence, "South Africa is undergoing both transitional and evolutionary changes at a number of important levels" (Gxwala, 1995, p.12). These various levels include the political, economic and social spheres within the country (CBMNT, 1993; Gxwala, 1995).

The South African political environment has changed very dramatically with the dawning of new political institutions and arrangements (Gxwala, 1995).

> At the level of the political system and political discourse, the contrast between present day South Africa and the past could hardly be more dramatic. Within a space of 5 years after the unbanning of the organisation of national liberation movement in February 1990, through a process of negotiation, the racially structured and repressive political system gave way to a new non-racial constitution and to the democratic election of April 1994 of a government committed to consultative and open governance (Wolpe, 1995, p.92).

Van der Walt and Helmbold (1995) argue that due to the prominent political change in South Africa, the question of socio-economic change remains in abeyance. Van der Walt and du Toit (1997, p.104) however suggest that "no environmental component can be seen in isolation. Therefore, the political changes also have a significant correlation with change in especially the social and economic components of the environment".

The political transformation in South Africa has been coupled with changes in the country's social and economic spheres as the Government of National Unity (GNU) of the day committed itself to bringing about transformation in the South African social and economic order (CBMNT, 1993; Wolpe, 1995). The role of government in the economy and society has changed as political transformation provides the necessary "instrument" for socio-economic transformation (van Vuuren et al., 1988; Wolpe, 1995).

The Reconstruction and development programme (RDP) remained the "principle instrument" for transforming the social and economic order, and improving the quality of life in South Africa (Coetzee, 1994; Wolpe, 1995). "The RDP is an integrated, coherent socio-economic policy framework" (African National Congress, 1994, p.1), which aimed to mobilise the country's citizens and resources in order to eliminate the last vestiges of apartheid (van der Walt & Helmbold, 1995). The RDP was "based on the premise that South Africa must be transformed fundamentally into a society in which the needs of all the people are met, irrespective of race, gender and class" (Coetzee, 1994, p.1). Hence, the RDP provided the framework for addressing the socio-economic transformation and development in South Africa, and

expressed the confidence placed in the wisdom, organisational skills and perseverance of the inhabitants of greater South Africa (van der Walt & du Toit, 1997; van der Walt & Helmbold, 1995).

"Rapid and often dramatic change is almost a given in contemporary South African business life" (Human & Horwitz, 1992, p.6). A recent survey indicates that South African organizations are in a constant state of flux (Schreuder & Theron, 1997) as profound changes are having a dramatic impact on both private and public organisations and are affecting the way business operates (Huhn, 1991). Kast and Rosenzweig (in van der Walt & du Toit, 1997) suggest that the general environment remains the same for all organisations in a given community. Consequently, changes within the general environment have a similar impact on different organisations within the given community. Human and Horwitz (1992) and van der Walt and du Toit (1997) however, argue that changes in the macro-environment have a varying impact and influence on different organisations.

Public institutions function within a political milieu. Consequently, a change in government leads to a change in the public sector as public organisations adjust to changing needs and changing political policy (van der Walt & du Toit, 1997; van der Walt & Helmbold, 1995). Public organisations have therefore undergone "rationalization" and "reorganization" in an effort to operate in an environment characterised by complexity, uncertainty, increased instability and an extraordinary interdependence of environmental factors (van der Walt & du Toit, 1997).

Blunt and Jones (1992, p.228) note that "in many African countries, public institutions have been required to be the engine of national development". South Africa is no exception as public organisations are required to reinforce and support the RDP (ANC, 1994). Consequently, public organisations must adequately represent civil society through a programme of affirmative action as well as remain transparent in decision making and organisational structure (ANC, 1994; van der Walt & Helmbold, 1995). Public organisations are further required to function within the framework of public policy by informing the general public and remaining accountable to parliament (Ibid).

"South Africa is relatively better endowed in human and other resources and therefore somewhat better placed to deal with this challenge" (Gxwala, 1995, p.14). However, there still remains an urgent need for organisational change in South Africa as public and private organisations play a crucial role in the country's transformation (Blunt & Jones, 1992; CBMNT, 1993). Consequently, this need for organisational change "demands an overhaul of the everyday operations and machinery of business from the 'engine room' to the boardroom" (CBMNT, 1993, p.2).

2.3 Understanding organisational change

> Everything flows and nothing abides; everything gives way and nothing stays fixed.... Cool things become warm, the warm grows cool; the moist dries, the parched becomes moist.... It is in changing that things find repose (Heraclitus in Morgan, 1986, p.251).

2.3.1 Defining organisational change

Organisational change has long been recognised as an important sub-discipline of organisational theory as it impacts substantially on both organisational behaviour and organisational analysis (Wilson, 1992). However, organisational change has often generated "more heat than light" as the concept is often treated as objective fact but in reality is riddled with ambiguity (Kanter et al., 1992). Consequently, organisational theory warns against the view of organisational change as objective fact by proposing "that, like many organizational issues, change is predominantly a perceptual phenomenon, understandable only in terms of individuals' accounts and definitions of the situation" (Wilson, 1992, p.7).

However, the conventional idea of organisational change can be understood as a transitional concept which involves the perceptible difference in an organisation between two successive "fixed" points in time (Kanter et al., 1992; Kubr, 1996; Wilson, 1992). This understanding of organisational change remains consistent with Lewin's (1951) classic three-stage planned change model. Lewin suggested that organisations remained in a fixed state of equilibrium due to a balance in the driving and restraining forces of change (Marshak, 1993; Wilson, 1992). Consequently, successful organisational change requires a planned intervention where an *unfreezing* of the organisational status quo allows for *movement* toward a new desired organisational state and a subsequent *refreezing* of the desired state by re-establishing equilibrium through balancing the field of forces (Kanter et al., 1992; Marshak, 1993; Robbins, 1987; Schermerhorn, Hunt, & Osborn, 1994; Wilson, 1992). As Burke in Marshak (1993, p.397) summarises:

> Thus, according to Lewin, bringing about lasting change means initially unlocking or unfreezing the present social system. This might require some kind of confrontation.... Next, behavioral movement must occur in the direction of desired change.... Finally, deliberate steps must be taken to ensure that the new state of behavior remains relatively permanent.

Kanter et al. (1992) argue that Lewin's three-stage model of planned change is grossly inappropriate as the model proposes that organisational change be viewed as a linear and static conception. Instead, organisations are fluid entities in continual omnipresent and "multidirectional" motion where the

particular stages overlap and "interpenetrate" in important ways. Consequently, organisational change is a relative concept. "That is, when we talk of organizational change we really mean the degree of change taking place rather than assuming that change is the antithesis of some assumed stability" (Wilson, 1992, p.8).

2.3.2 The varying degrees of organisational change

Various authors describe the varying degrees of organisational change in different ways. However, there remains a general consensus that organisational change can be characterised as developmental (evolutionary) or transformational (revolutionary) change (Marshak, 1993). Thus Beer (1980), Greiner (1972) and Kubr (1996) distinguish between evolutionary and revolutionary change; Kleiner and Corrigan (1989) between developmental, transitional, and transformational change; Porras and Silvers (1991) between development and transformation; Schermerhorn, Hunt, and Osborn (1994) between incremental and radical change; Gersick (1991) between incremental and revolutionary change; Tushman, Newman, and Romanelli (1986) and Tushman and O'Reilly (1997) between incremental and "frame-breaking" change; and Hammer and Champy (1993) between incremental change and transformational reengineering. Marshak (1993, p.395) further suggests that these distinctions are "not just a question of classification but of theory and practice as well".

Evolutionary change is necessary as in order to survive, organisations as open systems need to adapt to the demands of their external environment (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1978; Tushman & O'Reilly, 1997). Hence, every organisation experiences a great deal of natural evolutionary change (Kubr, 1996) which is not necessarily automatic but rather a contest for survival (Greiner, 1972).

The natural evolution of an organisation occurs "through predictable stages of development" (Kleiner & Corrigan, 1989, p.25) where prolonged periods of incremental change occur within the parameters of the organisation (Wilson, 1992). Such change continuously improves and enhances organisational effectiveness (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1978; Schermerhorn et al., 1994). This incremental change focuses on maintaining congruence within the organisation through the elaboration of "structures, systems, controls and resources towards increased coalignment" (Cummings & Staw in Tushman & Romanelli, 1985, p.173). The environment remains "compatible with the existing structure of a company" (Tushman et al., 1986, p.34) where the organisational system is seen to be "fundamentally sound" (Tushman et al., 1986). Consequently, incremental change builds on the existing ways of operating (Schermerhorn et al., 1994) through merely changing the systems parts as opposed to altering the whole (Gersick, 1991).

Tushman and O'Reilly (1997) argue that although incremental change is imperative for an organisations' short term success, it remains insufficient for long term survival as different stages in an organisations development require more suitable structures; systems; controls; and resources to function in different environmental conditions. Instead, Gersick (1991); Tushman and O'Reilly (1997); and Tushman and Romanelli (1985) propose a "punctuated equilibrium model" of organisational evolution whereby long periods of incremental change are punctuated by discontinuous revolutionary change.

Revolutionary change "occurs in response to or, better yet, in anticipation of major environmental changes - changes which require more than incremental adjustments" (Tushman et al., 1986, p.36) Organisations therefore, embark on revolutionary change in an effort to realign themselves with the changed environment (Tushman et al., 1986). This is driven by a shift in business strategy due to performance crises or technological, competitive or regulatory shifts (Tushman et al., 1986; Tushman & O'Reilly, 1997).

Unlike incremental change which leaves organisational structures unscathed (Hammer & Champy, 1993), revolutionary change does not reinforce the exiting organisational system (Tushman et al., 1986). Instead, revolutionary change focuses on shifting or redefining the organisations' existing parameters (Wilson, 1992) through fundamentally transforming the organisations underlying structures; power; processes; and controls toward a "new coalignment" (Gersick, 1991; Tushman et al, 1986; Tushman & Romanelli, 1985). Thus revolutionary organisational change requires the altering of organisational identity, co-ordination and control (Kanter et al., 1992) where transformation in any one of these areas requires a complex of smaller changes that culminate in larger procedural and structural change (Kanter, 1989; Peters, 1987). This level of organisational change cannot be achieved gradually as organisational politics, individual employee resistance, and organisational inertia stunt the change process (Gersick, 1991; Tushman et al., 1986). Consequently, revolutionary change is abrupt and rapid (Beer, 1980; Tushman et al, 1986).

Gersick (1991) and Hammer and Champy (1993) suggest that revolutionary change results in cataclysmic upheaval as organisations "start over" by eliminating old organisational structures and introducing new ones. Hence, revolutionary change represents a number of important shifts in organisational emphasis which are shaping the organisation of the future (Kanter, 1997). These shifts include a "streamlining" or "restructuring" of the organisational operation through reducing the size of the organisation by designing more flexible and "leaner" organisational structures (Morris & Brandon, 1993). Organisations are also replacing vertical hierarchies with "flatter", less bureaucratic horizontal networks, where interfunctional teams work across functional boundaries (Clarke, 1994; Hirshhorn &

Gilmore, 1992; Kanter, 1997; Kanter, 1989a; Schreuder & Theron, 1997). Thus, the goal of revolutionary change is to create the "corporation without boundaries" (Hirshhorn & Gilmore, 1992, p.104) and to achieve "synergies - the value that comes when the whole adds up to more than the sum of the parts" (Kanter, 1989b, p.58).

Since the objective of revolutionary change "is to redesign a business around its core working processes rather than to improve existing functions and departmental performance, it will naturally end up with fewer people (making fewer inter-functional handoffs)" (Kennedy, 1994, p.64). Revolutionary change often leads to a reduction in an organisation's workforce, in an effort to reduce organisational costs, better profits and increase the level of production (Morris & Brandon, 1994; Schreuder & Theron, 1997). Caplan and Teese (1997) and Knowdell, Branstead and Moravec (1994) argue that a reduction in the size of an organisations workforce may also be an important proactive element in an organisation's long-term strategy and not necessarily a cost-focus reaction.

"Statistics indicate that between 1989 and 1994 South African organizations have reduced their staff by about 20% because of restructuring, about 169 000 jobs have been lost and more than 800 000 employees affected. A recent survey indicates that about 45% of South African organizations expect a decrease in their staff strength" (Schreuder & Theron, 1997, p.109-110). Consequently, organisations that once viewed their staff as assets to be nurtured and developed now view those same people as costs, that need to be cut through "downsizing" (Noer, 1993).

Downsizing initiatives are often accompanied by "delayering". Peters (1987) argues that organisations have too many hierarchical layers, and therefore too much staff. Middle managers are increasingly at risk as organisations attempt to "delayer" organisational hierarchies through eliminating middle management ranks. This is done in an effort to become "flatter" and get decision makers "closer to the customer" as well as improving vertical and horizontal information flow (Clarke, 1994; Marks, 1994; Schreuder & Theron, 1997). Hofmeyer (1991) suggests that there is debate about the role of middle managers in organisations as computer technology, outsourcing, networking and the employment of specialists threatens the job and status of middle managers (Schreuder & Theron, 1997). Drucker (1988) further illustrates this by predicting that "the typical large business 20 years hence will have fewer than half the levels of management of its counterparts today and no more than a third of the managers" (p.45).

Levels of middle management therefore seem to be disappearing as organisations embark on revolutionary change and employ more specialists with particular skills and knowledge (Schreuder &

Theron, 1997). Notwithstanding, Porter and Mckibbin in Hofmeyr (1991, p.292) "note that there is little systematic evidence that this trend is happening yet on a major scale". Marks (1994) however, argues that recent statistics show that unlike previous reductions in the workforce, white-collar employees and particularly middle managers were especially "hard hit" in recent organisational downsizings.

2.4 Understanding the 'side-effects' of organisational change

> Changes and their effects are distributed throughout organizations. Some of them are visible, some are not. Some are captured in the systems and structures of the organization, others in the minds of members, and still others in external adjustments. Some take effect or cause ripples soon, others need to ripen before they can flower (Kanter et al., 1992, p.5).

The success of revolutionary organisational change and particularly downsizing have had decisively mixed results. "Recent research suggests that the benefits of corporate downsizing may be illusory" (Tomow & De Meuse, 1994, p.166). Surviving employees find themselves thrust into a chaotic organisational environment where the organisation's business objectives are expected to be achieved (Caplan & Teese, 1997; Marks, 1994). Kanter (1989b) suggests that the employee's sense of "limited individual power" in the change process and organisational "discontinuity", "disorder" and "distraction" are among the many *side-effects* of revolutionary change, which often leave the surviving employees and the organisation in a state of confusion and disarray (Beer, 1980). Cohen and Cohen (1993) further suggest that the traumatic side-effects of revolutionary organisational change may psychologically disorientate an entire organisation resulting in the organisation suffering from "post-traumatic stress disorder". In reaction to the stress, an organisation may exhibit symptoms including shock, erratic behaviour, an over reference to a past negative event and actions that conflict with crucial organisational needs.

Kanter (1989b) argues that the most permanent and far reaching side-effect of revolutionary change is the employee's awareness of the realities of limits to individual power. The change process threatens to disempower large numbers of employees and illuminate and enhance those who have the power.

Change "commanders" or strategists consist of executive management who identify the need and lay the foundation for organisational change. They specialise in composing the organisational vision and planning and managing the change process (Kanter et al., 1992, Marks, 1994). "As initiators and conceptualizers, strategists inherently experience more *control*" (Kanter et al., 1992, p.377) they also

have the most control over their situation (Marks, 1994). In contrast, change "implementers" consist of middle managers who effectively "make it happen". They are "sold" on the merits of organisational change and enact the necessary steps to ensure the effective implementation of the vision. Implementers have less control than strategists and subsequently feel caught in the middle. They experience insufficient support and communication about the overall direction of the organisation and a lack of authority to make change happen (CBMNT, 1993; Kanter et al., 1992). The subsequent success of any organisational change intervention is determined by the change "recipients" who constitute the largest group of employees in the organisation (Kanter et al., 1992). Consequently, "their response and reaction to change can fundamentally reshape that change" (Kanter et al., 1992, p.379). The recipients experience the least control as they are often too far removed from the source of the change (Kanter et al., 1992).

Revolutionary organisational change "increases the likelihood of unilateral managerial action" (Kanter, 1989b, p.66) as the disruptive nature of change dictates that someone should clearly be in charge. However, some managers interpret this as a need to take drastic decisions quickly without necessarily considering or conversing with the employees in the organisation. Under these circumstances, change implementers and recipients are reminded of their marginal status making them feel more dependent and less valued in the change process (Kanter, 1989b). Consequently, "the biggest concern which most people in organizations have about change is that it is something which is done to them rather than by them" (Clarke, 1994, p.85). Hence, employees sense a loss of control and power over their work lives, as important "work-shaping" as well as "life-shaping" decisions are made by a handful of people (Clarke, 1994; Kanter, 1989b; Marks, 1994).

Other effects of change are the reality of discontinuity, disorder and distraction. "The essence of change is the move from the known to the unknown" (Clarke, 1994, p.157). Inconsistencies develop between what was once appropriate and what will be appropriate after the change emphasising the discontinuity of change (Kanter et al., 1992).

"In such situations, individuals lack sufficient guidelines for acting appropriately in a changing context" (Ashford, 1988, p.20). Thus, revolutionary change also produces a sense of disorder which disrupts the sense of adequacy in the organisation (Kanter 1989b; Odiorne, 1981). The changes which are not of our own forging or choosing produce uneasiness. "The more radical the change, the deeper and more lasting the uneasiness" (Odiorne, 1981, p.26).

Revolutionary change also engenders ambiguity about possible further terminations and the necessity to survive in a new organisational context (Ashford, 1988). This produces a "window of vulnerability" which increases the organisation's exposure to "disease" precisely when the organisation is weakened. This window results from surviving employees being distracted in an effort to reaffirm their organisational membership (Kanter, 1989b).

A third significant side effect is the uncertainty experienced by employees. "The impact of a transition will be felt through the uncertainty it engenders and the disruption it creates" (Ashford, 1988, p.21). "One of the most frequently cited concomitants of extensive organisational change among employees has been heightened perceptions of uncertainty" (Nelson, Cooper & Jackson, 1995, p.59). Organisational change is characterised by uncertainty in procedures, social norms and standards which will apply (Graves, 1981; Kanter, 1989b).

Nelson et al. (1995) suggest that perceptions of the current organisational climate, a lack of communication, role ambiguity and a feeling of isolation are factors that reflect an underlying uncertainty within an organisations' working environment. Milliken (1987, p.136) defines uncertainty as "an individual's perceived inability to predict something accurately. An individual experiences uncertainty because he/she perceives himself/herself to be lacking sufficient information to predict accurately or because he/she feels unable to discriminate between relevant data and irrelevant data". Uncertainty corresponds with a breakdown in organisational communication and a subsequent lack of information (Clarke, 1994; Milliken, 1987). Morris and Brandon (1994) attribute this to a lack of contact between the highest and lowest levels of an organisation. The problem of communication is worse in larger organisations as traditionally bureaucratic hierarchical structures soak and distort messages from the top as the middle attempts to disguise facts from themselves and others in an effort to maintain the status quo (Clarke, 1994; Odiorne, 1981). Kanter (1989b) suggests that the extent of the breakdown in communication is determined by the effectiveness of individual managers. "Some managers do a better job than others in keeping their people informed" (Kanter, 1989b, p.62). Caplan and Teese (1997) however, argue that communication problems in organisations are understandable as revolutionary change is new and managers have little experience of transition management. Consequently, managers are distracted by other transition responsibilities and preoccupied by their own anxiety (Marks, 1994).

Uncertainty increases the employee's need for information (Heslin, Blake & Rotton, 1972). If an organisation does not communicate and effectively manage the flow of information, its employees experience withdrawal (Noer, 1993). The "information gaps" are filled in with theories, assumptions

and worse-case scenarios which are based on fragments of information (Caplan & Teese, 1997; Caudron, 1996b; Larkin & Larkin, 1996; Marks, 1994; Noer, 1993). "Rumours are created and take on a life of their own" (Kanter, 1989b, p.62) leading to a "grapevine" consisting of both accurate and inaccurate information (Odiorne, 1981) which runs rampant throughout the change process (Duck, 1993). Consequently, rumours are "paralyzing" and therefore, more damaging and destructive than the truth, damaging to both the organisation and the individual employees (Caudron, 1996c; Kanter, 1989b; Marks, 1994).

"Transitions have important outcomes, including psychological change in the person, role innovation behaviours, and varying degrees of stress and strain" (Jackson & Nicholson, 1992, p.161). If managed incorrectly, revolutionary change is accompanied by human pain and organisational inefficiencies which debilitate both the employee's well-being and the organisation's effectiveness (Tushman et al., 1986; Marks, 1994). The impact of organisational change on employees includes both psychological and behavioural implications which "clearly has resulted in a human problem for organizations and their leaders" (Marks, 1994, p.60).

2.5 Understanding the psychology of revolutionary organisational change

> ...the *rate* of change has implications quite apart from, and sometimes more important than, the *directions* of change (Toffler, 1970, p.5).

Change needs to take place at the individual employee level in order to occur at the organisational level (Marks, 1994). However, the most common error in organisations embarking on change initiatives is to underestimate the impact change has on its "surviving" employees (Clarke, 1994; Wegerle, 1997). As a result, little is being done to help surviving employees come to terms with the trauma of organisational change or understand their roles in the new, leaner organisational structure (Caudron, 1996c). Kennedy (1994) states that revolutionary change cannot be accomplished without a cost in human terms as "employees must not only survive but adapt and thrive in the midst of all these changes" (Caplan & Teese, 1997, p.2). "Organizations may operate within a context of ongoing radical changes, but people can only handle so much disruption" (Marks, 1994, p.77). Alvin Toffler (1970) therefore, coined the term "future shock" to describe the psychological impact on individuals exposed to too much change in too short a time.

Employees equate the experiences of revolutionary organisational change with the experiences of other forms of major personal loss (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995; Kanter et al., 1992). Change always involves

loss, loss of the past, of routine, comfort, identity and relationship. Change also entails increased anxiety as individuals detach themselves from the safety and familiarity of the past. Change can however also be the start of something new, providing exciting new challenges, options, rewards and experiences. Even unwelcome change provides opportunity for personal growth and learning (Clarke, 1994). Organisational change therefore, has no significant difference from personal change. Individuals have typical responses towards both personal change and organisational change which include, shock; defensive retreat or denial; acknowledgement; and adaptation.

Personal life stress which is conceptualised in terms of negative life change (Johnson & Sarason, 1978) leads to emotional/affective, cognitive and behavioural "outcome" or "strains" (Bhagat, 1983). "Although it is reasonable to assume that high levels of change have a negative effect on individuals, it seems likely that these effects vary from person to person and are mediated by specific individual difference variables" (Johnson & Sarason, 1978, p.205). Hence, the focus of change can be particularly individual at times (Dyer, 1984) where some individuals adjust and accommodate more readily to change than others (Holmes & Rahe, 1967). "Consequently theoretical models of stress and adaptation have emphasized the role of intrapersonal and social factors mediating the impact of stressors on the individual" (Duckitt & Broll, 1982, p.377).

Bhagat (1983), Folkman and Lazarus (1985), and Kobasa (1979) define a stressful event as a change in an individual's life which demands a readjustment of the individual's normal routine where the individual's resources are taxed or exceeded. An important determinant of the effects of life stress on the individual will be the way that the individual takes to the stressful life event (Kobasa, 1979). This is determined by the individual's personality which is characterised by the extent of their personal *hardiness*. Hardy individuals believe that they have an internal locus of control where they can influence environmental events, they feel deeply committed to the activities of their lives and they view change as an exciting challenge to further their own development (Bhagat, 1983; Johnson & Sarason, 1978; Kobasa, 1979). As a result, hardy individuals are less likely to experience depression and anxiety due to stressful life change and more likely to remain healthier than those who are less hardy (Ashford, 1988; Johnson & Sarason, 1978; Kobasa, 1979).

A further determinant of the effects of life stress on the individual is *social support*. Duckitt and Broll (1982, p.377) suggest "that although social support in itself would not have a direct effect on health, it could be envisaged as buffering or cushioning the individual from the physiological or psychological consequences of exposure to stressors". Research suggest that the presence of other people in supportive roles serves to protect the individual from the effects of environmental stressors (Bhagat, 1983).

Folkman and Lazarus (1985, p151) describe social support "in terms of the relatively stable size or character of one's social network, or how emotionally supported one generally feels". Bhagat (1983) argues that social support consists of information which allows the individual to believe that he/she is cared for, loved and valued. This implies that the quality rather than the quantity of the social network is of greater importance in social support. Support from co-workers effectively decreases the level of individual anxiety experienced from work-related stressors. However, this only occurs when work group cohesion increases (Bhagat, 1983; Khan, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek & Rosenthal, 1964). Consequently, a lack of work-group cohesion results in the effects of work-related stressors being predominantly lessened by familial support, where negative emotions generated at work spill over onto the family (Burke & Greenglass, 1987). This is referred to as "negative emotional spillover" which can create an unhealthy home environment. Duckitt and Broll (1982) therefore, suggest that there is little conceptually explicit evidence to suggest that social support does in fact buffer the individual from stressful life events. Taylor (1983) however argues that with the use of individual resources and social networks, most individuals are able to readjust after a life stressing event.

The ability to *cope* is a further determinant of how the individual will experience stressful events (Latack, 1984). Coping strategies are viewed as overt and covert behavioural patterns as well as cognitive efforts by which an individual can prevent, alleviate or tolerate stress-inducing circumstances (Latack, 1984; Folkman & Lazarus, 1985). In the literature three categories of coping have been identified (Latack, 1984). Firstly, individuals cope by taking action on the stressor situation. Folkman and Lazarus (1985) refer to this as "problem-focused coping" where the individual attempts to directly change the stressor situation for the better or alter their relationship to the situation (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985; Latack, 1984). "Cognitive reappraisal" is the second coping category where the individual alters his/her cognitions and re-evaluates the stressful situation so that it does not seem so stressful (Bhagat, 1983; Latack, 1984). Alternately, Taylor (1983) purports a theory of "cognitive adjustment" which centres around a search for meaning and involves causal attributions in an effort to understand why a crisis occurred and what its impact has been. Taylor (1983) further emphasises the individual's endeavour to enhance the self and restore self-esteem through comparing oneself with those who are worse off. Finally, individuals may attempt to manage the stress symptoms by directly altering or relieving the affective and physiological stress symptoms through exercise, relaxation training and the use or abuse of alcohol and drugs (Latack, 1984). Similarly, Taylor (1983) refers to "gaining a sense of mastery" or control over one's life through applying techniques such as meditation, imaging, self-hypnosis, positive thinking or a combination of factors.

Lifton in Noer (1993) suggests that there are individuals with an inability to come to terms with the permanency of loss who are incapable of breaking their co-dependency with the old and structure a new relationship with the reality of a changed world. These individuals do not readjust successfully and are susceptible to "survivor syndrome". Noer (1993) and Marks (1994) argue that linkages exist between survivors of revolutionary organisational change and survivors of more severe, life threatening events. Noer (1993) identifies three primary linkages between various survivors which include: firstly, a similarity of symptoms such as guilt, anxiety, and fear; secondly, a common sense of violation and a preoccupation with death imagery; and thirdly, a blurred distinction between survivors and victims due to a shared sense of victimisation. These links are further illustrated by U.S. News and World Report reporting that, "the survivors of corporate downsizing are like recovering casualties of a lost war - grateful to be alive, but uncertain of what they are living for" (Marks, 1994, p.63). Hence, Noer (1993) defines employee survivor sickness as a generic concept describing the attitudes, feelings and perceptions held by employees who remain in the organisational system after revolutionary change. Noer (1993) and Rousseau (1989) suggest that the root cause of survivor sickness is a profound shift in and subsequent violation of the psychological employment contract which binds the individual and organisation. The higher the sense of violation to the psychological contract, the greater the individual's susceptibility to the symptoms of survivor sickness (Noer, 1993).

2.6 Understanding the psychological contract

> Contracts are a ubiquitous and necessary feature of organizations. They serve to bind together individuals and organizations and regulate their behavior, making possible the achievement of organizational goals. Accordingly, they merit a prominent place in the study of organizations (Robinson, Kraatz & Rousseau, 1994, p.137).

"Few people are aware of it or acknowledge it, but there is a contract involved in *every* employment relationship" (Baker, 1985, p.37). Contracts remain the bedrock to employment relations, establishing the inducements and contributions fundamental to organisational membership (Robinson, 1995; Rousseau, 1990). Not all contracts within the employment relationship are written. For example, both employer and employee silently draft an implicit psychological agreement which binds the two parties (Baker, 1985; Dunahee & Wangler, 1974; Tornow & De Meuse, 1994). This agreement is termed a "psychological contract" and functions as powerfully as its explicit, legally written counterpart (Baker, 1985; Dunahee & Wangler, 1974). All individuals formulate a psychological contract when employed by an organisation (Clarke, 1994). Subsequently, this contract has been "described as part of the 'joining up' process" (Rousseau, 1989, p.126).

2.6.1 Defining the psychological contract

"When an individual joins an organization, he does so because of his *expectations* of what he can get in exchange for his services" (Roosevelt Thomas, 1984, p.308, italics added). Dunahee and Wangler (1974) suggest that as Maslow theorised, the individual has an entire hierarchy of needs that he/she expects the organization to meet in varying degrees. Similarly, organizations also have expectations regarding the prospective employee. These expectations are detailed in policies, rules and practices that vary in explicitness and clarity (Baker, 1985). Schein (1970, p.12) therefore states that, "the notion of a psychological contract implies that the individual has a variety of expectations of the organization and that the organization has a variety of expectations of him. These expectations not only cover how much work is to be performed for how much pay, but also involve the whole pattern of rights, privileges, and obligations between worker and organization". Hence, the psychological contract consists of all implicit and explicit expectations of the employer and employee (Baker, 1985).

"The organization tacitly accepts the individual's expectations when it employs the individual. In turn, the worker tacitly accepts the organizations expectations" (Baker, 1985, p.37). However, new employees generally hold highly unrealistic expectations of the organisation and have exaggerated anticipations of job realities (Baker, 1985). However, on entering the organisation these employees are confronted with an ambiguous organisational context where their initial unrealistic expectations are unmet, resulting in the experience of "reality shock" (Jones, 1983; Taormina, 1997). In an effort to reduce the ambiguity of the organisational context, "newcomers search for the interpretative schemes that allow them to define the expectations of others and thus to orient their behavior to others" (Jones, 1983, p.465). This process is facilitated through the socialisation practices employed by the organisation which allow new employees to "learn the ropes" such as acquiring the necessary knowledge; skills; and attitudes to become successful members of the organisation (Gordon, 1993; Jones, 1983; Sherman & Bohlander, 1992; Taormina, 1997). The socialisation practices in turn, enable new employees to psychologically orientate themselves and make sense of the organisational context (Jones, 1983). Schein (1970) therefore emphasises that the psychological contract is implemented from the organisation's "point of view". The organisation's view is enforced through the notion of authority as the newcomer's decision to join the organisation implies that the individual is committed to accepting the authority system of the organisation. This commitment to the organisation is characterised by the employee's acceptance of the organisational values, a willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organisation and a desire to remain an employee of the organisation (Mowday, Porter & Steers in Rousseau, 1989). Alternately, the employee's view of the psychological contract is implemented through the perception that the employee can sufficiently influence the organisation to ensure that he/she will not be taken advantage of (Schein, 1970).

2.6.2 Re-examining the psychological contract

The classical view of the psychological contract has subsequently evolved due to the re-examination and reconceptualization of this concept within the employment relationship (Guzzo, Noonan & Elron, 1994).

"In organizational research, the typical parties to a psychological contract are viewed to be the individual employee and the organisation" (Rousseau, 1989, p.123). Rousseau (1989) however, argues that the *employee's* experience is the actual focus of the psychological contract. Therefore, only individuals formulate psychological contracts in the employment relationship as organisations cannot "perceive" psychological contracts with its members (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Rousseau, 1989). The organisation merely provides the context for the creation and existence of the employee's psychological contract (Guzzo et al., 1994; Rousseau, 1989). Employees assume an anthropomorphic identity for the organisation as part of the psychological contract (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Robinson & Morrison, 1995). They perceive the psychological contract to exist between themselves and the personified organisation as the organisation has legal, moral and financial responsibilities for its agents. Managers as representatives or agents of the organisation, individually formulate psychological contracts with the employees under their auspices (Roosevelt Thomas, 1984). Hence, psychological contracts can only exist at the individual-level between members of the same organisation (Rousseau, 1989). Contrary to Schein's (1970) formulation, the psychological contract is therefore, defined by the individual and subsequently understood from the employee's point of view as opposed to that of the organisation's perspective (Guzzo et al., 1994).

Guzzo et al. (1994) assert that employees' assessments of the fulfilment of psychological contracts are based on more than just met or unmet expectations. Expectations are indeed relevant to assessing the status of the psychological contract, as Schein (1980) indicates, but they are not the 'whole story'. Rather, the psychological contract is grounded in the employment relationship where perceived *promises* are made between the employer and employee based on mutual exchange (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1990). These perceived promises are defined as any means of communication that indicate future intent (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Psychological contracts are formulated "when an individual perceives that contributions he or she makes obligate the organization to reciprocity (or vice versa)" (Rousseau, 1989, p.124). Yet, Morrison and Robinson (1997) emphasise that a perceived obligation can only be part of the psychological contract if it is accompanied with the belief that a promise to reciprocate has been conveyed. As a result, a psychological contract is more relational than transactional as it constitutes the individual's belief or perception regarding an obligation of reciprocity between the employer and the employee (Guzzo et al.,

1994; Robinson *et al*, 1994; Rousseau, 1989; Rousseau, 1990). "Beliefs become contractual when the individual believes that he or she owes the employer certain contributions (e.g. hard work, loyalty, sacrifices) in return for certain inducements (e.g. high pay, job security). As perceived obligations, psychological contracts differ from the more general concept of expectations in that contracts are *promissory* and *reciprocal*" (Rousseau, 1990, p.390). Hence, psychological contracts cannot merely be specified in terms of expectations as they are far more encompassing. Rather they include both economic and non-economic aspects as well as reflecting a concern for the intrinsic socio-emotional factors such as loyalty and support which are inherent in the employment relationship (Guzzo et al., 1994; Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Rousseau, 1990).

Consistent with Schein's (1980) definition, and due to their relational nature, psychological contracts exist in the "eye of the beholder" and the minds of the parties (Guzzo et al., 1994; Herriot & Pemberton, 1995; Rousseau, 1989; Rousseau, 1990). Subjectivity is inherently part of any contractual agreement arising out of a relationship between two parties (Rousseau, 1989). Fragmentary promises, cognitive limits and divergent frames of reference are characteristics of relation-based agreements, making psychological contracts highly subjective (Guzzo et al., 1994; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1989). As reciprocal obligations between the employer and employee remain less overt and more idiosyncratically interpreted (Guzzo et al., 1994; Rousseau, 1989), the parties to the employment relationship are therefore likely to have somewhat different and possibly even unique beliefs and perceptions about what each owes the other (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). "This perceptual, individual nature of psychological contracts is their defining attribute, making them distinct from both formal contracts and implied contracts" (Robinson, 1995, p.92).

The relational nature of the psychological contract further ensures that it is not static but rather continually evolving and undergoing modification and adjustment throughout the employee's tenure in the organisation (Baker, 1985; Dunahee & Wangler, 1974; Guzzo et al., 1994; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). This dynamic quality means that "the relationship between the manager and the managed is interactive, unfolding through mutual influence and mutual bargaining to establish and maintain a workable psychological contract" (Dunahee & Wangler, 1974, p.520). Since the psychological contract is open ended, the transaction remains indefinite and continuous as neither employer nor employee can be certain of what expectations they will have over the duration of the employment relationship (Baker, 1985; Dunahee & Wangler, 1974; Guzzo et al., 1994). "The longer the relationship endures, with repeated cycles of contribution and reciprocity, the deeper the relationship the employee perceives and the broader the array of contributions and inducements that might be involved" (Rousseau, 1989, p.125). Robinson et al. (1994) attribute this broadening exchange to the development of mutual trust

between the employer and employee. Hence, as time passes, the psychological contract becomes quite complex as more provisions are added to the employment relationship (Dunahee & Wangler, 1974).

Broad, elaborate psychological contracts increase the employee's involvement in the employment relationship as well as building commitment toward the organisation (Guzzo et al., 1994). In the employment relationship the psychological contract "serves as the primary source of trust, security and legitimacy between the respective parties" (Veldsman, 1996, p.15). It essentially constitutes an emotional bond, where compliance is motivated by the desire to maintain mutual trust (Tornow & De Meuse, 1994). Over time, compliance provides stability and predictability between the respective parties to the employment relationship (Veldsman, 1996). Yet, changes in the organisational environment and particularly subsequent organisational change, are having a profound affect on the employee's psychological contract (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Tornow & De Meuse, 1994).

2.6.3 The shifting psychological contract

> As the trends toward globalization, restructuring, and strong international competition continue, organizations are increasingly pressured to make rapid changes and accommodations to new and often unforeseen circumstances. For these reasons, it is becoming increasingly necessary for organizations to manage, renegotiate, and, in some cases, violate the employment contracts they have established with their employees (Robinson, 1995, p.93).

"Contemporary employment relationships are in transition" (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994, p.245), the workplace and the psychological contract have structurally changed (Feller, 1995). Organisations and employees as well as the relationship governing the two, are constantly being "reinvented" to meet the demands of the "shifting face of tomorrow" (Laabs, 1996a; Veldsman, 1996). The traditional organisational assurances of job security, promotion, steady financial rewards, training and development and guaranteed life-time employment in exchange for employee loyalty, conformity and hard work, have fallen by the wayside (Feller, 1995; Herriot & Pemberton, 1995; Laabs, 1996a; Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Schalk & Freese, 1997; Waterman, Waterman & Collard, 1994). Consequently, the *old* paternalistic psychological contract which fostered employee helplessness and dependency as well as promoting the "entitlement ethic" by providing "traditional assurances", has been nullified (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995; Marks, 1994; Samuelson, 1997; Waterman et al., 1994; Feller, 1995). The necessity for employees to take care of their own careers has now been touted as a sign of the times (Robinson, 1995). "The traditional parent-child relationship must give way to an adult-adult relationship" (Waterman et al., 1994, p.89).

Veldsman (1996) emphasises that South African organisations in particular, will be incapable of successfully embracing the future and mobilising the full contribution of all their employees unless a fundamental reconstitution of the existing psychological contract takes place. Organisations have embarked on various forms of "renewal" in an effort to cope with their rapidly changing environments (Tornow & De Meuse, 1994). Part of this renewal, is the *new* psychological contract underlying the new employment relationship. Unlike the old employment relationship, the new one is characterised by an absence of mutual commitment, trust and loyalty (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995; Laabs, 1996a; Stroh & Reilly, 1997). Hence, the new psychological contract is no longer a relational one but rather strictly transactional (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995) "composed of specific, short-term, and monetizable obligations entailing limited involvement of the parties" (Morrison & Robinson, 1997, p.229). The new psychological contract is no longer focused on employment but rather on "employability" (Laabs, 1996a; Waterman et al., 1994). Feller (1995) describes most employees as being "nervously employed", where they are warned to abandon their reliance on job security and to instead "pack their own parachutes" (Hirsch, 1988; Robinson et al., 1994). "In short, the bond between employer and employee has significantly changed, if not weakened" (Tornow & De Meuse, 1994, p.167). Continuous learning has therefore become imperative, as the new psychological contract demands a "career-resilient workforce". This requires individual employees to be more self-reliant and more responsible for their own career development (Tornow & De Meuse, 1994; Waterman et al., 1994). Hall and Moss (1998) subsequently describe this shift as a move away from the organisational career to what can be called the "protean career" whereby the individual's own career choices and the search for self-fulfilment become the unifying elements in his/her life. Herriot and Pemberton (1995) however, argue that whilst most managers appreciate the changing organisational environment and recognise the necessity for organisational change, they neglect to apply this understanding to their own careers. "Change in managers' attitudes and expectations for their own careers... lags far behind the changing events themselves" (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995, p.64). Organisations cannot assume that managers readily accept the new psychological contract. Instead organisations should expect reactions congruent with contract violation (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995).

2.7 Violation of the psychological contract

As the employment relationship inevitably changes over time and situations arise which require unanticipated adjustments, the violation of the psychological contract is a common occurrence (Dunahee & Wangler, 1974; Kolb, Rubin & Osland, 1995; Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Schalk and Freese (1997) suggest that the psychological contract does allow for changes within certain limits. Rousseau (1995) refers to this "tolerance" limit as the "zone of acceptance" but once this is breached, it leads to

violation. "Both employers and employees can experience a contract violation by the other party" (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994, p.247) as "both the individual and organization feel completely free to amend and expand the contract at will without overt notification of the other party" (Dunahee & Wangler, 1974, p.521). When both parties consent, there is no problem in changing the terms of the contract. "Employers seemed to be ahead of employees, however, in recognizing that the contract was changing" (Marks, 1994, p.67). Consequently, many employees have experienced psychological contract violation, which gives rise to numerous problems (Baker, 1985; Herriot & Pemberton, 1995).

Violation occurs when one party in the employment relationship perceives the other to have failed to fulfil its promised obligations and the expected terms of the psychological contract (Baker, 1985; Robinson, 1995; Robinson et al., 1994; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). Morrison and Robinson (1997) suggest that violation can be attributed to the lack of clarity in what organisations and employees owe one another in the new employment relationship. The turbulence and uncertainty of organisational change makes it difficult for organisations to fulfil all the promissory obligations made to their employees. "Organizations undergoing change will often be either unable or unwilling to fulfil the promised contractual terms they have made to each employee" (Robinson, 1995, p.93). Morrison and Robinson (1997) refer to this as "reneging" where the employer recognises that a promised obligation exists but knowingly fails to fulfil that obligation either due to an inability or an unwillingness. Alternately, violation may result from "incongruence" where the employer sincerely believes that a promised obligation has been fulfilled but the employee perceives the employer as falling short. Incongruence thus occurs when an employee perceives different promised obligations from those held by the organisation's agents who fulfil those obligations. This often results from the elapsing of time which may be characterised by turbulence and a change in organisational agents or distorted memories (Morrison & Robinson, 1997).

> The violation of the old contract and its unilateral replacement by the present one affect people to the root of their being...We argue that the consequences of the violation of the old contract and the imposition of the present one are so profound that they cannot be 'managed away' (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995, p.66-67).

Violation of the psychological contract produces specific forms of distributive and procedural injustice where both outcomes and process are considered unfair (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995; Robinson, 1995; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). The employee's perception of distributive injustice is a consequence of the organisation's failure to fulfil its promises thereby depriving the employee of expected desired outcomes (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). "From the employee's perspective, the employee has fulfilled his or her side of the bargain and the employer has failed to reciprocate" (Robinson, 1995, p.94).

Herriot and Pemberton (1995) suggest that the employee is not only concerned about *what* was done but also *how* it was done. Therefore, violation also includes issues of procedural justice which reflect perceptions of whether the process was managed fairly and whether the type of treatment that the employee received was fair (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). "Some research suggests that when the process is managed well, the outcomes may not be seen as nearly so unfair as when the process is itself unfair" (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995, p.70). Herriot and Pemberton (1995) further note that an employee perceives inequity in the outcomes and the process of change, as well as in the new imposed psychological contract. This inequity is exacerbated when the conditions of the new imposed psychological contract are compared to those of the "good" old contract. The employee's perception of inequity leads to responses of dissatisfaction, frustration and disappointment (Rousseau, 1989). When the psychological contract changes, the employee feels a "pinch" (Kolb et al., 1995) and the reactions that follow are similar to those of unmet expectations or perceptions of inequity (Robinson, 1995). There is a tendency for the employee to react by modifying other provisions in the psychological contract in an effort to maintain equability and possibly even gain a psychological advantage (Dunahee & Wangler, 1974). Whether the new psychological contract is in fact inequitable is immaterial. Of critical importance is the individual employee's perception of the contract's equability (Baker, 1985; Dunahee & Wangler, 1974).

Perceived contract violation goes far beyond the perceptions of inequity or unmet expectations (Robinson, 1995; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1989). "Feelings of inequity are merely the tip of the iceberg. There is much, much more beneath the surface which no amount of management can melt away" (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995, p.72). When promises and considerations have been exchanged between the two parties in the employment relationship, the responses to violation are more intense than only unmet expectations or perceptions of inequity (Robinson, 1995; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1989). Herriot and Pemberton (1995) and Rousseau (1989) suggest that a relationship involves a deeper emotional component and carries a lot more "emotional baggage". This makes the cognitive and emotional experience of violation more complex. Moreover, the longer the relationship and the broader the employee's psychological contract, the greater the risk of violation and the more intense the employee's responses (Guzzo et al., 1994; Robinson, 1995; Rousseau, 1989; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994).

Perceived violation involves betrayal, deception, mistreatment and deep psychological distress. These yield pervasively intense *emotional* responses akin to "hot feelings" such as anger, shock, moral outrage, resentment, bitterness, indignation, anxiety, a sense of injustice, helplessness, frustration, powerlessness and wrongful harm (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995; Kolb et al., 1995; Morrison &

Robinson, 1997; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1989; Sims, 1992; Tornow & De Meuse, 1994). "These hot feelings suggest uncontrollability, a quasi-irreversible quality where anger lingers and 'victims' experience a changed view of the other party and their interrelationship" (Rousseau, 1989, p.129). This is understandable given that the psychological contract is intensely personal in the mind of the employee. As far as the employee is concerned it involves an individual deal based on all the investments and sacrifices that he/she has made (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995). "Violation of a psychological contract subjects the employment relationship between employee and employer to a form of trauma where factors that led to the emergence of the relationship, such as trust and good faith, are undermined" (Rousseau, 1989, p.128). Therefore, the intensity of the reactions to violation are also attributable to general beliefs about respect for persons, codes of conduct, and other behaviours associated with relationships (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994).

2.7.1 Employee attitudinal responses

Perceived psychological contract violation produces intensely negative changes and responses in important employee attitudes toward the organisation (Robinson, 1995; Rousseau, 1989).

Trust underlies the psychological contract stemming from a belief that a relationship exists between two parties. This relationship is seen to be based on faith, goodwill and moral integrity where contributions will be reciprocated and the actions of one party will be bound to those of the other (Robinson, 1995). Trust develops over repeated and expected cycles of reciprocal exchange between the employer and employee and is requisite for a stable employment relationship and crucial for employee and organisational effectiveness (Robinson, 1995; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). "Exchange develops trust, but it can also destroy it" (Robinson, 1995, p.95). Relational trust is eroded when psychological contracts as beliefs in reciprocally promised obligations, are violated (Dunahee & Wangler, 1974; Robinson, 1995; Robinson et al., 1994; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). Gabarro and Athos in Robinson and Rousseau (1994) identify numerous "bases" of trust within the employment relationship. These include beliefs regarding the other parties integrity, motives and intentions, behavioral consistency, openness and discreteness. Each of these can be undermined through violation of the psychological contract. If an employer reneges on a promised obligation and violates the psychological contract, that employer's integrity and credibility may be queried by the employee (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995; Noer, 1993; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Tornow & De Meuse, 1994). Violation also indicates that the employer's original motives to maintain a mutually beneficial employment relationship may have changed or were initially false (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). Hence, violation of the psychological contract reduces the predictability of the employer's future actions and subsequently decreases the employee's trust in that employer (Robinson, 1995; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). Robinson and

Rousseau (1994) suggest that the erosion of an employee's trust has a "spiral reinforcement" property where the initial decline in trust leads to an even further decline in trust. Unfortunately, it is employees with low careerism and high relational orientation whose trust is most affected by psychological contract violation (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). These employees plan to build a career within the organisation and it is their trust that the organisation should most value.

Organisational *commitment* is considered to be a positive employee attitude toward the organisation (van der Velde & Feij, 1995). Promised obligations and their subsequent fulfilment underlie organisational commitment (Robinson et al., 1994). Commitment can be conceptualised in an exchange framework where an employee offers loyalty and incurs an array of obligations in return for material inducements and rewards from the employer (Robinson, 1995; Robinson et al., 1994). The more auspiciously the employee perceives the exchange, the more favourable the employee's perception of the organisation and the greater the commitment to the employment relationship (Schalk & Freese, 1997). Guzzo et al. (1994, p.625) note that "commitment builds rather slowly and is maintained with little attention until some triggering event - some change". From a calculated perspective, violation of the psychological contract will negatively impact on the employee's belief that the employer will fulfil future promises and contributions and subsequently decreases the employee's organisational commitment (Robinson, 1995). Popular conceptualisations of commitment also include an affective perspective which focuses on the employee's sense of attachment, identification, affiliation or investment with the organisation (Robinson, 1995; Robinson et al., 1994). For most employees, the work that they do and the contribution they make defines who they are (Caplan & Teese, 1997). The working culture of the organisation becomes an important part of the individual's identity and gives structure and meaning to the individual's life (Kanter, et al., 1992). Employees with high levels of organisational commitment will in turn identify highly with their organisations (Stroh & Reilly, 1997). Middle managers in particular have a culturally approved work identity and have always been more likely to identify strongly with their organisation (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995). From this perspective, violation decreases organisational commitment as it indicates to the employee that the organisation may no longer value his/her contributions or care for their well-being (Robinson, 1995). As a result, the employee may reduce or sever all emotional attachments to the organisation because he/she feels depersonalised and worthless as his/her identity as a valued member of the organisation is lost (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995; Robinson, 1995).

Van Maanen and Katz (1976) suggest that work *satisfaction* is related to three conceptually independent features of the organisational setting namely, "job properties", "interaction context" and "organisational policies". Job properties consist of the task characteristics involved in a particular job,

the interaction context is the day-to-day interpersonal working environment and the organisational policies consist of the organisational rules and standard. These three features are referred to as the "loci of satisfaction" which correspond to the quality of working life. "When employees encounter a contract violation, their satisfaction with both the job and the organization itself can decline" (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994, p.248). A significant source of employee dissatisfaction is the discrepancy between what the employee was expecting from the employer and what was actually received (Robinson, 1995; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). Those aspects that the employer promised but failed to provide may be important sources of work satisfaction. When promised inducements are no longer associated with performance the employee's level of motivation and satisfaction decreases.

Organisational change may result in employees not receiving what they wanted or expected from their employer. Consequently, the employee's trust, commitment and satisfaction may be negatively affected by unmet expectations. However, it is the failure to receive what was promised from the employer which has the most severe impact on employee attitudes toward the organisation and the employment relationship. Change in the employee's attitudes have far reaching implications for both the employee's subsequent behaviour as well as the organisation (Robinson, 1995).

2.7.2 Employee behavioural responses

> The profound psychological consequences of the loss of the old contract and the imposition of the new affect attitudes and feelings which in their turn affect how managers work (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995, p.80).

When human resources and the psychological contract are poorly managed, employee behavioural problems arise (Dunahee & Wangler, 1974). The employer most often understands that the employee's attitudes toward the organisation may have changed due to the violated psychological contract. However, the employer in all likelihood is not aware of the accompanying consequences to the organisation (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995). When employees' attitudes toward the organisation change, so too are their relational obligations toward the employment relationship likely to erode (Robinson et al., 1994). Employees "adjust down" what they contribute and put into their work in an attempt to make their efforts commensurate with their rewards (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995). Employers are now seeing the emergence of "the reluctant manager" where middle managers no longer aspire to the few remaining promotions because they are more concerned with personal survival and playing it safe. Hence, psychological contract violation and the subsequent change in employee attitudes have a negative impact on employee behaviour causing valuable employees to reduce their contributions. This significantly impacts on organisational effectiveness (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Robinson, 1995).

Employee trust is particularly crucial for organisational effectiveness (Robinson, 1995). A lack of trust is associated with a decline in the quality and quantity of communication and the transmission of information (O'Reilly & Roberts, 1976; Robinson, 1995). Communication behaviour is determined by the perceived credibility of the sender or receiver in terms of "safety" or general trustworthiness, "expertise" or qualification and "dynamism" or general activity level (O'Reilly & Roberts, 1976). These in turn may be associated with variations in the quantity and quality of information exchanged by individuals and across groups. A lack of employee trust is further associated with a decrease in effective problem solving, co-operative behaviour, group accomplishments and employee performance (O'Reilly & Roberts, 1976; Robinson, 1995).

"It is widely believed that organizations could not survive unless employees were willing to occasionally engage in OCB [Organisational Citizenship Behaviour]" (Robinson & Morrison, 1995, p.289). OCB refers to occasions in which organisational functioning depends on employee behaviour that is "extra-role" or "supra-role". As such, it exceeds the contractual agreement between the employer and employee and is not prescribed for a given job or recognised by the organisation's reward system (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Robinson & Morrison, 1995). These behaviours include employee gestures which the organisation usually takes for granted that effectively "lubricate the social machinery" of the organisation but do not adhere to the usual task performance (Bateman & Organ, 1983). Organ (1988) identified the "good soldier syndrome" which describes employees who engaged in OCB. Employers and employees often refer to OCB as "going the extra mile" for the organisation (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995; Porteous & Sutherland, 1997). Subsequently, five dimensions of OCB have been identified, including "altruism" (assisting or help co-workers with job related problems), "conscientiousness" (performing beyond the job requirements), "civic virtue" (reflecting on the life of the organisation), "sportsmanship" (tolerating of temporary impositions without complaint) and "courtesy and co-operation" (promoting of a tolerable working climate and minimise distractions created by interpersonal conflict) (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Porteous & Sutherland, 1997). In South Africa, an additional dimension to determining a "good citizen" in the workplace was subsequently discovered which centred around "personal integrity" and "ethical behaviour" (Porteous & Sutherland, 1997). Robinson and Morrison (1995) argue that civic virtue is the generic behaviour most clearly directed toward the organisation. Hence, Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman and fetter (in Robinson and Morrison, 1995, p.291) define civic virtue as "behavior on the part of an individual that indicates that he/she responsibly participates in, is involved in, or is concerned about the life of the company". Organ (1988) describes civic virtue as employees providing an input in to their organisations in exchange for received outputs. Porteous and Sutherland (1997) suggest that OCB flourishes when the employee perceives the employer to be trustworthy and fair. Employees will engage in civic virtue if they believe

their organisation has fulfilled or surpassed its obligations (Robinson & Morrison, 1995). When the employee's trust is eroded however, the employee feels less bound to the employment relationship and is less likely to engage in OCB and most likely to curtail civic virtue. Similarly, Robinson (1995) suggests that a decline in employee satisfaction is also associated with a decrease in OCB and extra-role performance. Robinson and Morrison (1995, p.289) note that "the most well-replicated finding is a positive relationship between OCB and employee satisfaction". This relationship between OCB and employee satisfaction is cognitive in nature where employees only engage in OCB if the organisation is perceived to be fair (Robinson & Morrison, 1995). Where the organisation fails to fulfil its promised obligations by not providing sufficient outputs, the employee's level of satisfaction decreases and subsequent organisationally-directed OCB erodes. The employee psychologically withdraws from his/her work and work setting (Marks, 1994; Robinson & Morrison, 1995). Robinson and Morrison (1995) further illustrate that OCB can also be predicted and affected by factors such as leadership style and employee commitment.

Robinson (1995) notes that the loss of employee commitment has also been associated with a decline in prosocial organisational behaviour, increased absenteeism and turnover. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) suggest that employee commitment based on the internalisation and identification of organisational values is strongly linked to prosocial behaviour. A break in this psychological attachment will reduce the employee's instinctive actions to benefit the organisation which "may require the organization to bear the costs associated with more detailed and sophisticated control systems" (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986, p.493). Clegg (1983) further notes that negative behaviour such as "lateness" can be perceived and attributed by the employee to be an affective state of low commitment. This self-description may become a self-instruction which may guide subsequent behaviour such as absenteeism (Clegg, 1983). Nicholson and Johns (1985) suspect that the increase in employee absence can also be attributed to a decrease in job satisfaction where the employee uses his/her elevated absence level to "send a message" to the employer about his/her unhappiness with the perceived violation of the psychological contract. Clegg (1983) and O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) agree that the reduction in employee commitment does ultimately impact on subsequent staff turnover. According to Cotton and Tuttle's (1986) meta-analysis and review of the literature, both organisational commitment and overall satisfaction are negatively related to employee turnover. Once employees lose their organisational commitment and the psychological contract becomes completely unacceptable, a basic employee response is to "get out" of the organisation (Dunahee & Wangler, 1974; Herriot & Pemberton, 1995). Cohen (1989) and Cotton and Tuttle (1986) do however, suggest that the decline in employee commitment and subsequent employee turnover may also depend on the individual's age, work tenure, career stage, pay and the availability of attractive alternatives.

In many organisations, productivity decreases or levels off as a consequence of employee behavioural adjustment (Caplan & Teese, 1997). Employees cope with their attitudes and "feelings in ways that are neither personally healthy nor organisationally productive" (Noer, 1993, p.90). As a result, employee well-being and organisational productivity are eroded (Marks, 1994).

Herriot and Pemberton (1995) suggest that employee behavioural reactions to violation may vary along a continuum of damage to the organisation where lowered productivity is merely the mildest consequence. In extreme cases of contract violation, the employment relationship may deteriorate to such an extent that employees seek retaliation or revenge against the organisation (Baker, 1985; Dunahee & Wangler, 1974; Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Herriot and Pemberton (1995) refer to this behavioural response as "getting even". This develops into a vicious circle where progressively more serious "offsetting actions" are taken by the employee to the detriment of the organisation (Baker, 1985; Dunahee & Wangler, 1974).

Dissatisfied employees may retaliate against the organisation by overtly blocking management from reaching its goals (Dunahee & Wangler, 1974). This is critical given that employee resistance to organisational change is the primary reason why organisations do not achieve their restructuring objectives (Caplan & Teese, 1997). Kotter and Schlesinger (1979, p.107) emphasise that "individuals or groups can react very differently to organisational change - from passively resisting it, to aggressively trying to undermine it, to sincerely embracing it". Laabs (1996b) estimates that twenty percent of employees will accept change, the next fifty percent will "sit on the fence" and the remaining thirty percent will resist or deliberately try to make it fail. Those employees who undermine organisational change, view their loss from the change as an unfair violation of their psychological contract (Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979). Any threat to the organisational status quo or the individual's habitual way of doing things will provoke defensive behaviours. These behaviours are coping techniques acquired at an early age (Argyris, 1985). Consequently, the resistance and subsequent undermining of organisational change can be attributed to the perceived threat and violation of the psychological contract (Roosevelt Thomas, 1984). Caplan and Teese (1997) suggest that most organisational change models account for employee resistance as a natural and expected phase in the change process where "complaints", "errors" and "naysaying" are normal reactions during that stage. However, this natural resistance phase has not subsided in many organisations and employee offsetting behaviour has continued as a result of the permanency of employee apathy and anger. Hence, employee resistance as a normal phase in the change process has effectively become a condition where employee offsetting behaviour has intensified with dire impact on the organisation (Caplan & Teese, 1997).

"Precisely the same psychological conditions of powerlessness and frustration leading to sheer bloodymindedness are currently prevalent in middle management as were around in the heyday of worker unrest" (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995, p.85). Employee offsetting behaviour takes on many forms and is manifested through word or deed (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995). These offsetting actions may include "gripes" where the employee overtly expresses his/her dissatisfaction with the organisation and complains about all kinds of problems which may not necessarily relate to the violation of the psychological contract (Dunahee & Wangler, 1974). Another offsetting action namely, "quitting on the job" where the employee refuses to put any effort into the job. This action is characterised by frequent tardiness and sloppiness in work. In cases of extreme violation employees may engage in forms of organisational "sabotage" by "throwing a spanner in the works". This may include destruction of organisational property and collusive employees making a concerted effort to thwart organisational success (Dunahee & Wangler, 1974; Herriot & Pemberton, 1995; Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Employees may also engage in "employee theft" which is defined by Hollinger and Clark (1983, p.2) as "the unauthorized taking, control, or transfer of money and/or property of the formal work organization that is perpetrated by an employee during the course of occupational activity". Greenberg and Barling (1996, p.55) argue "that the single predictor of theft was employee attitudes and feelings of being exploited by the company or its officers". Therefore, employee theft can be seen as a means of "getting back" at the organisation where employee dissatisfaction is a result of the perceived unfairness of the employment relationship (Greenberg & Barling, 1996). Employees may also seek "outside assistance" if voluntary reconciliation with management is impossible (Dunahee & Wangler, 1974). With the breakdown in organisational loyalty, employees resort to power politics such as trade unionism or legal assistance in a vengeful attempt to get even with the "hurtful" organisation (Caudron, 1996a; Dunahee & Wangler, 1974). Finally, the most troubling offsetting behaviour is "workplace hostility" where angry and frustrated employees initiate and direct aggressive and malicious acts at managers, supervisors and co-workers (Caplan & Teese, 1997; Johnson & Indvik, 1994; Keenan & Newton, 1984).

"So the consequences of restructuring and its associated human resource interventions are not merely temporary blips in the continued progress towards the maximum possible levels of productivity... On the contrary, they are so profound that many organizations face disaster" (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995, p.86).

2.8 Understanding effective organisational change management

> Managing change means managing the tension between security to the point of inertia and insecurity to the point of psychological risk (Clarke, 1994, p.113).

"Change management isn't working as it should" (Strebel, 1996, p.86). Consequently, the change management literature is awash with case studies of model organisations and various change "recipes" which represent the benchmarks of excellence (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995). A pitfall in accounting these successes is to assume that there is one best way to managing organisational change and that organisations should seek to emulate the "best practice". Instead, Carstens (1995) suggests that "legitimacy" is the key in determining successful organisational change. Such legitimacy remains a function of *open communication* and *participation* which are crucial to the quality and acceptance of the change process (Katz, 1994).

"Every book, article, and seminar on transition management extols the virtues of communication during trying times" (Marks, 1994, p.104). "Change as an organizational phenomenon necessarily occurs in a context of human social interactions, which constitute and are constituted by communication" (Ford & Ford, 1995, p.542). Hence, communication remains an important ingredient in ensuring successful organisational change and achieving corporate goals (Young & Post, 1993). Especially when significant organisational change concerns employees. The failure communicate lies at the heart of most poor programmes of organization change (Clarke, 1994). Failing to communicate to employees during major organizational change is the worst mistake a company can make (Larkin & Larkin, 1996). Ford and Ford (1995) note that the importance of communication in the change process has been accentuated to the point of suggesting that the management of organisational change may be seen as a communication problem. This can be resolved by having employees understand the change process and the role they play in its implementation. From this perspective, communication is treated as a tool which serves the roles of "providing and obtaining information" about the change and its effects, "creating an understanding" to reduce confusion and resistance and "building ownership" to inspire people to change their attitudes and behaviours. Effective change management therefore, strategically uses communication to successfully manage organisational change (Young & Post, 1993). Young and Post (1993) suggest that timeliness is of vital importance in communicating organisational change as the costs of not communicating timely may include employee disaffection; anger; and loss of trust. Clarke (1994) emphasises that during times of organisational change, communication should start as early as possible. Communication during change should also remain conceivably open and continuous as

employees are more forgiving of the occasional error in an information-rich climate (Clarke, 1994; Young & Post, 1993).

Noer (1993) suggests that it is impossible to overcommunicate during organisational change. The "system" should be flooded with information as employees are desperately seeking assurances and attempting to gain control over an uncertain organisational environment. This response involves using multiple communication devices to ensure that employees understand *what* is happening as well as *why* and *how* the change is happening (Young & Post, 1993). "The most effective employee communication programs couple a liberal and imaginative use of high technology (television and E-mail, for instance) with a high-touch strategy that involves face-to-face and personalised communications" (Young & Post, 1993, p.38). Truly effective communication does not occur until each employee understands the link between the "big picture" and the "little picture" where organisational change is translated into the effects and implications for each individual employee and his/her job (Caudron, 1996c; Young & Post, 1993). Every manager should serve as a communications manager, especially during times of uncertainty and change, as employees prefer to receive information from the person they are closest to in the organisation namely, their immediate supervisor (Larkin & Larkin, 1996; Young & Post, 1993). Larkin and Larkin (1996) argue that the communication of mission statements and management proclamations must be avoided. Rather, only the "facts" need to be communicated where employees are told in as few words as possible what the organisation plans to do. Communication should be truthful and authentic and top management must be seen to "walk the talk" and not wrap change in a value for dictating how employees should feel about the information (Larkin & Larkin, 1996; Marks, 1994; Young & Post, 1993).

Employees in organisations undergoing change need to feel that they are involved in the decisions that affect their working lives (Carstens, 1995). They must know that their thoughts and ideas will be listened to and considered. In particular, employees whose careers depend on the outcome of organisational change, must be part of the planning process (Knowdell et al., 1994). Herriot and Pemberton (1995) suggest that giving employees a "voice" in the planning process is one of the most controversial recommendations in change management. Knowdell et al. (1994) however, argue that it is important to bring employees into the change process early as this not only minimises the negative effects of organisational change but also reaps the benefits of employee knowledge, insight and the synergy between the top-down, bottom-up, and sideways view. Being involved in the initial diagnostic phase helps employees "buy" into the need for change both *logically* and *emotionally* (Nichol, 1992). Once employees logically understand the dysfunction of the status quo, they develop a healthy dissatisfaction with the organisation's processes and gain an understanding of the rationale behind the

need for organisational change. This subsequently fuels the change process (Nichol, 1992; Spector, 1989). Through joint diagnosis, employees also feel emotionally committed to the change as they believe that they own the plan for change and know what is in it for them (Beer, Eisenstat & Spector, 1990; Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979; Marks, 1994; Nichol, 1992). As the organisation moves from the planning process to actual implementation, middle managers who can "champion" the change process are sought to lead the change effort and motivate and convince the sceptics (Nichol, 1992). Organisational leaders do not change organisations', instead they oversee and co-ordinate a process in which middle managers and their subordinates attempt to change their particular operating units (Spector, 1989).

2.8.1 Recovery after organisational change

> Accepting, understanding, and responding to the unintended consequences of necessary organizational transitions can lead to the development of more effective and more rewarding workplaces, to a work force better prepared and more confident of its ability to succeed, and to a clearer, sounder, and more mutually enriching psychological relationship between them (Marks, 1994, p.85-86).

"Like any malady, the *survivor syndrome*, as it has come to be known, is best cured by preventing it from ever occurring' (Caudron, 1996c, p.40). However, many change initiatives have already happened which have not been managed particularly well (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995). As a result, top management are preoccupied with *organisational recovery*, consisting of motivating employees and "bouncing back" from the unintended consequences of a badly managed organisational transition (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995; Marks, 1994). Noer (1993) argues that even the best managed organisational transitions still leave employees feeling violated. Employees who survive an organisational transition repress strong, toxic and debilitating feelings and emotions as they "have no personal or organizationally sanctioned outlet for anger and fear" (Noer, 1993, p.118). "Managing feelings, their own or anyone else's, is not something managers are trained to do" (Knowdell et al., 1994, p.216). Consequently, managers need to be trained in the helping skills that will move employees from "survivor mode" to "contructive mode". In addition, managers need to increase their accessibility and communicate effectively in order to facilitate the employee's transition into the new organisational paradigm (Noer, 1993; Knowdell et al., 1994).

> Before people can look ahead to new challenges and opportunities, they have to end what used to be. Before they can become a different type of employee, accepting their new personal situation as well as the new organizational order around them, they have to loosen their grip on their old identity, including all of its trappings and perceptions (Marks, 1994, p.153).

Employee readjustment after organisational change is never easy (Marks, 1994). The "hang time", referring to the employee's slow internal psychological transition, is the most difficult period of employee adaptation to organisational change. This period is both uncomfortable and disorienting and has been dubbed the "neutral zone" or "twilight zone" in reference to the frightening qualities and state of limbo which employees would like to escape. Most of the programmes designed to facilitate employee readjustment try to put an emphasis on the future (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995). Caudron (1996c, p.41) however, argues that in helping employees adapt to the changed realities of the workplace, "you must acknowledge their emotional upheaval and allow them to express their discontent". The "venting meeting" is an essential part of any such programme which helps employees loosen their grip on the old organisational order and prepare for the new (Marks, 1994). "By raising awareness and accelerating learning, this meeting heightens people's understanding of how they are dealing with adaptation to a transition. The objective of the venting meeting is to facilitate the letting-go phase of the adaptation process" (Marks, 1994, p.128-129). This is accomplished through three steps of letting-go. Firstly, "consciousness raising" helps the employee intellectually acknowledge what he/she is holding on to and the reasons for doing so (Marks, 1994). Secondly, "reexperiencing" the emotions of the organisational change helps employees acknowledge and validate the confusion and discomfort caused by the change through bringing these feelings to a conscious level (Caudron, 1996c; Marks, 1994). Finally, the psychological process of letting-go is completed through the ritual of "mourning" by encouraging employees to actively grieve for the past and what they are leaving behind. Caudron (1996c) suggests that since organisational change is a shared social experience, it should remain a shared healing experience. Noer (1993) mentions that in his experience, the most effective means of bringing employee's emotions to the surface is through group work. Therefore, sharing these emotions and grieving together is not only cleansing but also helps in creating a bond between employees (Caudron, 1996c; Marks, 1994). Marks (1994) notes that venting can be very constructive as it "raises", "legitimizes" and "works through" the employee's emotions and feelings. Caudron (1996c) does however, emphasise that new anxieties released through venting must be attended to by providing employees with effective coping strategies which will develop "change-resilience".

"Organizational recovery does not and cannot mean a return to the good old days" (Marks, 1994, p.319). "The old employment contract is dead, and holding on to it is toxic to human spirit" (Noer, 1993, p.143). "It is time for a new social contract based on new realities" (Kanter, 1997, p.148). Unless the revision of the psychological contract is treated as an integral part of the change process, organisations and employees cannot recover from organisational change (Strebel, 1996). According to Strebel (1996), the revision of the psychological contract occurs in three phases. Firstly, organisational leaders need to draw attention to the necessity for contract revision and establish the context for such

revision. Secondly, a process should be initiated where employees revise and "buy" into the new contract. Caudron (1996c) and Dunahee and Wangler (1974) suggest that it should be the responsibility of every manager to renegotiate each of their employee's psychological contracts where roles and major job responsibilities are clarified. Finally, the employees commitments are locked in with the new formal and informal rules of the contract (Strebel, 1996). Kanter (1997) emphasises that the new psychological contract should be an explicit renegotiation which illustrates how much people are valued. An employment relationship which is based on "explicit contracting" restores dignity and breaks employee-organisational co-dependency (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995; Noer, 1993). "The shock of violated dependency is a clear and compelling wake-up call, an alarm that, if heeded, could do more to stimulate a truly empowered and autonomous work force than all the X, Y, and Z theories, false starts, and hollow rhetoric of the past" (Noer, 1993, p.211). Employees who are truly "self-empowered" have personal control over their self-confidence, self-esteem and relevance and are subsequently immune to survivor syndrome (Noer, 1993).

2.8.2 Revitalization after organisational change

"Dealing with repressed survivor feelings and facilitating grieving is not the end of the intervention process" (Noer, 1993, p.132). Healing the wounds of organisational change can only be achieved through *organisational revitalization* (Gouillart & Kelly, 1995). Organisational revitalization is the set of activities which ensure and maintain the new organisational order and allow the organisation to regenerate itself (Gouillart & Kelly, 1995; Marks, 1994). Revitalization creates a new kind of "metabolism" which revives individual employee spirit, team performance and organisational effectiveness by inspiring individual creativity and responsibility, transforming internal and external relationships, and changing human behaviour (Gouillart & Kelly, 1995; Marks, 1994; Pascale, Millemann & Gioja, 1997). "Its realizable goal is a discontinuous shift in organizational capability - a re-socialization so thorough that employees feel they are working for a different company, a leap in a company's abilities to meet or exceed industry benchmarks, a jump in bottom-line results" (Pascale et al., 1997, p.128).

Beer et al. (1990) view organisational revitalization in terms of three interrelated factors. Firstly, "co-ordination" or teamwork between the organisation's various departmental units as well as between employees and management. Secondly, high levels of "commitment" which is crucial for the effort, initiative and co-operation that is required for co-ordinated activities. Herriot and Pemberton (1995) note that the individual employee will only be committed to and go the extra mile for his/her immediate colleagues and not for the organisation as the employee's social identity at work is now derived more from teams than from the organisation as a whole. Finally, "new competencies" such as analytical and

interpersonal skills are necessary if individual employees are to identify and work as a team (Beer et al., 1990). Beer et al. (1990) further emphasise that the revitalization effort will break down if any of these factors are missing. Consequently, revitalization is what organisations seek as it is potentially the most powerful transformation dimension. However, it is also the most subtle and difficult dimension which is all to rarely achieved, as most organisations only focus on one or, at best, two of the required factors (Beer et al., 1990; Gouillart & Kelly, 1995; Pascale et al., 1997).

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

3.1 Theoretical orientation

In order to gain a full understanding of the complexity of the psychological adjustment made by middle managers after rapid organisational change, a qualitative methodology along with the depth and complexity of detail it can provide, was used.

Qualitative methodology attempts to "share in the understandings and perceptions of others and to explore how people structure and give meaning to their daily lives" (Berg, 1995, p.7). Meaning is understood through "how people make sense of their lives, experiences, and their structures of the world" (Creswell, 1994, p.145). During the course of their lives, people develop a personal framework of beliefs and values through which they selectively and subjectively construct meaning and significance in events. The qualitative researcher is therefore, interested in learning about this framework and its 'real consequences' for action, in how people align themselves and their settings in order to make sense of their surroundings through social organisation, social roles, rituals and symbols (Berg, 1995; Jones in Vidich & Lyman, 1994).

The intent of qualitative research is to understand a particular social situation, group, event, interaction or problem where the researcher is central to the sense that is made (Banister, Burman, Parker, Taylor & Tindall, 1994; Creswell, 1994). The investigative process occurs where human behaviour and events take place namely, in the subjects' own social or natural settings (Creswell, 1994; Walker, 1985). The researcher enters the subjects *world* through the "immersion in the everyday life of the setting chosen for study" (Creswell, 1994, p.161). The qualitative researcher therefore, focuses on the context and integrity of the of the data (Banister et al, 1994). By 'getting close to the data' through interacting with the people being studied (Chadwick, Bahr & Albert, 1984), the researcher is able to discover the subjects "perception and interpretation of reality and how these relate to his behavior" (Schwartz & Jacobs, 1979, p.7). This allows the researcher to gain a deeper understanding of social behaviour and "obtain firsthand knowledge about the empirical social world in question" (Chadwick et al., 1984, p.206).

Chadwick et al. (1984) argues, that the strengths of qualitative research lie in viewing behaviour in its natural setting, acquiring a deeper understanding of the people being studied and the flexibility of the

qualitative researcher in attempting to understand the subjects' world. Qualitative research, like quantitative research, is more a way of approaching the empirical world than merely a set of data gathering techniques (Rist in Taylor & Bogdan, 1984). These two approaches to research "denote divergent assumptions about the nature and purposes of research in the social sciences" (Bryman, 1988, p.3). Qualitative and quantitative research are therefore, different epistemological assumptions determining what is appropriate knowledge about the social world (Bryman, 1988). Banister et al. (1994, p1) argue that:

> Qualitative methods have emerged in psychology only fairly recently as an array of alternative approaches to those in the mainstream, and it is difficult to define, explain or illustrate qualitative research without counterposing it to those methods in psychology which rest upon quantification, methods that have determined the shape of the discipline so far.

Traditional quantitative research was founded and underpinned on positivism (Banister et al., 1994). Quantitative approaches therefore, subscribe to the positivistic principles drawn from natural scientific premises which "entails a belief that the methods and procedures of the natural sciences are appropriate to the social sciences" (Bryman, 1988, p.14). Fundamental to such quantitative approaches, is the attempt to verify pre-established hypotheses derived from general theories (Taylor, 1984). Quantitative research is by nature objective, deductive and directed towards a means-ends analysis (Ferreira in Mouton & Marais, 1988). It "attempts to screen out interpretation, and to imagine that it is possible to produce a clear and unmediated representation of the object of study" (Banister, et al., 1994, p2). The methods used in quantitative research result in a structured approach to the study of society (Bryman, 1988) where this pre-determined structured approach is dogged by the requirements of the initial hypothesis (Taylor, 1984). The quantitative approach is therefore, committed to nomothetic modes of reasoning where findings adopt general law-like properties which hold true over time and space (Bryman, 1988).

In contrast, Stevenson and Cooper (1997) argue that the qualitative approach seeks interpretations and not merely facts. Rather, it adopts an ideographic approach where findings are located in specific time frames and locales (Bryman, 1988). "The process of interpretation provides a bridge between the world and us, between our objects and our representations of them, but it is important to remember that interpretation is a *process*, a process that continues as our relation to the world keeps changing" (Banister, et al., 1994, p.3). Therefore, qualitative research does not consist of pre-established a priori hypotheses (Creswell, 1994). Instead, it extrapolates from the data rather than imposing pre-existing expectations on the research subjects and aims to establish generalised patterns from specific experiences through focusing on the context and the integrity of the material (Banister et al., 1994;

Taylor, 1984). The qualitative approach thus provides an understanding of the individual's feelings, thoughts, attitudes, beliefs and perceptions on a particular experience (Taylor, 1984). This researcher decided to conduct this particular study with a qualitative approach as the research objective was to elucidate the individual, subjective meaning and experience of an organisational phenomenon namely, revolutionary organisational change. This study focused on middle managers' lived experiences of revolutionary organisational change and aimed to describe and interpret these experiences through general patterns of meaning which emerged from both the self-descriptions and descriptions of the respondents' experiences.

Bryman (1988) argues that the antagonism between qualitative and quantitative research and their subsequent distinction is really a technical matter where the choice between them is rather determined by their suitability in answering a particular research question. Yin (1994, p.15) further suggests "that regardless of whether one favors qualitative or quantitative research, there is a strong and essential common ground between the two". Thus, Downey and Ireland (1979) note that both qualitative and quantitative methodology have their place in organisational research. However they emphasise that the application of qualitative data in assessing organisational environments and contexts has become of particular and increasing importance in organisational research. Consequently, Ashford (1988) recommends that in order to yield new insights into the management of organisational change, it is necessary to employ more qualitative methods when researching this phenomenon. This recommendation aims to move "the literature on organizational change beyond the consideration of how top managers can most efficiently bring about change to the examination of how transitions affect employees and their strategies to cope with and adjust to a changing context" (Ashford, 1988, p.33). Hakim (1987, p.28) agrees that "if one is looking at the way people respond to these external social realities at the micro-level, accommodating themselves to the inevitable, re-defining the situation until it is acceptable or comfortable, kicking against constraints, or fighting to break out of them, or even to change them, then qualitative research is necessary". Hence, the application of a qualitative methodology for this particular research was confirmed as the study attempted to gain an understanding of the psychological adjustment of middle managers to the changed organisational context.

3.2 Research design

The nature of the present research suggested that an embedded, single case study design was most appropriate. In an effort to produce useful academic research and management consultancy, the use of case studies in management research have become increasingly widespread due to the necessity for access, preunderstanding and firsthand experience of organisational change processes (Gummesson,

1991). Hence, case studies are useful designs for conducting research in both private and public organisations (Hakim, 1987). Alloway in Gummesson (1991) agrees that case research is notably useful when the audience consists of managers who will implement the research findings.

> Research addressed to practitioners...carries the additional burden of drawing recommendations from the findings which are, one, understandable and two, implementable. The familiarity of a managerial audience with the language, data format and analyses in case research is, alone, a major advantage. Further, the conceptual and descriptive richness of the data gathered enables the practitioner to assess for himself the applicability of the findings to his circumstances (Alloway, in Gummesson, 1991, p.76-77).

The case study design was most appropriate for this particular research as the researcher aimed to contribute to the existing organisational literature as well as report the findings to the organisations' top management or change strategists. These findings in turn were intended to facilitate the renewal and revitalisation of the organisation through understanding the employees' experiences of revolutionary organisational change and uncovering the potential psychological disorientation of the change process. These intentions remained largely consistent with the purposes of case studies which endeavour to describe what are fundamentally human predicaments where some form of subsequent desirable action can be implemented, be it in the interest of the subject, investigator or organisation (Bromley, 1986). Case studies as opposed to other research designs offer a deeper and more comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon under study as this design is able to reveal social structures and processes. Guba and Lincoln (1994, p.239) suggest that "qualitative research is based on an holistic view that social phenomenon, human dilemmas, and the nature of cases are situational and influenced by happenings of many kinds". An advantage of case research is the opportunity to gain an holistic view of a particular phenomenon or event with the aim of providing a comprehensive examination of the meanings at work as opposed to a broad glancing over of a wide surface (Banister et al., 1994; Gummesson, 1991). As a result, the whole can only be understood if it is the central focus of the study as the whole does not necessarily correspond with the total sum of its parts (Gummesson, 1991). Case study research therefore, becomes essential when trying to understand contemporary complex social phenomena and human dilemmas especially, when the investigator has little or no control over behavioural events (Yin, 1984; Yin, 1994).

Yin (1993, p.3) further states that "the case study is the method of choice when the phenomenon under study is not readily distinguishable from its context". A case always occurs in a social and physical setting and as a result it cannot be studied devoid of its context (Franklin & Osborn, 1971; Miles & Huberman, 1994). In fact, the use of the case study method deliberately ensures that the contextual

conditions are considered (Yin, 1993). To summarise, a case study is an empirical enquiry which investigates a contemporary complex social phenomenon allowing the investigation to retain the holistic and meaningful characteristics within its real life context (Yin, 1984). The context of the case study therefore, helps to determine the procedure and the end result (Bromley, 1986). Yin (1993) suggests that distinctive technical implications arise with the inclusion of the context as a major part of the study. These directly relate to the richness of the context and include the need for multiple data collection methods with the use of multiple sources of evidence converging on the same set of issues, as well as the need for distinctive categories for research design and analysis.

A case is therefore essentially a phenomenon occurring in a bounded context where the case is the unit of analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994). "No issue is more important than defining the unit of analysis", as "the entire design of the case study as well as its potential theoretical significance is heavily dominated by the way the unit of analysis is defined" (Yin, 1993, p.10). "The unit of analysis refers to the level of aggregation of the data during subsequent analysis" (Sekaran, 1992, p.106). Hence, the unit of analysis in a particular case is defined according to its relation to the initial research question (Yin, 1984). The primary unit of analysis in the present study was a particular organisation namely, the South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC).

Yin (1984) suggests that a single-case design is most appropriate when the study represents an extreme or unique case. A single-case design was most appropriate for the present research, as "the SABC is the most transformed public institution in SA - of that I have no doubt" (Sisulu in Smith, 1996, p.61). The same case study may involve more than one unit of analysis when within a single case, attention is also paid to a subunit or subunits (Yin, 1984). Yin in Miles & Huberman (1994) states that subcases may be embedded within the single case. This is the case with this research and it is therefore referred to as an embedded case study design. An important advantage of an embedded design is its ability to focus a case study enquiry (Yin, 1994). A subunit or subunits are used to ensure that the entire nature of the case study does not shift as well as providing a more complex analysis (Yin, 1984). In this particular study, six middle managers represented the initial subcases or subunits of analysis and two general managers and two junior managers represented a further two theoretically relevant subcases or subunits of analysis.

3.3 Case context

A case study "is carried out in a context of existing knowledge and circumstances. The Subject or Object of the case is situated within the enveloping world" (Bromley, 1986, p.21). This is particularly important as the research was attempting to understand the necessity for revolutionary organisational change and the subsequent psychological adjustment of middle managers to the *new* organisational context. It is therefore imperative to reiterate that the research was conducted in a large South African public organisation namely, the South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC).

3.3.1 The South African broadcasting context

The organisation has acknowledged being a product of the history and experience of South Africa's Apartheid-based past (SABC, 1994b). Therefore, the organisational context needs to be viewed against the backdrop of political and social change within South Africa. The SABC now finds itself operating in a changed political and constitutional environment with the need to "re-invent" itself in order to *deliver value* for the interest of the greater South African public (SABC, 1994a; SABC, 1994b). In turn, by being a product of its environment, the SABC has recognised the need to mirror the wider process of transformation within South Africa (SABC, 1994a). Consequently, "the SABC is inextricably part of that transition process with a primary responsibility for helping to entrench a new South African value system based on democratic principles and norms" (SABC, 1994a, p.6). The SABC had therefore embarked on an effort of "delivering value" for the "public interest" through "redefining cultural identity, meeting basic needs, developing human resources, building the economy and democratising the State and society" (SABC, 1994b, p.9) as well as advancing the goals of the Reconstruction and Development Programme (SABC, 1994b).

Apart from these profound national changes, cognisance also has to be taken of the international trends in broadcasting which include "revolutionary change in the technology and applications of global media, telecommunications and business. This wider process of change is affecting the structures and ownership of media, the rapid growth of globalised services, spread of trans-national culture and the viability of established domestic broadcasters" (SABC, 1994a, p.4). The borderless world of telecommunications and business due to the so-called communications revolution has accelerated the globalisation of business and media with media ownership becoming more concentrated (SABC, 1994a). New broadcast technology presents a competitive advantage to new entrants in the broadcasting industry as they are unencumbered by an ageing infrastructure and institutional cultures and unimpeded by a public service mandate. As a result, the globalisation of business and the introduction of new technology demands organisational agility which older broadcasters are finding difficult to match. "The

SABC acknowledges that South Africa will feel the impact of these international broadcasting and technology trends sooner rather than later. It is inevitable they will help re-shape and re-define the industry structure of this country" (SABC, 1994a, p.9).

3.3.2 The organisational context

The SABC as an organisation consisted of 5 287 employees who represented a diverse spectrum of skills, expertise and disciplines within broadcasting and related fields (SABC, 1994c). A further 10 200 individuals were temporarily employed as freelancers by the organisation. With these employees the SABC operated three television services, 22 radio stations, an external radio and video service, the only common carrier of signal distribution services, namely Sentech as well as operating extensive country wide programme production facilities. Traditionally, the organisation was structured on a functional basis with divisions such as news, television, radio, administration and technical services. In 1986, societal and market changes compelled the organisation to change from a monolithic structure to a decentralised structure with product and market oriented business units. In order to facilitate the management of the various business units, divisions were created consisting of television, radio, signal distribution, broadcasting centre and group services. Group service consisted of the centralised functions of finance, legal services and human resources and were restricted to the bare minimum.

Underpinning the recent national change in South Africa and the international trends in broadcasting, is the need for the SABC to "re-define" and "re-invent" itself in the new South African context (SABC, 1994b). "In the past, its operations and outlook were influenced by the State; its workforce and organisational culture were consciously structured to reflect white minority rule; and its monopoly status produced an internal culture that tolerated inefficiency" (SABC, 1994a, p.9-10). Consequently, throughout the 1990's the SABC embarked on organisational change, in an effort to shed its reputation as a state broadcaster and earn the status and respect of an independent statutory authority. This they believed could only be achieved through "a very significant pattern of change in the activities and performance of the SABC" (SABC, 1994a, p.4). The appointment of the SABC board in April 1993 was the initial benchmark of organisational change (SABC, 1994b). In August 1993, the SABC board embarked on a major review of the organisations policies in an effort to break from the past. This change of avenue included adopting a more outward-looking approach through consulting with the public, providing political coverage, and establishing audience loyalty and appreciation. The SABC further embarked on an affirmative action programme, with limited success. "When the new board took up its appointment, in April 1993, the SABC was one of the most white-dominated public institutions in South Africa apart from the judiciary, with 73% of staff being white. About 70% of staff were male" (SABC, 1994b, p.14). By June 1994, the board's affirmative action policies had achieved a 5% shift in

black-white staffing ratios resulting in 32% of staff being black and a further 32% being women (SABC, 1994b). The board also focused on improving the organisations efficiency. September 1994, staff numbers had fallen by 11.4% through downsizing and natural attrition as well as extensive redeployment of resources throughout the organisation. The in-house training of journalists also took place. The change strategists did however, realise that the organisations' change process was complex and intensive and would subsequently continue for some time to come.

In June 1994, the organisation announced the undertaking of a *resources review* which would identify structural inefficiencies and wastage in the organisation (SABC, 1994b).

> The review would include definitions of 'core' and 'non-core' activities with recommendations as to the appropriateness or otherwise of non-core activities. It would review the management and business unit structure to identify possible refinements. It would identify inefficient and dysfunctional work practices and recommend changes. It would also examine options for the reallocation of savings to strategic areas (SABC, 1994b, p.15).

The underlying principles behind the resources review were to minimise the resources spent on management, administration and overheads; maximise the resources available for core outputs; ensure the resources were used efficiently to optimise the quality and quantity of the output; and maximise external revenues without compromising the organisations objectives and responsibilities as the national public broadcaster (SABC, 1994b). To achieve this, the organisation needed to meet certain efficiency targets. This required a proposed divestment of the signal distribution company, Sentech; the net reduction of staff by a further 15% by the end of 1995 through staff retrenchments; an imposed "freeze" on staff recruitment and a "ban" on casual or contract workers; and a 10% cut to expenses budgets in non-output areas and a redeployment of resources to provincial broadcasting. Although the business unit structure remained in tact, the resources review did restructure the organisation by reducing the number of operating divisions from five to three, assuming the divestment of Sentech. Finally, the organisation changed its programming schedule and product content, to meet the heterogeneity of the South African population; and embarked on affirmative action quotas with the intention of engendering a 50% black staff ratio by 31 December 1997 and further increasing the number of women at senior level.

Already, by December 1994, the organisation acknowledged the need to continue reviewing its resource management and performance. Therefore in October 1996, the resources review focused on the financial situation facing the SABC as well as repositioning the organisation to become more competitive in the changing broadcasting environment for the next century (Haffajee, 1997b; Kojoana, 1997; SABC,

1996). In order to effectively fulfil this project, a "turnaround team" and a "change strategy team" comprising of representatives from the SABC, respective trade unions and McKinsey and Company were established. The changes proposed by the management consultants of McKinsey and company in March 1997 included the scaling down of the SABC's Pretoria office; the retrenchment of 1 400 employees; the closing down of Safritel, the SABC's internal production company; the stopping of funding to the National Symphony Orchestra; the establishment of an interim financial-control committee to tighten control over cash flow; the outsourcing of various production functions; and the multiskilling of employees, to increase individual employee productivity (SABC, 1996; Anstey, 1997; Thornycroft, 1997). In November 1997 the SABC finally sealed its three year transformation process with a new corporate logo (Haffajee, 1997c). According to the SABC spokesperson Enoch Sithole, the organisation's transformation had effectively reduced its permanent staff compliment to approximately 3 000 employees as well as putting black people in the organisation's most senior positions (Haffajee, 1997c)

3.4 Data collection

3.4.1 Sampling

The research sample was selected through theoretical sampling as proposed in the grounded theory approach of Glaser and Strauss (1967). This approach advocates that "the analyst decides on analytic grounds what data to collect next and where to find them" (Strauss, 1987, p.38). This in turn allowed the researcher to develop theory as it emerged. The data collection process was therefore controlled by the emerging theory, as further collection could not be planned or take place in advance of the emerging theory. Consequently, theoretical sampling required the joint collection, coding and analysis of data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

The sampling of incidents, events, activities and populations are directed by the evolving theory as comparisons are made between and among these samples (Strauss, 1987). This comparative method guides the researcher in choosing samples that represent different aspects of reality (Gummesson, 1991). As the "possibilities of multiple comparisons are infinite" (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p.47), the issue of selecting relevant groups and sub-groups as units of analysis remains central to theoretical sampling. The criteria for the selection of comparison groups in the research were determined by their theoretical relevance in furthering the development of emerging categories (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

The nature of the research question demanded that two criteria be used to determine the sample in the initial research group namely, job grade and length of service. Firstly, the research question implied that

the sample had to be at the level of middle management namely, levels five and six on the "Peromnes job evaluation scale" as determined by the organisation (APPENDIX 1). The second criteria was length of service. To ensure that the respondents had experienced the organisation's most recent revolutionary change process, the respondents had to have been in the employ of the organisation for a period of at least five years. In an effort to compare and contrast the experiences of and the subsequent adjustment to revolutionary organisational change, theoretical sampling was most appropriate. "In theoretical sampling the actual number of 'cases' studied is relatively unimportant" (Taylor & Bogdan, 1984, p.83). This number is ultimately determined through theoretical saturation (Gummesson, 1991). "Saturation can never be attained by studying one incident in one group. What is gained by studying one group is at most the discovery of some basic categories and a few of their properties" (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p.62). Saturation therefore, occurs when additional data no longer contributes to the discovery or development of further properties of the category (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss, 1987). This is reached through joint data collection and analysis and indicates that sampling should cease as similar accounts and instances continuously re-emerge (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The factors determining saturation include "a combination of the empirical limits of the data, the integration and density of the theory and the analyst's theoretical sensitivity" (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p.62). Through these determining factors, the researcher remained resolute that saturation had been reached in the collection of the data. Once theoretical saturation was achieved, the initial research group consisted of six middle managers who represented different aspects of reality as they were intentionally diversified according to race, gender, home language, marital status (see 4.1.1) and department. Following from the selection of the initial research group, a further two general managers and two junior managers in theoretically relevant sub-groups were introduced in order to gain a different aspect of reality and provide a different perception of the impact of revolutionary organisational on the initial research group and their subsequent psychological adjustment.

3.4.2 Methods of data collection

An important consideration when looking at methods of data collection, is that of triangulation. According to Flick (1992), the process of using multiple perceptions to clarify meaning is referred to as triangulation. Triangulation is a combination of sources of data within a single study which increases the ability to view the data critically in order to identify weaknesses and establish where further testing is needed (Taylor & Bogdan, 1984). This rationale is grounded in the uncertainty of any single data source representing a social phenomenon or psychological construct (Fielding & Fielding, 1986; Franfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996).

Triangulation is an important process in an embedded case study and particularly in this research, as multiple sources of evidence were needed to fully comprehend the research context and establish a chain of evidence. Yin (1994) emphasises the importance of multiple methods of data collection in the triangulation of case study research as triangulation allows the researcher to address "a broader range of historical, attitudinal, and observational issues" and permits for "the development of converging lines of inquiry" (Yin, 1984, p.91).

Yin (1994) argues that the unique strength of the case study design is its ability to use a variety of data gathering techniques and deal with diverse sources of evidence. For the purposes of this research three sources of evidence were the focus of the data collection namely, in-depth phenomenological interviewing, direct observation and documentation.

"Interviews are an essential source of case study evidence because most case studies are about human affairs" (Yin, 1984, p.84). Banister et al. (1994) note that interviews allow for the exploration of issues that may be too complex to investigate through quantitative means. Consequently, interviews were the primary method of data collection in this particular research. In-depth interviews were the most suitable type of interview for the research as they provided the researcher with the opportunity to investigate the subjective experience and reality of the respondents (Banister et al., 1994; Taylor & Bogdan, 1984). Through a face-to-face encounter on a one-to-one basis, the researcher was provided with the opportunity to meet the respondents and establish rapport in order to develop a detailed understanding of their individual experience and perceptions (Taylor & Bogdan, 1984). In-depth interviewing further provided the researcher with access to the context of the respondent's behaviour in trying to understand the meaning of that behaviour (Seidman, 1991). By conducting interviews, the researcher was forced to confront his own participation within the research process and take cognisance of the traditional research power dynamics (Banister et al., 1994).

The interviewing method used for the initial research group which consisted of six middle managers, was based on Seidman's (1991) in-depth phenomenological interviewing. This structure involved conducting three separate interviews with each respondent using open-ended questions to allow the respondent to recollect the particular experience. This method also provided a context giving meaning to the respondent's behaviour. The first interview focused on the life history where information pertaining to the organisation, the role of the respondent within the organisation and the phenomenon in question, namely revolutionary organisational change, were elicited. This enabled the researcher to contextualise the respondent's experiences. The second interview established the details of the experience. This was achieved through requesting the respondent to compare the experience of working for the organisation

before and after the organisational change. The third interview required the respondent to reflect on the meaning of the experience. "It addresses the intellectual and emotional connections between the participants' work and life" (Seidman, 1991, p.12). This interview dealt with issues such as the personal effects of the organisational change on the respondent's physical and psychological well-being, job and career, as well as sources of support; coping mechanisms; and adjustment. Seidman (1991) emphasises the importance of remaining true to the three interview structure as each interview serves a particular purpose. The three interview structure enhanced the validity of the research, as it provided a context into which the respondents comments could be placed. With respondents being interviewed on three separate occasions, the researcher could take "off days" into account and ensure a greater degree of internal consistency (Seidman, 1991). The researcher however, considered it necessary to only conduct single in-depth interviews with each of the respondents in the two theoretically relevant sub-units. These interviews focused on the perceptions of general managers and junior managers as to the experiences and psychological adjustment of the middle managers in the initial sub-unit of analysis.

All the interviews were conducted with the use of interview guides (APPENDIX 2) to ensure that particular issues were dealt with and explored in the specified interviews (Patton, 1990). This ensured a degree of structure in the interviews and allowed for an element of standardisation in the analytic phase of the research (Taylor & Bogdan, 1984). However, the interview guides did not consist of structured questions but rather a list of general areas which needed to be covered in the various interviews. The interviews were open-ended in nature to allow for open-ended responses as opinions and insights about the experiences and the events were sought (Patton, 1990; Yin, 1994). Interview reliability was increased with the avoidance of leading questions (Kvale, 1996). During the interview process, it was important to record as fully and fairly as possible the particular respondent's perspective (Patton, 1990). Considering that interview data consists of words, the researcher relied on the use of a tape recorder during the interviews, so as not to rely exclusively on memory (Taylor & Bogdan, 1984). The use of a tape recorder effectively increased the accuracy of data collection and facilitated the interactive nature of in-depth interviewing (Patton, 1990). The respondents were made acutely aware that the researcher's agenda was to conduct research and that their words would be weighted. This ensured that the respondents were less likely to be alarmed by the presence of a tape recorder (Taylor & Bogdan, 1984). The researcher did however, obtain verbal permission from the respondents to use a tape recorder before conducting the interview.

The second data collection method was direct observation. Adler and Adler (1994, p.378) state that observation "consists of gathering impressions of the surrounding world through all relevant human faculties". Yin (1984) suggests that observation is a valuable source of evidence in a case study as it

provides additional information about the case. Observation occurs in its natural context among the actors being researched (Adler & Adler, 1994) where "some relevant behaviors or environmental conditions will be available for observation" (Yin, 1984, p.85). For the purposes of this research, less formal direct observation as proposed by Yin (1993) was conducted throughout the field visits, including occasions when interviews were conducted. These direct observations focused on the condition of the organisations' buildings and work spaces which provide information about the organisational climate. Bulletin boards were also observed in order to understand "when" and "what type" of information was being conveyed to the general staff populous. Finally, the respondents offices were observed during interviews in order to establish their relevant status and provide further information about the "individual". Hence, direct observation served as another source of evidence in the present research and provided a richer perspective on the adjustment and behaviour of middle managers. Bless and Higson-Smith (1995) emphasise that observation is however limiting in that attitudes and beliefs cannot be directly observed. Therefore, although the validity is threatened as observers rely on their subjective perceptions and interpretations, observation still remained a useful data source for strengthening triangulation in the research (Adler & Adler, 1994).

The third method of data collection used by the researcher was documentation. Documents are an important source of evidence in case studies as they endure over time and are able to provide historical context to the case (Hodder, 1994). Yin (1984, p.80) argues that "for case studies, the most important use of documents is to corroborate and augment evidence from other sources". This is particularly important as information obtained from documentation may differ from that of the abstract structures of language (Hodder, 1994). The researcher accessed a number of documents relating to the case study. These included news articles from independent newspapers, previous studies of the site, the organisation's internal newspaper, letters, proposals, submissions to the Independent Broadcasting Authority, internal telephone directory and the organisation's organogram. These documents gave greater insight into the organisational history and context and provided an understanding of the goals and process of the organisation's change initiative.

The three methods of data collection were interdependent and interchangeable as the use of one gave rise to the exploration of others. The collection of data remained consistent with a detailed case study and theoretical sampling as all avenues of data were saturated.

3.5 Data Analysis

In qualitative research, data analysis is an ongoing process. As a result, data collection and analysis go hand-in-hand (Taylor & Bogdan, 1984). Glaser and Strauss (1967) note that theoretical sampling requires the joint collection, coding and analysis of the data. This approach is consistent with the analysis of case study design (Yin, 1984) and early steps of analysis proposed by Miles and Huberman (1994). There are few fixed formulas to guide the analysis of case studies (Yin, 1984) as Tesch (1990) explains "the process of data analysis is eclectic; there is no *right way*" (cited in Creswell, 1994, p.153). Consequently, qualitative data analysis relies on a combination of the researcher's insight and intuition as well as a familiarity with the data (Taylor & Bogdan, 1984).

In this particular research, the process of analysis was conducted from the simple to the more complex and took place from earlier to later stages in the data collection. The first analytic technique in the process was the contact summary sheet. After each field contact, the researcher summarised questions and identified information about that particular field contact. The contact summary sheet was used to plan for the next contact, to reorientate the researcher later in the analysis and to help with further data analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The second step in the analysis focused on the spoken words of the respondents. Consequently, all the interview data was transcribed verbatim into written text which ensured a valid translation (Kvale, 1996). Banister et al. (1994, p.50) "use the term 'thematic analysis' for the process of making sense of the interview". Kvale (1996, p.203) suggests that "the most frequent form of interview analysis is probably an ad hoc use of different approaches and techniques for meaning generation". In analysing the interview data, the researcher made use of various bits and pieces from different approaches and techniques. These included Deutcher's (1973) three distinct data analytic phases (in Taylor & Bogdan, 1984), Giorgi's (1975) empirical phenomenological method of meaning condensation (in Kvale, 1996), Miles and Huberman's (1994) early steps in analysis and tactics for generating meaning as well as meaning categorisation (Kvale, 1996). The process is detailed below.

All the interviews were read in their entirety in order to gain a sense of the whole (Kvale, 1996). The researcher then gradually obtained a deeper sense of the study by combining insight and intuition with an intimate familiarity of the data through examining the data in as many ways as possible (Taylor & Bogdan, 1984). Further interpretations of the data were refined and developed through systematic coding. "This part of analysis involves how you differentiate and combine the data you have retrieved and the reflections you make about this information" (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.56). Apart from codes being heuristic devices which link the data with concepts; interpretations; propositions and ideas, they essentially condense a large amount of raw data into manageable units by creating categories or

clusters (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Taylor & Bogdan, 1984). Hence, coding is a mixture of both segmenting the data for manageability and expanding the data for questioning and interpretation (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996). The researcher conducted two levels of coding. First-level coding was used to summarise the data into segments and pattern coding was used to group those segments into fewer sets or constructs. Pattern coding essentially takes a step away from the immediate and moves toward the more general (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In order to achieve this the researcher used memoing. Glaser (1978) defines a memo as "the theorizing write-up of ideas about codes and their relationships as they strike the analyst while coding" (cited in Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.72). This enabled the researcher to make more coherent conceptual sense of the data (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Pattern codes are essentially explanatory and inferential in nature, hence emergent themes were identified and data segments were pulled into meaningful units of analysis, as determined by the researcher (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Kvale, 1996). Subsequently, the themes that dominated the natural meaning units were stated as simply as possible (Kvale, 1996). The researcher attempted to read the data without prejudice and to thematize the statements from the respondents viewpoint as understood by the researcher (Kvale, 1996). The meaning units were then "interrogated" in terms of the specific purpose of the study by addressing the themes of the meaning units with questions such as, "what does this statement tell me about the psychological adjustment to revolutionary organisational change?". According to Mills and Deutcher (in Taylor & Bogdan, 1984), the final phase of the qualitative data analysis process was to discount the findings which required the interpreting and understanding of the data in the context in which it was collected.

Interpreting the results of the data in the context in which it was collected, increased the research validity. The data quality was further assessed and validated through checking for representativeness, checking for the effects of the researcher on the case and vice versa as well as triangulating across data sources and methods (Kvale, 1996; Miles & Huberman, 1994). The researcher also weighted the evidence to decide which data was most "trustable". Looking for differences or "unpatterns" was also used to determine the validity of the research results. This included checking the meaning of outliers and using extreme cases. Finally, explanations were tested by ruling out spurious relations and looking for negative evidence (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

3.6 Ethical considerations

"Ethical choices nearly always involve trade-offs, balances, compromises among competing goods and threatening bads [sic]" (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.290). Mirvis and Seashore in Kimmel (1988), argue that ethical considerations need to be approached differently when conducting research in an

organisational context. Organisations are social systems consisting of both individuals who are hierarchically positioned in relation to one another and collectively identified in relation to government, unions, and other public institutions. These individuals have pre-determined rights and responsibilities in order to function within this interdependent system as well as overlapping interests and personal conflicts. Consequently, Mirvis and Seashore in Kimmel (1988, p.106-107), suggest:

> In their view, the challenge of being ethical in organizations does not lie in the application of prescriptive guidelines and standards, but rather in the process of developing and maintaining research relationships in which to address ethical dilemmas. This approach requires a consideration of research participants in their roles as employees, managers, and members of an organization and society, and whose relationships in the organization are largely maintained by the role expectations they have for one another.

Accordingly, the researcher had a responsibility to communicate his expectations to the respondents as well as accept the expectations of the respondents (Kimmel, 1988). Clarifying the researcher's role was of particular importance in this research as the organisation had recently conducted staff retrenchment with the involvement and assistance of external management consultants. As a result, the respondents related to "outsiders" with apprehension and trepidation. By clarifying the researcher role and openly communicating it to the respondents, the researcher was better able to define his ethical responsibilities in the organisational setting; to anticipate the risks and benefits of the investigation; and to distinguish the corresponding responsibilities of the respondents (Ibid).

"Good research is only possible if there is mutual respect and confidence between researcher and participants" (Banister et al., 1994, p.153). The relationship between the investigator and the research participant is primarily determined and governed through informed consent, most ethical problems in qualitative research arise when this norm is violated (Kimmel, 1988). Miles and Huberman (1994) and Kimmel (1988) however argue that "truly" or "fully" informed consent is unattainable in qualitative research, as unanticipated leads may shift the study. Consequently the researcher is unlikely to have all the applicable information regarding the research prior to conducting the data collection.

The codes of research ethics do however dictate that informed consent requires research participants to be sufficiently informed about their rights and obligations, and the positive or negative ramifications of participation (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995). Kvale (1996, p.122) further emphasises that "informed consent entails informing the research subjects about the overall purpose of the investigation and the main features of the design, as well as of any possible risks and benefits from participation in the research project". Hence, the researcher ensured that the research participants were informed of the

voluntary nature of their participation, what they could expect in terms of the purpose, possible risks, and anticipated benefits of the research, the opportunity to ask questions, the freedom to withdraw from the research at any given time, and the intended uses of the research material (Banister et al,, 1994; Kimmel, 1988).

Confidentiality and anonymity are of particular importance in case studies (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995). Confidentiality is the removal of information or data that identifies the participants involved in the research (Berg, 1995; Kvale, 1996). The researcher assured the participants "that data will only be used for the stated purpose of the research and that no other person will have access to the interview data" (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995, p.103). The researcher further guaranteed anonymity by using numbers to identify participants which effectively ensured that all the participants remained nameless and could not be personally identified (Berg, 1995; Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995; Kimmel, 1988).

3.7 Goals of the research

Coupling the rapid political and socio-economic transformation within South Africa, an equally compelling revolutionary change in organisational structure, style, policy, practice and focus has become a requisite for organisational survival and prosperity (CBMNT, 1993). For revolutionary organisational change to be successful in South Africa, middle managers who represent the heart and soul of the organisation need to adequately adjust at the individual level. The research therefore aims to gain a thorough understanding of the psychological adjustment made by middle managers after revolutionary organisational change.

The first goal of the research is to recount the middle managers' perceptions and experiences of revolutionary change within their particular organisational context. This includes contextualising their perceptions and experiences of change by exploring their awareness of change within the organisation and the kinds of change which took place. The researcher will further seek to obtain an understanding of the perceived necessity for the change as well as the subsequent implementation and management of the process. The final objective in realising this goal will be to ascertain the experienced impact of the change on the middle manager.

The second goal of the research is to detail the psychological re-orientation and re-identification of middle managers within the 'new' organisational context. For this purpose an appreciation of the middle manager's perceived organisational identity prior to the revolutionary change will be

retrospectively determined, as well as the perceived organisational identity within the 'changed' organisational context.

The next goal of the research is to understand the coping strategies employed by middle managers to cope with the revolutionary change process as well as understanding the relative success of their personal adjustment to the changed organisational context.

Finally through understanding the experiences, perceptions, psychological identity and adjustment of middle managers, the research aims to uncover the human dimension of organisational change, as well as reveal potential obstacles to the change process. This will be used to create an awareness which will assist the organisation in facilitating the psychological adjustment of their employees, as well as expediting the overall recovery and revitalisation of the organisation.

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

4.1 Sample realisation

4.1.1 Initial research group: demographic profile

Table 1. Profile of initial research group.

SAMPLE NUMBER	RACE	GENDER	HOME LANGUAGE	MARITAL STATUS	WORKING PRIOR TO SABC	YEARS SERVICE IN SABC
1	White	Female	Afrikaans	Married	No	26
2	White	Male	English	Divorced	No	39
3	White	Male	English	Married	Yes	22
4	Black	Male	Zulu	Married	Yes	5
5	Black	Male	Sotho	Married	Yes	17
6	White	Male	Afrikaans	Married	Yes	17

As indicated in Table 1 the initial group of research respondents consisted of six middle managers This sample was drawn from a total of two hundred and thirty three middle managers throughout the organisation. The respondents all represented different departments within the organisation namely, marketing, properties and technology, information, programming, maintenance and computers.

The respondents remained consistent with the sampling requirements as stated in the methodology (see 3.4.1). Firstly, all respondent's jobs fell between levels five and six of the Peromnes job grading scale, as determined by the SABC. Secondly, all the respondents were in the employ of the organisation for at least five years, thus ensuring that each respondent had experienced the revolutionary change within the organisation.

Within this initial group, a number of distinct groupings emerged based on race, gender and language. Racially, the research sample consisted of four white and two black respondents. A further grouping based on gender consisted of one female and five males. Linguistically, the research sample was represented by four different home spoken languages namely, two Afrikaans and two English speaking respondents, one Zulu and one Sotho speaking respondent.

Of the initial research sample, five respondents were married with children living at home whilst one respondent was divorced with children who had left home. Finally, two respondents had been in the

employ of the SABC for their entire working careers with four of the respondents having been employed prior to joining the SABC.

From the analysis, numerous themes and sub-themes emerged which were subsequently grouped into categories. These categories included, the cognisance of organisational change, the experience of the change process, the psychological responses to revolutionary change, identifying with the 'new' organisational context and adjustment and coping. These categories were then arranged and ordered into typologies which reflected the objectives and structure of the research goals.

4.2 Cognisance of organisational change

In order to fully understand the psychological adjustment made by middle managers after revolutionary organisational change, it is important to contextualise the revolutionary organisational change by understanding the respondents' cognisance of the change which took place within the organisation.

4.2.1 Recognition of organisational change

The interview results suggested that all the respondents recognised that the organisation had gone through a process of change over a number of years. According to five of the respondents, the organisation had been through a number of separate change processes. Chronologically, the *first* significant change occurred in 1986 with the restructuring of the organisation into separate business units which were required to be profitable.

> That was another significant change, when the SABC decided it wasn't one big effort and there was one central budget and everyone was grabbing at the central budget. They broke up into business units, probably at least a dozen business units... To make money, become profitable, they basically said, each business units got to make a profit.
>
> At the moment we've got sort of business units, and each business unit has to charge the other business units for work done, to justify their existence.

Respondents noted that the *second* "major" change occurred in 1992 with the changing of the SABC board. With this change, the organisation began changing rapidly in a short space of time as noted by the respondents:

> The new board was brought in, a new policy was brought in and things changed, I mean they are still changing.

> I always thought of the SABC as a great big monolithic monster that was trundling forward and there was very little one could do to sort of change things. But in the past 2 or 3 years, with the relaunch of television and relaunch of radio, they've made some significant changes. I just didn't think they could do it that quickly.
>
> Nobody thought it would be so rapid, we thought change would take another 5 years, but it happened so fast.

The respondents were vague and unsure of the specific policy changes that had taken place within the organisation. Rather, the changes mentioned were those that directly affected the respondents or were noticeable within the working environment and the organisation's finished product or service.

The policy changes which directly affected the middle managers and were noticeable in the work environment included affirmative action and employee "cutbacks". These particular changes were recognised by all the respondents as follows:

> The SABC had to be made up of the same ratio of blacks to whites in the country of South Africa, consequently we had to have 70 blacks to 30 whites here, and the way was the offering of packets, as people resigned, as they went on pension, they would be replaced with black staff to get the balance right, and this is what is being done.
>
> I think when the new board started a lot of packages were given to people, I understand it had to do with race, but at the same time, I think it was a question of making sure that the SABC is changing in terms of the population.

The cutback in staff numbers was particularly evident for all the respondents as each of the respondent's relevant departments had been affected to a greater or lesser degree by staff loss.

> Well this department at the moment consists of three people. The department was larger last year, but due to the process at the SABC at the moment, one of the people, actually two of the people, their contracts have not been renewed.
>
> You've got a general manager who has not existed for the last couple of months, it is a vacant post. Then under general manager you've got a manager, and then I'm also classed as a manager under the other manager, then under me there were originally eight staff members, but with the changes they are now down to five.
>
> In my department originally we were four, but now I'm alone, its a one man show.
>
> The fact of the matter is that the previous head of the department left about a year ago, apart from that we are without one of our operations managers. We should be three and

> our head of the department, the head is not here, one of the others is not here. We sit with one secretary in the whole department.

The respondents also noted the change in the organisation's finished product or service such as a number of amendments to the programming schedule. They believed this had negatively affected the viewing public. This was evident in the following response:

> I think changes, major changes that have affected people and affected the viewers are the changes they've made in the schedule, and the way the three channels are functioning at the moment, where you had SABC 1 or T.V.1, where it was Afrikaans and English and catered for that community, they've now structured the channels in such a manner that the message is very clear but the viewers are confused as far as language is concerned.

Respondents noted the introduction of external organisational consultants referred to as the "turn-around team", in the beginning of 1995 with the advent of the *third* change process. This change focused on organisational resources and effectiveness and was entitled the "Resources Review". All the respondents were anticipating the recommendation of major changes in the organisation. The respondents were however, vague on what types of changes would take place. These anticipated changes included further staff cutbacks through retrenchment, the closing of departments which performed duplicate task functions, outsourcing of support services and the elimination of business units to be replaced by job families based on core functions. With the introduction of job families, the organisation's job grading and evaluation scale was also expected to change.

> It's a more recent thing of 1995, the thing of this Mckinsey, it's a consultant who looks at the services rendered. If there's a duplication of services, why not amalgamate the services? And if you have *x* number of people and you don't need so many people, that's where retrenchment comes in.

> I can't remember the levels, I know that the bands, the families are actually three, I think you get broadcasters, you get programming, and you get ourselves. I'm not quite sure whether we fall under administration or so, but it's actually three families. And that family is broken up, I'm not quite sure if it's four levels within a family, but I cannot really say much on that, but I think it's four levels per family.

> They talking about broad banding, taking away the old sort of government grades, 18 or 19 grades they going to compress into 5 grades. They going to create families of employees.

4.2.2 Necessity for change

All the respondents realised the need for the organisation to change emphasising that the organisation had to change, primarily because of the sweeping political and social changes taking place within the greater South African context. The respondents noted a link between the changes in the organisation and those taking place in the external socio-political environment. This link was attributed to the influence that the government had within the organisation.

> The company had to change because the country changed. It was a completely white company before this, Apartheid being gone, this company had to change.

> I think to be honest there was a need for the change, because the country is said to be changing.

This link between the changes within the organisation and those in the external socio-political environment were expressly illustrated in the following statements:

> Well a close link in the sense that a lot of what happens outside of your company has a direct affect in the way things are done in here, specifically.

> We can debate about the need for change but, look you have to see it in the background of what happened and what is happening in the country.

Apart from external socio-political changes necessitating the organisational change, two respondents noted that the organisation needed to change due to increasing competition in the broadcasting industry. This competition was attributed to the fact that the SABC was no longer a broadcasting monopoly.

> We've got a lot to do because we've got competition that is coming, the air waves have been opened. Whether we like it or not we do have competition, SABC is no longer a monopoly.

4.2.3 The more things change, the more they stay the same

The influence of the greater changes in South Africa on the changes that took place within the organisational context, raised suspicion in the respondents as to the role and influence of the *new* government within the organisation. Three of the respondents questioned whether the SABC had really changed at all as they perceived the ANC government as playing a similar role to that of the former Nationalist government in determining programming and policy. One responded feared that government funding would exacerbate ANC influence within the SABC. Hence, whilst the master may have changed, the extent of the governmental influence was perceived as not having changed.

> The National Party was bad it was Broederbond, but its still happening in the same regime, the black regime now.

> There's a fear if the government funds it, how can somebody give his money and not have a say, my fear is that if we are government funded, we are African Nationalist funded, at the end of the day they will be calling the tune. We are back to the days of the Nationalist Party, to me it would make no difference, it will actually be worse.

> It remains one of the most forceful instruments for any government, is your broadcasting organisation, whether there is a direct link or not. So also from that point of view, who am I to tell, but I can only imagine the serious efforts to achieve within the organisation similar things that are happening outside, all that propaganda had to follow that route to reach the people.

4.2.4 Ambivalence regarding the effects of change

The respondents were ambivalent regarding the effects of the change. Five respondents were in favour of the change, two expressing "no problem" or "opposition" toward the change, with one respondent stating that organisational policy had even "improved" since the change. However the respondents also regarded the effects of the change as being negative and possibly detrimental to the organisation.

> Negativity, but one tends to highlight the negativity of the change, like the public no longer wanting to pay their television licenses.

> You can see there are very few adverts on T.V., because the sponsors say nobody is watching T.V. anymore, so we won't advertise now. The public won't pay their licenses because they say there's nothing to watch on T.V.

The ambivalence regarding the effects of the change became more evident as all the respondents recognised at least one positive aspect or benefit from the change. These positive comments were however, heavily besmirched with negative perceptions which were palpable in the following interview examples.

> I think from a political point of view they are very successful, but I think from a business point of view, I think yes they've been a failure.

> As I say, the only good thing is that we are able to deal with outside companies, to do repairs and things. But other than that I can't see anything positive from the changes at all really.

4.3 Experience of the change process

A further consideration in contextualising the revolutionary organisational change is to gain an understanding of the respondents' experiences of the change which took place within the organisation.

4.3.1 Express lack of involvement

Whilst two respondents expressed a complete lack of involvement in the change process, the other respondents believed that their role in the process had been limited. The nature of limited this involvement differed markedly across the sample and included the participation in committees, filling in anonymous questionnaires, attending week-end seminars and conveying policy decisions to staff. The respondents were evidently aware of the limited nature of their involvement in the change, as suggested in the following interview examples:

> I participated in small committees, and at times my manager would say, 'go and represent us in the group', which is the same thing. Yes, that's the only thing, participating in small committees.

> They started in 1992, gradually, everyone had an opportunity to write it down anonymously, 'what do you think the SABC is moving to? Do you think the SABC will still be there for 10 years? What are the changes that you need to see?'. A lot of input, I believe the SABC still has on record.

> About two years ago, we were actually taken, groups of people were actually taken away on a week-end seminar, where this whole question of change was discussed, but that was trying to bridge cultural barriers. As far as I'm concerned I did not find this necessary because I crossed that bridge long ago.

> I participated in conveying what's been decided from stage to stage or whatever. But in the policy making capacity, or something like that, no.

The limited involvement experienced by the respondents was further demonstrated by the perceived unwillingness of top management to consult with staff about the change. The respondents felt that they were not "consulted" before the change process or "asked" what they thought of the types changes.

> I don't think staff members were asked, 'what do you really think of these scheduling changes that we are going to make?'

> There was little or no consultation with the rest of the staff and they came up with this plan to relaunch television.

As a result of this, one of the respondents felt that the change was "dumped on you" and that there was no choice but to go along with the process. A further two of the respondents believed that the change was not "sold" to the staff. This elicited feelings of isolation and not being part of the process, as illustrated in the following examples:

> Where I thought they had gone wrong was that they didn't actually sell it to the staff. They didn't sell, the real interest was not sold lock, stock and barrel to the staff of the SABC, and yet they expected the staff of the SABC in promos to sell it to the public, and my view is that it wasn't actually sold to the staff, they didn't get the staff behind it.

> The SABC should have got the members of staff, the personnel into this whole thing.

The expressed lack of participation resulted in four respondents questioning the organisation's decision making structure. They felt removed from the decision making process, where a chasm existed between those who made the decisions and themselves. This was illustrated in the following example:

> There seems to be a hierarchy that decides things and the people who are really doing the job, are not involved in the process.

4.3.2 Communication not as good as it should be

The respondent's opinions regarding top management's communication of the change process fluctuated across the sample. Three respondents recognised communication as being a "bad problem" with one of these respondents stating that communication had always been a problem in the organisation even prior to the change. The other two respondents believing that the problem had arisen due to the change. A further respondent believed that communication had changed for the better but still needed to improve whilst the last respondent mentioned that "communication is not bad".

> At the moment I find within the SABC, and that I think has always been a problem since I started with the SABC, and that has been this whole problem of communication.

> Communication, funnily enough, we are in the communications business, but that is, and all people say that is one of the serious problems in this place, that is really a problem.

> Communication changed completely, but it still has to improve, we are still not communicating well enough.

The results suggested that the respondents were ambivalent regarding both top-down and bottom-up communication.

The respondents acknowledged the efforts by top management to communicate the change down to the middle management level. Three respondents thought that the SABC was "trying to be as open as possible" and "was very transparent about what is happening". The other respondents stated that "attempts" had been made to communicate the change process. These attempts included posters which were observed by the researcher, meetings, news letters and the organisations internal newspaper, the Intercom.

> I remember a stage when the whole SABC was full of posters saying, this is the new face of the SABC, that type of thing, so I think there has been effort to communicate it in that fashion.

> I think as far as I'm concerned, most of the changes are communicated in the weekly [internal] newspaper. It will be conveyed by managers, or general managers in meetings, as far as that is concerned.

> Look, they do address us from time to time in a news letter I told you about.

Although the respondents did acknowledge top management efforts to communicate the change process, there was nevertheless dissatisfaction with these efforts. As two respondents noted, the internal newspaper had been reduced from a weekly to a fort nightly publication.

Further ambivalence regarding communication was a result of the type of information being communicated to the respondents. Two respondents believed that there had been efforts to communicate the "big picture" and the "big change projects". However, they felt that the smaller changes to policy and programming were ignored. It was these "smaller" changes that the respondents viewed as being of more importance. Another two respondents stated that "no big picture was communicated" to them. One of these individuals even questioned whether there was a big picture. Accordingly, respondents felt that the information they received was either "unimportant" or "elementary" consequently. A few respondents even believed they were receiving "selective" information.

> I think when it comes to globally, not globally, what's the word I'm looking for, the bigger picture there has been an effort to do that. But when it really comes to the nitty gritty or individual things, the things that are important, that hasn't been communicated.

> I don't know, maybe they have a big picture and I'm just kept in the dark, I don't know, I personally feel there is no big picture.

> Like sometimes big projects, like this turn around team, that is what it's been christened, this whole lot of people looking out for financial stuff, the turn around team. Sometimes they would publish it and say, right now people have been appointed to do this and this

> and this. And then, yes in some cases they would follow this through. But programme wise and so on, those things you don't really hear about.
>
> I can tell you, unless it was simple things like smoking policies in corridors, things like that which weren't really important and anything of importance was sort of left out.

The respondents mentioned the need for more top-down communication especially on a more personal level. They emphasised the need for information on how the change would affect them personally, what was happening in the organisation and what the organisation expected of them.

4.3.3 Poor bottom-up communication: lack of attention from top management

All the respondents stated that they were able to communicate with top management. However, three of the respondents were under the distinct impression that they were not being listened to, two emphasising the existence of top-down communication but no bottom-up communication.

> No, nobody is listening to me, and if you want I can give you a copy of all the reports I've compiled, all the requests that I've made.
>
> Yes, well they just communicating downwards and not listening to what's being fed back.
>
> You not communicating, you are giving the one direction from the top to the bottom. There is nothing from the bottom to the top, so that is one way direction, it is a cul-de-sac.

The other three respondents believed that top management were listening to them but, one of these respondents felt that his/her suggestions were not being taken into consideration. Another acknowledged that top management may have constraints in considering proposals from lower management.

> I think they are listening but at times I don't think they are going with what the masses, if I can use that word, with what the people on the ground are saying.
>
> Look many proposals went through in the past, so it's not a matter of not listening. I believe and I always have, that they also have their constraints that we don't necessarily know about.

4.3.4 Reliance on external sources of communication

All the respondents obtained information about the organisational changes from external sources. These external sources of information included the press and radio.

> That's where we get our information from, the paper, we read it in the paper. Ja, and what you hear on the radio, and that's the main source.

The respondents listed newspapers as being their primary source of information stating that they would read about the change policy decisions in the newspaper before they were informed at work.

> You don't know what is happening in this place. You read it in the newspaper basically before you get told.

> We have a communication medium here, we've got radio and television, but we read most of our things in the print media... By the time you get the news from the SABC, it's stale news because we learnt it in the print media the previous day.

A negative consequence of the external sources of communication lay in conflicting information. The respondents experienced this in the form of contradictory rebuttals from the organisation in an attempt to counteract damning articles published in the press. These particular newspaper articles at the time were primarily referring to the organisation's financial situation which stated that the organisation had a bottom-line deficit of approximately R60-million (Haffajee, 1997b).

This resulted in the respondents questioning whether to believe the organisation or the external newspaper articles as valid sources of information.

> I don't know, quite frankly sometimes you really don't know what to believe. If you look at the whole situation of the SABC financial situation. The newspapers would have one message and then immediately afterwards you would find a letter circulated within the SABC saying another thing, and then you don't know what to believe. I think that is confusing.

> So it's a matter of you read one thing in the paper and then to put fires out you get something like this piece of paper issued. So people say, who do you believe, do you believe that or do you believe the paper? I don't know.

Only one respondent stated that not everything published in the newspapers was necessarily true.

4.3.5 Presence of negative rumours

All the respondents had heard a number of rumours circulating throughout the organisation. There was unanimity regarding the presence of "a lot" of rumours within the organisation. The rumours that were circulating within the organisation were all particularly negative and ranged from organisational restructuring to employees committing suicide. The dominant rumours however, were focused on the

organisation's financial situation. They ranged from the organisation being bankrupt to employees not receiving pay that month.

A number of respondents identified what they believed to be the sources of these rumours namely, a lack of information and the newspapers.

> If you not told anything you start guessing things. You hear hey, I wonder if they have enough money to pay salaries. The paper says we short of money, and someone says, I believe there's no money to pay salaries. And then the rumour goes around, you won't get paid this month because there's no money, and then it snowballs. Rumours develop because of lack of information.

One respondent believed that rumours were the best means of communication and suggested that the internal newspaper should have a "rumours page" in order to acknowledge the existence of rumours within the organisation.

4.3.6 Perceived poor management of the change

The respondents tended to be scathing of the way top management was managing the organisation as they believed the organisation was not being managed effectively. More specifically, the respondents noted that the change process in particular was not managed well. The perception that the change was being managed poorly did vary across the sample where a few respondent believed that the entire change process was not managed well.

> Personally I feel that people feel the change has not been managed well. Maybe that's the crux of the whole situation, the change is not being managed well.

Other respondents emphasised particular aspects of the change process which they perceived as not being managed well. These included the lack of decision making, neglecting of finances, alienating the Afrikaans viewers and the employing of more people after the 1992 change initiative.

> Yes, one finds, you know, that there's a lack of decisions, it seems to me as though it's crisis management, you know, one point to the other to try and salvage what's left.

> The financial management of the company is not what it should be, if you have the financial results which are facing them at the moment, somehow, somewhere, someone made a very wrong decision.

> It was puzzling, understandable but puzzling as to why they deliberately went out to alienate the Afrikaans section of the population... As I say it was very puzzling that from a financial point of view it's like shooting yourself in the foot. To deliberately go

> and alienate a considerable section of the population that was involved in your financial support.

> A lot of people were retrenched in order for us to be politically correct, and what happened is a lot of guys were employed, more than were retrenched.

4.3.7 Lack of strategic direction

The respondents were unsure of the organisation's direction, a few stating that they did not even know whether the SABC was a public or private broadcasting organisation. This was attributed to the change in organisational direction coupled with the perceived lack of a specific strategic direction. Two respondents emphasising the need for a decision to be made on this issue.

> We had to look in a different direction, and again when we were looking in that direction, we had to look in another direction. So in other words, we ended up so to say, not having a direction.

> The SABC should then really decide what their mandate is and what their purpose is. Are they really going to be the public broadcaster that wants to supply a great number of educational programme. Or are they just going to become another commercial channel that's just going to buy programmes from overseas.

There was concern among the respondents that even top management did not know what was going on in the organisation and that they too were unaware of the strategic direction. Two respondents therefore, likened the SABC to "a chicken with its head chopped off".

> I've got access to top guys, black and white, you could go to a chief executive and say, 'hey what is up here', and they say 'I have no answer, I can't tell you what is happening'.

Respondents also voiced concern over the lack of medium and long term planning within the organisation. This was illustrated in the following response:

> There is no hard and fast guidelines, or 5 year plan, or anything at the moment.

Consequently, the respondents had expressed a "lost faith in management" due to the perceived poor management of the change.

4.3.8 Lack of management credibility

The organisation's *new* top management had little credibility among the respondents. One respondent believed that although there were a few good managers at the top, the "standards of top management" had declined. The new management were viewed as imposing their will on the organisation and changing the organisation for the worse without necessarily having the requisite experience to manage the organisation.

> I firmly believe that once again there are very, very good people and able managers up to the top, there are very capable people, but generally, unfortunately there is a dip, there is no doubt about it.

> I'm not negating their qualifications, but all I'm saying is, I'm not quite sure whether they understand the dynamics of the SABC.

The lack of top management credibility became more evident when one respondent felt that management were not "doing something right" and another believed that top management were simply "not good enough" and therefore "not geared" for the organisation.

4.3.9 Uncertainty and insecurity

The organisational change resulted in the respondents experiencing intense uncertainty. The change initiative was singularly responsible for this uncertainty, and was a consequence of the respondents perceived poor management of the change process. The primary source of the uncertainty was attributed to the lack of strategic direction where respondents remained unsure as to what was happening within the organisation. This could be ascribed to top management being unaware of the strategic direction or their inability to communicate this information to middle management.

> I think the SABC should now get their act together and tell people, where they are and where they stand, and go forward now, cut out the uncertainty. That is the major problem, is that nobody really knows what's happening, and I even found that on management level.

This source of uncertainty was emphasised and increased by the fact that external organisational consultants were about to make decisions on the future direction of the organisation.

> Now we sitting in a situation where we've got consultants now coming in and out, and in and out, consulting with the SABC on what route to take. And we sitting wondering what's with the consultation now, the so-called turn around team.

A further source of uncertainty was the organisation's financial situation. The respondents were concerned about the impact that the financial situation would have on the organisation and themselves.

> The financial position is so uncertain, that you don't know where you going. And I think the worst thing about it is the uncertainty.

> We don't know what is going to happen, whether they will be able to turn around this financial crisis, and what effect it will have.

Respondents noted that conflicting information resulted in uncertainty where top management would often disseminate different and contrary information.

> They chop and change, one statement made today, a conflicting statement is made tomorrow. We don't know, I don't know what goes on.

> In most cases an announcement will be made that we are going to do this, and suddenly we don't follow the route because there are problems that we have seen, that we didn't take notice of this problem. And then again another announcement is made, so this is the confusion.

The uncertainty in the organisation resulted in all the respondents feeling very insecure about their jobs. This was due to the respondents realising that the changes within the organisation could have a direct impact on their job security.

All the respondents were very well aware of the fact that "one cannot be sure of a position" in the organisation. Two respondents stated that they could not be sure whether they would be working for the organisation from one day to the next believing they could be "here today, gone tomorrow".

> Most people don't know from day to day whether they will be here. I actually said to a secretary yesterday, 'you still here?'. [She said], 'Ja, but I don't bring sandwiches anymore'.

The respondents expressed a constant fear of the threat of dismissal. One respondent was even resigned to the fact that "I know one day I'm going to get kicked out, I don't know today or tomorrow, next month, next year. I don't know, but it's coming". This degree of job insecurity became quite evident to the researcher when respondents were asked to participate in further interviews as evidenced in the following examples:

> You not too sure whether you'll be here the same time next year. I don't have to make an appointment with you for next year, it must be this year in case I have moved out.

> Well, if you want another interview, perhaps you should come tomorrow because maybe next week I won't be here, you know it's that sort of feeling, you don't know.

According to one particular respondent, almost every staff member was not secure in having employment in the organisation.

> At this moment in time it applies to almost all the people here, you will be fortunate if you have a good job in three years time.

A direct consequence of the experienced job insecurity was the respondent's uncertainty about the future. However, they believed that they shared this sentiment with everyone in the organisation.

> People don't know where they going, what their future is.

> I don't think anybody is too sure of their future, they all, everyone's living from day to day.

There was also uncertainty about the future of the organisation where one respondent expressly stated that "they don't know what the future of the company is going to be".

4.3.10 Sense of unfairness

Each respondent expressed that he/she had been unfairly or badly treated by the organisation. The examples of unfairness differed across the sample depending on how each respondent had been mistreated. Some examples given were however, similar. The individual respondents did recognise that other staff members had also been unfairly treated, as one respondent noted, "we've been treated very unfairly".

All the staff in the organisation were affected by the organisation's change policy. The respondents interpreted this particular change policy as being generally unfair and affecting everyone. Two respondents noted that the rationalising of staff was unfair expressing that it was "being done point blank and not according to competency". Another respondent believed that due to "bad management", the organisation had not followed the correct legal procedures and could have been more "humane" in initiating retrenchments.

The sense of unfairness resulted in one respondent seeking legal action. This particular respondent was subsequently in the process of a labour dispute with the organisation. A further two respondents had entertained the idea of legal action to secure a "fair deal" in anticipation of their own retrenchment.

> Suppose packages would come up, then surely one has to make sure one gets the best out of it. And I'm no legal fundi and in such a case one would need [legal advice], if you see what I mean. Not taking up the place or, you know, and trying to get reinstated or anything of the kind, but if it boils down to that at least make sure you get a fair deal.

4.3.11 Discrimination in advancement opportunities

Irrespective of race, gender, language, length of service or political affiliation, every respondent believed that he/she had been discriminated against. The discrimination experienced by the respondents was primarily related to their potential career advancement or job security. All the respondents believed that their individual career movement had been stunted due to discriminatory organisational policies.

White respondents blamed the organisation's affirmative action policy as being the primary source of their experienced discrimination. Affirmative action was therefore generally perceived as being a form of reverse discrimination. This was noted in the following example:

> [Affirmative action] has affected people badly, because everyone here now says, Apartheid in reverse.

Consequently, white respondents saw black employees moving quickly up the organisational hierarchy and questioned both the extent of their experience as well as their level of qualification.

> You have [black] people who were anything up to two months ago and now they are senior, very senior officials here. Although they might have certain qualifications and capabilities, but they know but nothing about broadcasting, or the corporation for that matter.

> If the people who filled the posts were qualified to fill them, I think it would be a different matter. But I personally feel that a lot of [black] people are filling posts that they are not qualified to do, not only not qualified but not suited.

Accordingly, white respondents felt threatened as they believed they had little chance for career advancement, overseas training or SABC sponsored bursaries and ultimately had "no future" within the organisation.

> There is a threat amongst whites, if I can put it bluntly as that, because there is no chance for promotion.

> If you want an overseas trip it's normally a black guy that's chosen, the white one is cut off. Bursaries, if you want a bursary, it's very easy for a black man to get a bursary, it's harder for a white man.

> Everybody now says we have no future here, unless you are black you cannot be kept a manger or anything, you are stuck. You become a worker and you can stay as you are, but you will not get promoted unless you are black.

One white respondent questioned whether black colleagues were possibly experiencing a "fair opportunity" for the first time in their careers.

> I wouldn't know how, say for instance my black colleagues are experiencing it. Are they now experiencing that once in their life they are getting a fair opportunity or a fair deal?

Black respondents also felt discriminated against. This was primarily experienced as political discrimination. They emphasised that those employees who were political exiles or were seen as being politically active during the struggle were rewarded for their efforts by receiving management positions in the organisation. Both black respondents believed that the discrimination they were experiencing impacted on their career movement.

> The guys from the bush don't consider the people like ourselves, who have been in the country, who were not part of the struggle.

> If one had to count the number of guys actually heading the SABC, perhaps only a small group were here in the country. Most of the guys were from exile, those that I would say were actively seen to be in the struggle.

One white respondent noted that those who had been on Robben Island were now in the top positions of the organisation.

> I've just read, by the way Mr. Mandela's autobiography, now if you see who he spent his years with on Robben Island, for instance. And you see where those people sit now, in the positions they have now, then of course [there is a link between the government and the organisation], and who can deny it. And I'm not only talking about Mr. Sisulu [group chief executive of SABC], there's other as well.

Black respondents further stated that only those employees who were affiliated to a particular political grouping were able to move within the organisation. As both black respondents were apolitical, they believed their careers had been negatively affected.

> Political, at the moment yes, because if you ANC and from the bush, you get a nice post, oh yes, that's a guaranteed thing.

> If one is looking at the SABC profile, if you look at the top management. I bet we can go to a number of guys and say, okay let's take this guy who just walked in, his driving a Mercedes Benz. Let's put the papers on the table, put the experience on the table, and I'm sure I can manage around that. I don't say I'm negating their experience, but I'm almost certain that some of the guys are political or are connected with the above, but I'm still sitting here.

Further discrimination was seen to be experienced by both black and white employees who had been in the organisation prior to the change initiative. This was seen as happening as the new management wanted to get rid of the old guard because their greater experience represented a threat to new management.

> The whole works, irrespective of colour, get rid of them [old guard], that was the aim, so they can start things from scratch. Then nobody can argue with them and say, 'no it was never done like that'. We have had it nice, so unfortunately some of us have survived hence, they keep an arms length relationship from us.

Another respondent claimed that gender discrimination took place in the organisation as female employees were entitled to a week-end off to do "shopping". As the respondent was male he believed this treatment was unfair as he was not entitled to a week-end off.

> The SABC is non-racial and gender doesn't come into it either, the ladies are given the week-end off every month to go shopping. I'm not, why? As far as I'm concerned, the SABC states that we are no longer concerned about gender. If a lady is given a week-end off once a month, I'm entitled to it, why don't I get it?

4.3.12 Strained relationships

The relationships between employees within the organisation had deteriorated. The strained relationships were attributed to the increased growth and sheer size of the organisation, the fact that staff were no longer happy and animosity between employees due to the poor management of the change process.

> Now in Johannesburg [the organisation has] grown so much that you don't know possibly the person next door.

> We not happy going guys like in the olden days, if you go to the pub for a beer, you just sip that beer because you thirsty, not to socialise like before.

> There's so much animosity or unhappiness in that department [Channel Africa], and I heard that one guy did a disgusting thing, he peed [urinated] into this women's glass and left it on her flipping desk. I mean what sort of carry on is that, and that is a direct result of we at SABC not handling the problem at Channel Africa properly.

Contributing to the strained relationships was that respondents felt that there was a lack of trust within the organisation. This lack of trust was said to exist between managers and subordinates as well as between colleagues.

> Complete lack of trust, I don't trust anybody here, honestly this is the truth. I don't care what anybody says to me, because today they'll say don't worry, this will happen and tomorrow just the opposite will happen.

> There's no trust in the place at all, up or down, not even sideways for that matter.

The data indicated that three respondents experienced strained relationships with their particular manager and two of those experienced strained inter-cultural relationships.

The extent of the experienced strained relationship with particular managers differed across the three respondents as each had a different manager. One respondent's relationship had deteriorated to such an extent that he felt "trampled" by his manager.

> About ten years ago we had a change in the general manager, and this man was sort of the beginning of the lifestyle of the new SABC. He sort of, he was the sort of person who would do his own grandmother in, if it suited him. He had no real consideration for his workers and he trampled a number of people into the ground, a number of people, including me. Since then it sort of snowballed, the sort of situation got worse and worse.

Another respondent indicated that his manager's attempt to maintain authority and power resulted in the respondent experiencing a "difficult situation". These difficulties included direct conflict with his manager and even questioning whether he was under the wrong manager in terms of career development and advancement.

> My manager wanted to keep me under his wing, so that he could still have his empire, 'that I've got this, I've got that'. So I've gone through, I'll say a difficult situation... I have been involved in difficulties like perhaps not seeing eye to eye with my manager, and perhaps having the wrong manager.

The final respondent mentioned a conflict in his relationship with his manager due to this manager being unfamiliar with basic management principles.

> [This] guys got a lot of experience in a particular field, but never in a managerial capacity. He knows the details of the job very well, but his had no exposure and no experience of management. Got appointed as a manager in this environment, and the poor guy doesn't know a thing about management, which results in conflict morning, noon, and night. It was things that I consider basics as far as management goes, hasn't even dawned on him, it's a nightmare.

Two respondents stated that the problems they were experiencing in the new organisational context were not necessarily a result of the change or the change policies per se but rather a consequence of particular managers and the way in which they were doing their jobs.

> [Negative effects] Ja, that's not changes, that is managers policy because my manager has got no real guts about him. It's a matter of look after myself, stuff everybody else, 'if you all sink or die it doesn't matter as long as I'm all right', that's always been his attitude, his a bad manager.

> The lower employees will go along with the decisions from the top. But it's the ways and means and attitudes, that and the way that some managers do their job that aggravate people. So, in for instance, conveying a new policy or whatever, I really believe people are not so much against the new policy as is the way it's conveyed or enforced by that particular individual.

Two respondents expressed a problem with inter-cultural relationships, one respondent stating that black employees would be "huddled in a corner and wouldn't mix with anybody" when attending conferences. The other respondent believed that black employees were "hiding behind racism" because whenever the respondent reprimanded black employees, he would be accused of racism. This respondent thought that "black people as such, they still believe that the white people are trying to hammer them".

> If you talk to people about things that are not right, you very easily blamed for racism, which has got nothing to do with the issue, it's got much more to do with the inability of that person.

4.4 Psychological responses to revolutionary change

Once the cognisance and experiences of the revolutionary change process have been established, the next objective is to understand the respondents' psychological responses to the experienced impact of the change.

4.4.1 Trauma and anxiety

The respondents considered the experience of the change within the organisation as the "most traumatic experience" in their careers. One respondent stated that "nothing has been as traumatic as these last five years" and that the experience of trauma is "not constant because it changes from day to day". A respondent noted that the reason for the experienced trauma was the lack of job security due to the uncertainty within the organisation.

> Nothing as traumatic as this, I mean one or two things would happen to upset you but there's no comparison.

> I have never gone into a situation where the job as such dries out, that is the most traumatic experience I have ever encountered in my whole life.

Consequently, all the respondents experienced a greater degree of anxiety due to the change.

> I have experienced anxiety to a very great extent.

4.4.2 Worry

All the respondents were worried primarily due to the uncertainty within the organisation. The respondents were worried about the "way the organisation is going" and were concerned about the future of the organisation. Respondents also worried whether their particular department was 'duplicated' or not and therefore questioned whether their department would be affected by any further organisational change and retrenchments. This sense of worry intensified due to rumours circulating through the organisation.

> Deep down I'm probably concerned about the future of the SABC, I'm more concerned about the future now, then perhaps I have been in the past.

> They are closing certain departments already, and everybody is concerned, I'm also concerned, is my department safe?

> You could go around this place like a chicken with it's head chopped off, worrying about every single rumour, it's just not worth it. Here I am picking my nose, worrying subconsciously.

The respondents also worried about their personal future in the organisation as they experienced no job security and were anticipating retrenchments with the new change initiative.

> It's sort of worrying me, thinking well will I be here in six months time, should I start cleaning out the desk and things like that.

> This big 'R' is the issue that is worrying everyone. We are going to be retrenched, we are going to be given early retirement, and we are going to be redundant.

4.4.3 Feelings of betrayal: Out in the cold

All the respondents felt betrayed by the organisation. This was expressed through what the respondents referred to as the organisation's lack of concern for it's own employees.

Due to the uncertainty of the organisation's future and the consequent uncertainty of the respondent's job future, the respondents felt that top management were not concerned about the employees beneath them. One respondent stated that "I get the impression that they not interested in the staff". Another respondent believed that top management were looking after themselves and if the organisation did collapse, "it's a matter of bugger you Jack, I'm okay, if the ship sinks I must just try and save myself, if you go down with it, toughies".

> Basically, management is looking after themselves. If the ship sinks they want to make sure they have a life raft, whether you go down with the ship is your problem, it's no concern. They couldn't care less what happens to their own people.

The respondents stated that there was no longer an affinity between themselves and the organisation as there was no job security and they realised that they could lose their jobs at "short notice".

> I feel that the company has very little attachment for me, I feel that if they could get rid of me tomorrow, they would.

> I can certainly see myself as being one that could be thrown out the window at very short notice.

Accordingly, the respondents felt 'used' by the organisation. As one respondent noted:

> I've spent many years of my life here now, and I'm being just about discarded... [They] wash their hands, they pay your salary, that's as far as it goes. There's no more interest shown in you at all, they've had their blood out of you and they can discard you.

4.4.4 Feelings of hurt

Four of the respondents expressed that they felt hurt by the organisation due to the change that had had taken place. The respondents felt this way because of the way they were treated in the organisation. One respondent attributed this to management's lack of trust in him.

> As far as I have been treated, one can't help but feel hurt, I mean there's no question about that.

> Well it hurts, it hurts you that that's the way they sort of feel about me... I mean that is the lowest, when somebody doesn't trust you after 30 odd years of service, how can you feel?

One respondent noted that the experience of hurt was not necessarily a consequence of the organisations' change policies but rather a result of his direct manager.

> I have been hurt so many times by the policies of the SABC, not the SABC, but my direct manager, he stuffed me around so much.

4.4.5 Resentment

Three respondents were resentful of the organisation. This sentiment was evident in the respondent's sense of organisational detachment where they felt that they "don't have any obligation to this company". As one respondent stated, "When I walk out this door, I wash my hands of the SABC as well, I will have nothing more to do with the SABC".

> Well, when or whether I get kicked out, I definitely won't be visiting this place, or keeping in contact with anybody, I personally don't even want to feel welcome.

The respondents were also resentful of the *new* employees in the organisation. White respondents resented the new black management as they believed their career development had been stunted by affirmative action policies. Whilst one white respondent explicitly stated that he was not resentful of affirmative action, this resentment became apparent when he had to deal with affirmative action employees. As he noted:

> I honestly don't have a grudge, I said earlier I'm not over ambitious and I'm quite happy with the level I have reached, surely I could do better, but you know, I can make a living and all that. And I'm baring no grudge but what is worrying me is when you have to deal with affirmative appointments who really are not capable.

Further resentment toward the new management was evident as the respondents noticed the perks that new management were giving themselves.

> Those guys are moving to comfort zone, nice big salary, nice car scheme, housing subsidy. For us it took two years to get a housing subsidy, and they just walk in and three months later the guy is driving a Merc.

4.4.6 Increased stress

All the respondents stated that the level of stress they experienced had increased. One respondent stated, "I definitely think life at the moment is more stressful than it was". Another respondent noted that all employees at all levels of the organisation were being affected by stress.

> Well it's [stress] affecting all layers of the SABC, this whole scenario because you getting people in at all levels that haven't been trained, or haven't found themselves, or this is a stressful environment.

The respondents attributed the increased stress to "the situation" in which the organisation was in due to the change. "The situation we in now brought along a lot of tension and stress".

The respondents emphasised that the uncertainty within the organisation was the primary source of the increased stress. This included uncertainty in the job function as well as a lack of job security.

> Well, of course I say my stress level is much higher at the moment, because of this uncertainty, I wouldn't say the stress has changed but it has become higher.

> What I have found stressful in the last year, working in the SABC, is the uncertainty, the total uncertainty. The fact that you want to do things, and you don't know whether you going to get the money to do the programmes, and decisions are going to be there to do what you really think must be done. Basically, it's the uncertainty more than anything else.

> The stress level comes from not knowing from day to day whether you've got a job, that's the big stress, not only me but the staff too.

A further source of stress was attributed to the increase in violent crime in the greater South African context.

> Well of course the biggest stress is you don't know when you going to get high-jacked, is it safe to go out at night? You lock your house up, you have alarm circuits fitted, you don't know what's going to happen, if you going to walk into something. You don't

know if you going to be high-jacked when you walk out the house, so stress, yes it has gone right up.

Four of the respondents stated that they were experiencing physical effects of the increased level of stress. These included two respondents suffering from sleeplessness, one respondent experiencing headaches and another respondent feeling fatigued.

I spend many hours alone lying in bed thinking, not sleeping, thinking.

I do suffer headaches at times, maybe it's because I worry a lot... I feel like my head is going to blow into two pieces.

I am very tired now.

4.4.7 Frustration

Increased frustration was experienced by all the respondents. However, different causes for the frustration were raised by different respondents depending on their particular job or situation. The sources of frustration included the limitations imposed on respondents' jobs due to the organisation's financial clamp down, the continual training of new employees due to the staff turnover, top black management not having the necessary knowledge to manage the organisation and fellow colleagues not doing their jobs properly.

At the moment I'm experiencing total frustration, because I think the essential things that I explained to you, that I would like to see get done, and particularly in the past few months, you know, there's been a clamp down on so many things.

With a constant staff turnover, you tend to get called to the same sort of problems, the same sort of problems. I mean it's just as hard for the first person who called you, as it is for the hundredth person who called you, whose in the same mess as the first person. There's no need for me to get uptight, moaning and groaning, and say, 'people are always calling me for this ridiculous thing', and try and take it out on the hundredth person. This is one of those facts of life and I recognise that this is going to occur and it has occurred to a large extent.

The black guys, some who don't have the necessary knowledge to run the SABC, and that's frustrating... It is a question of being frustrated, that the leader does not know whether his coming or going.

There's nothing we can do practically, you can only ask the people on the other side of the world to put their act together, and of course the answers we get from our own colleagues are unbelievable. They don't own up, they blame the previous person like, 'I've just walked into my job right now, it's the people last night'.

4.4.8 Powerlessness

A further source of stress that the respondents experienced was the feeling of powerlessness. The respondents felt powerless as they realised that they had little or no control over the changes that had taken place in the organisation.

> No control at all... there's nothing you can do about it [the change].

> Yeah sure, but what sort of control we exercise over the rest of the SABC, whether we should be here or not be here.

This sense of powerlessness extended to the respondent's lack of control over their own departments as various departments were being dismantled and staff were being retrenched.

> Right now because of what has happened with the changing of the department, removing other people and sort of dismantling [my department], I don't really have any control over the situation.

> Unfortunately I would say I don't have much control because I would like to have the staff as it is, because I think the people that I have are a wonderful team.

The respondent also experienced powerlessness in their particular jobs, the primary reason for this was due to the organisation's clamp down on expenditure. Consequently, the respondents were limited in their decision making and spending power.

> Well, you can't buy any spares over R5000 without approval from high up, that's one of the main things.

> I don't have authority in quite a number of aspects, so whenever for instance I have an idea, it has to go through a lot of managers before it's approved, so in that way I think it was really defeating.

4.4.9 Feelings of demoralisation

Three respondents stated that they were demoralised. Two of these respondents stated that they were demoralised as they felt powerless in their particular jobs.

> I wouldn't like to hide this but I am very, very demoralised.

> Demoralised, I really feel demoralised, it's a strange feeling, you know, suddenly you don't have the power you had, especially if you feel you were using it very discreetly and correctly in developing something.

All the respondents noticed that there was a general sense of demoralisation within the organisation. As one respondent noted that "generally you notice a lot of low morale". Another respondent believed that the majority of the employees in the organisation, irrespective of race, were demoralised.

> Perhaps when they were changing to be politically correct, they may have had white people more demoralised than black people, though they saw that black people were also demoralised. Now they sitting, I would say 80% of their staff compliment are demoralised across the board.

The primary reason for the lack of morale among the employees was attributed to the uncertainty within the organisation. Morale was negatively affected by both the uncertainty of the organisations future as well as the lack of individual job security.

> People are absolutely demoralised because of the uncertainty, they don't know what the future of the company is going to be.

> They [staff] are demoralised, because they don't know at the end of the day who is going to remain.

4.4.10 Decreased motivation

The respondents also mentioned that they experienced a decrease in their level of work motivation. One respondent noting that "nobody puts their heart into the work anymore".

> I do my job the best I can, but there's definitely a general motivation which is missing somewhere.

Further respondents noted that their subordinates and other staff members also lacked motivation. Another respondent questioned how his staff could be motivated if he was not, "how can I be motivated, how can my staff ?". The general lack of motivation among the employees was again attributed to the uncertainty that permeated throughout the organisation.

> A lot of people are unmotivated, they are very concerned that they might not have a job at the end of the year.

> They are very sort of demotivated, because everybody knows, well nobody knows what's happening tomorrow.

4.4.11 Negative impact on self esteem

The self esteem of four respondents had been negatively affected as a consequence of the change in the organisation. The negative effects to the respondent's self esteem was due to one respondent feeling "humiliated" by what had happened in the organisation, two respondents seeing themselves as failures and a further respondent stating that the feeling of powerlessness was "actually working on my self esteem".

> I am just failing to get myself on top of the SABC, it's quite a big company. So I say to myself, 'what has gone wrong', and that is the problem. So there are times when I say I am useless.

4.4.12 Depression

One respondent expressed severe depression due the lack of job security within the organisation and viewed his future as dismal and depressing without a job.

> I get depressed at night as it is, just thinking of it [not working].

That depression could occur was expressed by two respondents, these two respondents stated that they had not experienced depression as they had made a conscious effort to prevent this from happening. One respondent stated that "I'm trying not to let the current situation get me down".

> I have not experienced depression, I know that's something that can be very bad. I hope I'm not going to experience depression, that's something I have to fight.

4.5 Identifying with the 'new' organisational context

Once the first goal of the research has been addressed, it is important to examine the second goal of the research. This goal attempts to detail the psychological re-orientation and re-identification of the respondents within the 'new' organisational context.

4.5.1 Difficulty with organisational identification

The majority of the respondents said that they were unable to identify with the new organisation. The reasons for this difficulty in identifying with the organisation were due to changes which included the fragmentation of the organisation into separate business departments and the lack of affiliation toward a particular political grouping in the organisation.

> Before the SABC was my company, now the SABC is broken into small departments.

> At the moment I don't seem to identify with the company, because of what I've said to you previously, that for me personally, since I don't belong to a particular grouping.

The respondents realised the need to personally adjust and identify with the organisation. This notion of personally adjusting to suit the organisation varied across the sample. One respondent thought that the changed organisation "would suit me very well within the framework of the work I was doing" and that he/she would not have to personally adjust. Other respondents realised that they would "need to change drastically" and were subsequently "prepared to adjust but there [were] so many hurdles".

4.5.2 Negative impression of the organisation

The respondents difficulty of identifying with the organisation became apparent in their impressions of the organisation. These impressions were particularly negative. A respondent noted that the organisation "at this stage [was] the laughing stock of the whole country". Two respondents emphasised that they were embarrassed to be associated with the organisation and another was not proud to be associated with the organisation.

> It's an embarrassment to me, I would rather not be associated with the SABC. I wouldn't want to say anything good about the SABC, so I would rather not talk about it.

> I was really proud to be associated with the SABC, really I was, I really was and it's not the case anymore, so that is to put it short and sweet, or bitter I suppose. But yes, that is not the same anymore, one becomes hesitant to mention that you work here. And honestly that is not only my feeling, I know many people who say the same thing, definitely.

4.5.3 The decrease in loyalty toward the organisation

All the respondents explicitly stated that there was a general decrease in loyalty toward the organisation. One respondent believed that employees "were more loyal to the SABC" before the change. Another respondent thought that specifically middle management had lost their loyalty because they were mostly white and top management were predominantly black.

> The guys in middle management who still have their knowledge, I think have lost a lot of loyalty towards the company. Because what you see now it's a situation, when you go to the very top you find mostly black, and in middle management you find mostly white.

Although all the respondents stated that a lack of loyalty existed within the organisation, only one respondent took ownership of his lack of loyalty toward the organisation.

> The loyalty becomes questionable, you know, from my side. I don't know whether I'm loyal to the SABC right now. Thank God I'm not a thief, perhaps I would be taking their computer, you know, I still stick to my principles.

All the respondents had contemplated negative withdrawal behaviour as every respondent had considered leaving the organisation. As these interview examples indicate:

> One gets to the point when it's, hell should I open a coffee shop or something. You start thinking of all kinds of possibilities and I think you have to start thinking of all possibilities, you have to be an entrepreneur to survive anyway.

> I think if I had another opportunity to join another challenging station, I would do that tomorrow.

> If things would deteriorate, I would definitely consider options elsewhere, I definitely would. That's the way I feel, and more and more so by the day.

The respondents claimed that the desire to leave the organisation was shared by the majority of the employees and if packages were offered most employees "would grab what's left of the cake and leave".

> If someone comes to you and says, 'look we've got an outside post for you', there's a clamour to go out, a number of people have left and gone to work outside.

> If they offer [packages] today 90% of the people will still go for it

4.5.4 Commitment to job (not to organisation)

The data indicated that the respondents had a lack of organisation commitment. One respondent declared a "complete lack of commitment" toward the organisation where another respondent thought that "some of the guys are not committed and some of the guys are committed".

The majority of respondents said that they were more committed to their particular job than they were to the organisation. They had retained pride in their particular job functions irrespective of what was happening in the organisation.

> I think I am more committed to the cause [job] at this stage, than I am to the organisation.

> Technical people as far as I am concerned always try to do their best, whether things are good or things are bad. They do not do a slap dash job, they do what is expected of them, for their own sort of internal respectivity, is a word I use, where they like to be respected themselves.

The respondents experienced no organisational satisfaction. Instead, satisfaction was obtained entirely through their particular job or job tasks.

> I certainly find a lot of satisfaction with a particular task that I am doing at the moment, because it's a challenge, it's something new and I believe in it.

4.5.5 Decreased desire to work

Three respondents stated that their desire to work had decreased but the respondents did qualify this by adding that this fluctuated from day to day. One respondent stated "there are days when I actually curse myself, why should I come here?". Another respondent noted that going to work was "an effort, but it goes back to what I said, I do persevere in the situation".

All the respondents recognised that the level of work output had decreased considerably among the employees in the organisation. Respondents noted a lack of enthusiasm in the organisation and reported hearing other colleagues saying, "well now I'm just going to do as little as I can".

> Judging from the general feeling, I think some of the guys are saying, 'look I must just do what I'm paid to do'.

> At the moment it's like, wait and see, don't rush, take your time, there's no more that little push from the back. It's like a hobby to say, 'don't do too much, you might kill yourself, take things easy, take them step by step.' In other words there's not that fast forward issue of getting things done.

This perceived decrease in work output among other employees was consistent across the respondents. They noted that the experience of the change had impacted on their work output, as they were no longer giving their all due to uncertainty in the organisation. This interview example indicates the inability to be both productive and loyal when experiencing uncertainty.

> I think it's a human thing, you don't take out all your energy for something you not sure of, unfortunately that is a human side. There is no way you can give 100% loyalty and productivity when you don't have a view of what is in store for you. Because if the view is clear that you are going to be happy here for the next two years, you give your best.

4.5.6 Disillusionment

The respondents were disillusioned by the changes that had taken place within the organisation. They saw the organisation as being on the decline, and believed that the organisational standards and quality had "gone down".

All the respondents were disillusioned by the change. The experience of change affected respondents differently where each respondent was disillusioned by a particular consequence of the change. The causes of the respondent's disillusionment included uncertainty and lack of job security where one respondent stated, "I'm very disillusioned, as I say nobody knows whether they will be here in six months time". Another respondent was disillusioned as there was no career movement due to his/her lack of political affiliation with a "particular political grouping".

Two respondents were disillusioned with the outcome of the change process as they had a number of positive expectations of the change which have not come to fruition.

> I thought that in the new dispensation, now deaf people would have an opportunity to get what really needs to come to them, to me that's a big shock.

> I'm just getting impatient because we not doing what we supposed to be doing, and I thought the community would be proud of our service.

The respondents all noted that they believed the organisation was on the decline, arguing that the organisation was a "vastly different place from the past". One respondent strongly suggested that the organisation had "become a real third world company now, catering for the third world people". A similar sentiment was held by other respondents although not as rasping.

> The standard has changed completely, as far as I'm concerned it's come down rock bottom. It used to have a lot of respect and it was a, well it was a respectful place to work for, but now that sort of, that is definitely not the old SABC.

> To my mind we on our way down hill, really and that is not simply negativism, it's really noticeable.

This decline was particularly noticeable in the organisation's standards with one respondent stating that "we have the feeling that this place is now really going for a loop, standards have dropped the financial management of the company is not what it should be". Respondents noticed a general lack of concern among the employees about the organisation. As one respondent stated "you just carry on and if something collapses or goes wrong then it goes wrong". Another respondent agreed with this statement,

"oh yes, look the SABC standards have dropped, if you have delays on air, people don't seem to worry these days". As a result, the respondents noted that whilst the "old SABC was quality conscious, this one is quantity conscious".

One respondent believed that the entire organisation had changed very rapidly and had degraded in all respects.

> I cannot believe how it has changed over the past few years. And it has degraded as far as I'm concerned, in all respects, the dirtiness, noise, lack of pride, problems on air - accepted problems, which would not have been accepted before, none of these things would have been accepted.

4.5.7 Violated expectations

All the respondents experienced violation in terms of what they expected from the organisation. This experience of violation differed across the sample where a number of respondents described their expectations as being "virtually shattered". Other respondents described their expectations as being "held back", "put in the freezer" or "stalled at the moment".

Prior to the organisational change, all the respondent's expectations were fulfilled by the organisation. The respondents emphasised that these expectations were fulfilled at particularly early stages in their careers. The respondents felt that there was a fair exchange between what the organisation expected from them and in turn what the respondents expected from the organisation. One respondent stating that what he had received from the organisation had exceeded his initial expectations.

> There were times when I thought I would never get into a position for instance to have a car or any sort of steam. I never expected in the early days that I would be in a position to buy a new car, but it was quite a surprise when I actually managed to do that, and still retain an interesting job and not having to keep pushing paper work around and go from meeting to meeting.

> They expected you to do your best and be reliable, and you expected them to look after you, and give you your normal salary increases without any hassle, and yes it was a fair exchange.

The respondents all believed that in the past there was enough flexibility in the organisation to move up the organisational hierarchy with one respondent stating that "the sky was the limit in those days".

> There was a lot of promotions, the harder you worked the more recognition you got.

> Providing you pulled your weight and you became trained and qualified, there was sort of no end to where you would end up.

In the past the lack of job security was not a major concern for the respondents. All stated that they had felt very secure within the organisation. Each respondent had therefore expected to stay in the SABC until retirement as employment was secured and "the job was there, there was no doubt about it". However, as one respondent noted, this had changed.

> In the past it was nice working for the SABC because your mind set is that you have continuous employment.

> The situation has now changed considerably, I said in those days most of the reasons I worked here was because of the sheltered employment.

Since the organisational change, all the respondent's expectations had been broken to some extent. The majority of the respondents recognised that their expected career movement and life-time employment had been severely broken.

The respondents expressed that the breaking of their initial career expectations was attributed to the change that had taken place within the organisation.

> I joined the SABC and I saw it had prospects, seeing that it's a big boat. So I thought I would work there and if I worked hard enough I could move to another division, but unfortunately it has changed.

Two respondent's career aspirations had been broken as they realised that there was no career advancement for them. "I will never get a promotion again in this place" and "I don't see any promotion in line for me here". A further two respondents noted that their careers had become "stagnant" and had "hit a point".

All the respondents realised that they could no longer expect life-time employment due to the level of uncertainty and job insecurity within the organisation. The respondents stated that in the past they were guaranteed life-time employment and knew that they would retire with the organisation but were less certain of that now.

> In the olden days you knew you would be there until your retirement, these days you don't believe in retirement either, you may be going tomorrow.

> In the old days you knew what you were going to get and you firmly believed you were going to retire here, there was just no question about it, not even a talk about it. It was like permanency itself, you were employed, you had a job, you knew your money was coming at the end of the month, it never even struck my mind that I would not retire here, it is utterly the opposite now.

The respondents stated that since their expectations had been broken, the only certain expectation that they held was the possibility of being retrenched from the organisation.

> I expect that I will be kicked out of this place very shortly, I expect them to say, 'look you've got no service with us, you can pack your bags and go'.

> I don't expect to be stabbed in the back, I could well be stabbed in the back, it's a funny environment we living in.

Apart from the above negative expectation, the respondents had absolutely no other expectations of the organisation. One respondent believed that it was "futile" to have any expectations because of the uncertainty within the organisation. Another agreed that it was "safer" not to have any expectations and rather adopt a "wait and see" approach.

> My present expectations, I have no expectations anymore, and I doubt whether that will change.

> I had dreams and I could see them fulfilled in the near future, but now I don't have such dreams.

Two respondents rationalised that the general lack of expectations was primarily due to the lack of job security because of the uncertainty of the change process and the consequent financial crisis. They believed that if one's job was threatened, then all expectations became 'secondary'.

> If you can give them a job guarantee, at least they will look forward to other things, the job is the bottom line that they need before they get on the ladder. There's no point in getting on the ladder if there's no ground for you, you can't just be in the sky because you got to land somewhere.

> If you talk about having a job and not having a job, then expectancies and promotions and other ambitions become secondary, if you understand what I'm saying. And that is actually where we are, we don't know what is going to happen, whether they will be able to turn around the financial crisis, what effect it will have, whether they going to rationalise, you know, get rid of people again and so on. So it's very difficult to say, I would say the average guy here would be quite pleased if he could just retain his job, and

> if there's no promotion in sight for the next ten years he would still be okay, as long as one could retain a job and income. I think that is more or less the average view here.

As a result, the respondents felt that there was no longer a reciprocal exchange between what the respondents gave the organisation and what they received in return.

> I wouldn't say I'm giving more now, but I'm definitely getting less back.

> Basically at the moment I would say I'm giving more than I'm getting out. But again that question could be answered the other way round, and say perhaps I'm earning more in my situation, the company could be utilising me in a very profitable way.

4.5.8 Nostalgia for the past: The good old days

All the respondents were nostalgic for the past and the way things were prior to the organisational changed. The respondents were especially nostalgic for the past working environment and the former "glamour" of the profession.

All the respondents described the organisation in the past as being "extremely pleasant", consisting of "a happy group of people" resulting in there being a "happy environment". The respondents noted that the organisation was smaller in the past and this allowed for the organisation to be more "like a big family".

Consequently, the respondents described the past inter-personal relationships between both colleagues and managers within the organisation as "good" and "very supportive", emphasising that "the trust was very good, you trusted people, and that was that". One respondent noted that the environment changed after the initial change initiative in 1986, as illustrated in the following example:

> It was just an amiable, pleasant circumstances, you know, people knew each other there were no hidden agenda's and so on and so on. You could talk to whoever you wanted to, you talk about whatever you wanted to, not worrying that someone is going to over hear you, you know, that kind of atmosphere. It was relaxed, pleasant, friendly atmosphere, people knew each other, there was confidence in the bosses, kind of thing. And I think that in itself created a lot of calmness and whatever way you want to describe it, but then as I say from about '86... bad vibes actually started when Broadcast House actually closed down, because at that stage, if I can remember correctly was the first round of retrenchments at the SABC, a lot of people lost their jobs.

The respondents all had very positive impressions of the organisation in the past, they all saw the organisation as being "glamorous" and "idealised". One respondent thought that the "SABC was the top of the world". Two respondent saw the organisation as having career prospects because of it's sheer

size, one respondent noting that "the SABC does everything". One respondent emphasised that it was a good opportunity to work for the organisation which not many people had access to.

> I think you were well under the impression that you were given a good opportunity to do this, maybe 100 people applied and you were the one who got the job.

4.5.9 Negative nostalgia

The memories that the respondents had of the old organisation were not entirely positive. Respondents stated that the past management of the organisation was strictly controlled as "white male Afrikaners ran the place". One respondent stating that staff would be reprimanded if they "did something bad" but would not receive recognition for "something good".

> I think before there was far stricter control of staff, they were expected to do certain things, and if they didn't do it there could be problems.

> If you did something bad, you would know about it immediately, if you did something good no-one would tell you about it.

A number of respondents noted that they had been unfairly treated in the past. This was primarily racial, but also extended to gender as well as language groupings, namely English.

Racial prejudice and discrimination was experienced by black employees as black and white employees had separate eating facilities and amenities. A black respondent emphasised that white managers would "bang on their desks" and "speak to them like farm boys" when talking to black staff. Another black respondent mentioned that in the past there were very few black employees in the organisation.

> If one thinks of the SABC in the 70's or so, you can hardly see a black face in some of the offices.

This sense of unfairness extended to gender discrimination where female employees were treated unfairly as they were not given the same opportunities as men.

> The thing that I did experience at that stage, I felt was unfair, was that women weren't given the same opportunities as men were as far as the type of programmes you were doing. They regarded women as fit to do the women's and children's programmes.

English speaking employees felt that they never really fitted into the organisation as they were "in a very Afrikaans environment". One respondent stating "there was no English in a meeting, unless I piped up and asked a question in English. They would answer one in English, then back to Afrikaans again".

4.5.10 Optimism: Rising from the ashes

Although the respondents identified negatively with the new organisation, there was a considerable degree of optimism within the sample. The respondents were optimistic toward the organisation, their jobs as well as toward the change.

The respondents were optimistic about the future of the organisation as they noted that the organisation had "enormous potential". This was due to the fact that it "has resources and it has people with the strength and knowledge, to make the organisation exciting and competitive".

> I think the SABC has a tremendous potential and an enormous responsibility, and I think there's a lot of potential within the building .
>
> We have got very good workers, who if were given the right leadership and the right motivations, we could go far, we've got the knowledge.
>
> We need people with integrity, people who are here for love of broadcasting, and than this place could be exciting again, it does have the potential even when it comes to competition.

In the "broadest terms", the respondents still believed that the organisation was "a good employer". One respondent stated that "I'm still positive that the SABC is still a good company".

> I would still say the SABC is a very good company to work for, that I would be prepared to say, the SABC is a very good company to work for, because it is unique. I don't think there are companies with this creative situation.
>
> Working for [the] SABC is the challenge, that one has always maintained, that I am there to be a broadcaster all the way.

Four of the respondents mentioned that they were optimistic about their jobs and their future in the organisation. One respondent stated that all the staff within the organisation had been very unfairly treated but still believed that "if they [top management] re-think the whole situation, one might come to a reasonable agreement somehow or other". Two respondents mentioned that their "goals" were still in the organisation and that they would not like to leave the organisation as they still considered their jobs as being of value.

> I'm starting again within the SABC because I wouldn't like to leave them.

> In our job situation there are good days and bad days, but at the end of the day it's a job worth doing.

A number of the respondents were also fairly optimistic about the change. One respondent believed that the change had a positive effect on the organisation describing the change process as "opening up a window that was closed" and creating a "closeness" between employees in the organisation. A further two respondents stated that the change "may work" and "may change for the better".

> With the changes that have taken place, there is life at the SABC, this togetherness. I mean we all have a common goal at the moment, to be able to meet our target.

> Everybody was somewhat scathing, but it actually worked out [1986 change initiative], maybe this change will work out.

> I tell myself, I'm sure things are going to change for the better, and I still say even now that things may change for the better.

4.6 Adjustment and coping

The final goal of the research endeavours to understand the coping strategies employed by middle managers in dealing with the change as well as determining their adjustment to the new organisational context.

4.6.1 Time heals all wounds (personal focus as a coping strategy)

In order to cope with the change and its consequences, the respondents adopted a personal focus or outlook on how they would approach each day. As one respondent stated, "the more time passes, the more I seem to be able to cope with the shock and hurt feelings that I had say a month or two ago". In order to cope, the respondents would focus on one day or week at a time, focus on positive aspects, ignore the situation in the organisation, put the stress and anxiety behind them or leave the stress at work.

> It's crisis management at the moment, just surviving from one day to the other, and focusing what you experience as positive, or you know, getting through this week and see what next week will do.

> I think with myself it's like a tooth-ache which you ignore, you just sort of grin and bear it, and forget about it.

> You sort of bleed off that stress or anxiety and I think that's what I tend to do, just go over it a few times, or explore it a bit to find out more about it. And then I will put it to one side, or put it out of my mind and get on with something else.

> The only way I think I cope is when I go through this door, I leave everything behind, I tell myself it's a job and now I'm going home.

4.6.2 Active coping mechanisms

The majority of the respondents were information seekers as they actively tried to obtain information about the change. This enabled the respondents to have a greater understanding of the situation within the organisation and reduce their level of uncertainty and subsequent stress.

> As far as this situation is, I have tried to find information, I mean, I talk to people, I talk to lawyers to get information, as to how to work with the situation.

All the respondents had either developed or were in the process of developing coping mechanisms in order to cope with the increased stress.

> At this stage, I'm developing coping mechanisms, I'm definitely developing coping mechanisms to cope with the situation, that's all I can say, I have to develop coping mechanisms to cope with the situation.

The respondents had applied or were attempting to apply different coping mechanisms to deal with the stress. These coping mechanisms included finding a hobby, smoking and drinking and the use of humour. Humour was particularly evident, as the researcher observed a poster in a respondents office which read, "Please Lord tell me again how lucky I am to be working here".

> Sometimes I do have a smoke, it's a one off thing, but I do relax with a beer quite often and say, 'thank God it's over'.

> One tries to maintain ones sense of humour, and get a laugh out of things, I think that's critical.

4.6.3 Comparisons with those worse off

All the respondents had made comparisons with colleagues who they believed were worse off than themselves. The respondents acknowledged that comparing their particular situation with someone who they considered worse off, made coping easier for them.

As the respondents differed in demographic profile (Table 1), so to did their comparisons. The varying comparisons were entirely dependant on the particular factors which each respondent identified as resulting in someone being worse off. These factors included marital status, age, experience, networking and the unemployed.

> I know of two ladies, one is divorced and one is a widow, who are more or less in the same situation I am. And I just thought to myself, they've got no support system, they are single parents that have to deal with the situation. Immediately I feel at least I'm better off than they are at this stage.

> The only people I say are worse off than me, are people who are slightly younger than me, that have children at school, at varsity and things like that. And I think they are far worse off with stress, because if they kicked out the SABC, they've got far more problems on their hands then I've got.

> The people who only came in two years ago, who don't even know which way to turn, I feel we are better off, because maybe other departments could utilise our skills in a different format. But with the people who are not known, they don't even know what way to turn, I think they worse off.

> I look at people close to me who haven't got work or are trying to exist on a shoe string. Have got divorce problems or ex-husband is not paying his way and so forth, so outside the work environment I count myself very fortunate, and to a certain extent within the work environment.

4.6.4 Seeking out sources of support

All the respondents emphasised how important support was in order for them to cope. As a result, they sought out sources of support. These sources included the organisation, colleagues, family, friends and professional support.

The respondents held mixed opinions as to whether the organisation offered any formalised support for the employees. Four respondents stated that the organisation had offered no form of support for those affected by the change.

> There is no real support coming from the SABC, once you packed your bags and gone, the doors close behind you, the SABC washes their hands and says 'cheers'.

The other respondents noted that the organisation had offered support, one respondent stating "I think overall the company is giving support". This sentiment was supported by another respondent who noted that the organisation had a company psychologist

> I know they've attempted to put those sorts of [support] mechanisms in the past, in fact I thought there was a company psychologist.

Although the organisation had a psychologist, one respondent stated, "I would not trust a councillor in the SABC, I wouldn't know whether he is trying to get information out of me". An alternative support structure for one respondent had been the trade union.

> If any staff member has got a problem, he will take it to the trade union, and there will be a sort of, trade union will look into it.

As a consequence of the limited support offered by the organisation, the respondents found less formal support in colleagues, family and friends.

The support that the respondents obtained from their colleagues was also limited, and differed across the sample. One respondent only received support from those colleagues who were *safe* in terms of employment within the organisation. Two respondents stated that their colleagues were not a source of support as "we all concerned about our individual needs". A further respondent noted that colleagues were offering support but management was not.

> Those people that are safe in their own situation support you. I've experienced a friend or two whose now in a permanent job, and a car scheme and everything, so from that comfortable situation there is a support system. But people who are more or less in the same traumatic situation as I am in, whenever you start a conversation, they will say, 'I'm sorry for you but this is my situation'. I've experienced that to a very great extent, I suppose I'm doing the same thing, but they immediately go into their own situation which is just as worse or even worse.

> I think all my colleagues are a bit down at the moment, I don't think they can at the moment go and support their colleagues, because they down themselves.

> I think individual colleagues as well are supporting, perhaps the only area at times that does not seem to be supporting that much is actually management.

The family support differed across the sample, depending on the demographics of the respondent (Table 1). With one respondent who was divorced with children having left home, he experienced receiving very little family support. Four of the respondents stated that they received family support. However, the nature of the support that the respondents received varied across the sample. One respondent mentioned that her husband had provided both emotional and legal support because of his legal background. Two respondents experienced support from their spouses. As one stated, "I have a fairly stable situation at home, and that's important". Another respondent received support from his spouse, but not his children, due to their young age.

> My husbands legal background and his support, I mean those two things, hadn't he had the legal background to say, well they can't do this to me, 'they can't do that to you. That has really helped and to say, 'if this doesn't work, don't worry we will work something else'.

> Well, I would say just my wife, because even my children, they haven't come to a stage where I could discuss with them the sensitive issue, so the only person is actually my wife.

One respondent noted that the type of support offered by the family differed to that offered by colleagues.

> I think that the support I get from home is more objective, I would say, than from the support you get from colleagues at the SABC, because they very much in the same situation, so it's very difficult to remain objective.

As the respondents relied on the family for support, they felt that their work role had impacted and was even dominating their other life roles. This became particularly evident in the following interview examples:

> I think it's dominating to some extent, it's had a definite influence on my family, because I've really relied on them to be supportive. And I think it's actually taken too much time at this stage, in trying to get out of this crisis, and try to get a normal relationship with them. At the moment I definitely think it's had an emotional influence on my husband and my son.

> Well if you are stressed and down from work, I suppose you do take it home with you, and maybe you a bit more withdrawn when your family is with you.

The respondents stated that they would only confide in very close friends when discussing the situation in the organisation. Hence they did not really rely on the support of friends.

> I have actually discussed this situation with very few people, I have a friend whose also in the industry, I've discussed it with her. I've actually not discussed it with other friends, because I feel I would rather have the situation cleared, and once I know where I am then I would talk about it.

Only one respondent had sought professional support. This respondent stated, "I've actually gone to my doctor and said, 'well this is what I'm experiencing at the moment' and he has given me vitamins to give me a boost, so that my health is not affected". None of the respondents had sought any form of professional psychological support. However one respondents did consider these research interviews to be "therapeutic".

4.6.5 Personal outlook

The respondents tended to differ considerably in their personal outlook. Two respondents expressly stated that they had not gained anything from the experience of the change process especially not in the way of personal growth and development. Three of the respondents however, noted that they had found some "meaning" in the experience of the revolutionary change and therefore had a more positive outlook for their personal futures. This particular outlook subsequently changed the respondent's perceptions of the revolutionary change, as illustrated in the following excerpt:

> Well I think one must get some kind of challenge out of the case, that's the only way you can deal with it, you know. I know I have a number of other talents, I need to start exploring maybe some of them, I haven't had the time. I've been very much in an administrative type of work which doesn't really suit my creativity in the last few years. So maybe somebody up there is trying to tell me to get out of this and do something else.

4.7 Sample realisation

4.7.1 First theoretically relevant sub-group: Demographic profile

Table 2. Profile of first theoretically relevant sub-group of analysis.

SAMPLE NUMBER	RACE	GENDER	REPORTING EMPLOYEES	YEARS SERVICE
7	Black	Male	5 Managers	22
8	White	Male	8 Managers	13

The first theoretically relevant sub-group (Table 2) consisted of two senior managers drawn from a total of forty four throughout the organisation. Both respondents were general managers of different divisions within the organisation with five and eight middle managers reporting to them respectively.

4.8 Perceptions of general managers

The first theoretically relevant sub-group was introduced to gain an understanding of the perceptions held by senior managers of the middle managers in the initial research group. In order to gain a fuller understanding of the middle managers experiences of change and subsequent adjustment and coping as perceived by their immediate managers.

4.8.1 Negative effects of change on middle managers

Both of the general managers in the sample noted that middle management had "been affected heavily" by the change in the organisation. The respondents emphasised that all the staff were affected by the consequential uncertainty in the organisation. This was particularly traumatic for all the employees as the organisation was in a stressful situation which had resulted in stress levels being quite high.

> It's a very uncertain period for a lot of people, and I think it's a traumatic period for a lot of people, it's something we have to go through.

As a result of the uncertainty, the respondents noted that the middle managers as well as the rest of the employees were demoralised and their level of work output had decreased.

> People are uncertain about their job and this is affecting the way they are performing their jobs, I think to a certain extent the morale has been affected.

Consequently, the respondents stated that "everybody wishes that Mckinsey was through with their assignment" and that the change initiative was "good, [but] we should do this now and get it over with, and those that are still here should plan strategically and see to it we don't land in this situation again".

4.8.2 The inevitability of change: Adapt or die (or leave)

The respondents stated that a number of middle managers "really have embraced the change, both black and white". However the respondents noted that particularly middle managers were "finding it difficult [to adjust] but they are trying because they understand that that's the new route to take". One respondent went further to state that middle managers had "no choice, because they are expected to adjust" and if they were not prepared to adjust then they were "dispensed with".

> It was a question whether you buy into the new direction or not, if you are not buying into the new direction, you are out, so those harsh measures were actually taken.

The respondents noted that those middle managers who were 'less dispensable' and were not happy with the new dispensation or unable to adjust to the new organisational context, opted to leave or expressed a desire to leave.

> Some people decided that this is not the same as we used to in the past, I cannot actually stomach this, I'll rather opt out, some of the people branched out.

> I have people in my office, even in my own department saying, 'please if there's any chance, I don't want to work under these circumstances'.

One respondent noted further that those employees who had adjusted to the organisation after the initial change process, were now faced with the present change initiative and would be required to adjust again or leave the organisation.

> Some of the staff members stayed and tried to fit themselves into the new direction, and now we changing again with the Mckinsey intervention, we obviously going to see another exodus, one way or the other.

4.8.3 Been there, done that, seen it all before

Both respondent believed that length of service was an "advantage" as those middle managers who had been in the organisation for a longer period of time were "better off" than those with a shorter length of service. This advantage was due to the familiarity that longer serving employees had in terms of the organisational dynamic and the previous experience of change.

> I would say the people that have been here longer are even better off, because they've grown used to their stations.

> I think the people who, I'm not only talking management as such, middle management, but even people who have gone through these changes, you have a lot of people here with very long service. I think yes, they have a psychological advantage because they've seen it and it hasn't affected them as such.

4.8.4 Shifting expectations

The respondent noted that there was a shift in both the expectations that the organisation had of middle managers as well as the expectations that middle managers had of the organisation due to new policy.

The respondents stated that the role of middle managers had changed as they "have to make an extra effort to generate more revenue". Consequently, middle mangers were expected to be like "salesmen". One respondent noted that too much was being demanded of middle managers in order to change to meet these new expectations.

> All of a sudden you expect them to stand in front of an audience of advertisers, and then convince the audience of the high quality of the product...You demanding too much from them, you expecting them to go out there and almost be like salesmen, and you can't change everybody to be a salesman.

Due to the change process, the organisation was not appointing people, not promoting people and not regrading people. Subsequently, all staff expectations were not being dealt with which resulted in the staff feeling "unhappy". One respondent did note that expectations became secondary as the staff realised that merely having a job was of primary importance.

> They are unhappy about things like, we have career paths where if you comply with certain criteria you can regrade to the next level. We are now saying 'no this is not happening at the moment, wait until everything is over', people are unhappy about this. Although I must say the over-riding concern of 'will I still have a job' sort of tempers this, I don't get too many complaints like 'I was supposed to get regraded or promoted two months ago, what's happening?' I think people realise it's a question of survival first of all and then looking if I can get promoted.

4.8.5 Expressed middle management uncertainty

The respondents stated that the primary concern that middle managers had expressed to them, was the increased level of uncertainty due to the decline in job security as well as the lack of organisational direction.

The middle managers increased uncertainty was attributed to the change initiative that the organisation was presently undergoing. The middle managers primarily expressed concern for the anticipated change proposals and the possible impact that these proposals may have on them and their particular job.

> I think the main concern for everybody here is 'will I still have a job?' That's the question on almost everybody's minds, that's the most important question. I don't think people are worried about how we going to look like after this restructuring, the question is 'am I going to be here to be part of whatever it looks like'.

The other major concern that middle managers had was the lack of organisational direction as decisions and projects had been put on hold due to the change taking place in the organisation.

> Well the only concerns staff comes up with is where are we leading to, because some of the things have actually been put on hold, things that we budgeted for and things that we wanted to move ahead on. And we have to be cautious and say, okay we had this budget, but because of the Mckinsey resources review that's taking place now, we've got to hang five a bit and then maybe resume some of these commitments after the Mckinsey report to see whether they still viable or not viable.

4.9 Sample realisation

4.9.1 Second theoretically relevant sub-group: Demographic profile

Table 3. Profile of second theoretically relevant sub-group of analysis.

SAMPLE NUMBER	RACE	GENDER	DEPARTMENT NUMBER	YEARS SERVICE
9	Black	Male	31	13
10	Black	Male	10	15

The second theoretically relevant sub-group (Table 3) comprised of two junior managers selected from five hundred and ninety six junior managers throughout the SABC. Both respondents were involved in programming. However, they represented different departments with thirty one and ten members in each department respectively. Both the respondents reported directly to managers at middle management level.

4.10 Perceptions of junior managers

The second theoretically relevant sub-unit was introduced to gain an understanding of the perception held by junior managers of the middle managers in the initial research group. In order to understand the middle managers experience of the change and subsequent adjustment and coping as perceived by the middle managers immediate subordinates.

4.10.1 Negative perceptions of management style

The respondents were positive about their direct managers. One respondent stated that his manager was "a go-getter" and "a very able kind of person". Both respondents viewed their managers as being successful. However one respondent questioned that "a successful manager [was] not necessarily a good manager" as his manager was successful in handling management tasks but was not very good at interpersonal relations.

> He is a successful manager because he has been able to handle all these situations and contain them together. Although what I've said, some people see him a bit distanced, and I believe a good manager is not always judged in those terms.

Further inspection indicated that both respondents had a number of criticisms of their particular manager's style of management with one respondent stating that there was "a problem in terms of the management style". These problems were attributed to the change as the respondents realised that their

managers had a number of "concerns" due to the change in the organisation. Consequently, the respondents had difficulty relating to their manager.

> So now you having difficulty relating to your manager because of his concerns and what he is dealing with.

4.10.2 Changing role of middle managers: Wearing different hats

Both respondents noted that their manager's role had changed as they emphasised that middle managers had to "do things differently". The respondents attributed this to the "new labour relations, the new managing mechanisms in place are changing you as a manager and saying, do you know what you doing? do you know the scenario in which you thrown in?".

> They required to do things differently in terms of knowing that the people under them are more assertive than they used to be, and that calls for downward assertion on the part of the manager. And we talking about people who know their rights now and the department is not making life any easier because the labour acts in place and things like that. And people are very quick to notice if things are not done, the Unions are more vigilant than they used to be.

As a result, the respondents noted that "one tends to have different types of expectations from a manager". The respondents' expectations of their particular manager also varied and included expectations of a closer relationship with their manager as well as the active combating of low staff morale.

> All the people would expect for him to be closer to them throughout, not only in times of controversy, when one would want to have ones back covered.

> The biggest challenge to him and all other people in his position [middle management] would be to successfully get the people out of the state of low morale, and is which something he has not started embarking on.

4.10.3 Different perception of the impact of change on middle managers

Both respondents noted that their managers had been affected by the change. This was attributed to the increased uncertainty throughout the organisation. However, the presumed impact that the change had on the managers was different. One respondent stated that the impact on his manager had been positive where the other respondent noted that the impact had been negative as his manager could no longer "function positively".

> He is the same person except like me, like everyone else who was before the new dispensation, we've grown wiser, we know what it is to sit with the heat next to you, and if there's any changes it's for the better because it's come with growth.

> You ask a guy 'what are you feeling', he says 'man, I don't know if I'm going to be here tomorrow or not'. You cannot get that kind of a person to function positively or lead people to function positively, you cannot get a person to do that.

4.10.4 Middle management reluctance to change: Against the tide

The respondents noted that the middle management level was particularly reluctant to adjust to the new organisational context. This was attributed to the increased uncertainty within the organisation where middle managers were either having difficulty adjusting or preferred to adopt a "wait and see" approach.

> I believe whether they [middle managers] struggling to adjust or just playing a peripheral role, kind of wait and see, you get this feeling, people saying 'I don't know whether I've got a job tomorrow'.

The respondents further stated that they believed middle managers were actually resisting the change process. This resistance was the result of middle managers feeling threatened by the change policies which included affirmative action and worker empowerment. This resistance was evident in the criticism and "sabotage" of the affirmative action programme and the middle managers holding on to their power by manipulating empowerment policies.

> You have people who would have problems with the appointments of some of the current managers, people from below the ranks of such managers who want to pierce holes into the whole affirmative action process. Yes, and try to prove how wrong appointments were, those are the people who would try to create problems for the managers as much as possible.

> There is a push for more lower management empowerment, with that comes the question, 'is my job not being taken away from me, am I really going to be in control of this person?' and you find that this is the policy now, and tomorrow it has changed. In a way you have to go this way, you still have to come to me for a couple of signatures... You find the amount of times policies change, that somebody still wants to have a hold on certain things.

One respondent noted that the initial resistance to the change was primarily from white middle management. This had changed as black middle managers who had been in the organisation prior to the change were also resisting as they saw "exiles" moving into the organisations top management positions.

> I've told you about this kind of resistance from the whites that were in this place. And before I'm talking about a tension between blacks who were in this place, because again they were seeing their territory being invaded by black people. Who were now coming

> from outside into top positions, coming from most of them from exile, now again there was a different type of tension, resistance there.

The junior managers viewed both black and white middle management as being a "problem" in the organisational change as the middle management level was not "buying" into the process.

> I see the middle as being the problem, more than anything. I think there needs to be some kind of very aggressive way in which they must be made to buy into the process. You've got the hamburger that doesn't have the necessary ingredients in place, you get that kind of feeling where you still got to get that middle part of the burger, so you've got a bun and it's ready to take the burger, the lettuce and all the niceties, but when are we going to get that?

CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION

The aim of this research was to gain a thorough understanding of the psychological adjustment made by middle managers after having experienced revolutionary organisational change. The findings of the study were presented in the previous chapter. Through deliberating with the literature reviewed in chapter two, this chapter will discuss the implications of the themes which emerged from the respondents expressed experience of revolutionary organisational change and their subsequent adjustment to the changed organisational context.

The discussion consists of five main sections. Firstly, the respondents' psychological identification with the organisation prior to revolutionary organisational change will be discussed. Secondly, the respondents' general perceptions of revolutionary organisational change will be looked at. Thirdly, the respondents' perceptions of the management and resultant "side-effects" of the change process will be explored. Fourthly, the experienced impact of the revolutionary change process on the respondents will be discussed. Fifthly, the respondents' shared sense of psychological disorientation due to process violation will be examined. Finally, the respondents' psychological adjustment will be considered.

5.1 Psychological identification before revolutionary organisational change

In an effort to fully understand the psychological adjustment of middle managers after revolutionary organisational change, it was important to gain an insight into the psychology underlying the middle managers' organisational identity prior to the revolutionary change. This insight should provide a deeper comprehension of the middle managers' attachment and membership to the organisation as well as create an awareness of the extent to which the organisation became an important part of the middle managers' personal identity.

5.1.1 The ambivalence in identifying with the organisation

The majority of the research respondents had spent the bulk of their working careers within the organisation. The research demographics clearly indicated that the middle managers in the initial research group had an average of 21 years of organisational service. Two of the respondents further expressed that they had spent their entire working lives within the organisation. This is significant as the literature suggests that this level of organisational tenure impacts on employees identification with the organisation. Over the course of their organisational tenure and through various socialisation practices,

employees psychologically adjust themselves and make sense of the organisational environment such that the organisational culture becomes an important part of the individual's identity (Jones, 1983; Kanter et al., 1992; Sherman & Bohlander, 1992; Gordon, 1993; Guzzo et al. 1994; Taormina, 1997).

In contrast to this, the research results revealed that a number of the respondents expressed difficulty in identifying with the organisational culture prior to the revolutionary organisational change due to their inability to assimilate into the organisational environment. All of the respondents emphasised that the organisation prior to the revolutionary change was "a very Afrikaans environment". In the past, the SABC as a public organisation was pervasively influenced by the Nationalist government to consciously structure its workforce and organisational culture to represent white minority rule (SABC, 1994a). The research results therefore, indicated that the majority of the respondents who had experienced a difficulty in identifying with this organisational culture were those who did not identify with the embodiment of white Afrikaanerdom. Black respondents attributed their difficulty in identifying with the organisation to their minority representation within the organisation's workforce. The sparse number of black employees ensured that they had limited impact on the organisational environment and little influence in determining organisational culture. This resulted in the black respondents being unable to assimilate into the organisational environment. The research results further indicated that discriminatory governmental and organisational policy intentionally segregated and marginalised black employees for example, by having separate eating facilities and amenities. This would suggest that organisational policy actively ensured that black employees would not assimilate into the organisational culture unless they were prepared to obsequiously accept 'their place' within the organisation. The organisational culture also intentionally excluded the white English speaking respondents who expressed a sense of alienation as they believed that they never "fitted in" as they were never made to feel part of the organisation. This they largely attributed to the predominance of spoken Afrikaans within organisational meetings as well as the reluctance of Afrikaans colleagues to engage them in spoken English.

The organisational environment was further characterised by what the respondents referred to as a "strictly controlled" management style which they attributed to the fact that "white male Afrikaners ran the place". All the respondents noted that this management style created a critical, judgmental and unforgiving working environment where praise was not forthcoming. This resulted in a "far stricter control of staff". The results also suggested that this particular management style further inhibited a number of the respondents from assimilating into the organisational environment and fully identify with the organisational culture. The black respondents noted that white managers would "bang on their desks" and "speak to them like farm boys" when engaging them. This racially prejudicial treatment further reinforced the black respondents' marginal and inferior status within the organisational culture.

This made it impossible for the black respondents to identify with the organisation as either valued or equal members of the organisation. The unequal treatment of staff was further extended to gender as the female respondent noted how "they regarded women as fit to do the women and children programmes". This she considered to be unfair as women were not given the same opportunities as men.

5.1.2 Establishing organisational identity through the traditional employment relationship

Although the majority of the respondents expressed a certain degree of difficulty in identifying with the organisational culture, all the respondents strongly identified with the organisation through their respective employment relationships. The organisational culture was subsequently manifested through the traditional employment relationship which existed between each of the respondents and the organisation prior to the revolutionary organisational change. Waterman et al. (1994) describe the traditional employment relationship as being reminiscent of a parent-child interaction where the organisation assumes a parental identity and the employee assumes that of a child. All the respondents confirmed the existence of a parent-child employment relationship by personally recounting their interactions with the organisation as if they were relating to a protective parent. This was further noticeable in the respondents describing their relations within the organisation as being "like a big family".

The respondents' frequent mention of the "family" as a metaphor for describing their employment relationship indicates the relational character of the old paternalistic psychological contract underlying the traditional parent-child employment relationship. The literature suggests that all individuals formulate a psychological contract when employed by an organisation which effectively underlies every employment relationship (Baker, 1985; Clarke, 1994; Robinson, 1995; Rousseau, 1990). Consistent with Baker's (1985) speculation, the research results seemed to indicate that the respondents were not entirely aware of an implicit psychological contract underlying their employment relationship. However, the existence of the psychological contract became quite evident in the various expectations that the respondents had of the organisation as well as what they perceived the organisation to expect from them as employees. This was congruent with the classical view of the psychological contract (Guzzo et al., 1994) namely, that the employee has a variety of implicit and explicit expectations of the organisation and the organisation in turn has a variety of expectations of the employee (Schein, 1970). Consistent with this view of the psychological contract, the respondents' expectations of the organisation began prior to their actual employment and organisational membership. Dunahee and Wangler (1974) suggest that the individual has a whole hierarchy of needs that he/she expects the organisation to meet in varying degrees. The respondents' initial expectations of the organisation were largely determined by their expressed positive impression of the organisation where they expected a large "glamorous" organisation

that "does everything" to have many career prospects and opportunities as well as provide "sheltered employment" and an interesting working environment. Roosevelt Thomas (1984) notes that the belief in the likelihood of an organisation fulfilling these initial expectations will largely determine whether an individual joins the organisation. Evidently the respondents remained resolute that the organisation would fulfil their initial expectations as they considered working for the organisation to be a "good opportunity" and remained employed for significant periods of time. Schein (1970) suggests that the newcomer's decision to join the organisation implies that the individual is committed to accepting the authority system of the organisation. Consequently, the respondents must have been accepting of the organisational values as they were willing to exert effort on behalf of the organisation in an endeavour to solidify their membership within the organisation.

Baker (1985) suggests that new employees generally hold highly unrealistic expectations of the organisation. Jones (1983) and Taormina (1997) further advocate that new employees are often confronted with an ambiguous organisational context where their unrealistic expectations remain largely unmet resulting in the experience of a reality shock. Contrary to these suggestions, all the research respondents affirmed that their initial expectations on entering the organisation had been met and even exceeded at particularly early stages in their organisational careers. This suggests that the respondents had not experienced a reality shock on entering the organisation but rather reaffirmed their decision to join the organisation and entrenched a desire to remain an employee of the organisation. This researcher hypothesises that this feature of South African public organisations could be attributed to government over-funding and the growth in the public sector which subsequently provided lucrative employment opportunities. The research results further indicated that over time the respondents' expectations became more elaborate as their psychological contracts had continually evolved and undergone modification and adjustment throughout their organisational tenure (Baker, 1985; Dunahee & Wangler, 1974; Guzzo et al., 1994; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). More specifically, the respondents' expectations of the organisation coincided with what the literature refers to as the "traditional organisational assurances" (Feller, 1995; Herriot & Pemberton, 1995; Laabs, 1996a; Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Schalk & Freese, 1997). These included regular salary increases, consistent promotions, job security and guaranteed life-time employment. In exchange for these various assurances, the respondents enumerated that they in turn were expected to be loyal, reliable, to work hard and "to do your best". This they considered to be a "fair exchange" between themselves and the organisation. The nature of the exchange epitomised the old paternalistic psychological contract which reinforced the traditional parent-child employment relationship. Thus effectively fostering employee helplessness and dependency as well as promoting an entitlement ethic (Feller, 1995; Herriot & Pemberton, 1995; Marks, 1994; Samuelson, 1997; Waterman et al., 1994). Although the organisation's

"unforgiving" management style ensured that the parent-child employment relationship remained entirely conditional, the respondents still asserted that "you expected them to look after you". Evidently this focal expectation had been fulfilled as the respondents expressed a sense of being "looked after". From this perspective the respondents reassessed their characterisation of the organisation's authority system and management style as being "very supportive".

The respondents' reassessment of the characterisation of the organisation typified that of a benevolent 'father'. Consequently, a perusal of the respondents' personal assessment of the fulfilment of their psychological contracts proved to be far more encompassing than just met or unmet expectations, as argued by Robinson (1995), Robinson and Rousseau (1994), and Rousseau (1989). Guzzo et al. (1994) and Schein (1980) suggest that the fulfilment of expectations in assessing the status of the psychological contract is not the "whole story". Instead, the psychological contract is more relational than transactional where its grounding in the employment relationship contributes to the individual's perception that a promised obligation of reciprocity exists between the organisation and him or herself (Guzzo et al., 1994; Herriot & Pemberton, 1995; Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Robinson et al., 1994; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1989; Rousseau, 1990). The respondents therefore, perceived their contributions of loyalty, reliability, hard work and the effort "to do your best" as an obligation for the organisation to reciprocate through the traditional organisational assurances. Subsequently, the respondents conveyed absolutely no distinction between their interpretative understanding of the notion of expectations as opposed to that of promises when describing the characteristics of their psychological contracts but instead perceived them to be one and the same. This lack of distinction indicates a blurring of the relational and transactional aspects of the respondent's individual psychological contracts. The implications of the blurring of these aspects suggests that the respondents' psychological contracts were not merely specified in economic or non-economic terms but also reflected intrinsic socio-emotional factors such as loyalty and support. According to the literature, this is inherent in the traditional employment relationship (Guzzo et al., 1994; Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Rousseau, 1990).

A *leitmotif* in the re-examination of the psychological contract strongly suggests that this phenomenon is largely individual and perceptual in nature (Robinson, 1995). This was illustrated by the respondents personally defining the conditions of their individual psychological contracts and subsequently understanding these conditions from their subjective point of view. Rousseau (1989) says that the employee's experience is the actual focus of the psychological contract. Therefore, only individuals formulate psychological contracts within the employment relationship as the organisation cannot "perceive" psychological contracts with its employees (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Rousseau, 1989). Top-level managers in their individual capacity as agents or representatives of the organisation are

therefore, party to the creation of the respondents' psychological contracts. Interestingly, the majority of the respondents did not differentiate individual managers when making reference to their personal psychological contracts. Instead the respondents alluded to a generic top management which they indirectly referred to as "them" and "they". The implications of this indirect referral suggests that the respondents may have assumed an anthropomorphic identity for the organisation as part of their psychological contracts (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Robinson & Morrison, 1995) where all of top management represented the personification of that identity.

As already suggested the respondents' psychological contracts were never stagnant rather, the contracts evolved with the development of the respondents' respective careers allowing for a workable employment relationship at different career stages. The literature notes that the relational nature of the psychological contract ensures that it is never static but rather open-ended where the transaction between the employer and the employee remains indefinite and continuous throughout the individual's organisational tenure (Baker, 1985; Dunahee & Wangler, 1974; Guzzo et al., 1994; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). The respondent's notable organisational tenure sustained a psychological contract with repeated cycles of contribution and reciprocity which provided stability and predictability to the employment relationship. This stability and predictability was enhanced through the consistent fulfilment of the respondent's increasingly elaborate expectations. This was evident in one respondent having noted that "the sky was the limit in those days". As a result, the psychological contract deepened the employees' perception of the employment relationship through the development of trust. The respondents trusted the organisation's management to meet their expectations "without any hassle". The perceived trust which existed in the employment relationship seemed to exude throughout the organisation. This was illustrated by the respondents emphasising a high level of trust between all the employees of the organisation be it both top management and fellow colleagues. The trust which developed within the individual employment relationships and the greater organisational context were an inherent part of the respondents initial perception of the organisational environment. This they described as "a happy environment" which was "extremely pleasant" as it consisted of "a happy group of people". Indicative of the development of trust and the broadening of the psychological contract was the individual's increased involvement in the employment relationship (Guzzo et al., 1994; Robinson et al., 1994). This was evident in the respondent's expressed commitment and enthusiasm toward the organisation. Stroh and Reilly (1997) suggest that employees with high levels of organisational commitment in turn identify highly with their organisation. This was particularly well illustrated in the respondents expressed sense of pride in being associated with the organisation. One could therefore, assume that all the respondents had deeply identified with the organisation because of the complete

fulfilment of their old psychological contracts and the comfort of the traditional parent-child employment relationship prior to revolutionary organisational change.

5.2 The general perception of organisational change

In an effort to answer the research question, the objective of this particular section endeavours to explore the individual middle managers' perceptions of revolutionary organisational change. Wilson (1992) suggests that change is predominantly a perceptual phenomenon which can only be understood in terms of the individuals' accounts and definitions of the situation. In order to fully comprehend the psychological adjustment made by middle managers after revolutionary organisational change, it is important to gain an insight into the similarities and dissimilarities of the middle manager's perceptions of the change process. This is done by appreciating the individual respondents' definitions, accounts and perceived necessity of the change.

5.2.1 Defining revolutionary organisational change

All the respondents understood the organisation as having undergone a process of change over a number of years. More specifically, the research results implied that the respondents' recollection of the organisations' change remained consistent with the conventional idea of organisational change whereby they defined the change as a transitional concept which involved a perceptible difference in the organisation between two successive fixed points in time (Kanter et al., 1992; Kubr, 1996; Wilson, 1992). This suggests that the respondents perceived the organisational change in linear stages where a state of movement in the organisation would be superseded by a state equilibrium. Kanter et al. (1992) argue that this linear conception of organisational change is grossly inappropriate as organisations are in continual omnipresent and "multidirectional" motion.

In addition, the degree of change was described. As Wilson (1992) suggests, change is a relative concept such that when talking about organisational change, one is really referring to the degree of change that has taken place. The respondents described the organisational change as being both "major" and "significant" which signifies that the respondents' perception of the organisational change was largely determined by the degree of the change which took place. The change can also be described as revolutionary organisational change. This perception of the organisational change was entirely attributable to the extent of the perceptible differences within the organisation after the revolutionary change process as well as the rapidity of the change and the "short space of time" in which these perceptible differences were perceived. The respondents' description of the degree of the organisational

change remained consistent with the literary description of revolutionary organisational change which was characterised by the rapidity and cataclysmic upheaval so indicative of the objectives of revolutionary organisational change (Beer, 1980; Gersick, 1991; Hammer & Champy, 1993; Tushman et al., 1986). This would suggest that the respondents had little or no recollection of the organisations' longer periods of incremental change as their entire discourse focused on describing the revolutionary change. That this was revolutionary change needs to be remembered in terms of the subsequent impact on the psychological contract.

5.2.2 Recounting the revolutionary organisational change

The respondents' recounts of the revolutionary organisational change indicates that the organisation was perceived to have undergone a number of separate revolutionary "change processes". These recounts corroborate the proposed "punctuated equilibrium model" as proposed by Gersick (1991), Tushman and Romanelli (1985) and Tushman and O'Reilly (1997). More specifically, the research results illustrate that the organisation was periodically punctuated by three successive and relatively distinct revolutionary change initiatives. The respondents identified these and distinguished them through the 'fixed' points in time when each of these initiatives took place as well as the distinctive perceptible differences in the organisation which were a result of each of the revolutionary change processes.

Five of the respondents perceived the first "significant" or revolutionary change in the organisation as occurring in 1986. The only respondent who could not recount this particular change initiative was not in the employ of the organisation at the time of the change process and consequently had no recollection of this change. Those respondents who did recount this initial revolutionary change did so because of the resultant perceptible difference in the organisation, including the restructuring of the organisation into separate "business units" and the subsequent retrenchment of organisational staff. Consistent with the purpose of restructuring an organisation (Morris & Brandon, 1993; Schreuder & Theron, 1997), the research results seemed to further substantiate the literature, as the respondents noted that the rationale was to make the organisation more profitable through ensuring that each business unit made a profit and therefore justified its existence.

The second punctuated revolutionary change took place in 1992. Given that all the respondents were in the employ of the organisation for a period of at least five years at the point of data collection, they had therefore been in the employ of the organisation prior to the second punctuated revolutionary change initiative. This they identified and referred to as the "second major change" within the organisation.

The respondents recounts of this particular change indicate that the organisation was moving toward a "new coalignment" (Gersick, 1991; Tushman et al., 1986; Tushman & Romanelli, 1985) which required the altering of organisational control, coordination and identity (Kanter, 1992). Specifically, the initial altering of the organisational control was illustrated in the appointment of the organisation's new governing board in 1993. The new governing board proved to be the initial precursor of the organisation's second revolutionary change process and evidently represented the first perceptible difference of this particular change initiative. The new board became the driving force behind the change in the organisation's coordination as it embarked on a major review of the organisation's policies (SABC, 1994b). According to one respondent, the new board introduced organisational policy which brought about considerable change within the organisation.

Although the respondents were aware that a lot of significant changes had taken place since the introduction of the new governing board, when questioned during the research they remained vague and unsure of the specific changes in organisational policy and coordination. This expressed ambivalence could largely be attributed to the sheer size and complexity of the organisation after the restructuring of "separate" business units in the first revolutionary change which subsequently made it difficult for the respondents to view the organisation as a whole. Consequently, the respondents were only able to recount the change policies which appeared as perceptible differences within their particular working environment or department. The most obvious difference which all the respondents noted was the fewer number of staff members in each of their respective departments. Kennedy (1994) outlines that considering the objective of revolutionary change is to redesign a business around its core working processes, it is not surprising that it will end up with fewer people. Hence, the organisation's second punctuated revolutionary change initiative was largely characterised by the reduction in the organisation's workforce, which according to Morris and Brandon (1994) and Schreuder and Theron (1997) is an effort to reduce organisational costs, better profits and increase the level of production. As maintained by the respondents this particular reduction in the size of the organisation's workforce was achieved through offering employees monetary "packages" as an incentive to voluntarily resign or take early retirement. The respondents further noted that the offering of these packages were determined by race and the perceived dispensability of a particular individual. The former determinant in establishing individual eligibility for the proffering of packages raised the respondents' awareness of the organisation's affirmative action policy which they subsequently identified as the second perceptible difference within their immediate working environment.

The majority of the respondents crudely defined the organisation's affirmative action policy as an attempt to reduce the number of white employees and increase the number of black employees so as to

align the organisation's demographic profile with that of the greater South Africa. In fact underpinning the second revolutionary change initiative was the organisations' expressed intent to "re-invent" itself through redefining its organisational identity in the new South African context (SABC, 1994b). This intent remained consistent with Wilson (1992), who suggests that revolutionary organisational change focuses on redefining the organisations existing parameters. The shift in both organisational control and coordination contributed to this end. However, the relaunch of the organisations' radio and television services epitomised the redefining of the organisational identity. The public relaunch of the organisations' services and the subsequent changes in its programming schedule were quite clearly the most perceptible differences within the organisation as the respondents emphasised that these particular changes were not only perceived by themselves as employees but were also observed by the general South African public.

The respondents noted that the "third" punctuation of revolutionary organisational change began in 1995 with the introduction of external "organisational consultants". The organisational consultants were referred to as the "turn-around team" who conducted a "resources review" focusing on the review of the organisations' resources and effectiveness. Whilst the respondents identified this more as representing the third wave of change, the organisation's top management and change strategists however, revealed that the introduction of the organisational consultants and the undertaking of the resources review were merely an extension of the previous change process (SABC, 1994b). This researcher therefore hypothesises that the respondents may have perceived various amplified meta-revolutionary changes within the greater revolutionary change process. By the time of the data collection, the organisational consultants had not yet completed their review of the organisations' resources. Hence, the respondents were vague and unsure of the specific changes taking place. However they were anticipating and bracing themselves for a variety of major organisational changes. More specifically, the respondents revealed that the organisation was about to undergo another restructuring which entailed the amalgamation of "duplicate services", the formation of three specific "job families" based on "core functions", outsourcing of support services and the elimination of duplicate departments. This new organisational downsizing was accompanied by a proposed hierarchical delayering whereby the traditional "government grading scale" would be compressed into five grades. The middle managers in this research indicated their vulnerability in this downsizing. This fear is legitimate as middle managers are increasingly at risk as organisations eliminate middle management ranks in an attempt to delayer the organisational hierarchy and become "flatter" (Clarke, 1994; Marks, 1994; Schreuder & Theron, 1997).

5.2.3 Perceived necessity for revolutionary change

The majority of the respondents were in general acceptance and favour of the need for revolutionary organisational change. They understood the necessity for the organisation to change due to the organisation's changing environment. Vaill (1989) would describe the organisational environment of the environment as being in a state of "permanent white water" where continual changes produce numerous "forces" which impact on the organisational system (Huhn, 1991; Katz & Kahn, 1992; Kubr, 1996; Mullins in Blunt & Jones, 1992; Schreuder & Theron, 1997). The research results show that these particular forces included both broad socio-political changes which swept across the greater South African context as well as specific changes within the broadcasting industry. According to Tushman et al. (1986), organisations embark on revolutionary change in an effort to realign themselves with the changed environment. A number of the respondents made the implication that the organisation was particularly susceptible to the country's changing socio-political environment as a "close link" was perceived to exist between the organisation and the influence of government. This is particularly so as the case study was a public organisation which functioned within a political milieu where a change in government and political policy resulted in a direct and immediate change in all public institutions (van der Walt & du Toit, 1997; van der Walt & Helmbold, 1995). The perceived influence that the new government had within the organisation fostered suspicion among both black and white respondents who queried the role of the ANC as being similar to that of the National Party which dictated organisational policy, programming and funding. Whilst the government had changed, the respondents felt that the relationship between the government and the organisation had in principle stayed the same. Consequently, a number of the respondents questioned whether the organisation had in fact *really* changed.

5.3 The perceived management of the change process

Issues typical in the management of the revolutionary change process arose in the research. These included employee participation and open communication which subsequently determined the legitimacy of the management of the change process. Strebel (1996) argues that the management of organisational change is not working as effectively as it should. It is therefore important to gain an insight into the middle managers' attitudes and perceptions of the management of the revolutionary change process as well as understand the subsequent "side-effects" which may be attributed to the management of the process. In understanding the management of the revolutionary change process, a greater comprehension of the respondents' experiences of revolutionary organisational change will be elucidated.

5.3.1 The legitimacy of the change process

The respondents generally perceived the management of the change process to be poor. A number of the respondents were however, more specific in identifying a lack of decision making on the part of management, a neglecting of organisational finances, a lack of strategic direction, a lack of communication, poor management of retrenchment process and affirmative action programme and an alienation of Afrikaans viewers as being particular aspects within the change process which were not managed well. Evidence indicates that all the respondents had vehemently attributed the blame for the poor management of the change process to a generic 'top management'. The generic top management were in effect the change strategists who were subsequently perceived as being responsible for initiating and managing the change process.

The respondent's primary concern in the management of the change process was the perceived lack of strategic direction as there was no clarity as to what exactly the organisation's official governmental mandate would be after the change process. Hence, a number of the respondents even expressed uncertainty as to whether the organisation was a public or a private institution and subsequently emphasised the urgency for a decision to be made on the organisation's strategic direction. This concern was emphasised by other respondents speculating that even top management were unaware of the organisation's strategic direction. A further concern was voiced over the perceived lack of medium and long term planning. The perceived lack of organisational planning and direction resulted in a number of the respondents comparing the organisation's "new" top management and the subsequent management of the change process to that of "a chicken with its head chopped off".

This resulted in the respondents losing "faith in management" where the new top management lacked the credibility to lead the change process. Although the respondents had expressed a perceived necessity for the organisational change, they subsequently viewed the new top management as imposing their "will" on the organisation without necessarily understanding the industry or the organisational dynamics. This would strongly suggest that despite the fact that the respondents had "logically" bought into the necessity for the organisational change, they had quite evidently not "emotionally" bought into the change process. The respondents could therefore understand the rationality for the revolutionary change but found the process of change difficult to accept. Hence, the majority of the respondents who were initially supportive and accepting of the organisational change were now antagonists as they perceived the management of the change process to be to the detriment of the organisation. This was illustrated by the respondents emphasising the failures of the change process and the negative effects of the change on the organisation. These negative effects were primarily perceived as a failure of the change from a business point of view where a number of the respondents attributed the decline in the payment of television licenses and the withdrawing of television sponsorship and advertising to a gradual

deterioration of the organisation as a public services. Two respondents attributed these negative effects to top management not being "geared" for the organisation and subsequently being unable to do "something right" in managing the change process. The absence of top management credibility would therefore imply that the management of the organisational change process lacked the essential "legitimacy" which Carstens (1995) suggests is the key in determining successful organisational change. Furthermore, Katz (1994) suggests that the legitimacy of organisational change remains a function of *employee participation* and *open communication* which are crucial to the acceptance of the change process in its entirety.

5.3.2 The participation of middle managers in the change process

Evidence in the literature suggests that the participation of middle managers in an organisational change process can largely be divided into two distinct roles (Carstens, 1995; Herriot & Pemberton, 1995; Knowdell et al., 1994). Firstly, middle managers may play an initial participative role in the policy and decision making of the organisational change, becoming an important part of the planning process. Secondly, and in accordance with the literature, middle managers primarily participate in the actual implementation of the change through promoting and conveying the policy and planning decisions and ultimately making the change happen (CBMNT, 1993; Kanter et al., 1992).

The lack of participation of middle managers in the planning process proved to be a disempowering one for them. Carstens (1995) and Knowdell et al. (1994) argue that employees need to feel part of the planning process especially when these decisions affect their working lives. The results however, clearly indicate that the respondents' participation in the planning process was either considerably limited or non existent. The respondent's participation differed considerably across the research sample and included engrossment in small committees, filling in anonymous questionnaires and attending week-end seminars. Those respondents who had expressed an involvement in the planning of the change were particularly vague as to their specific contribution to the process. This could be attributed to the amorphousness of the organisations' attempts to involve the employees in the planning process. The inconclusive participation of the respondents in the planning process was further exacerbated by their irresolution as to the outcomes of their contributions. This subsequently raises the question as to whether the respondent's limited involvement in the planning process was in fact valued and considered or whether the attempts by management to engage its employees during the planning process were merely an effort to appease them. The evidence in the research results seem to suggest the latter as the majority of the respondents had the distinct impression that their suggestions and recommendations were falling on deaf ears. Those respondents not comprising the majority remained confident that their inputs were being heard but believed that their proposals were simply not being taken into consideration. One

respondent even empathised with top management and attributed these impressions to "constraints that we don't necessarily know about".

The extent of the respondent's limited participation in the organisation's change planning process seemed to extend beyond their initial lack of involvement in policy formulation and decision making. A number of the respondents expressed "little or no consultation" by top management as to the plans for change once they had been finalised. The respondents therefore, expressed a sense of isolation in the change process which was attributed to their recognition that the change was merely "dumped on you" as opposed to being effectively "sold" to the staff. Clarke (1994) argues that the biggest concern that most employees have about organisational change is that it is something that is done to them rather than by them. The role of the respondents within the change process became one of simple compliance as their lack of involvement in the initial planning phase contributed to their difficulty to emotionally "buy" into the change. The literature suggests that employees are unable to feel emotionally committed to the change unless they own the plan for change (Beer et al., 1990; Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979; Marks, 1994; Nichol, 1992). Hence, the limited role that the respondents played in the planning process led to an awareness of the limits of their individual power where they felt removed from the decision makers. Kanter (1989a) describes this awareness as the most far reaching and permanent side-effect of revolutionary organisational change where the process disempowers large numbers of employees and enhances those who have the power. The respondents defined these distinct power differences according to the organisation's hierarchical structure where this exclusionary decision making process during the change secured the existing power of top management and effectively ensured the disempowerment of those lower down. Consequently, the respondents' lack of participation in the planning process reminded them of their marginal status which according to Kanter (1989a) makes the employee feel less valued and more dependent in the greater organisational change process.

Whilst middle managers often have more control and participation in the implementation process, in this research even this involvement proved problematic. Although the research results indicated that the respondents level of participation in the change process had markedly increased during the implementation phase, middle managers still have less control than the change strategists (CBMNT, 1993; Kanter et al., 1992). Kanter et al. (1992) suggest that middle managers in effect assume the role of the implementers in the change process as they remain strategically positioned to "make it happen". Evidently the respondents willingly adopted this particular role as they emphasised their heightened involvement in conveying the various planning and policy decisions to their respective subordinates. Spector (1989) suggests that middle managers implement the change process through attempting to change their particular departments. The respondents however, expressed a sense of individual

powerlessness which extended beyond the initial planning process to include the actual implementation as well. This sense of individual powerlessness was ascribed to the respondent's realisation that they had little or no control over the changes taking place within the organisation as a whole and more specifically in their particular departments, such changes included a restructuring through staff retrenchments. The research results further indicate that the extent of their powerlessness seemed to also extend into their particular job functions as the respondents noted that an organisational "clamp down" on expenditure during the change process had severely curtailed their decision making and spending power. The literature suggests that the dearth of control leads to a predicament within the middle management ranks as they lack the requisite authority to "make the change happen" (Kanter et al., 1992; CBMNT, 1993). This predicament in turn resulted in the respondents experiencing intense frustration as their specific task functions were becoming increasingly more difficult to perform. The respondents' identification of the sources of their frustration tended to differ across the sample and were largely dependent on the types of perceived "constraints" imposed on their particular job or situation. These perceived constraints included having to constantly train new employees due to the continual staff turnover, the increased ambiguity in the leadership of top management which directly impacted on the respondent's job function as well as the inability for the respondents to do their jobs effectively due to their reliance on fellow employees who were not performing their jobs properly.

5.3.3 The communication of the change process

In spite of the fact that middle managers play a pivotal role in relaying relevant information from the change strategists to the change recipients, in this research the respondents were "caught in the middle" as the communication of the change process proved to be insufficient. Although the majority of the respondents expressed a general dissatisfaction with the everyday communication within the organisation, all the respondents approvingly acknowledged the efforts by top management to communicate the change process to the organisations' employees. The organisational system was intentionally "flooded" with information through the use of various communication devices which included posters, meetings, news letters and the organisations internal newspaper.

Noer (1993) argues that it is impossible to overcommunicate during periods of organisational change. However, the research result would seem to suggest that the type of information conveyed was of more importance than the amount of information received as the majority of the respondents expressed an inadequacy with the information they had obtained. This particular issue raised the question as to whether overcommunication was truly effective in ensuring the employees' understanding of the change process. Larkin and Larkin (1996) suggest that only the facts need to be communicated during periods of organisational change. The research evidence therefore indicates that the attempts by top management

to overcommunicate the change process proved largely ineffective as the respondents expressed a discernment and a lack of consistency in the types of information communicated. According to Young and Post (1993) and Caudron (1996b), truly effective communication does not occur until each employee understands the link between the "big picture" and the "little picture". A number of the respondents expressed a perceived effort by management to communicate the big picture at the expense of the more important little picture. However, on the other hand numerous respondents vehemently stated that "no big picture was communicated" as the "selective" information that they had received focused entirely on the little picture which they considered either "unimportant" or "elementary". This consideration could be attributed to the respondents inability to perceive the relevance of the little picture in relation to an unseen big picture. Kanter (1989b) suggests that the breakdown in communication is largely determined by the effectiveness of individual managers which may explain the ambivalence in the respondents' comprehension of what exactly was communicated. The research results therefore strongly stress the necessity for the establishment of an explicit link between the big picture and the little picture. This was evident in the respondents' expressed need for more information which translated the organisational change into direct effects and implications for the individual and his/her job as well as describing what was happening in the organisation.

Milliken (1987) and Clarke (1994) suggest that insufficient information during periods of revolutionary organisational change can have the side-effect of increased levels of employee uncertainty. This side-effect was quite evident in the research results as all the respondents experienced intense uncertainty within the organisation. The respondents generally perceived the cause of this uncertainty to be due to organisational change and poor management of the change process. Specifically the perceived lack of strategic organisational direction had resulted in individual employees not knowing "where they are and where they stand" within the undetermined organisational context. The research results further indicated that this uncertainty within the organisation was far more pervasive and extended to all levels of the organisation. This was confirmed by both the theoretically relevant sub-groups who noted a general increase in the level of uncertainty throughout the organisation. A number of the respondents partly assigned the pervasive increase in uncertainty to the presence of external organisational consultants who had in effect become the change strategists. Consequently, the respondents questioned whether even top management were aware of a strategic organisational direction. This raises further questions as to whether the organisations top management were in fact in control of the change process and whether they possessed the relevant information to communicate to the rest of the staff.

Caplan and Teese (1997) and Marks (1994) therefore argue that communication problems are understandable in organisations undergoing revolutionary organisational change as top management are

often distracted by their own transition anxieties. Apart from the insufficient information, the respondents noted that their level of uncertainty was further exacerbated by the ambivalence in the limited information that was conveyed. The respondents stated that conflicting statements increased the level of confusion as to the organisation's overall strategic direction. According to Heslin et al. (1972), this cumulative and escalating sense of uncertainty increases the employee's need for information. This led to all the respondents seeking alternate sources of information in an effort to fill the "information gaps". The primary source of information was the print media where the respondents obtained details of the change process through newspaper articles prior to being informed by the organisations' top management. With the newspaper articles being damning of the management of the change process, the subsequent information that the respondents received from the organisations' top management was largely in the form of contradictory rebuttals. These rebuttals generated further uncertainty as the respondents remained unsure as to *what* or *who* to believe. Hence, the failure by top management to fully inform the respondents early in the change process resulted in subsequent information being received with suspicion and scepticism. A number of the respondents emphasised that the insufficient information received from top management and the ambiguous newspaper reports had culminated in the generation of "a lot" of rumours within the organisation. As the literature suggests (Noer, 1993; Marks, 1994, Caudron, 1996a; Larkin & Larkin, 1996; Caplan & Teese, 1997), these circulating rumours tended to be 'worse-case scenarios'. Hence, the themes of the rumours fluctuated between the organisation's impending financial collapse to fellow employees committing suicide. Consequently, although one respondent believed that rumours were the best means of communication, the negativity of the expressed scenarios would support Caudron's (1996b), Kanter's (1989a) and Marks' (1994) observation that rumours are more damaging and destructive than the truth. This was evident in a number of the respondents noticing the "snowball" effect of the circulating rumours which effectively spiralled the organisation into a perpetual state of uncertainty.

5.4 The impact of the revolutionary change process

A further objective of the research was to gain an understanding of the impact of the revolutionary change process on the middle managers within the organisational context. Clarke (1994) and Wegerle (1997) argue that the most common error in organisations embarking on revolutionary change is to underestimate the impact that the process has on the surviving employees. The research results suggest that the subsequent impact of the revolutionary change on the respondents was so tremendous that one respondent described the process as "the most traumatic experience I have ever encountered in my whole life". This particular statement illustrates the equatability of the respondents experienced trauma

of the revolutionary change process with that of other forms of traumatic personal change identified by Clarke (1994), Herriot and Pemberton (1995) and Kanter et al. (1992). This sentiment was shared to a certain extent by the majority of the research respondents who reported that the last five years, which were principally characterised by intermittent periods of revolutionary change in the organisation, were the most traumatic in their careers. Contrary to Clarke (1994) and Wegerle's (1997) initial argument, the research results indicated that the impact of the change process on the organisation's employees was not underestimated by the general managers in the first theoretically relevant sub-group as they recognised that middle managers in particular had been "heavily affected" by the organisational change as the process was considered to be a markedly "traumatic period" for them. These results were confirmed by the junior managers in the second theoretically relevant sub-group who noted that their proximate managers had been affected by the change process. The research results further suggested that the effects of the revolutionary change process on the respondents were predominantly negative which substantiates Johnson and Sarason's (1978) reasonable assumption that high levels of change have negative effects on individuals. Although the impact of the revolutionary organisational change was recognised by both the general managers in the first theoretically relevant sub-group, as well as the junior managers in the second theoretically relevant sub-group, the research results remained congruous with Caudron's (1996b) suggestion that very little is being done to help surviving employees come to terms with the trauma of revolutionary organisational change.

5.4.1 The psychological "outcomes"

Clarke (1994) suggests that organisational change has no significant difference from major personal loss. According to Johnson and Sarason's (1978) conceptualisation of personal life stress, this research strongly suggest that the trauma of the revolutionary change process could by and large be considered a stressful life event. The interpretation of the revolutionary change process as being a stressful life event was well illustrated by one respondent noting that "I definitely think life at the moment is more stressful than it was". The rest of the research sample seemed to share this opinion as all the respondents including the general managers in the first theoretically relevant sub-group noted that the level of stress throughout the organisation had increased markedly. The respondents attributed the increased level of organisational stress to "the situation" in which the organisation was in and characterised the organisation as a "stressful environment". The extent of the stress within the organisation was also compared to a further source of stress outside of the organisation. One of the respondents identified the increased crime rate within South Africa as the "biggest stress". Ironically, it could therefore be postulated that this particular respondent may have found a certain degree of solace within the organisation as the extent of the stress outside of the organisation was far greater.

All the respondents however, expressed a greater degree of personal anxiety and tension as their reported personal "stress levels" had substantially increased. The extent of their levels of personal stress were evident through the subsequent manifestation of various psychological and physiological ailments. These included both depression and low self-esteem which in turn may have resulted in the physiological ailments such as sleeplessness, headaches and fatigue. The respondents identified the heightened uncertainty within the organisation and the subsequent decline in job security to be the primary source of their experienced stress and ensuing ailments. This primary source was evidently derived through the respondents expressed worry and concern for the "future of the SABC", the questioned "safety" of their respective departments from duplication and their personal future and individual survival within the organisation. The research results further indicated that a contingent source of the respondents' increased level of stress was their expressed sense of powerlessness and the symptomatic aggrandisement of their experienced frustration. Consequently, this researcher hypothesises that the increased stress emanating from the revolutionary change may have been acutely aggravated by the repercussions of the management of the process and the subsequent lack of facilitation in helping the employees come to terms with the trauma of the organisational change.

5.4.2 Individual moderation of the impact of change

The research results suggest that the respondents' experience of the revolutionary change process may have been moderated by what Johnson and Sarason (1978) refer to as "specific individual difference variables". According to Marks (1994), change needs to take place at the individual level in order to occur at the organisational level. Therefore as Dyer (1984) suggests, the focus of change can be particularly individual at times. Consistent with Holmes and Rahe's (1967) assertion, the research results indicated that some of the respondents adjusted to the stress of the revolutionary change process more readily and more successfully than others. Duckitt and Broll (1982) ascribe this difference in adjustment to intrapersonal and social factors which mediate the impact of stressors on the individual.

Kobasa (1979) argues that personality is an important element in determining how the individual 'takes to' the stressful life event. This was clear in the research result where respondents' reactions differed considerably across the research sample. This difference was attributed to the extent of the respondent's personal hardiness. The respondent's personal hardiness was identified in the research results through each individual's personal outlook of the revolutionary change process. Two of the respondents subsequently showed very few signs of personal hardiness as they were unable to recognise any personal "meaning" or development in their experiences of the change process. On the other hand, three of the respondents exhibited very high levels of personal hardiness as they identified the experience of the life stress as an opportunity for personal "growth". In concurrence with the definition provided by Johnson

and Sarason (1978), Kobasa (1979) and Bhagat (1983), the respondents who displayed high levels of personal hardiness saw the revolutionary change as an opportunity for personal development and exploration.

A further intrapersonal factor which mediated the impact of the of the stress of the change process was the respondent's ability to cope with the stress. Latack (1984) identifies coping as a further determinant of how individuals will experience stressful events. As proposed by Latack (1984) and Folkman and Lazarus (1995), the research results indicated that all the respondents had exercised personal coping strategies in an effort to manage, alleviate, prevent or tolerate the stress of the change process. According to Latack (1984), there are three distinct categories of coping. The application of all three of these categories were identified in the research results. The first category as proposed by Latack (1984) and Folkman and Lazarus (1985), was revealed in the research results by the respondents taking action on the stressor situation through the exercising of "problem-focused coping". This particular coping category became quite apparent in the respondents expressed attempts to actively seek and obtain information in an effort to gain a greater understanding of the stressful situation within the organisation.

The second coping category, as defined by Bhagat (1983) and Latack (1984), was evident in the respondents' attempts to cognitively reappraise the stressful situation through shifting their personal focus. The shift in personal focus was displayed through the respondents expressly ignoring 'the situation' and subsequently focusing on the short term as well as applying positive thinking. Similarly, Taylor (1983) describes a theory of cognitive adjustment which was used by one respondent. This involves ostensibly searching for the underlying causal attributions to the stressful situation. As noted by the respondent "I tend to just go over it a few times, or explore it a bit to find out more about it". Furthermore, all the respondents had cognitively adjusted to the stress of the organisational change through individually comparing themselves with those colleagues who were "worse off". The respondents suggested that this "made coping easier" as it allowed them to perceive the stress of their own situation to be less than that of the comparison. Taylor (1983) remarks that this comparison is an individual endeavour to enhance the self and restore self esteem. Consequently, a re-examination of the research results suggest that all the respondents had compared themselves to either a real or fictional character depending on the accessibility of a colleague with the requisite idiosyncrasies which made them worse off than the individual respondent. Considering that these idiosyncrasies were probably identified in relation to the respondent's personal singularity and were therefore highly subjective, it is not surprising that the characteristics of the personal comparisons varied considerably across the research sample. However, even though these comparisons do vary, Taylor's (1983) proposal was

clearly realised in all the respondents having considered themselves "better off" than *someone* else in the organisation.

The third coping category which Latack (1984) details is the individual's attempt to manage the stress symptoms. This was apparent in all the respondents having either developed or being in the process of developing coping techniques in order to directly alter or alleviate the affective and physiological stress symptoms. Remaining relatively consistent with Latack (1984), the respondents' various coping techniques included hobbies, active relaxation, smoking, drinking and the use of humour. It would thus appear that the respondents' application of the three coping categories was an attempt to provide what Taylor (1983) refers to as a sense of personal mastery or control over their lives. Particularly in light of their feelings of powerlessness and uncertainty.

A further mediating determinant of the effects of the stress on the individual respondents was dictated by the availability of social support. According to Duckitt and Broll (1982), social support mediates the effects of the life stress by buffering the individual from the physiological and psychological outcomes of the stressor. The research results suggest that the respondents relied extensively on their social networks to buffer them from the repercussions of the stress. Remaining consistent with the Folkman and Lazarus' (1985) description of social support, the research results further indicated that the respondents had clearly distinguished between two distinct social networks which were largely defined by their personal life roles.

The first social network identified by the respondents existed entirely within the parameters of the organisation. This particular social network was determined and defined according to the role of the respondents as employees of the organisation, where they were able to relate to the shared experiences of revolutionary organisational change. Hence, this social network comprised of what the respondents referred to as the "organisation", presumably top management, as well as their immediate colleagues and co-workers. The respondents' opinions as to whether the organisation had offered any formalised support was inconclusive as whilst four of the respondents vehemently protested that the organisation had provided "no real support" for either the survivors or the victims of the revolutionary organisational change, the remaining respondents noted that the organisation had provided support. This irresolution could probably be attributed to the support offered from immediate managers which evidently fluctuated across the research sample.

The research results further show that only one respondent explicitly understood the organisational support to be social by noting that the organisation had attempted to provide a support "mechanism" in

the form of a "company psychologist". Unfortunately, the results remained inconclusive as to whether the other respondents interpreted the organisational support as being social due to the possible interpretation of organisational support as being entirely financial. The results therefore remained largely unclear as to the respondents' subjective understanding of the notion of organisational support. The ambivalence as to whether the organisation had provided social support could therefore, probably be attributed to the lack of a working definition for the concept of organisational support.

The social support which the respondents received from their immediate colleagues seemed to vary across the research sample. Khan et al. (1964) and Bhagat (1983) note that for co-worker support to be effective, work group cohesion needs to increase. This researcher postulates that the trauma of the change process and the subsequent stress was so tremendous that work group cohesion had effectively broken down. The strong sense of individualism in the research results tends to corroborate this postulation. This was epitomised by the respondents noting that "we are all concerned about our individual needs". The majority of the respondents were aware and accepting of the fact that their immediate colleagues were unable to provide support due to the necessity for self-reliance in an effort to cope with the stress of their personal circumstances. One of the respondents therefore emphasised that only those colleagues who were "safe in their own situation" were benevolent in providing social support. This researcher attributes this to the diminished necessity for these individuals to remain self-interested with the expunction of their personal job insecurity and therefore, the alleviation of a primary source of stress.

Considering the dubiousness of the organisation as a social support network, the research results signified that the majority of the respondents predominantly relied on support from social networks existing outside of the organisation. These networks were defined according to the respondents other life roles which included family member and friend. The research results were in accordance with Burke and Greenglass (1987) as the majority of the respondents predominantly relied on their families to lessen the effects of their work related stressors. The reason for this was put down to the respondent's embarrassment and humiliation of the widely publicised 'situation' within the organisation. Hence, the respondents would only confide in very close friends and family members and accordingly did not really rely on the support of collective friends. Although the support from specific family members differed across the sample due to the variation in the respondents' respective familial profiles, the majority of the respondents who were married primarily received support from their spouses. Despite the fact that the extent of this support differed according to individually specific familial affinity and dynamic, the research results strongly suggest that most of the respondents had chiefly relied on the advice and input from their families. The researcher attributes this to one respondent having interestingly noted that

familial support was "more objective" than that of colleagues who were in the same stressful situation. Hence, the familial support was probably characterised by the functional provision of alternative perspectives on the stressful situation at work.

The research results show that the respondents exaggerated reliance on their family members for social support had negatively impacted on the family unit where according to Burke and Greenglass (1987), negative emotions generated by the stressors at work spillover into the family. Further evidence in the results therefore suggests that the respondents' family roles were largely dominated and consumed by their stressful work roles. Consequently, in agreement with Duckitt and Broll (1982), this researcher questions whether social support does in fact buffer the individual from stressful life events as the results intimate that the "negative emotional spillover" referred to by Burke and Greenglass (1987) may have established an unhealthy and in all likelihood stressful home environment for the majority of the respondents.

5.5 The shared psychological disorientation of process violation

Kennedy (1994) suggests that revolutionary organisational change cannot be accomplished without a cost in human terms. It will be argued that the perceived illegitimacy of the management of the change process tended to aggravate these costs by intensifying the side-effects and the subsequent traumatic impact of the revolutionary organisational change. Cohen and Cohen (1993) suggest that the traumatic side-effects of revolutionary organisational change may psychologically disorientate an entire organisation. Contrary to Taylor (1983), the research results suggest that the use of individual coping resources and social networks were largely ineffective as the respondents predominantly unsuccessfully adjusted to the trauma of the revolutionary organisational change. Although the respondents realised the necessity for personal adjustment, they expressed that there were too "many hurdles". The general managers in the first theoretically relevant sub-group substantiated the perceived difficulty of middle management adjustment by noting that middle managers were required to adjust after the first punctuated revolutionary change process and subsequently had "no choice" as they were expected to adjust to the present revolutionary change initiative. The researcher attests to this difficulty and further hypothesises that the respondents' difficulty in adjusting was further exacerbated through their psychological disorientation.

This disorientation was attributed to a conversion in the traditional employment relationship and a shift in the 'old' psychological contract. Schalk and Freese (1997) suggest that the psychological contract

does allow for change within certain limits. However, the research results revealed that the change in the respondents' psychological contracts were so tremendous that Rousseau's (1995) proposed "tolerance" limit was breached and the respondents experienced a violation. Dunahee and Wangler (1974), Kolb et al. (1995) and Morrison and Robinson (1997) advocate that the employment relationship inevitably changes over time as situations arise which require unanticipated adjustments. Therefore minor violation of the psychological contract is a common occurrence. This research however proposes that the extent of the respondents' perceived sense of violation was so severe that it largely determined their capacity to successfully adjust to the changed organisational context. Lifton in Noer (1993) adds that the inability of the individual to successfully adjust to the realities of a changed world increases their susceptibility to survivor syndrome. Consequently, the objective in this particular section is to gain a thorough understanding of the intensity of the perceived violation to the respondents psychological contracts through appreciating the violation of the transactional and relational aspects in their psychological contracts.

5.5.1 The perceived intensity of psychological contract violation

The research results revealed that all the respondents had been exposed to a violation of their personal psychological contracts. The extent of this violation was due to the cataclysmic upheaval in the organisational context. The intensity of the violation was put down to the duration of the respondents' organisational tenure and the depth of their organisational identity which they established through their traditional employment relationship. Throughout their organisational tenure, the respondents had cognitively and emotionally invested and sacrificed in the employment relationship. These investments and sacrifices were validated through the characteristic stability and predictability of the 'old' psychological contract and attributed to the depth of the respondents' personal psychological contract. This assertion is consistent with the literature as the longer the relationship and the deeper the psychological contract, the greater the intensity of violation (Guzzo et al., 1994; Robinson, 1995; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1989). This researcher further hypothesises that the intensity of the respondents' experienced contract violation may have been exacerbated by the perceived poor management and the resultant side-effects of the revolutionary change process. This was particularly evident in the research results where the cause of the experienced violation was primarily ascribed to the increased uncertainty within the organisational context which countervailed the stability and predictability of the old psychological contract.

5.5.2 Violating the transactional aspects of the psychological contract

Central to the perceived violation of the psychological contract was the contravention of the inherent transactional aspects of the contract. The research results clearly point out that the respondents perceived the organisation's top management as having reneged on their transactional obligations by not reciprocating the mutual exchange of promised obligations and expectations. Morrison and Robinson (1997) suggest that the uncertainty of the organisational change makes it difficult for all the employees' promised obligations to be fulfilled by the organisation. The respondents' general description of the violation of the transactional aspects of the psychological contract therefore remained consistent with Herriot and Pemberton (1995), Robinson (1995) and Robinson and Rousseau (1994), who confirm that the violation of the psychological contract initially produces specific forms of distributive and procedural injustice. This was evident in the respondents' expression of a general sense of unfairness in both the outcomes and the process of the revolutionary organisational change.

According to Robinson and Rousseau (1994), the employee's perception of distributive injustice is a consequence of the organisations' unfulfilled obligatory promises. Remaining consistent with Guzzo's (1994) reference to the classical view of the psychological contract, the initial indication of distributive injustice was primarily observed through the respondents' expectations not being met. Robinson (1995) and Robinson and Rousseau (1994) note that the employee perceives his/her side of the transaction as being fulfilled whilst the employer has failed to reciprocate. This effectively deprives the employee of expected desired outcomes. The research results therefore suggest that the respondents' initial experience of psychological contract violation was displayed in terms of distributive injustice.

The extent of this deprivation was elucidated by a number of the respondents describing their expectations of the organisation as being "virtually shattered". More specifically, the primary concern for the majority of the respondents was the contravention of their 'traditional organisational assurances'. Firstly, this was evident in five of the respondents believing that their careers "had hit a point" and were consequently "stagnant" as they perceived no further promotional opportunities within the organisational hierarchy. This concern was validated by the general managers in the first theoretically relevant sub-group who noted that the organisation was "not promoting people" and "not regrading people" due to the change process. Secondly, and of even greater concern to the respondents was their realisation that life-time employment within the organisation was no longer guaranteed. The respondents directly attributed this latter concern to the increased level of uncertainty within the organisational context. The uncertainty within the organisation and the unfulfilled traditional organisational assurances directly impacted on the respondents' level of job security. After having witnessed the initial reduction in the organisations' permanent staff complement through the most recent revolutionary change, the respondents remained aware of the possibility of further staff retrenchments through future

revolutionary organisational change. The respondents therefore realised that as *survivors* of the change process "one cannot be sure of a position" within the organisation.

The general managers in the first theoretically relevant sub-group confirmed these findings by noting that the increased uncertainty within the organisation and the subsequent decline in job security were the primary issues of concern raised by most middle managers. It would thus appear that the majority of middle managers especially those situated in the organisations' non-core functions experienced a constant threat of retrenchment which negatively reinforced their sense of powerlessness. Some of the respondents even expected the inevitability of being "kicked out" of the organisation. The transgression of the expected guaranteed life-time employment and the accompanying increased job insecurity had far reaching effects which extended to the respondents ensuing expectations of the organisation. From the research results it is evident that all the respondents' successive expectations became "secondary" once their actual employment within the organisation had been threatened by the increased level of job insecurity. One of the general managers in the first theoretically relevant sub-group substantiated this finding by surmising that "I think people realise it's a question of survival first of all and then looking if I can get promoted". This statement confirmed the research results which indicated that the respondents had very few or absolutely no expectations of the organisation after the change process. The lack of respondent expectations were entirely ascribed to the suggested futility of having expectations in an uncertain organisational context. A number of the respondents therefore expressed that their expectations of the organisation had been "put in the freezer" or were "stalled at the moment", as they considered it "safer" to adopt a "wait and see" approach. This researcher therefore hypothesises that the respondents were either reluctant or unable to actively adjust their traditional expectations to the new organisational context as they remained largely reticent due to the increased uncertainty and job insecurity within the organisation.

A repercussion of the perceived distributive injustice was the respondents' intimation that the exchange between themselves and the organisation was no longer mutually reciprocal as the outcomes of the exchange were considered unfair. The unfairness in the exchange further evoked perceptions of inequity which were illustrated by one respondent noting that "at the moment I would say I'm giving more than I'm getting out". Herriot and Pemberton (1995) note that this perceived inequity is further accentuated when compared to the 'good' old contract. The research results substantiated this point by illustrating that the respondents juxtaposed the perceived unfairness of the new exchange by nostalgically reminiscing of the "fair exchange" which had existed between themselves and the organisation prior to the revolutionary change. Apart from the respondents' expectations of the organisation being transgressed in the new exchange, an assiduous examination of the research results further indicates that

the organisations' expectations of middle managers in the new organisational context had also changed. Although the respondents were not acutely aware of the changed organisational expectations, the general managers and the junior managers in the theoretically relevant sub-groups inferred that both the expectations and the role of middle managers within the organisation had changed. The general managers in the first theoretically relevant sub-group noted that middle managers were now expected to be like "salesmen" in an extra effort to "generate more revenue" for the organisation. The junior managers in the second theoretically relevant sub-group further noted that middle managers were expected to "do things differently" as the introduction of "new management mechanisms" were changing the methods and styles of management. The fact that the respondents remained largely unaware of the changed expectations and the shift in their role as middle managers implies that they were not adequately enlightened as to the required role adjustment of middle managers within the new organisational context which in turn accentuates the poor level of communication with the organisation.

Herriot and Pemberton (1995) suggest that perceived psychological contract violation also raises concerns about *how* it was done. Robinson and Rousseau (1994) and Herriot and Pemberton (1995) argue that violation also includes issues of procedural injustice which reflect whether the process was managed fairly and whether the type of treatment that the employee received was fair.

Part of the revolutionary organisational change was the introduction of the organisations' *new* top management who in effect spearheaded the change within the organisational context. The majority of the new top management were without doubt not partisan to the initial formulation of the respondents' psychological contracts. Consequently, the new management were not bound by the promised reciprocal obligations of the respondent's original psychological contracts as they were not responsible for the contracts initial inception and subsequent conditions. Hence, when the organisation embarked on its revolutionary change process, it is safe to assume that the new top management, as argued by Dunahee and Wangler (1974) felt free to amend the conditions of the implicit psychological contract without overtly notifying the respondents. Although top management were justified in unilaterally amending the conditions of the respondents psychological contracts, Marks (1994) argues that problems arise if both parties do not consent to these amendments. The research results therefore strongly suggest that the amendments to the respondents' psychological contracts were imposed by top management.

The results clearly indicate that the respondents' experienced violation of their psychological contracts had also included concerns of procedural injustice. In accordance with Robinson and Rousseau (1994) and Herriot and Pemberton's (1995), procedural injustice was evident in the respondents' insinuation that both the management of the process as well as the type of treatment received was unfair. The

respondents further noted that all the employees within the organisation had been negatively affected by the procedural injustice of the organisations' change policies. However, a clear distinction must be made between specific procedural injustices which were considered to be generally unfair and affecting everyone and those injustices which affected the respondents personally. With reference to the former, the majority of the respondents regarded the downsizing of the organisations' employees to be generally unfair as they believed that the initiating of the retrenchment of organisational staff should have been more "humane". This strongly implies that the respondents were able to identify with those who had been retrenched as the increased uncertainty and job insecurity within the organisation forced the respondents to realise that they could also be victims of future retrenchments in subsequent revolutionary organisational change. The respondents further blamed the "bad management" for the lack of compassion in the retrenchment procedure which they interpreted as "being done point blank" with very little fore warning for those whose contracts would not be renewed. The brutality of the retrenchment process was well captured by the respondents' use of 'death imagery' in the last excerpt where the organisations' employees were metaphorically 'executed' at "point blank" range. According to Noer (1993), this preoccupation with death imagery and the previously blurred distinction between survivors and victims indicates a shared sense of violation and victimisation. The researcher therefore suggest that the respondents had assumed a 'victim status' as a result of the uncertainty in their own survival and the perceived injustice of the retrenchment procedure. As potential *victims* of the organisations' conceivable future retrenchments, three of the respondents questioned whether management had adhered to the correct legal procedures. One of these respondents was already in the throws of a labour dispute with the organisation and the other two were entertaining the idea of legal action in order to secure a "fair deal" in case of the inevitability of future staff retrenchments.

Irrespective of the demographic profile of the research sample, all the respondents expressed that they had personally been unfairly treated by the organisations' change policies. While the research results suggest that all the respondents were aware of the necessity and rationale for the change in the organisation's racial profile, the white respondents tended to view the implementation of the affirmative action programme as being unfairly discriminatory. Although affirmative action raises issues of both procedural and distributive justice, the research results intimate that the respondents were primarily concerned with the perceived inequality of the programme. This implies that the respondents expressed a greater concern for the type of treatment they received than the actual outcomes of the programme. Herriot and Pemberton (1995) note however, that the perceived unfairness of the outcomes are largely determined by the perceived fairness of the process. Consequently, an intimate link exists between the outcomes and the process. This was well illustrated in the respondents' referral to the affirmative action programme which smacked of both procedural and distributive injustice. According to the ANC (1994)

and van der Walt and Helmbold (1995), public organisations must adequately represent civil society through the implementation of affirmative action. The organisation under study was no exception as it had embarked on drastic affirmative action quotas to meet these governmental demands (SABC, 1994b). The majority of the white respondents felt threatened by the affirmative action programme as they believed that they were being targeted for retrenchment and subsequently perceived themselves as having "no future" within the organisation. It is interesting to note that the white respondents did not interpret the affirmative action programme as uplifting and integrating black employees into the organisation but rather perceived it as disregarding and excluding white employees. The researcher speculates that this could be attributed to the concurrent implementation of the organisations' retrenchment procedure and affirmative action programme where the white respondents perceived the retrenchment as creating positions for affirmative action beneficiaries. Consequently, the procedure to redress the racial imbalance within the organisation was considered unfair by the majority of the white respondents as they described the affirmative action process as being "Apartheid in reverse". The research results further suggested that the white respondents also resented the beneficiaries of the affirmative action programme as they recognised their inexperienced and unqualified black colleagues moving swiftly up the organisational hierarchy at the expense of more suitably qualified and experienced white employees. The results intimate that the white respondents blamed their black colleagues for the curtailing of their own career advancement which in turn resulted in a deterioration of the inter-cultural relations within the organisation. This resentment effectively turned into racial contempt which was evident in two of the white respondents perceiving the black employees as "hiding behind racism" because "they still believe that the white people are trying to hammer them". This particular excerpt clearly indicates the racial dichotomy which still existed within the organisation after the revolutionary change process. It is important to note however, that the respondents contempt for the affirmative action programme was not universally shared across the entire research sample as one white respondent enquired as to whether the organisations' black employees were finally experiencing a "fair opportunity".

The black respondents evidently had not experienced a fair opportunity for the first time in their organisational careers. In fact, the black respondents expressed a similar sense of unfair treatment to that of the white respondents in that they noted that their career advancement within the organisation had also been stalled through discrimination in the management of the change process. However, this form of unfair treatment was entirely attributed to the apparent political patronage system within the organisation. The two black respondents were evidently sidelined from the organisations' affirmative action programme as they perceived absolutely no personal benefit or gains from the programme. This they in turn attributed to their lack of political affiliation to the African National Congress as well as the

fact that neither of them were politically active during the "struggle". The respondents suggested that those employees who were in political exile or affiliated to the African National Congress were rewarded for their efforts by receiving the top positions within the organisation. The black respondents were evidently aggrieved by the patronage system, as they assumed that their personal lack of political 'connectedness' was the primary reason for the dearth in their career advancement. The implication of these results are tremendous, and infer that the organisations' new top management were generally perceived as a clique of political elitists who were brandishing their own form of cronyism in an effort to establish an exclusionary managerial structure within the organisation. This was evidenced in the recognised procedural injustice of the selective career advancements of particular individuals. The procedural injustice was further illustrated in the conjecture that the new top management had attempted to "get rid" of the old guard, in an effort to "start things from scratch". One respondent speculated that the reason for this was that those who had been in the employ of the organisation prior to the revolutionary change had posed as a threat to the new top management structure because of their extensive organisational experience.

5.5.3 Violating the relational aspects of the psychological contract

According to Robinson (1995), Robinson and Rousseau (1994) and Rousseau (1989), psychological contract violation goes beyond unmet expectations and perceptions of inequity. Considering the fact that the respondents' psychological contracts were essentially relational it is not surprising that the intensity of the respondents' perceived violation went far beyond perceptions of distributive and procedural injustice. The relational aspects of the psychological contract suggest a deeper emotional component which Herriot and Pemberton (1995) advise make the employee's cognitive and emotional experience of the contract violation more complex.

The intensity of the respondents' perceived violation of their psychological contracts was partly attributed to what Robinson and Rousseau (1994) refer to as the general beliefs surrounding the appropriate behaviour associated with the employment relationship. The research results indicated that the respondents had cognitively interpreted the behaviour of top management as weakening the stability and predictability of the traditional employment relationship. This was recognised through top management forcibly diminishing the repeated cycles of contribution and reciprocity which characterised the respondent's psychological contracts. The lack of consistency in the transactions between the respondents and the organisation had subsequently undermined the good faith and trust which had steadily been established through the mutually reciprocal interchange typifying the traditional employment relationship. Accordingly the literature suggests that the violation of the psychological contract erodes relational trust (Dunahee & Wangler, 1974; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Robinson et

al., 1994; Robinson, 1995). This erosion had evidently ensiled a lack of trust within the respondents. Although the respondents' lack of trust was primarily directed at top management, the "spiral reinforcement" of eroding trust suggested by Robinson and Rousseau (1994) effectively instilled a sense of mistrust throughout the organisation. Consequently, the erosion of trust had also extended to fellow colleagues and immediate managers. This was well illustrated by one respondent noting that "there's no trust in the place at all whatsoever, up or down, not even sideways for that matter". A consequence of the undermined trust was the respondents' expressed sense of betrayal as the mutual concern and consideration which formed part of the traditional employment relationship was shattered by the perceived behavioural inconsistency of top management. This sense of betrayal was further illustrated in the respondents' allegations that top management were "looking after themselves" and subsequently showing "no concern" for the organisations' employees during a period of intense organisational uncertainty. The research results therefore intimate that top management had become aloof and withdrawn from the rest of the employees both during and after the revolutionary organisational change.

Accordingly, the respondents revealed a cognitive detachment from the organisation as the increased uncertainty and the subsequent remoteness of top management had made them realise "that the company has very little attachment for me". This sense of detachment had direct implications for the respondents' organisational identity as they no longer felt a part of the organisation. Considering that the respondents had initially established their organisational identity through their 'old' psychological contracts, it is not surprising that the respondents' experience of betrayal of this contract had far reaching implications for their organisational identity. The majority of the respondents expressed that they were unable to identify with the "new" organisation. This could partly be ascribed to the disengagement of the "new" top management where one respondent described the new management as "keeping an arms length relationship" from all the employees of the "old guard" who had survived the revolutionary change. The researcher however, hypothesises that the respondents' inability to re-establish organisational identity may be attributed to their lack of acceptance and accommodation of the new top management. On the other hand, the research results suggest that the inability of the respondents to re-establish organisational identity was evident in their inability to identify with the new top management. The white respondents were evidently unable to personally identify with black management and the black respondents in turn were unable to identify with a politically affiliated management. Apart from the respondents' inability to identify with the new top management, one respondent expressed an inability to identify with the new organisational structure as the 'original' organisation was no longer recognisable due to the restructuring.

Kanter et al. (1992) and Caplan and Teese (1997) suggest that the organisation becomes an important part of the individual's identity and gives structure and meaning to the individual's life where the contributions they make define who they are. The disintegration of the respondents' organisational identity left the majority of them incapable of perceiving themselves as valued members of the organisation and instead deduced that they were mere appendages which could easily be dispensed with "at very short notice". This deduction represented an extreme sense of distributive injustice as a number of the respondents felt 'used' by the organisation. This was well illustrated by one respondent noting that "they've had their blood out of you, and they can discard you". The respondents frequent utilisation of violent death imagery illustrates the intensity of their reported experiences. The discourse used in this particular excerpt connotes the 'death' of the self as defined through the personal identity of organisational membership. Herriot and Pemberton (1995) and Robinson (1995) suggest that the loss of identity subsequently results in the individual feeling depersonalised and worthless which directly impacts on their emotional attachment toward the organisation. These feelings were evident in the research results as the respondents' self realisation as to their perceived lack of personal value as members the organisation had negatively impacted on their self-esteem which was illustrated in two respondents perceiving themselves as "failures".

The literature suggests that the cognitive experience of perceived violation of the psychological contract yield pervasively intense emotional responses akin to "hot feelings" toward the organisation (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995; Kolb et al., 1995; Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1989; Sims, 1992; Tornow & De Meuse, 1994). The research results are consistent with this and clearly indicate that the process of psychological contract violation resulted in the respondents experiencing a number of these responses.

The results indicated that the respondents' initial emotional response was one of shock as they were evidently unprepared for the magnitude of the psychological disorientation resulting from the revolutionary change. This researcher hypothesises that the experienced shock was primarily attributable to the perceived distributive injustice in the violation of the respondents' psychological contracts. This hypothesis relates to the fact that the respondents' expectations and the organisation's traditional assurances characterising the 'old' psychological contract had become unrealistic in the 'new' organisational context. Jones (1983) and Taormina (1997) propose that unrealistic expectations largely remain unmet which leads to the employee experiencing a "reality shock". It is important to note that Jones (1983) and Taormina (1997) specify that the experience of a reality shock only occurs when a *new* employee is confronted with an unfamiliar and ambiguous organisational context on entering the organisation. As already established, the respondents did not experience a reality shock on entering the

organisation. However, it is proposed that the extent of the upheaval to the organisational context due to the revolutionary change was so significant that the respondents subsequently experienced what Toffler (1970) refers to as a "future shock".

The respondents' primary emotional response which revealed the relational nature of the perceived violation was the feeling of "hurt". The research indicates that this particular emotional response was attributed to the perceived betrayal of the principles of the traditional employment relationship where the respondents felt being hurt by mistreatment by management and their perceived lack of worth to the organisation. Although not overtly confirmed, the research results strongly suggest that the respondents were angry about being hurt by the organisation. This anger was evident through the respondents' resentment and animosity toward the organisation, which was illustrated by one of the respondents stating, "when I walk out this door, I wash my hands of the SABC as well, I will have nothing more to do with the SABC". This strongly worded statement indicates the severity of the respondents' perceived violation as well as showing the extent of the breakdown in the employment relationship where the respondent was evidently prepared to sever all relational ties with the organisation. More specifically, the respondents initially directed their resentment and animosity toward top management as they were perceived as being primarily responsible for the violation of the psychological contracts. More significantly, however the focus of the respondents' resentment and animosity tended to spread to their colleagues and immediate manager. This researcher postulates that a reason for this could be attributed to the remoteness of top management and the subsequent accessibility of colleagues and immediate managers as an outlet for these feelings. Hence, apart from the deterioration in the respondent's inter-cultural relations due to the affirmative action programme, the research results showed further signs of relational strains between the respondents and their colleagues as well as their respective immediate manager. Although the respondents attributed these strains to various sources, the overwhelmingly distinctive determinant in the deterioration of the relations between fellow employees was the perceived "unhappiness" within the organisation. The reported unhappiness had subsequently impacted on the interactions between colleagues as the research results indicated a general debasement in all interpersonal relationships. Three of the respondents specifically identified a deterioration in their relationships with their immediate managers. They subsequently attributed the deterioration in this relationship to the management styles characterising their respective managers which were particularly autocratic as the respondent's felt "trampled" by their manager's efforts to preserve their "empire". This implies that the respondents' managers were also experiencing a sense of powerlessness due to the uncertainty within the organisation as they appeared to focus entirely on retaining their authority and power. Consequently, two of these respondents averted the blame for their perceived violation toward their immediate managers. This has severe implications for the understanding of contract violation as it

suggests that the extent of the perceived violation to the employees' psychological contract may be directly affected by the particular management style of the employees' immediate manager. These results have further implications for the management of organisational change as one respondent noted that "lower employees" would be more accepting of change policy if the psychological disorientation of the change was not aggravated by the way the policy was "conveyed or enforced" by immediate managers.

5.6 Psychological adjustment after revolutionary organisational change

Concerns indicative of the employee's psychological adjustment to revolutionary organisational change came to light in the research. These concerns comprised of what Rousseau (1989) refers to as the employee's changed view of the employer and their interrelationship. While this researcher acknowledges the necessity for a changed view of the employment relationship and the underlying psychological contract, questions need to be raised as to whether the respondents were successful in their personal psychological adjustment. Marks (1994) argues that psychological adjustment is the most difficult period of employee adaptation to organisational change as it is both uncomfortable and disorientating. The researcher proposes that the respondents had not entirely psychologically adjusted to the changed organisation. This was implicitly substantiated in the research results by the respondents identifying as 'victims' of the revolutionary change process. This in turn would suggest that the respondents were experiencing what Knowdell et al. (1994) and Noer (1993) dubbed the "survivor mode". The symptoms of the survivor mode became quite evident in the respondents' descriptions of their attitudes and behaviour toward the organisation after the revolutionary change.

5.6.1 Attitudinal adjustment

The respondents' long-established attitudes which characterised the traditional employment relationship were evidently altered after the revolutionary organisational change. According to Herriot and Pemberton (1995), Robinson (1995) and Rousseau (1989) these changes in attitude are a result of the perceived violation of the psychological contract and are therefore intensely negative. However, the respondents' new antithetical attitudes toward the organisation strongly suggest that a prescribed attitudinal adjustment to the requisite characteristics of the *new* employment relationship was enforced through the violation of the old psychological contract. Herriot and Pemberton (1995), Laabs (1996b) and Stroh and Reilly (1997) define these characteristics as an absence of mutual trust, commitment and loyalty.

As previously discussed the erosion of trust was quite evident throughout the organisation which subsequently indicated the subjugation of the respondents' traditional employment relationship. Considering that Robinson (1995) and Robinson et al. (1994) suggest that commitment can be conceptualised in an exchange framework, it is not surprising that the perceived distributive injustice in the violation of the psychological contract had also negatively impacted on the respondents' organisational commitment. The breakdown in the reciprocal exchange and the subsequent perceived inequity therefore resulted in the respondents modifying their organisational commitment. This modification in the respondents' organisational commitment was primarily manifested through a decline in their organisational loyalty which was a further characteristic of the new employment relationship. Robinson (1995) and Robinson et al. (1994) suggest that the employee offers loyalty in return for organisational assurances. Consequently, once the organisational assurances are reneged upon, the employee withdraws his or her loyalty in an effort to maintain equatability and according to Dunahee and Wangler (1974) possibly even gain a psychological advantage.

The decline in the respondents' organisational commitment evidently included an affective perspective which according to Robinson (1995) and Robinson et al. (1994) focuses on the employee's sense of identification, affiliation and attachment. As already established the respondents expressed a difficulty in identifying with the 'new' organisational context. Part of this difficulty was the decline in the respondents' organisational commitment which suggests a transposing of Stroh and Reilly's (1997) postulation that employees with high levels of organisational commitment will in turn identify highly with their organisations. The research results further suggested that the respondents' sense of organisational affiliation had also been negatively affected by the decline in their organisational commitment. This was particularly evident in the respondents having lost all sense pride for the organisation as they expressed an "embarrassment" about the change within the organisation and their subsequent psychological contract violation. More specifically, the respondents were embarrassed about the way the change was managed, the perceived decline in the organisations' standards as well as their personal mistreatment during the process. The embarrassment of the change in the organisation was further exacerbated by the fact that the organisation was continually in the public eye. Hence, the respondents believed that the negative impression that they had as employees of the organisation extended to the general public as well. As a result, the respondents in their private capacity outside of the organisation did not want to be affiliated to the organisation. Consistent with Herriot and Pemberton's (1995) assertions, the decreased desire to be affiliated to the organisation indicates a reduction or severing of all emotional attachment toward the organisation.

Although the respondents expressed a loss of pride for the organisation, they managed to retain a sense of pride in their specific job functions. Consequently, the majority of the respondents expressed a greater commitment toward their particular job than the organisation. Herriot and Pemberton (1995) suggest that individual employees will only be committed to immediate colleagues and not the organisation as the employee's identity at work is derived more from teams than from the organisation as a whole. Contrary to this suggestion the research results indicated that the respondent's work identity was entirely derived from their jobs as work group cohesion had effectively broken down due to the trauma of the change and the stress of the uncertainty.

Central to the respondent's commitment was the subsequent focus of their work satisfaction. According to Van Maanen and Katz (1976), the loci of work satisfaction is determined by three conceptually independent features of the organisational setting namely, organisational policies, interactional context and job properties. The research results show that the respondents' work satisfaction had been negatively affected by the organisational change and the subsequent violation. Firstly, as already illustrated the respondents perceived the organisational change policies negatively. Secondly, the interactional context was also perceived to have been negatively affected by the change as the organisation was generally depicted as an unpleasant place to work, characterised by uncertain, stress, poor interpersonal relationships and a lack of trust. Contrary to Robinson and Rousseau (1994) however, the violation of the psychological contract did not result in a decline in the respondent's job satisfaction. Hence the third feature in Van Maanen and Katz's (1976) loci of work satisfaction namely, 'job properties' had not been negatively affected by the violation. This suggests that symptomatic of the displacement in organisational commitment was the subsequent shift in the respondents' source of satisfaction. The research results therefore suggest that the respondents were primarily obtaining satisfaction from particular tasks within their jobs as opposed to obtaining general organisational satisfaction.

5.6.2 Behavioural adjustment

The change in the respondents' attitudes toward the organisation proved to result in a similar change in their organisational behaviour. Although the respondents had expressed satisfaction and commitment toward their particular jobs, Herriot and Pemberton (1995) note that the effects of psychological contract violation on the employee's attitudes toward the organisation will in turn affect how the employee works. This was evident in the research results where all the respondents had recognised a decline in both their personal productivity as well as that of the organisation. The general managers in the first theoretically relevant sub-group confirmed these findings by noting that the work output of middle managers in particular had declined since the most recent revolutionary organisational change.

Herriot and Pemberton (1995) and Robinson et al. (1994) suggest that when the employee's attitudes toward the organisation change so to do their relational obligations where they tend to adjust their behaviour down in order to make sure their efforts are commensurate with their rewards.

The respondents attributed the decline in their level of productivity to the increased uncertainty within the organisation. This uncertainty focused on the transactional aspects of the psychological contract as the respondents remained unsure as to their security and future within the organisation. This point was well illustrated by the respondents noting that they were "not giving their all" because they were not prepared to invest too much time and effort into the organisation if they were not assured of a job. Consequently, one respondent noted that the "general feeling" among the employees within the organisation was one of "I must just do what I'm paid to do". This clearly suggests that the respondents were not prepared to engage in organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) on behalf of the organisation and instead decided to do as little as they possible could. Marks (1994) and Robinson and Morrison (1995) attribute this to the erosion of the employee's trust and organisational satisfaction where unfulfilled promised obligations result in the employee feeling less bound to the employment relationship and subsequently psychologically withdraws from the work setting. The respondents' reluctance to engage in extra-role behaviour further indicates the advent of Herriot and Pemberton's (1995) "reluctant manager" where the perceived lack of career mobility prevents the middle manager from aspiring to the few remaining promotions. Robinson and Morrison (1995) argue that the survival of organisations could be threatened if their employees were unwilling to occasionally engage in OCB. This threat became quite evident in the research results as one respondent mentioned that "you just carry on and if something collapses or goes wrong then it goes wrong". This statement effectively illustrates the lack of enthusiasm which permeated throughout the organisation and was identified by the general managers in the first theoretically relevant sub-unit who indicated a noticeable decline in morale.

According to Robinson (1995), the loss of employee commitment is associated with increased absenteeism and turnover. The research results were however, not entirely supportive of Robinson's (1995) assertion as a number of the respondents noted that their level of absenteeism had not increased. The respondents attributed this to the uncertainty and job insecurity within the organisation where they realised that their continual attendance was essential in order to gain relevant information about the volatile organisational context as well as protect their personal interests.

Cotton and Tuttle (1986) agree with Robinson (1995) and suggest that organisational commitment is negatively related to employee turnover. The research results corroborated this suggestion as the extent of the loss of commitment was revealed in each of the respondents' personal contemplation of negative

withdrawal behaviour where they had all individually considered leaving the organisation. This contemplation further indicated the respondents' difficulty in successfully adjusting to the new organisational context. Although all the respondents had contemplated negative withdrawal behaviour, a number of constraints existed which did not allow this contemplation to come to fruition. Cohen (1989) and Cotton and Tuttle (1986) identify these constraints as deciding factors in employee turnover. One of these constraints was the respondents' perceived unavailability of attractive alternatives outside of the organisation which was well illustrated by one respondent noting that "you have to be an entrepreneur to survive". A further constraint to the respondents leaving the organisation was their extensive organisational tenure where their familiarity with the broadcasting industry had resulted in them lacking the confidence and independence to embrace a change in their careers. This suggests that the respondents had begun to focus on their employability which in turn indicates a recognition of the demands of the new psychological contract. However, this recognition was limited as the respondents' yearning to leave the organisation was only realistically considered through the security of 'packages' or guaranteed employment elsewhere. This suggests a desired continuance for the assurances of the old psychological contract. With these safety measures in place the majority of the respondents believed that every employee in the organisation "would grab what's left of the cake and leave".

Considering the poor likelihood of the respondents actually 'getting out' of the organisation, the research results indicated a decline in the respondents' prosocial behaviour. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) suggest that the loss of commitment and the subsequent break in the employee's psychological attachment toward the organisation will in turn reduce the employee's instinctive actions to benefit the organisation. The literature argues that these actions may be the mildest consequence of violation as the employee may enter a vicious circle where he/she executes progressively more serious offsetting actions which detrimentally affect the organisation (Baker, 1985; Dunahee & Wangler, 1974; Herriot & Pemberton, 1995). The initial indication that the respondents may have engaged in more serious offsetting behaviour was identified by the junior managers in the second theoretically relevant sub-group who suggested that the middle management level in particular were actively resisting the organisational change. More specifically, the junior managers stated that the middle managers had "sabotaged" the organisation's affirmative action programme and manipulated the empowerment policies. According to the junior managers, this was evident in middle managements' criticism of the affirmative action programme and their subsequent holding onto power. The junior managers further attributed middle management's resistance to their feeling threatened by the organisation's change policies. This remains consistent with Argyris (1985), Kotter and Schlesinger (1979) and Roosevelt Thomas (1984) who attribute such resistance and ensuing undermining of organisational change to the perceived threat to the organisational status quo and the violation of the psychological contract. It is interesting to note that

whilst the junior managers initially perceived white middle managers as being the primary resistors to the organisational change, with the influx of "exiles" into the organisation, both black and white middle managers were identified as being a "problem" in the process of change. This they in turn attributed to middle managers not "buying" into the process which was well illustrated by one junior manager metaphorically describing the organisation as a "hamburger" where middle management represented the missing "ingredients" which were essential for the actualisation of organisational change.

The perceived extent of the psychological contract violation due to the revolutionary organisational change proved to be a determinant in the severity of middle management's offsetting behaviours. Herriot and Pemberton (1995) note that employee behavioural reactions to violation may vary on a continuum of damage to the organisation which takes on many forms and are manifested in word and deed. The research results indicate that the most prominent offsetting behaviour shown by the respondents comprised of what Dunahee and Wangler (1974) refer to as "gripes". This was particularly evident throughout the data collection phase of the research where the respondents continually expressed their dissatisfaction with the organisation. The research results suggest that employee 'gripes' were merely the tip of the iceberg as the respondents evidently engaged in more serious offsetting behaviours in an effort to "get back" at the organisation. These more serious offsetting behaviours included one respondent contemplating the theft of organisational property. Greenberg and Barling (1996) argue that the single predictor of employee theft is the feeling of being exploited by the organisation. This would suggest that the respondents' perception of distributive injustice in the violation of the psychological contract allowed them to rationalise the unauthorised taking of organisational property in an effort recoup what was rightfully 'owed' to them. A further offsetting behaviour which according to Dunahee and Wangler (1974) indicate that voluntary reconciliation with management is impossible, was the respondents' reliance on "outside assistance". This was evident in a number of the respondents resorting to legal assistance and trade unionism. Caudron (1996a) and Dunahee and Wangler (1974) suggest that the employee's use of power politics indicates a complete breakdown in organisational loyalty where the employee vengefully attempts to get even with the organisation.

Finally, according to Caplan and Teese (1997), Johnson and Indvik (1994) and Keenan and Newton (1984), the most troubling offsetting behaviour is "workplace hostility". Evidence in the research results suggest a tacit link between this particular offsetting behaviour and Robinson's (1995) suggested decline in employee prosocial behaviour. This was illustrated by one respondent having heard of an employee urinating in a cup and leaving it on a resented colleagues desk. The severity of this offsetting action clearly indicates the extent of the deterioration in employee relationships within the organisation to the degree where antagonism is openly displayed. It is safe to assume that these behaviours were

symptomatic of the attitudinal change in the respondents due to the wider experiences of revolutionary organisational change and the subsequent violation of the psychological contract.

5.6.3 Recovery

The research results indicated that the respondents were optimistic about the organisation as they believed that the "enormous potential" in the human resources could ensure an organisational recovery. A number of the respondents also expressed a certain level of optimism for the change as they believed that the change "may work". Unfortunately, this expressed optimism was not an indication of the respondents' psychological adjustment to the new organisational context as the majority of the respondents appeared optimistic for a return to the way things were prior to the organisational change. Marks (1994) argues that organisational recovery cannot mean a return to "good old days" This therefore, indicates that the respondents were having difficulty in "letting go" of the past and coming to terms with the new.

The underlying implication throughout this discussion has largely been the respondents' difficulty in psychological adjusting to the new organisational context and the demands of the new psychological contract. This researcher proposes that this could primarily be attributed to the lack of facilitation in the employees' psychological adjustment after the revolutionary organisational change. Caudron (1996c) and Marks (1994) argue that facilitation in adjustment must allow the employees to acknowledge their emotional upheaval and express their discontent through a "venting meeting". The significance of this process became quite evident in the research results where one respondent described the research interviews as "therapeutic". This was primarily ascribed to the fact that the research interviews had effectively become a 'venting meeting' for the respondents as they were given the opportunity to consciously "raise" and intellectually acknowledge their feelings and emotions "reexperience" and "legitamize" their feelings and emotions, and subsequently "work through" their feelings and emotions (Marks, 1994). The fact that the research interviews served this purpose emphasises a need for both a facilitation programme as well as explicit psychological contracting.

CHAPTER 6 CONCLUSION

Revolutionary organisational change cannot be accomplished without a cost in human terms (Kennedy, 1994). This was borne in the current study, where the traumatic 'side-effects' of revolutionary organisational change and the subsequent violation of the 'old' psychological contract had resulted in all the respondents experiencing psychological disorientation. The results show that the cumulative effects of psychological disorientation had made adjustment to the 'changed' organisational context and the 'new' psychological contract extremely difficult.

The results further revealed that the respondents' perceived 'illegitimacy' of the management of the revolutionary change process may have been a determining factor in exacerbating their sense of psychological disorientation. This has significant implications for the management of the revolutionary change process as it implies that effective change management, which considers the human dimension in the process, may modify employee psychological disorientation and facilitate psychological adjustment. This is of particularly importance in South Africa where revolutionary organisational change is prevalent (Human & Horwitz, 1992), and the effective psychological adjustment of middle managers is essential for organisational recovery and revitalization. Considering this, the research aimed to gain an understanding of the psychological adjustment of middle managers after the experience of revolutionary organisational change.

Understanding organisational change in relation to the first research goal required the individuals' accounts and definitions of the situation. The results of the research show that all the respondents perceived the revolutionary organisational change as a perceptible difference within the organisation between two successive fixed points in time. Remaining consistent with this perception of change, the respondents were aware of the changes which they could directly perceive in their immediate working environment however, they remained vague as to the changes taking place throughout the organisation. The respondents did however, recognise the necessity for the revolutionary organisational change as they identified the pervasive external socio-political environment as having an influence on the organisation. The research indicated that the respondents did not perceive the revolutionary organisational change as a being successful. In support of Carstens (1995) this was attributed to the lack of 'legitimacy' in the management of the change process. This particular perception is largely a result of the respondents' experiences of the revolutionary change process where they expressed a lack of participation in both the planning and implementing of the change as well as a lack of communication. As a consequence of this the respondents expressed feelings of powerlessness and uncertainty. The experience of the revolutionary organisational change process was therefore extremely

traumatic for the respondents where contrary to Taylor (1983), individual coping strategies and social networks proved largely ineffectual in moderating the stress of the change.

In relation to the second research goal, the results further indicated that the respondents were unable to identify with the 'new' organisation after the revolutionary change. This lack of organisational identity was largely due to the perceived violation of the psychological contract during the change process. The respondents' experienced violation included both a violation of the transactional aspects of the psychological contract as well as the relational aspects. In the violation of the transactional aspects, the respondents raised concerns about *what* was done as well as *how* it was done which clearly indicated a perceived distributive and procedural injustice in the violation. The violation of the relational aspects of the psychological contract went beyond perceptions of distributive and procedural injustice (Robinson, 1995; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1989). Instead, the relational aspects raised deeper emotional concerns. Hence, the violation generated pervasively intense emotional responses, these included feelings of hurt, betrayal and resentment. In agreement with Rousseau (1989), these feelings suggested that the respondents had a changed view of the organisation and their interrelationship. This was particularly evident in the respondents' reminiscence of the traditional employment relationship and their old psychological contract which according to the respondents appeared to be the antithesis of the new employment relationship.

Relating to the third goal of the research, the results indicated that the respondents had not 'fully' or successfully adjusted to the changed organisational context and the demands of the new psychological contract. Although the respondents had adjusted their attitudinal and behavioural responses toward the organisation, these adjustments were largely maladaptive in the sense that the adjustments had a negative impact on both the individual respondent as well as the organisation. These attitudinal adjustments included, a lack of trust, a decline in organisational commitment and a loss of work satisfaction. The behavioural adjustments included, an unwillingness to engage in organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), negative withdrawal behaviour and offsetting behaviours.

It is the researcher's opinion that the three goals of the research have been adequately realised by the study. A limitation to the study was the fact that the researcher had conducted the data collection within a particular time-frame. Marks (1994) suggests that the psychological adjustment to change is characterised by a period of slow internal psychological transition. Hall and Moss (1998) recently noted that on average it takes approximately seven years for an organisation and its employees to arrive at an understanding of the new employment relationship. The implication of this suggests that the researcher may have obtained a 'snapshot' of the psychological adjustment of middle managers as opposed to a

comprehensive coverage. These sobering thoughts however, emphasise the necessity for this type of research as well as opening avenues for future research. A recommendation for future research would be to conduct a longitudinal study of middle managers within an organisation undergoing revolutionary change. This would provide a deeper understanding of the extended process of employee psychological adjustment. A further recommendation would be to conduct research in a South African organisation which has managed the revolutionary change process effectively. Although this threatens to contribute to the already excessive change 'recipes' representing the 'best' practices, it may provide valuable insights into adjustment and change within the South African context.

This research and the suggestions for future research are aimed to uncover the human dimension of organisational change and contribute to the literature on the impact of revolutionary organisational change on employees and the way they adjust to these situations. It is with this intention that this contribution hopes to create an awareness for the need for new insights into the management of revolutionary organisational change.

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APPENDIX 1

THE SABC 'PEROMNES' JOB EVALUATION SCALE

PEROMNES	TOTAL NUMBER OF STAFF AT EACH LEVEL	MANAGERIAL POSITIONING
1	7	GROUP EXECUTIVE
4	44	SENIOR MANAGEMENT
5	83	MIDDLE MANAGEMENT
6	150	MIDDLE MANAGEMENT
7	596	JUNIOR MANAGEMENT
8	540	NON MANAGERIAL
9	512	NON MANAGERIAL
10	560	NON MANAGERIAL
11	578	NON MANAGERIAL
12	543	NON MANAGERIAL
13	377	NON MANAGERIAL
14	287	NON MANAGERIAL
15	90	NON MANAGERIAL
16	94	NON MANAGERIAL
17	37	NON MANAGERIAL
18	20	NON MANAGERIAL
GRAND TOTAL	**4518**	

APPENDIX 2

GUIDELINES FOR IN-DEPTH QUALITATIVE INTERVIEWS

INTERVIEW NUMBER 1: MIDDLE MANAGERS

1. Could you tell me about your role as an employee in this organisation?
- Probe for the departmental structure, the reporting structure, major responsibilities, the respondent's length of service, previous working experience, level of careerism, previous organisational position.

2. How would you describe the organisation to someone you had just met?
- Probe for the organisational strengths, the organisational weaknesses, any unique characteristics of the organisation and the organisational identity.

3. Can you tell me about the changes that have taken place within the organisation?
- Probe for the types of changes, the most significant changes, the time-frame for the change, the rationale and necessity underlying the change, the respondent's role in the implementation and planning of the change.

4. What effects have the change had on the organisation?
- Probe for the perceived pros and cons of the organisational change, the perceived effectiveness of the change and the outcomes of the change and where the organisation is going with the change.

5. How was the organisational change implemented?
- Probe for the communication of the change initiative i.e. channels, by whom, timing.
- Probe for the respondent's participation in the strategy formulation and implementation phases.

6. What do you think of the changes that have taken place within the organisation?
- Probe for the attitudes toward the change, the feeling about the changes, the perceived necessity for the change and how the change could have been undertaken differently.

INTERVIEW NUMBER 2: MIDDLE MANAGERS

1. What were your impressions of the organisation before you joined?

- Probe for the reasons and motivation for joining the organisation

2. How would you have describe working for this organisation in the past?

- Probe for a description of the old working environment and personal relationships.

3. Could you describe the exchange between what you gave the organisation and what you received in return?

- Probe for the respondent's expectations and personal goals, and the perceived fulfilment.
- Probe for organisational expectations of employees.
- Probe for the perceived fairness of the exchange.

4. How did you identify with the organisation in those days?

- Probe for attitudes toward the organisation.

5. How would you compare the organisation before and after the change?

- Probe for differences and similarities.
- Probe for possible shift in working environment.
- Probe for possible shift in goals, expectation and obligations, and their perceived fulfilment.

6. Could you describe how you identify with the organisation since the change?

- Probe for a possible shift in attitudes.

7. How do you feel toward the organisation since the change?

INTERVIEW 3: MIDDLE MANAGERS

1. How would you personally describe yourself?
- Probe for the individual's personality type.
- Probe for a description as an employee of the organisation.

2. How much control do you feel you have over the situation in the organisation? Why/why not?
- Probe for the perceived control over the change process and perceived control in the job.

3. Describe your personal experience of the change within the organisation?
- Probe for the possible effects of the change on the individual and the job.
- Probe for emotional and psychological experience. on How has the change affected your job?

4. Has the experience of change affected your desire to work?
- Distinguish between the organisation and the job.

5. At this present moment what is weighing most heavily on your mind?
- Probe for sources of possible stress.

6. How do you view your work role in relation to other life roles? Has this changed?
- Probe for how the various life roles fit and impact on each other.
- Probe for importance or dominance of a particular life role. together since the change.

7. Have you recently experienced any other life transition apart from the organisational change?

8. How successful would you consider your adjustment to the changed organisation?
- Probe for whether respondent needed to personally change to 'fit' into the changed organisation.
- Probe for the extent and the magnitude of the required adjustment.

9. How well do you consider yourself to be coping with the change?
- Probe for the use of personal coping strategies.

10. Could you describe any support you may have received?
- Probe for sources of support (work, family, friends).

- Probe for the type of support received.

11. Have you found any personal meaning in the change experience?
    - Probe for personal growth, as well as the respondent's personal outlook for your future.

SINGLE INTERVIEW: GENERAL MANAGERS

1. Could you tell me something about yourself as an employee of this organisation?

- Probe for the size of department, the reporting structure, years of service, major responsibilities and the number of middle managers under his/her auspices.
- Probe for the self description of respondent as a manager (strengths and weaknesses, management style).

2. Could you tell me about the changes that the organisation has undergone?

- Probe for which change took place, which changes directly affected respondent's department, and the perceived impact of the changes on staff.

3. How do you think your staff experienced the organisational change?

- Probe for attitude of staff as well as staff performance. How would you describe the attitude of your immediate staff?

4. Do you think the middle management job function has changed since the organisational change? Why/why not?

- Probe for expectation of middle managers, as well as the role of middle managers.

5. What types of issues and concerns do middle managers bring to you?

6. How would you describe the adjustment of your staff to the organisational changes?

- Probe for changes in observable coping strategies, work performance and availability of support.

7. What could be improved on to facilitate middle management adjustment to organisational change?

SINGLE INTERVIEW: JUNIOR MANAGEMENT

1. Could you tell me something about yourself as an employee of this organisation?

- Probe for: size of department, reporting structure, years of service and major responsibilities.

2. Could you describe the management style of your particular manager?

- Probe for strengths and weaknesses, and any observable changes in the style of management.

3. Could you tell me about the changes that the organisation has undergone?

- Probe for which changes took place, which changes directly affected respondent's department, and the perceived impact of the change.

4. Do you think the middle management job function has change since the organisational change? Why/why not?

- Probe for expectations of middle managers, as well as the role of middle managers.

5. How do you think your manager has been affected by the changes in the organisation?

- Probe for possible observable changes in the middle manager.

6. How would you describe the adjustment of your manager to the organisational change?

- Probe for coping strategies and changes in management style.

7. What do you think the organisation should do to facilitate the adjustment of middle managers?