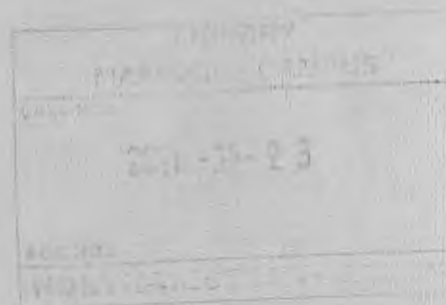


**JOB SATISFACTION, STRESS AND  
BURNOUT OF MEMBERS OF THE  
POLICE FORCE IN THE  
NORTH WEST PROVINCE,  
DISTRICT : ZEERUST**

2002

ANNA-MARIE PELSER



**JOB SATISFACTION,  
STRESS AND  
BURNOUT  
OF MEMBERS OF THE POLICE FORCE  
IN THE NORTH WEST PROVINCE,  
DISTRICT : ZEERUST**

**BY**

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## OPSOMMING

### WERKSTEVREDENHEID, STRES, UITBRANDING EN BEGEESTERING VAN DIE SUID-AFRIKAANSE POLISIE IN DIE NOORDWES PROVINSIE, ZEERUST DISTRIK

Sleuteltermes : Werkstevredenheid, stres, uitbranding en begeestering.

Relatief min tyd word spandeer aan die probleme van klein plaaslike polisie eenhede, omdat die persepsie bestaan dat hierdie eenheid nie werklik te kampe het met misdaad nie, en dat daar nie so baie sake is om te hanteer nie.

Die doel van hierdie studie was dus om te bepaal hoe werkstevrede hierdie polisielede is, of hulle ook stres en uitbranding ervaar en of hulle ook begeesterd in hulle werk is. Omdat dames in die polisie diens dikwels in administratiewe posisies aangestel word en mans in meer “harde aspekte” aangestel word, was die doel ook om te bepaal of dames en mans dieselfde vlakke van stres en uitbranding ervaar.

Vraelyste is opgestel bestaande uit die volgende meetinstrumente: die Minnesota Job Satisfaction Survey, vir die bepaling van werkstevredenheid van polisielede, die Police Stress Survey, vir die meting van gereeldheid en intensiteit van die voorkoms van stres by lede, die Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey, om uitbranding onder polisiemagdele te bepaal en die Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, om te bepaal of magslede begeesterd is in hulle werk. Gestratifiseerde ewekortse steekproe is geneem van permanente polisiebeamptes (N=76) in die Noordwes provinsie, in die Zeerust Distrik.

Analisering van inligting dui daarop dat hoewel hierdie polisieeenhede gesien word as klein en plaaslik, ontkom hulle nie van alledaagse stres nie, en s magslede, net soos ander lede van die groter eenhede onderworpe aan werksontevredenheid met sekere aspekte soos onvoldoende en ontoereikende toerusting, werksomstandighede en ‘n tekort aan personeellede. Hierdie polisie eenhede van die streek het egter probleme met die regstelsel, hantering van uiterste misdaadgevallen, byvoorbeeld waar ‘n kollega gedood word in die omgang van sy werk of rasisme nie. Van hierdie magslede ervaar ook uitbranding in die werksituasie, maar is aan die anderkant tog begeesterd in hulle werk.

Geen beduidende verskille is gevind ten opsigte van die uitbranding van mans in vergelyking met dames nie, en geen beduidende verskille is gevind in die stresvlakke van mans en dames nie.

Aanbevelings vir toekomstige navorsing is aan die hand gedoen.

## SUMMARY

### JOB SATISFACTION, STRESS, BURNOUT AND ENGAGEMENT OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE FORCE MEMBERS IN THE NORTH WEST PROVINCE, DISTRICT ZEERUST

Key words: Job Satisfaction, stress, burnout and engagements.

Relative little time is spent on attending to the problems experienced by small rural police units, because the perception exists that these units are not really subjected to crime, and that they do not carry such a great workload.

The purpose of the study was thus to determine how satisfied the members of these stations were with their jobs, whether they experienced stress and burnout and whether they were enthusiastic engaged in their jobs. Because of the fact that women in the police service are always appointed in administrative positions, and men always appointed in the more “rough aspects”, the purpose was to determine whether males and females experienced the same levels of stress and burnout.

Questionnaires were set consisting of the following measuring instruments: the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Survey, for the estimation of the job satisfaction of members of the police force, to the Police Stress Survey, for the measuring of the frequency and intensity of stress amongst members, the Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey, to determine burnout of police force members and the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, to determine whether members of the force experienced engagement in their jobs. Stratified random samples were taken of permanent employed police force members (N=76) in the Zeerust District of the North West Province.

The findings of the study indicate that although these police units are seen as small and rural, they do not escape the daily stressors and are just like members of the larger units, subjected to work dissatisfaction with certain aspects of their jobs for instance poor and inadequate equipment, work circumstances and shortage of staff. The members of this district however experience few problems with the legal system, handling of extreme crime cases, e.g., where a colleague is killed whilst performing his duties or racism. These members also experience burnout in the job situation, but are however engaged in their work.

No significant differences were found regarding the burnout of males in comparison to females and no significant differences were found regarding the stress levels of males in comparison with females.

Recommendations for future research were made.

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## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to determine the level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction, as well as the levels of stress, burnout and engagement of members of the police force in the Zeerust District of the North West Province.

##### 1.1 DEFINITION OF CONCEPT

Job satisfaction can be defined as "... a general attitude towards one's job; the difference between the amount of rewards workers receive and the amount they believe they should receive" (Robbins, 1991).

##### 1.2 SERIOUSNESS OF THE PROBLEM



According to information in Rapport dated 27 January 2002, an average of 100 South African Police Service members per week have left the police force in 1999, to make it a total of 5100 police officers in 1999 only (Smith). This rate is alarming and calls for the causes of resignations to be addressed. The question now is whether or not these resignations can be attributed to job dissatisfaction.

##### 1.3 LITERATURE ON JOB SATISFACTION : CAUSES AND EFFECTS

According to the literature, Greene (1989), suggests that positive changes in police job satisfaction are not even to be expected through community policing, because the sources of police job dissatisfaction are complex. If a need exists for remedying police frustrations and strain, one should investigate individual and particular sources as well as different components of stress and strain. The sources of stress and frustrations among officers in the force are mixed.

Some sources may be external, while others may be internal. Sources may also be task-related or even be ascribed to the officer's individual personality (Yates & Pillai, 1996).

Members of the police force suffer from stress and burn-out; they have a negative attitude towards their work, productivity levels are low, absenteeism as well as turnover seems to be on the increase, and even the ultimate sometimes occur, ... suicide (Van Niekerk & Prince, 2000).

The above problems also lead to a shortage of manpower to meet the needs of communities for effective policing. Without sufficient manpower, crime levels would sky-rocket, causing anxiety in an already distrustful community (Van Niekerk et al, 2000).

Frustrations amongst force members may be associated with the negative image of the public towards them and towards a changed law enforcement system. The perception exists that the public doubts the officers' capabilities to perform their duties, viewing them as incompetent. The media further enhance injury to an already inflamed corn by reporting on sometimes isolated incidents, resulting in the spreadings of generalisation about police incompetence.

As a job is a complex summation of a number of discrete job elements, some factors necessary to contemplate which may shed light on this problem could be; the nature of work, supervision, equitable rewards, promotion opportunities, supportive working conditions and supportive colleagues, dispositional factors, organisational climate and culture and personality-job fit to name but a few.

## **2. PROBLEM STATEMENT**

### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

A dissatisfied employee cannot perform to the best of his or her ability and she or he is also not motivated to be an achiever. Job satisfaction is a miracle word in all organisations. Employees are questioned about their job satisfaction as this is seen as a two sided-coin by organisations. Satisfied employees deliver excellent performance and attract customers; one satisfied customer speaks out to two other customers and attract them to the organisation, whilst one dissatisfied

customer speaks out to ten others and set them on guard. According to Fosam and Grimsley (1998), employee satisfaction reflects the more fundamental construct of employee commitment.

According to Robbins (1997), a satisfied workforce translates into higher productivity because of the fact that there are fewer disruptions caused by absenteeism or the fact that satisfaction is negatively related to an employee's decision to leave the organisation.

## 2.2 MAIN PROBLEM

The main problem which has to be investigated in this study, is job dissatisfaction amongst members of the South African Police Force in the Zeerust District.

## 2.3 SUB-PROBLEMS

Job dissatisfaction amongst members of the South African Police Force could be the cause of the following problems:

- a. Dysfunctional attitudes and behaviour at work reducing effectiveness; which lead to alcohol abuse, spouse abuse, family violence or even physical illness.
- b. Absenteeism.
- c. Low morale.
- d. Low levels of motivation.
- e. Stress.
- f. Burnout.
- g. Resignations.



h. Suicide.

### **3. DESCRIPTIVE HYPOTHESES**

- a. Intrinsic aspects such as doing things for others and being somebody cause members of the South African Police Service in the Zeerust District force to be satisfied with their work.
- b. Extrinsic aspects such as being underpaid, non receiving of praise and working conditions cause members of the South African Police Service in the Zeerust District force to be dissatisfied with their jobs.
- c. Stress of the South African Police force members in the Zeerust District is caused by a) staff shortages, b) the legal system which fails them and c) poor or inadequate equipment.
- d. Members of the South African Police Service in the Zeerust District force suffer from high burnout levels.
- e. Male and female police officers in Zeerust District are equally engaged in their jobs.
- f. Women in the police force, experience lower stress levels than men in the police force in the Zeerust District.

### **4. THE AIMS OF THE STUDY**

The aims of the study are to determine:

- a. Whether intrinsic aspects such as doing things for others and being somebody cause members of the South African Police Service in the Zeerust District to be satisfied with their work.

- b. Whether extrinsic aspects of their jobs such as being underpaid, non-receiving of praise and working conditions cause members of the South African Police Service in the Zeerust District to be dissatisfied with their jobs.
- c. Which factors cause the most stress for the members of the South African Police Service in the Zeerust District.
- d. Whether members of the South African Police Force District Zeerust suffer from high burn-out levels.
- e. Whether male and female members of the South African Police Service in the Zeerust District officers, are equally engaged in their jobs.
- f. Whether women in the South African Police Service have lower stress levels than men in the Zeerust District.

## **5. THE IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY**

- a. To assist the Department of Correctional Services with information regarding burnout levels of members of the force, so that preventative steps can be taken.
- b. To contribute to the body of knowledge on intrinsic/extrinsic aspects which cause satisfaction/dissatisfaction to members of the force.
- c. To determine which factors cause the most stress to officers, so that these factors might be removed or be attended to.
- d. To estimate the level of job satisfaction so that the level of services rendered can be improved.

- e. To bring awareness of engagement levels of members of the South African Police Service for the Department of Correctional Services to take corrective measures if necessary.

## **6. RESEARCH DESIGN**

### **6.1 THE ORGANISATION**

This research is undertaken in the Department of the South African Police Service in the North West Province in the Zeerust District. The North West Province, one of the nine provinces in South Africa, is subdivided into different regions and districts. The Department of South African Police Service is a public service department, rendering security services to the public.

The Zeerust District consists of five police stations: namely Ottoshoop, Zeerust, Lehurutshe, Motswedi and Groot Marico. All these five stations will be involved in the study.

### **6.2 THE POPULATION**

The population to be investigated will be the members of the South African Police Services in the Zeerust District in the North West Province. Only permanent and uniformed members of the Police Force will take part in this survey. Police reservists are excluded as they do not form part of the permanent staff and are also not uniformed. Officers with different ranks from constable to captain will be included in this stratified random sample. Both male and female staff members will be included in this study. The age, marital status, classification of the job and approximate time serving in a current rank and create a good basis for this research. There are 130 police officers in this District. The aim of this study is to have at least 100 of them to participate in the survey.

### 6.3 THE SAMPLING TECHNIQUE AND SAMPLE

The sampling technique to be used in this investigation is the stratified random sampling technique. Strata to be used will be gender, age, rank, qualification, years of service and language. According to Grinnell (1988), stratified sampling can either be proportional or disproportional. The proportion of people selected from each stratum can be the same for the sample as for the population. In this survey the sample is proportional because the population categories to be investigated "... tend to be homogenous with respect to the variables under study" (Grinnell, 1988). In this survey all the members of the force are intrinsic or extrinsic satisfied or dissatisfied with their jobs. The same factors cause stress, the experience of high or low levels of stress and they either high engaged or low engaged in their job.

A small portion of the total set of persons together comprise the subject of this study (Grinnell, 1988). For this study a small portion of employees will be chosen, which will vary in age, rank, marital status, gender and years of service. The chosen sample will be subjected to the filling in of questionnaires. The aimed total sample will be 100 in number.

### 6.4 RESEARCH METHOD

For this survey questionnaires will be used. The use of questionnaires is known as a normative or descriptive survey data method. This method is defined by Leedy (1989), as:- "... (the method) derived from a simple observational situation, whether these are actually physically observed or observed through benefit of questionnaires or poll techniques".

Questionnaires were selected, and contain the following sections:

- Section A – Biographical Details,
- Section B – Minnesota Satisfaction Survey (MSQ),
- Section C – Police Stress Survey (PSS) (Part A – Amount of stress and Part B – Frequency of stress events),
- Section D – Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey (MBI-GS) and
- Section E – Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES).

The questionnaire was only set in English.

## 6.5 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

This is a qualitative research, but the investigation will use descriptive statistics (e.g. means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis) to analyse the data.

Data analysis will be carried out with the help of the SAS-programme 2000 at the Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education.

The internal consistency of the measuring instruments will be assessed by making use of the Cronbach-alpha coefficient and inter- item coefficients. A factor analysis will be used to assess the validity of constructs and to indicate rotation of important factors.

## 7. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this study will concentrate on the determining of job satisfaction/dissatisfaction levels of members of the Police Force in the Zeerust District. The aim of this study will also be to assess the levels of stress and burnout and the levels of engagement of members of the Police Force.

The following chapter of this study reflects the literature concerning job satisfaction.

## CHAPTER TWO

### **LITERATURE SURVEY: JOB SATISFACTION**

#### **1. INTRODUCTION**

Some people view their work as a curse which was laid upon them after the fall of man. God's words that by the sweat of your brow you will eat your food, strengthen the thought that work be seen as a burden (The Holy Bible, 1997).

This is a pity because if one pages back in the Bible until right at the beginning, one discovers a wonderful example of someone who found extreme pleasure in work in a purposeful, planned manner; God Himself. Day by day, step by step He completed His creation plan. At the end of each day He looked back with great satisfaction and saw that it was good. "God saw all that He had made, and it was very good, and there was evening, and there was morning – the sixth day" (The Holy Bible, 1997). This is a perfect example of complete job satisfaction (Symington, 2001).

#### **2. DEFINITION(S)**

Robbins (1991), defines job satisfaction as "a general attitude towards one's job, the difference between the amount of rewards workers receive and the amount they believe they should receive".

Locke (1976) defines job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state, resulting from the appraisal of one's job experiences".

Greenberg and Baron (1995), define job satisfaction as "'individual's' cognitive, affective and evaluative reaction to their jobs".

According to the above definitions, the gap between expectations and reality should be bridged. People must obtain from their job the pleasures and reward they expect to receive. Expectations must not be misplaced (Caudron, 2001). How satisfied people feel is a complex interplay of what is happening in their personal and business lives (Hochgraf, 1998).

## 2.2 FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO JOB SATISFACTION

According to Nel et al (2001), factors contributing to job satisfaction can be divided into two main groups, namely personal factors and organisational factors. **Personal factors** refer mainly to personality, status and seniority, general life satisfaction and the extent to which the job characteristics are congruent with personal characteristics. **Organisational factors** refer to the following; pay and benefits, the work itself, the supervisor, relationship with co-workers and working conditions.

Job satisfaction is a complex variable and it is influenced by the situational factors of the job environment as well as dispositional characteristics of an individual (Rothman & Agathagelou, 2000).

Interactional explanations of job satisfaction as mentioned in the definitions are generally accepted, but the weight attached to dispositional and situational aspects vary. Dispositionists (e.g. House, Shane & Herold, 1996) have contended that work attitudes and behaviour are determined by, or at least directly linked to, individual attributes. Situationists (e.g. Davis-Blake & Pfeffer, 1989), on the other hand, argue that the world of work, job characteristics, organisational situations and economic conditions affect people much more strongly than do individual differences.

Dispositional variables can be described as personality characteristics, needs, attitudes, preferences and motives that result in a tendency to react to situations in a predetermined or predisposed manner (House *et al*, 1996).

In recent years, researchers have begun to explore the psychological processes that might underlie dispositional causes of job satisfaction. Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) suggest that affective temperament may influence the experience of emotionally significant events at work, which in turn influence job satisfaction. However, House *et al* (1996) note in their review of the dispositional literature that affective disposition is only one of many traits that can and should be studied. Judge, Locke, Durham and Kluger (1998) explain dispositional determinants of job satisfaction in terms of “core evaluations” incorporating self-esteem, generalised self-efficacy, low neuroticism and locus of control, which can be described as fundamental evaluations that individuals make about themselves.

Since Staw, Bell and Clausen (1986) discovered a link between childhood personality and job satisfaction, there has been considerable interest in the relationship between individual dispositions and job satisfaction.

The different contributing factors to job satisfaction are discussed namely; Personal / Dispositional factors and organisational factors:

### 3.1 PERSONAL OR DISPOSITIONAL FACTORS

The following are some of the personal and dispositional factors of job satisfaction as identified by Nel *et al* (2001) and House *et al* (1996).

#### 3.1.1 Personality characteristics

3.1.1.1 Personality appears to be a result of influences from heredity, environment and situational factors (Robbins, 1991).

Personality is defined as “the sum total of ways in which an individual reacts and interacts with others” (Robbins, 1991).



Based on research, Nel et al (2001) do not differ from Robbins by asserting that personality can be defined as a characteristic way in which a person thinks and acts in an effort to adapt to his or her environment. It also includes a person's discernible behavioural patterns.

Each person has personality traits which are enduring characteristics that describe an individual's behaviour (Robbins, 1991). Popular characteristics include shy, aggressive, lazy, submissive, loyal, ambitious or timid and when they are exhibited in a large number of situations, are called traits (Buss, 1989).

Psychological research has identified many traits and attributes, that is dimensions, that comprise a person's personality. Five personality dimensions has been identified (Gordon, 1999).

*i. Internalisers – Externalisers*

People differ in the extent to which they believe that their behaviour influences what happens to them (Rotter, 1966).

- Internalisers feel they control their own life and actions (Internal locus of control).
- Externalisers believe that others control their lives (External locus of control).

*ii. Type A – Type B*

Type A or Type B characteristics reflect an individual's desire for achievement, perfectionism, competitiveness and his or her ability to relax (Gordon, 1999).

Type A person is competitive, prompt for appointments, does things quickly, and always feels rushed, Type B person is relaxed, takes one thing at a time, and expresses his or her feelings (Friedman & Roseman, 1974; Matteson & Preston, 1982; Glass, 1977).

Type A employees are more prone to stress and may suffer more often from poor cardiovascular health. These people also experience high job involvement (Schaubroeck, Ganster & Kemmerer, 1994; Spector & O'Connell, 1994).

iii. *Introversion - Extroversion*

The Myers – Briggs Type indicator (MBTI), based on Jungian psychology, uses people's preferences to indicate their overall personality type (Zemke, 1992).

Gordon (1999) describe personalities in the following way:

- Introverted – A shy and withdrawn person who likes quietness for concentration, dislikes interruptions and works contentedly alone.
- Extroverted – An outgoing, sometimes aggressive person who likes variety, likes to function in a social environment, often acts quickly without thinking and may dominate situations or people.

These two basic personality patterns affect the way people gather information, make decisions and evaluate alternatives during problem solving.

People acquire information by sensing or intuition.

- Sensing types like action and focus on getting things done. They work steadily and reach a conclusion step by step.
- Intuitive types dislike doing the same thing repeatedly and enjoy learning new skills. They may leap to conclusions quickly and often follow their inspirations and hunches.

People make decisions by thinking or feeling.

- Thinking types excel at putting things in logical order and respond more to peoples' ideas than feelings. They see the need to be treated fairly and tend to be firm and tough minded.
- Feeling types like harmony and respond to individuals' values and feelings as well as their thoughts. They tend to be sympathetic and enjoy pleasing people.

People also differ in the way they evaluate information.

- Judging types like to get things finished and work best with a plan. They dislike interrupting their projects and tasks and use lists as agendas.
- Perceiving types adapt well to changing situations and do not mind last-minute changes. They may begin many projects but experience difficulty in finishing them or may postpone unpleasant tasks.

iv. *Machiavellianism*



An individual with a Machiavellian personality demonstrates manipulative and unethical behaviour and attitudes (Shackleton, Pitt & Marks, 1990). The March IV scale, is used to measure Machiavellianism and it indicates the degree to which the respondent believes others can be manipulated in interpersonal situations (Christie & Geis, 1970).

v. *Self-Efficacy*

Self-efficacy refers to people's perceptions about whether they can successfully perform a task. It affects the perceived difficulty of goals, commitment to goals and tasks selected by employees (Locke, Frederick, Lee & Bobko, 1984; Lent, Brown & Larkin, 1987; Stumpf, Brief & Hartman, 1987).

### 3.1.1.2 Personality attributes

A number of specific personality attributes have been isolated as having potential for predicting behaviour in organisations, namely:

*i. Locus of Control*

The construct of locus of control was developed by Rotter (1996) and is described as the extent to which individuals feel that they play a causative role in events in their lives.

Some people believe that they are masters of their own fate. Other people see themselves as pawns of fate, believing that what happens to them in their lives is due to luck or chance. Those who believe that they control their destinies, are labeled internals, whereas those who see their lives being controlled by outside forces, are called externals (Rotter, 1966).

Research comparing internals with externals has consistently shown that individuals who rate high in externality are less satisfied with their jobs, have higher absenteeism rates, are more alienated from the work setting and are less involved in their jobs than are internals. The reason being that they perceive themselves as having little control over those organisational outcomes that are important to them (Spector, 1982; Blau, 1987).

Externals should do well on jobs that are well structured and routine and where success depends heavily on complying with the direction of others, as they comply with and are willing to follow directions (Robbins, 1991).

Internals may be expected to quit jobs more readily as they tend to take action. They are also more successful on the job and more satisfied and thus have less individual turnover (Spector, 1982).

Internals search more actively for information before making a decision, are more motivated to achieve and make a greater attempt to control their environment. Internals do well on sophisticated tasks which include managerial and professional jobs that require complex information processing and learning. They are suited to jobs that require initiative and independence of action (Robbins, 1991).

*ii. Achievement Orientation*

People with a high need to achieve can be described as continually striving to do things better (Robbins, 1991). Internals are motivated to achieve. They want to overcome obstacles and they want to feel that their success (or failure) is due to their own actions. They like tasks of intermediate difficulty. High achievers receive no feeling of accomplishment from doing tasks that fail to challenge their abilities, and avoid tasks that are so difficult that the probability of success is very low.

A high achievement orientated person will perform well in a job which provides challenge, feedback and responsibility (Miner, 1980).

*iii. Authoritarianism*

Authoritarianism refers to a belief that there should be status and power differences among people in organisations (Adorno, 1980). The extremely high-authoritarian personality is intellectually rigid, judgemental of others, differential to those above and exploitative of those below, distrustful and resistant to change.

People possessing a high authoritarian personality would be related negatively to performance where a job demands sensitivity to the feelings of others, tact and the ability to adapt to complex and changing situations. Where jobs are highly structured and success depends on close conformance to rules and regulations, the high-authoritarian employee should perform quite well (Gough, 1976).

iv. *Machiavellianism*

Machiavellianism indicates the degree to which an individual is pragmatic, maintains emotional distance and believes that ends can justify means (Robbins, 1991).

Persons who score high on Machiavellianism, manipulate more, win more, are persuaded and persuade others more than do people who score low on Machiavellianism (Christie et al, 1970).

One should keep in mind that high Machiavellianism outcomes are moderated by situational factors. These people flourish when:

- they interact face to face with others rather than indirectly.
- the situation has a minimum number of rules and regulations, thus allowing latitude for improvisation; and
- emotional involvement with details irrelevant to winning distracts people with low Machiavellianism scores (Christie et al, 1970).

In jobs that require bargaining skills (such as labour negotiation) or where there are substantial rewards for winning (as in commissioned sales), people high on Machiavellianism will be productive (Christie et al, 1970).

v. *Self-esteem*

People differ in the degree to which they like or dislike themselves. This trait is called self-esteem (Brockner, 1988).

Self-esteem is directly related to expectations for success. People with high self-esteem believe that they possess more of the ability they need in order to succeed at work, they will take more risks in job selection and are more likely to choose unconventional jobs. On the contrary, people with low self-esteem are more susceptible to external influences than people with high self-esteem. They are dependent on the receipt of positive evaluations from others. They are

also more likely to seek approval from others and are prone to conform to the beliefs and behaviours of those they respect (Robbins, 1991).

People with high self-esteem are thus more satisfied with their jobs than people with low self-esteem (Christie et al, 1970).

vi. *Self-monitoring*

According to Snyder (1987), self-monitoring is a personality trait that measures an individual's ability to adjust his or her behaviour to external situational factors. Individuals high in self-monitoring can show considerable adaptability in adjusting their behaviour to external, situational factors. They are highly sensitive to external cues and can behave differently in different situations. High self-monitors are capable of presenting striking contradictions between their public person and their private selves. High self-monitors tend to pay closer attention to the behaviour of others and are more capable of conforming than are low self-monitors (Snyder, 1987).

According to Robbins (1997), "the high self-monitor is capable of putting on different "faces" for different audiences".

Studies done by Snyders (1987) revealed that low self-monitors cannot deviate their behaviour. They tend to display their true dispositions and attitudes in every situation: hence there is high behavioural consistency between who they are and what they do.

vii. *Risk taking*

According to Robbins (1991), people differ in their willingness to take chances. This propensity to assume or avoid risk has been shown to have an impact on how long it takes managers to make a decision and how much information they require in making their choice.

In a study conducted by Taylor and Dunnette (1974), it was found that high-risk-taking managers make more rapid decisions and used less information in making their choices than did the low-risk-taking managers. The decision accuracy however was the same for both groups.

*viii. Sense of coherence*

Antonovsky (1987, 1991) developed the construct “sense of coherence”. Sense of coherence can be described as

“a global orientation that expresses the extent to which one has a pervasive, enduring though dynamic feeling of confidence that one’s internal and external environments are predictable and that there is a high probability that things will work out as well as can be reasonably expected. It thus influences an individual’s perception of stimuli”.

The definition of sense of coherence includes three dimensions which represent the concept, namely comprehensibility, manageability and meaningfulness (Antonovsky, 1987).

- *Comprehensibility* refers to the extent to which one perceives stimuli from the internal and external environment as information that is ordered, structured and consistent. The stimuli are perceived as comprehensible and making sense on a cognitive level.
- *Manageability* refers to the extent to which individuals experience events in life as situations that are endurable or manageable and can even be seen as new challenges.
- *Meaningfulness* refers to the extent to which one feels that life is making sense on an emotional and not just a cognitive level.

According to Stämpfer (1990), individuals with a strong sense of coherence should be able to make cognitive sense of the workplace, perceiving its stimulation as clear, ordered, structured, consistent and predictable information. They should experience their work as consisting of experiences that are bearable, capable and as challenges that they can meet by availing themselves of personal resources or resources under the control of supervisory others. They



should be able to make emotional and motivational sense of work demands as welcome challenges, worthy of engaging in and investing their energies in. Sense of coherence on its own, viewed without the appropriate ability, skills, training and development, is of no avail.

*ix. Self-efficacy*

Self-efficacy refers to “one’s beliefs about his or her ability to perform a specific behaviour” (Bandura, 1986, 1987a, 1987b, 1998). Bandura (1986) believes that self-efficacy was not a theory in itself, but a portion of social cognitive theory. It is a construct based on cognitive and behavioural concepts that Bandura (1977b) describes as an individual’s perception of his or her skills and abilities and whether the skills or abilities produce effective and competent actions.

Strauser (2002) states that self-efficacy influences perceptions of actions and coping behaviours and the choice of environments and situations in which the individual will attempt to access. Bandura (1998) in turn states that there is a reciprocal relationship between cognitive process and behaviour change in self-efficacy theory.

Bandura's conceptualization of self-efficacy consists of two components namely, efficacy expectations and outcome expectations. Efficacy expectations refer to one’s conviction that he or she can successfully produce the behaviours that will lead to a desired outcome, while outcome expectations refer to one’s belief that a particular course of action will produce a certain outcome (Bandura, 1977a). Efficacy expectations have an effect on one’s choice of settings, behaviours and persistence (Bandura, 1997b). People with low efficacy expectations will likely avoid situations in which they feel unable to cope, they will rather seek out situations which they feel that they will be able to handle.

Bandura (1998) reveals that persistence in producing behaviours is also affected by efficacy expectations. Individuals who have high levels of efficacy expectations will be more likely to persist with behaviours when they become difficult and will therefore be more likely to execute the behaviour successfully which in turn increases their efficacy expectations even more. On the contrary, individuals with low levels of efficacy expectations, will be more likely to cease production of behaviours once the behaviours become difficult, which will in turn reinforce their

already low efficacy expectations (Strauser, 1995; Strauser, Waldrop, Hamsley & Jenkins, 1998; Strauser, Waldrop & Jenkins, 1998).

The concept of self-efficacy is situation-specific meaning that one will have a range of both high and low self-efficacy expectations at one time depending on a specific situation, task or behaviour (Sadri & Robertson, 1993).

According to Bandura (1989) employees with a low level of self-efficacy doubt their capabilities, shy away from difficult tasks and have low aspirations and weak commitment to the goals they choose to pursue. Wood and Bandura (1989) suggest that inefficacious thoughts cause distress and depression, which could then lead to reduced levels of satisfaction. Judge et al (1998) conclude that self-efficacy indirectly influences job satisfaction in the sense that perceptions of work attributes, which influence job satisfaction, are affected.

### 3.1.1.3 Motivation

#### I. Introduction

##### - Definition of motivation

Motivation is “the willingness to exert high levels of effort towards organisational goals, conditioned by the effort’s ability to satisfy some individual need” (Robbins, 1991).

##### - Definition of needs

Robbins (1991), defines needs as “some internal state that makes certain outcomes appear attractive”.

An unsatisfied need creates tension that stimulates drives within the individual. These drives generate a search behaviour to find particular goals that, if attained, will satisfy the need and lead to the reduction of tension (Robbins, 1991).

As soon as one need is satisfied, another takes its place. People can therefore never be fully satisfied, and they behave in a particular way to satisfy a need or a combination of needs. An unsatisfied need acts as a motivator (Nel et al, 2001).

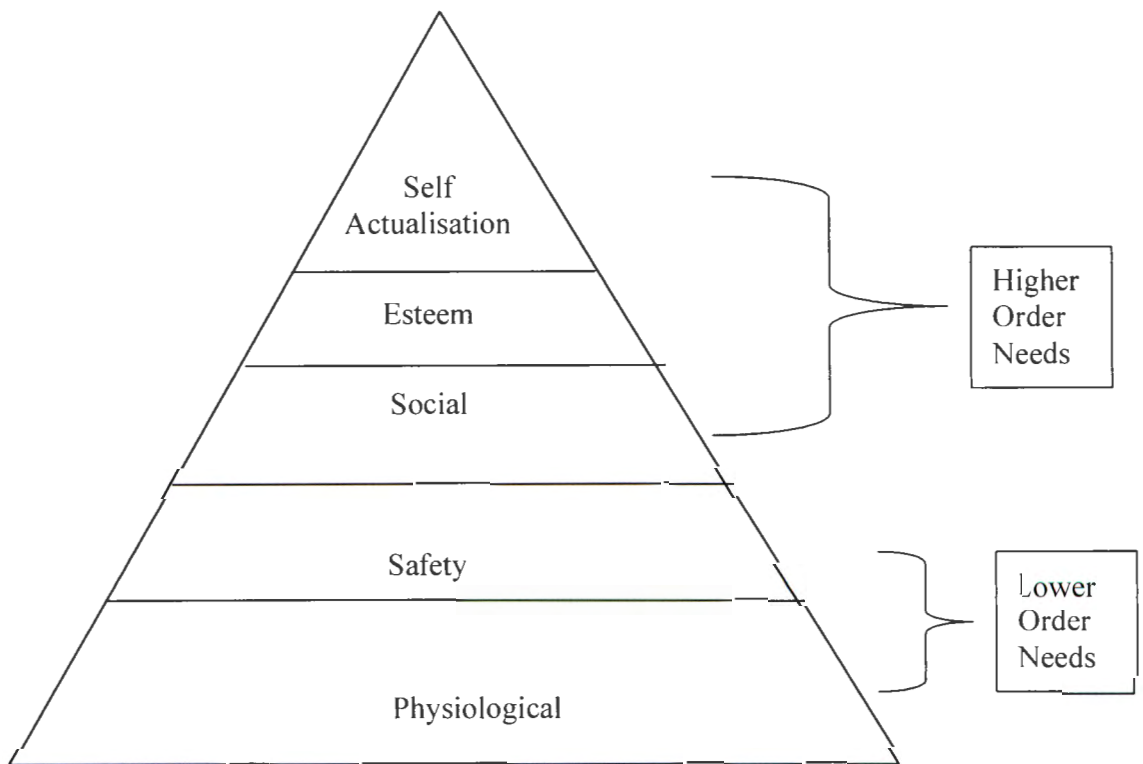
**A. Motivation or Needs Theories**

*i. Maslow's needs hierarchy*

Maslow (1954)'s theory has a twofold basis; People are continuously wanting things, people always want more, and what they want depends on what they already have.

People's needs are arranged in order of importance. Maslow divides human needs into five main categories according to importance. The lowest level contains the most basic human needs which must be satisfied before higher-order needs emerge and become motivators of behaviour (Nel, 2001).

Figure 2.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs



Source: Robbins, S.P., (1991). Organisational behavior: Concepts controversies and applications (5<sup>th</sup> ed). p.194. New Jersey, Englewood Cliffs.

The level of Maslow's hierarchy are as follows:

Maslow separated the five needs into higher and lower levels. Physiological and safety needs were described as lower-order and social, esteem and self-actualization needs as higher order needs. The differentiation between the two orders was made on the premise that higher-order needs are satisfied internally to the person, whereas lower-order needs are predominantly satisfied externally, by such things as money wages, union contracts and tenure (Robbins, 1991).

a. Physiological needs

These needs refer to an individual's most basic needs for biological functioning and include food, water, shelter and sex. In modern terms it means the need for finding good day care for children or acquiring medical or dental coverage. Companies offer benefits such as medical and dental care, child care and even elderly care to address these needs (Gordon, 1999).

b. Safety and Security needs

These needs include security and protection from physical and emotional harm (Robbins, 1991). While safety needs once focused on using machinery, managers now have to deal with problems associated with workers' use of video-display terminals and secondary smoke in the workplace (Gordon, 1991).

Some companies attempt to meet safety needs by instituting extensive programmes that may involve watchdog committees and stringent corporate monitoring of hazardous materials. Other organisations have instituted smoking policies and special security precautions for workers who must walk to remote parking areas. Security needs can also focus on short-term and long-term job protection, often guaranteed in union contracts (Gordon, 1999).

c. Belongingness and love needs

The need for love, acceptance and friendship forms part of these needs. Focus is on the social aspects of work and non-work situations. Traditional organisations have held regular social activities such as sports leagues and holiday parties to meet social need. Currently, managers use teams, which can also meet these social needs to accomplish the organisations goals. According to Staroba (1996), the American Dietetic Association switched to team-based management to help workers satisfy this higher-level need.

d. Esteem needs

These needs include factors such as self-respect, autonomy, achievement, status, recognition and attention. Some people want the material symbols of success, such as a large office or an executive job title, public recognition, or other perks – special privileges or rewards, which may include country club membership or a luxury car, associated with success. Other people with esteem needs wish to master their work, to demonstrate competence and accomplishments, or build a reputation as outstanding performers (Gordon, 1999).

e. Self-actualization needs

An individual's desire to grow and develop to his or her fullest potential is represented by these needs. An individual often wants the opportunity to be creative on the job or desires autonomy, responsibility and challenge. Organisations tend to help employees to grow by offering training courses (Gordon, 1999).

Maslow (1954) describes this need as “the desire to become more and more what one is and to become everything one is capable of becoming”.

- The needs that probably provide the best opportunities for employee motivation are the fourth-and fifth-level needs of Maslow's hierarchy (Nel, 2001).

- The control function is also very important. People need to control their environment in order to manipulate it according to their needs. If, however, people are controlled by the environment and thwarted in the satisfaction of their needs, they become frustrated and tense.
- If prevailing needs cannot be satisfied, the result is undesirable employee behaviour such as aggression, frustration and resignations (Nel et al, 2001).

ii. *Herzberg's two factor motivation theory*

Frederick Herzberg and his associates focused on job satisfaction as a key component of motivation (Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman, 1959; Phillipchuk & Whittaker, 1996; Herzberg, 1982).

Herzberg used the critical incident technique to identify factors that made employees feel exceptionally good or exceptionally bad about their jobs. Herzberg developed the two factor theory of motivation, identifying two sets of factors that influenced motivation and job satisfaction, he called the one set of factors hygiene factors and the other motivators (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998).

**Hygiene factors** are also closely related to the working environment. They are features of the job's content and are also called maintenance factors. If they are inadequately met, they cause dissatisfaction. If they are adequately met, the employee is neither dissatisfied, nor satisfied (nor motivated) but feels neutral about his job (Nel, 2001).

**Motivators** are also called growth factors, and are closely related to the nature and content of the work done. If adequately met, they result in job satisfaction (Gordon, 1999).

- Herzberg's theory can be linked to Maslow's hierarchy of needs.
- The hygiene factors are similar to the lower-level needs in the hierarchy, while the motivators are similar to the higher-level needs (Nel et al, 2001).

- Intrinsic factors are related to job satisfaction, while extrinsic factors are associated with dissatisfaction (Robbins, 1991).
- A dissatisfied employee cannot be motivated. It is therefore important that management first give attention to hygiene factors before they introduce motivators into the employee's job (DeSimone & Harris, 1998).

### *iii. ERG - Theory*

Clayton Alderfer of Yale University has reworked Maslow's need hierarchy to align it more closely with the empirical research. His revised need hierarchy is labeled ERG theory (Alderfer, 1969).

Alderfer argues that there are three groups of care needs – existence, relatedness and growth – hence the label: ERG theory (Robbins, 1991). The following discussion reflects Robbins' explanation of Alderfer's needs.

- **The existence group** is concerned with providing basic material existence requirements. They include the items that Maslow considered as physiological and safety needs (Robbins, 1991).

- The second group of needs are those of **relatedness**:-

Relatedness is the desire human beings have for maintaining important interpersonal relationships. These social and status desires require interaction with others if they are to be satisfied, and they align with Maslow's social need and the external component of Maslow's esteem classification.

- Finally, Alderfer isolates **growth needs** - an intrinsic desire for personal development. These include the intrinsic component from Maslow's esteem category and the characteristics included under self-actualisation.

Gordon (1999) states that in contrast to Maslow, the ERG theory demonstrates that more than one need may be operative at the same time.

If the gratification of a higher-level need is stifled, the desire to satisfy a lower-level need increases (Robbins, 1991).

Maslow argued that an individual would stay at a certain need level until that need was satisfied. The ERG theory counters this notion by noting that when a higher-order need level is frustrated, the individual's desire to increase a lower-level need takes place (DeSimone et al, 1998).

## **B. Expectancy Theories**

Motivating employees involves meeting their needs, ensuring equity in the workplace, reinforcing desired behaviours and setting specific, challenging and accepted goals. Expectancy theories provide a view of motivation that integrates these elements into a single theory (Gordon, 1999).

### *i. Vroom's Expectancy theory*

Vroom (as cited in DeSimone et al, 1998), assumes that motivation is a conscious choice process. According to this theory, people choose to put their effort into activities they believe they can perform and that will produce desired outcomes.

Expectancy theories include three basic elements: expectancy, instrumentality and valence.

- **Valence** refers to how attractive a specific outcome is to an individual. It is the anticipated satisfaction of attaining a goal. It differs from value in the sense that a person might desire a specific outcome and when it is obtained, the person derives less satisfaction than anticipated from it (Nel, 2001).



- **Expectancy** represents the individual's judgement about whether applying (or increasing) effort to a task will result in its successful accomplishment. Stated another way, people with high expectancy believe that increased effort will lead to better performance, but people with low expectancy do not believe their efforts, no matter how great will affect their performance. All other things being equal, people should engage in tasks about which they have high expectancy beliefs (DeSimone, et al, 1998).
- **Instrumentality** is the perception that performance will lead to the desired outcome. Performance is instrumental when it leads to a specific outcome or outcomes.

This theory is based on self-interest, wherein each individual seeks to maximize his or her expected satisfaction. The motive of every human act is asserted to be the maximisation of pleasure and/or the minimization of pain (Locke, 1975). It is also concerned with the attractiveness of rewards, which require an understanding and knowledge of what value the individual puts on organisational pay-offs (Mitchell, 1974).

The expectancy theory emphasises expected behaviours. The employee must know what is expected and how he or she will be appraised (Robbins, 1991).

## ii. *Porter and Lawler*

Lyman Porter and Edward Lawler III extended Vroom's theory into an expectancy model of motivation (Lawler, 1996).

This model attempted to identify the origin of people's valences and expectancies; link effort with performance and job satisfaction; identify factors other than effort that influence performance and emphasize the importance of equitable rewards (Porter & Steers, 1973).

Several basic elements are included in this theory, they are:

- **Value of reward** which is similar to valence in Vroom's theory. People desire a combination of outcomes or rewards for what they put into their jobs.

- **Perceived effort** refers to reward probability, meaning the extent to which a person believes that his or her efforts will in fact lead to the reward. This is similar to the concept of expectancy in Vroom's theory.
- **Effort** does not lead directly to performance, but is moderated by abilities and traits, and role perception (Porter, Lawler & Hackman, 1975).
- **Satisfaction** is influenced by both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards.
- Job satisfaction is influenced by an employee's perception about the equity of rewards given (Nel, 2001).
- Employees expect rewards that are not only equitable to their own inputs, but also equitable to the rewards that other employees with similar inputs receive.
- It is also important that some congruency exists between intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (Nel, 2001).

### *iii. McClelland's Learned Needs Theory*

David McClelland and his associates offer a different way for managers to think about needs (McClelland, 1961). The need to achieve is one of the personality characteristics. It is also one of three needs proposed by McClelland and others as being important in organisational settings for understanding motivation.

The three different needs are identified as follows:

- **Need for achievements** reflects an individual's desire to accomplish goals and demonstrate competence or mastery. People high in this need focus their energies on getting a job done, quickly and well (Gordon, 1998).

Individuals with a high need to achieve prefer job situations with personal responsibility, feedback and an intermediate degree of risk. High achievers are successful in entrepreneurial activities such as running their own businesses and managing a self-contained unit within a large organisation (McClelland & Winter, 1969).

A high need to achieve does not necessarily lead to being a good manager, especially in large organisations. People with a high achievement need are interested in how well they do personally and not in influencing others to do well (McClelland & Burnham, 1976).

- **Need for power** refers to the need for control over a person's work or the work of others (Robbins, 1991).

The need for affiliation and power tend to be closely related to managerial success. The best managers are high in their need for power and low in their need for affiliation (McClelland et al, 1976).

- **Need for affiliation** resembles Maslow's belongingness need and Alderfer's relatedness need. It describes the need for social interaction, love and affection (Gordon, 1998).

#### 3.1.1.4 Attitudes

##### Definition

An attitude represents a person's general feeling of favourableness or unfavourableness toward some stimulus object (Fishbein et al, 1975).

*i. Description*

Attitudes add to the understanding of employee behaviour by showing another way thoughts can influence behaviour. The nature of the relationship between attitudes and behaviour is of particular interest. Attitudes can be used to predict behaviour, but the predictions are at best only moderately accurate (DeSimone et al, 1998).

According to Ajzen and Fishbein's (1977) model of attitudes, attitudes are combined with perceived social pressure to behave in a given way to influence an individual's intentions. These intentions in turn, more directly influence behaviour.

According to Staw and Ross (1985), attitudes are always held with respect to a particular object – whether the object is a person, place, event or idea and indicate one's feelings or affect toward that object. Attitudes also tend to be stable over time and are difficult to change.

*ii. Source of Attitudes*

On a daily basis and throughout their life human beings come into contact with others. They observe the way they behave and shape their attitudes and behaviour to align with those of others. Sometimes people imitate the attitudes of popular individuals or those they admire and respect. Advertising messages attempt to alter peoples attitudes towards a certain product or products or service. Attitudes are most often shaped by relatives, friends, colleagues and role models.

*iii. Types of Attitudes*

Job-related attitudes tap positive or negative evaluations that employees hold about aspects of their environment.

Research in organisational behaviour are concerned with three attitudes namely: job satisfaction, job involvement and organisational commitment (Brooke, Russell & Price, 1988).

- *Job Satisfaction* results when a job fulfills or helps attain an individual's values, expectations and standards. Dissatisfaction occurs when the worker perceives that the job blocks his/her attainment (Locke & Latham, 1990).
- *Job involvement* measures the degree to which a person identifies psychologically with his or her job and considers his or her perceived performance level important to his or her self-worth (Blau & Boal, 1987).
- *Organisational commitment* can be defined as a state in which an employee identifies with a particular organisation and its goals and wishes to maintain membership in the organisation. High job involvement means identifying with one's specific job, while high organisational commitment means identifying with one's employing organisation (Blau et al, 1987).

iv. *Components of Attitudes*

Attitudes have certain components, namely:

- *Cognitive*. Individuals have beliefs about a certain person, object or situation that they accept as true based on their values and expenses.
- *Affective*. Feelings result from beliefs about a person, object or situation. The affective component becomes stronger as a person has more frequent and direct experience with a focal object, person or situation and expresses his or her feelings about that object, person or situation more frequently (Sorrentino & Higgings, 1986).
- *Behavioural*. Behaviour occurs as a result of a person's feeling about a focal person, object, or situation. A person may complain, request a transfer, or be less productive if she feels dissatisfied with work.

According to Festinger (as cited in DeSimone et al, 2000) people may experience cognitive dissonance, which describes their attempts to deal with situations in which they have contradictory knowledge, information, attitudes or beliefs. An employee tries to reduce the contradictions by redefining the situation.

v. *The attitude – behavioural relationship*

Attitudes are casually related to behaviour, which means that the attitudes that people hold will determine what they do.

The attitude-behaviour relationship can be improved by taking the following moderating contingency variables into consideration:

- The use of specific attitudes and specific behaviours: The more specific an attitude is measured, the more specific the identifying of a related behaviour, the greater the probability of showing a relationship between attitude and behaviour (Heberlein & Black, 1976).
- Social constraints on behaviour: Discrepancies between attitudes and behaviour may occur because the social pressures of the individual to behave in a certain way may hold exceptional power (Schuman & Johnson, 1976).
- Experience with the attitude in question is another variable: The attitude behaviour relationship is likely to be much stronger if the attitude being evaluated refers to something with which the individual has experience (Fazio & Zanna, 1981).

#### 3.1.1.5 Job Fit

An employee must know the job for which he or she is hiring and be able to define it in writing, building a clear and accurate picture of its key objectives and specify the necessary activities to function in that job. In doing this, the employee creates a model of the type of person who would be highly motivated and successful performing the activities associated with a sound job.

*i. Personality–Job Fit*

Holland's personality–job fit theory is based on the notion of fit between a person's interests (taken to be an expression of personality) and his or her occupational environment. The author presents six personality types and proposes that satisfaction and the propensity to leave a job depend on the degree to which individuals successfully match their personalities with a congruent occupational environment.

The key points of this model are that:

- there do appear to be intrinsic differences in personality among individuals,
- there are different types of jobs, and,
- people in job environments congruent with their personality types should be more satisfied and less likely to voluntarily resign than should people in incongruent jobs.

Figure 2.2 Holland's Personality

Types and matching occupations:

	<b>Type</b>		<b>Occupations</b>
a)	Realistic – involves aggressive behaviour, physical activities requiring skill, strength, and coordination.	→	Forestry, farming.
b)	Investigative – involves activities requiring thinking, organising, and understanding rather than feeling or emotion.	→	Biology, Mathematics, news reporting.
c)	Social – involves interpersonal rather than intellectual or physical activities.	→	Foreign service, social work, clinical, psychology.
d)	Conventional – involves rule-regulated activities and sublimation as personal needs to an organisation or person of power and status.	→	Accounting, finance, corporate management.
e)	Enterprising – involves verbal activities to influence others, to attain power and status.	→	Law, public relations, small business management.
f)	Artistic – involves self-expression, artistic creation, or emotional activities.	→	Art, music, writing.

Source: Holland, J.L., (1985). Making vocational choices. A theory of vocational personalities and environments. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed) p.86. Englewood Cliffs, Prentice Hall.



ii. *Personality organisation fit*

Kristof-Brown (2002) states that more than compensation having a position that suits one's temperament is the key to job satisfaction. When candidates articulate that they have job-relevant skills, experiences and personal characteristics, they portray an image of good personality-Job fit. It was recently demonstrated that recruiters' perceptions of Personality-Job fit are a better predictor of hiring recommendations than are other fit perceptions (i.e., person-organisation fit) or objective qualifications. The judgement of personality-Job fit encompasses the applicant's perceived competence and whether he or she is seen holistically as the "right type of person" for a particular position.

According to Baldwin, the traditional paradigm of employers basing a candidate's ability to handle the vacated position on his/her resume and worrying about whether or not he or she fits into the company's corporate model after being hired, is no longer feasible (Boland, 2001).

Davis (2000) believes turnover can be minimised by keeping employees happy, comfortable, and motivated. This begins with what might appear to be a very simple premise: matching the right people to the right jobs. When an individual's behaviour and motivation are congruent with the job they have been hired to do they have job comfort. When their behaviour (or "personality type") and motivation are not congruent with the job, they have job discomfort and when people experience job discomfort, they will probably try to find job comfort by changing jobs since it is much easier to change jobs than personalities.

Bordeaux (2001) suggests that clarifying each employee's responsibilities and duties ensures that employees fit the business's future growth – not the other way around. Clearly written job descriptions, which managers can refer to at least once a year, is a great step forward in planning for the responsibilities of future growth within the company. Job descriptions clarify for each current job holder – and anyone who may hold that position in the future – the tasks he or she is expected to perform. Written descriptions also indicate the degree of authority and responsibility each employee has within the company structure and the person to whom he or she is accountable for the proper performance of the work.

### 3.1.1.6 Culture Fit

According to Himmelsbach (1999), the right cultural fit results in increased performance. In other words, more appropriate personalities are more adept at implementing that organisation's technologies. Managers want workers who will fit into an organisation's culture. Getting the right fit, leads to overall satisfaction: "Without a proper soft-skill fit, this key enabling function is easily lost on a potential client".

### 3.1.1.7 Personality Traits and Job-fit

Personality tests are used to help screen job candidates for attributes that would help them succeed in a position. Personality assessments shed light on each person's needs, attitudes, motivations and behavioural tendencies.

According to Bates (2000), researchers caution against using a personality test as the only criterion in hiring.

Bates (2000) states that personal assessment should not be a substitution for measuring a person's skill or knowledge", it should be "included in the battery" of evaluation tools. A personality assessment is used as a tool. It's not absolute. "It's not an infallible profile. The hiring manager must take a holistic view of the applicant to ensure that there is a good match".

A psychological test can be used if it is job-related, if it does not discriminate against any racial or ethnic group and if it does not invade privacy unnecessarily (Bates, 2002).

## 3.2 ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS

### I. Introduction

According to Nel (2001), individuals set certain personal goals they wish to achieve in life, on the basis of their unique personalities, needs and expectations, and to achieve these goals, individuals have to work and earn money. Therefore, they join organisations with the sole purpose of achieving their personal goals, as this results in need satisfaction.

Several factors in the organisation have an influence on the job satisfaction of employees in the organisation. These factors can be grouped under three main headings namely: **the job content environment**, which includes factors such as the work itself, recognition, advancement, the possibility of growth and other. **The job context environment**, which includes factors such as organisational culture and climate, management philosophy, leadership style, policies, working conditions and interpersonal and group relations. The third heading is **the external environment** which includes the labour market and economic conditions, education level, unionism and national human resources policy (Nel, 2001).

#### 3.2.1 Job content, context an external environment

##### 3.2.1.1 The Job content environment

This is also referred to as the psychological work environment and it is the most significant environment in terms of its relation to individual performance as the basic cornerstone of success in an organisation.

The job content environment is related to the psychological satisfaction experienced by the employee while doing the job for which he or she applied and was appointed. This environment also serves three functions, namely:

- *Cognitive function* – which refers to the stimulus value of the job, that is the extent to which it creates interest (DeSimone, 1998).

- *The affective function* – the emotional aspect, the feeling or attitude inclination towards the job as such.
- *The conative function* – the volitional aspect of employees (Gordon, 1999).

Herzberg found that factors relating to the job itself can have a positive effect on job satisfaction and result in increased output. He called these factors motivators or growth factors. These factors include: achievement, recognition, the job itself, progress or growth, responsibility and feedback (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998).

According to Ford (1969) emphasis is on job characteristics rather than individual differences. Ford argues that jobs with opportunities for achievement, recognition, responsibility, promotion and growth in competence are jobs that will promote motivation and job satisfaction.

Turner et al (as cited in Wanour, 1974), identify six attributes that jobs need to have namely, variety, autonomy, compulsory and optional interaction, required knowledge and skills and responsibility.

Hackman and Oldham (1976), propose the idea of a Job Characteristics model, and identify five critical job dimensions, namely; skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. The authors observe that jobs that possess autonomy give the job incumbent a feeling of personal responsibility for the results and that if a job provides feedback, the employee will know how effective he or she is performing. From a motivational standpoint, the model indicates that internal rewards are obtained by an individual when she/he learns that she/he personally has performed well on a task that she/he cares about. Thus, if autonomy, responsibility and feedback are present, the employee's motivation, performance and satisfaction will be greater (Hackman, 1977).

Some of the elements mentioned above will be briefly discussed:

i. *Nature of the job*

The nature of the job means what the job entails; whether it affords the employee the opportunity to utilise his or her abilities to their full potential; whether there are opportunities for self-actualization in the job and if opportunities exist to be creative and to use one's own initiative. This also includes whether the job is interesting and in line with what the employee wants to do and also if there is room for independent decision makings. The idea is also to check whether the job offers variety.

Robbins (1997) states that mentally challenging work is preferred by employees, as it gives them the opportunity to use their skills and abilities, offers a variety of tasks, allows freedom and gives feedback on how well they are doing. Work with little challenge creates boredom, but too much challenge creates frustration and feelings of failure. Under conditions of moderate challenge, most employees will experience pleasure and job satisfaction.

The job characteristics model proposed by Hackman and Oldham (as cited in Kreitner and Kinicki, 1998), is based on the idea that the task itself is the key to employee motivation. If certain elements of the job is enriched it leads to altered psychological states in employees that influence both their work performance and satisfaction positively. Nel et al (2001), identify five critical job dimensions.

The first three dimensions impact on the meaningfulness of the work.

- *Skill variety* – the job requires a person to do a variety of tasks that require skills and talents.
- *Task identity* – a person is responsible for a completely identifiable piece of work.
- *Task significance* – the impacts of the job on other people e.g. the job's impact on customer satisfaction.

- *Autonomy* – the job allows the person to experience the freedom and discretion to plan, schedule and execute the task.
- *Feedback* – the person receives factual information on how effectively the job is done.

The following are the critical psychological factors influenced by the core job dimensions as identified by Nel et al (2001).

- *Experienced meaningfulness* – the job must be perceived by the employee as highly important, worthwhile and valuable.
- *Experienced responsibility* – the employee must feel that he is personally responsible for the successful completion of the work.
- *Knowledge of results* – effective feedback helps an employee to understand the level of performance, and serves as a basis for goal setting and improved performance.

ii. *Job guidelines and goals*



This element entails directing an employee’s work behaviour in accordance with the goals of the organisation (Cherrington, 1995).

Employees should know what, how and why they perform various duties/tasks. They should know what is expected of them, what they are accountable for and what standards they are to maintain. Job guidelines should spell out how employees should attempt to achieve personal goals (Nel et al, 2001). Hochgraf (1998) states that the ability to be creative and to have ownership of their work may be particularly important for employees.

### *iii. Utilisation*

According to Vroom (1996), the self-actualisation need is represented by the opportunity employees are given to utilise their capabilities. Quantitative utilisation refers to the amount of time an employee actually spends on the job daily, whereas qualitative utilisation refers to the utilisation of an employee's potential such as intelligence, skills and qualifications.

Employment opportunities for women generally are outside of densely populated areas in what could be described as low-level white-collar and unskilled blue-collar work in support and clerical fields (Falk & Lyson, 1988). Men frequently receive higher salaries than women, which perpetuates a perception of pay inequity and pay discrimination in a variety of industries (Anderson and Tomaskovic-Devey, 1995; Pfeffer and Ross, 1990). In academia alone, women earn less compared to men when the effects of education, academic field and individual contributions are controlled (Ferber & Green, 1982). Women in academia experience a variety of promotion challenges as well (Broder, 1993).

According to Marongiu and Ekehammar (1999)

“a person's self-concept and his or her identification to a job or organisation can be weakened by negative work conditions. The psychological gender development theories place emphasis on the development of confidence through interpersonal contact, and “the integrity of women's self concept might be threatened by separation and distancing of the self from others”. The psychological separation women feel combined with a lower self-image could negatively affect their perceptions of job responsibility”.

Surveys should be done to gather information on the following questions: Are employees busy every day, all day? Can the employee cope with what has to be done, and are they utilised according to their abilities, qualifications, experience and training?

iv. *Status and recognition*

According to Vroom (1996), there is a casual relationship between the type of job an employee has and the status enjoyed. Vroom (1996), describes it as follows:

“A job is a description or a tag which makes the person. Status is the value linked to a job within a specific organisation by the organisation itself and by other employees of the organisation”.

Recognitions comes from the respect an employee enjoys among colleagues in an organisation, which is the result of the status value of the job. It is also the recognition an organisation affords an employee for good performance (Vroom, 1996). One should find out whether employees are proud of their jobs, as this indicate the status and the recognition they themselves give to the job.

In a survey done by Gale (1999) to determine the importance of compensation respondents were asked to rate compensation along with four other factors in terms of how important they are in motivating them. Compensation led the pack in first-place votes – but only 28.5 percent of respondents rated it as most important. This means more than 70 percent of respondents are primarily motivated by something other than money such as, the satisfaction of helping the company run efficiently, working with cutting-edge technology, appreciation from users and managers, or learning new skills.

Although an informal reward, praise is effective in building relationships and sustaining high morale, peer appreciation and praise is also very powerful for building and sustaining high-performing teams (Bragg, 2000).

According to Nelson, the number one desired form of reward by employees is verbal appreciation or praise by their immediate boss. The number two desired form of reward is written appreciation or praise by their immediate boss (Bragg, 2000).



Bragg describes a bad manager as someone who folds his arms, sits back and mutters: "I don't have to tell them they are doing a good job because they are just doing what we pay them to do". A despised manager uses this approach. People who are treated like they are pieces of meat or commodities, will quickly detest working for such a manager. Bragg suggests that employers should look for the good in their employees and give plenty of honest, sincere appreciation.

v. *Development*

In an ideal world, one would be able to hire people with the exact skills needed and who could come to work and be productive from day one. But not only is the world far from ideal, in the current tight labour market, demand for skilled workers far exceeds supply. By being willing to hire trainable people who may not have all the skills an employee needs, she/he will expand his/her pool of potential candidates and may well end up with better matches between individuals and jobs (Lynn, 2000). Employees who are unable to meet changed job expectation or requirements because of technological changes, become superfluous and redundant. One solution is to focus on the trainability of candidates, rather than their immediate skills.

Development refers to development possibilities within a job or position for a specific employee, with reference to the employee's personal growth and personal goals. Eckhert (2000) notes that human resources management processes must assess the opportunities for training and development. The extent to which employees experience psychological or personal job satisfaction within the job content environment determines to a large extent the quality and quantity of these employees' outputs. What matters more than selecting a training medium or programme, is correctly identifying the key training need for each individual.

One way to make better use of on-the-job experience for management development would be to have a method to assess the developmental components of jobs. A first step in that direction is the Developmental Challenge Profile (McCauley, Ruderman, Ohlott & Morrow, 1994).

In a study done by Law (1999), corporate managers cite poor training as the cause for quality problems, internal and external customer dissatisfaction, poor morale and bad attitudes among employees and lost teamwork and cooperation. No training at all is having the same effect.

vi. *Responsibility*

According to O'Toole (1997), the employment relationship is two-way. The organisation has responsibilities to the individual, as much as the individual has responsibilities to the organisation. Employment is a mutual social transaction.

Responsibility is an obligation to perform, in other words when one is given rights, one also assumes a corresponding obligation to perform. Responsibility cannot be delegated, because the delegator is being held responsible for the actions of his or her delegates (Robbins, 1991). According to Britt (1999), responsibility generally refers to an individual's involvement with various work-related events and their outcomes because the consequences have implications for individuals identity.

The Triangle Model, which was developed by Schlenker, Britt, Pennington, Murphy and Doherty (1994), specifies that responsibility is generally composed of triadic relationships among specific events, the rules that regulate these events and the identity images individuals have in certain situations. According to Britt (1999), the "amount of responsibility an individual feels on any given occasion is a direct function of the strength of the links between the elements and the importance of the elements to the individual". Schienker et al (1994) who empirically assessed the Triangle Model concluded that responsibility was indeed higher when all three relationships in the model were strong.

Using the principles prescribed by the model, the discrimination and stereotypes (the events), the pay inequity and biased policies (the rules and regulations), and the low self-concept and performance expectations (the identity images) could all synergistically lower women's perceptions of their own job responsibility. Reskin and Padavic (1994) make similar arguments that managers "often give women less authority than they give men with similar qualifications" and that women are commonly discouraged from using their power. If women's experiences

can be attributed in part to a lack of job authority, then their negative responses at work may also be attributed to a lack of enrichment.

vii. *Employee participation*

Employee participation, which increases motivation through power sharing and increased responsibility, is generally recognised as an exceptional predictor of many positive responses (Fried & Ferris, 1987; Sagie & Koslowsky, 2000). Employee participation involves giving employees and managers at all levels the chance to make key managerial decisions that have profound implications for other members of the organisation (Sagie & Koslowsky, 2000; Wagner & Gooding, 1987). Empirical research shows that these opportunities can increase job satisfaction and employee performance due to the ameliorated nature of the work itself (Cotton, Volirath, Froggatt, Lengnick-Hall, & Jennings, 1988; Sagie, 1994; Wagner, 1994), so encouraging participation and leadership development through increased work responsibility should therefore improve employees' experiences.

Despite representing almost half of the workforce, women's presence is much less noticeable in positions with executive responsibility (Whelan-Berry & Gordon, 2000). Even worse, women are frequently given assignments that are excluded from social and professional networking (Ohlott, Ruderman & McCauley, 1994; Snavely, 1993). In a study done by Ohlott et al (1994), male managers reported greater perceived responsibility than did female managers. Findings also indicated that perceived responsibility was positively related to both job satisfaction and employee monitoring.

In a study done by Fine and Pullins (1998) to assess employees' view on responsibility, interesting facts were noted. The results have several noteworthy implications for organisational leaders. The findings suggest that women's perceptions of their own job responsibility need to be changed and this may be accomplished through several carefully designed intervention measures. Mentor programmes for example are effective professional development tools that can be used to increase motivation, satisfaction and organisational commitment and decrease absenteeism and turnover.

Blau (1999) conclude that increased task responsibilities are related to overall job satisfaction. Kirkman and Rosen (1999) also found that production and service responsibilities given to 111 teams from four organisations enhanced team empowerment, which increased job satisfaction, organisational commitment and customer service delivery. Because job enrichment and employee involvement programmes generally yield positive work attitudes, it is also likely that perceived job responsibility, which can enhance employees' work appraisals and job satisfaction are positively related.

### 3.2.1.2 The Job context environment

This environment contains two important factors:

- The leadership element which entails the employees supervisors and the management cadre within the organisation.
- Salaries, promotion policy and fringe benefits are according to Herzberg called hygiene factors. These factors are primarily meant to satisfy of lower-order needs that include physiological, safety and social needs. They are an essential prerequisite for motivation to pursue the goals of the organisation.

All influences exerted on an employee because of his or her presence in the organisation are known as job context influences, affecting the employee in the job context environment (Porter, Lawler & Hackman, 1975).

An aspect which has the most influence on the work behaviour of individuals in organisational settings is the design of the organisation itself, the structural factors that constitute the basis, form and nature of the organisation. According to Schein (1980), individual employees experience interpersonal satisfaction through interaction with peers, superiors, subordinates and clients in the execution of the job. Intra-group satisfaction refers to the satisfaction an employee experiences through membership of informal groups. According to Maslow (1954), human beings will always try to establish social relationships and have a need to belong and to be accepted by a group.

The following elements can have a positive or negative effect on the individual employee's functioning and his or her inclination to perform:

*i. Organisational culture*

a) Definitions

Organisational culture is a common perception held by the organisation's members, a system of shared meaning; key characteristics that the organisation values (Becker, 1989).

An organisation's culture describes the part of its internal environment that incorporates a set of assumptions, beliefs and values that members of the organisation share and use to guide their functioning (Kilmann, Saxton & Serpa 1986).

According to Ott (1989), organisational culture is defined as a set of values, beliefs, norms, artifacts and patterns of behaviour that are shared by organisation members and are used to understand and guide behaviour. Ott (1989) defines artifacts as material and non-material objects and patterns that intentionally communicate information about the organisation's technology, beliefs, values, assumptions, and ways of doing things. Material artifacts include documents, physical layout or arrangements, furnishings, patterns of dress, and non-material artifacts include organisational stories, ceremonies, and leadership styles.

It seems that individuals who understand an organisation's culture are better able to accurately interpret organisational events, know what is expected of them and behave in appropriate ways in novel or unfamiliar situations (DeSimone et al, 1998).

b) Functions of culture

According to Robbins (1991) an organisation's culture has the following functions:

- It has a boundary-defining role: that is, it creates distinctions between one organisation and another.
- It conveys a sense to identify with members of the organisation.
- It facilitates the generation of commitment to something larger than one's individual self-interest.
- It enhances social system stability.
- It is the social glue that helps hold the organisation together by providing standards for what employees should say and do.
- It serves as a sense-making and control mechanism that guides and shapes the attitudes and behaviour of employees.

A report written by Verespei (1998), states that

“if learning is to take place, there must be a culture of openness and trust that is more than empty words. When the culture that employees experience daily matches the culture that management claims to exist in the organisation, the employees will be more receptive to learning”.

- According to Hill (2000), cycle time and costs can be slashed by cultivating a culture of internal knowledge sharing.

ii. *Organisational climate*

a) Definitions

Steele and Jenks (1977) describe organisational climate as the human environment within which an organisation's employees do their work. It may refer to the environment within a department, a major company unit such as a branch plant, or an entire organisation.

Davis (1992) states that:

- Climate can influence motivation, performance, and job satisfaction. It does this by creating certain kinds of expectancies about what consequences will follow from different actions. Employees expect certain rewards, satisfactions and frustrations on the basis of their perception of the organisation's climate.

Organisations, like fingerprints and snowflakes, are always unique. Each has its own culture, traditions and methods of action which, in their totality, constitute its climate. Some organisations are bustling and efficient; others are easy going. Some are quite human; others are hard and cold. An organisation tends to attract and keep people who fit its climate, so that its patterns are to some extent perpetuated. Just as people may choose to move to a certain geographic climate of sea, mountains or desert, they also will choose to organisational climate they prefer.

b) Elements of a favourable climate

Davis further states that employees and employees want a more favourable climate because of its benefits, such as better performance and job satisfaction. Employees feel that the climate is favourable when they are doing something useful that provides a sense of personal worth. They frequently want challenging work that is intrinsically satisfying.

The following elements contribute to a favourable climate (Muchinsky, 1977).

- Quality of leadership
- Amount of trust
- Communication, upward and downward
- Feeling of useful work
- Responsibility
- Fair rewards
- Reasonable job pressures
- Opportunity
- Reasonable controls, structure and bureaucracy
- Employee involvement; participation.

Many employees also want responsibility. They want to be listened to and treated as if they have value as individuals. They want to feel that the organisation really cares about their needs and problems (Davis, 1992).

The Human resource management process should be directed at monitoring the outputs of the organisation, such as labour turnover, absenteeism, grievances, complaints and productivity, as there is a correlation between these variables and organisational climate (Nel et al, 2001).

### *iii. Management philosophy*

People make assumptions in respect of others and the way in which they perceive and interact with others. People's social behaviour is based on the way in which they believe other people behave (Nel et al, 2001).

Owners and chief executives of companies can most easily create a culture. They set the rules, regulations and rewards in their organisations. Their behaviours at the start-up of a firm reflect their assumptions and values and encourage the desired employee behaviours that ultimately become the corporate culture (Gordon, 1999).



a) Competencies required for managers

Gordon (1999) identifies five key characteristics that effective managers need to function effectively in today's organisations.

- *Adaptability*

Managers must recognize and respond to ongoing and unexpected changes and be able to alter plans and activities in a timely fashion to respond to new pressures and demands.

- *Awareness of State-of-the-Art Practice*

Managers need a repertoire of techniques for handling organisational situations and addressing problems.

- *Critical thinking Ability*

Managers must have problem-solving skills if they are to apply the right techniques in a particular situation.

- *Creativity*



Managers need to demonstrate creativity in inventing new options or reconfiguring conventional approaches.

- *Interpersonal Effectiveness*

The increasing emphasis on teamwork and collaboration in organisations heightens the importance of a manager's strong interpersonal skills.

b) Management functions

According to Fayol (as cited in Gordon, 1999), managers perform five management functions, namely:

- *Planning*

Defining goals, establish strategy and developing plans to coordinate activities.

- *Organizing*

Determining what tasks are to be done, who is to do them, how the tasks are to be grouped, who reports to whom and where decisions are to be made.

- *Leading*

Includes motivating subordinates, directing others, selecting the most effective communication channels and resolving conflicts.

- *Controlling*

Monitoring activities to ensure they are being accomplished as planned and correcting any significant deviations.

- *Commanding*

This is the ordering of subordinates to engage in work behaviour, to fulfill their own personal and organisational goals.

c) Management roles

Mintzberg (1973) states that managers perform ten different highly interrelated roles. These roles are as follows:

- *Interpersonal roles*

Roles that include figurehead, leadership and liaison activities.

- *Informational roles*

Roles that include monitoring, disseminating and spokesperson activities.

- *Decisional roles*

Roles that include those of entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator and negotiator.

d) Communication

According to Robbins (1991), communication can be described as the transference and understanding of meaning.

If communication in an organisation improves, there would be less interpersonal conflict and productivity would increase (Thomas & Schmidt, 1976). Top management's lack of commitment to effective communication can create a major barrier to clear understanding of orders given. Since top management both sets policies and serves as role models, its support for quality communication is critical. Gordon (1999) suggests that top executives should conduct regular meetings or other forums for communicating with their employees. Executives should schedule regular meetings with employees to share concerns. Regular visits can be made to work sites to talk with employees.

iv. *Leadership style*

It is the way in which management philosophy manifests itself in practice. Managerial leadership and supervision have an important impact on the motivation, commitment, adaptability and satisfaction of employees (Nel et al, 2001). Robbins (1991) define leadership as the ability to influence a group towards the achievement of goals. Leadership, according to Daves (1992), is the ability to persuade others to seek defined objectives enthusiastically. It is the human factor that binds a group together and motivates it towards goals. Leadership is the use of non-coercive influence to direct and coordinate the activities of a group toward accomplishing a goal (Jago, 1982).

a) Leadership styles

According to House (1971)

“the Path-goal Theory provides a way of diagnosing leadership style needed in very complex organisational situations. According to this theory, leaders attempt to influence their employees’ perceptions of the payoffs for accomplishing their goals and show them ways to achieve those goals. The nature of the situation, specifically the characteristics of the task, subordinates and environment, affect the impact of the leader’s behaviour on follower satisfaction and effort”.

A leader chooses among four styles.

- *Directive*

A leader tells employees what he expects of them, gives them guidance about what they should do and shows them how to do it.

- *Supportive*

A leader shows concern for the well-being and needs of her employees by being friendly and approachable.

- *Participative*

A leader involves employees in decision making, consults with them about their views of the situation, asks for their suggestions, considers those suggestions in making a decision and sometimes lets the employees make the decisions.

- *Achievement orientated*

A leader helps employees set goals, rewards the accomplishment of these goals and encourages employees to assume responsibility for achieving the goals.

b) Leadership traits

Certain traits differentiate leaders from non-leaders. Research has been done to identify certain traits that were consistently associated with leadership (Stogdill, 1974). The five traits which show consistently positive correlations with leadership are:

- intelligence
- dominance
- self-confidence
- high energy level
- task-relevant knowledge

c) Contingency dimensions

The Fiedler contingency model proposes that effective group performance depends upon the proper match between the leader's style of interacting with his or her subordinates and the degree to which the situation gives control and influence to the leader. Fiedler (1967) developed an instrument which he called the least preferred co-worker (LPC) questionnaire, that purports to measure whether a person is task or relationship orientated. He identified the following three contingency dimensions that define the key situational factors that determine leadership effectiveness.

- *Leader-member relations* – the degree of confidence, trust and respect subordinates have in their leader.
- *Task structure* – the degree to which the job assignments are procedurised.
- *Position power* – the degree of influence a leader has over power variables such as hiring, firing, discipline, promotions and salary increases.

d) Leadership roles

According to Wells (1996), any employee, whether a manager or not, can act as a leader by taking on one or more of the following nine roles:

**Sages** - expand their knowledge about a wide array of subjects and use it to design strategy.

**Visionaries** - inspire large groups of people to go beyond their previous accomplishments.

**Magicians** - coordinate change by bridging the gap between where the organisation is and where it should be.

**Globalists** - consolidate the experiences of people across cultures by demonstrating an interest in the diversity and finding a common ground.

**Mentors** - help employees advance in their careers by helping them learn and work to their potential.

**Allies** - form effective teams and alliances.

**Sovereigns** - take responsibility for decisions they make even if it involves risk or uncertainty.

**Guides** - use clearly stated principles based on core values to guide their employees' tasks and attain goals.

**Artisans** - try to improve performance by ensuring the quality of a company's products and production processes.

e) The Supervisor's role

Supervisors are part of management and they direct the work of others. They are management's point of contact with workers and vice versa. They certainly are key people in management, but they also receive pressures from both sides and they need to be behavioural specialists in dealing with their people (Davis, 1992).

The two constructs, leader-member exchange (LMX) and liking (i.e. whether the subordinate like his or her supervisor), attempt to capture the social interactions in the work place. Following the Leadership Making Model subordinates who engage in constructive interaction and exchange with their supervisors (i.e., have high leader-member exchange (LMX) scores) would lead to various positive individual outcomes (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991; Graen & Wakabayashi, 1994). Many studies have found that LMX is related to job satisfaction (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982; Stepina, Perrewe, & Hassell, 1991; Turban, Jones, & Rozelle, 1990).

The second construct representing supervisor-subordinate interaction namely, liking, reflects the extent to which the subordinate likes his or her supervisor (Singer, 1984). If a relatively new employee holds a positive attitude towards his or her supervisor, he or she may have a more favourable attitude towards the organisation in general and the job in particular.

Previous research indicates that employees often treat male and female supervisors differently. Some studies have shown that subordinates show a preference for male leadership (Cann & Siegfried, 1987), some have concluded that female subordinates trust male supervisors more than they trust female supervisors (Jeanquart-Barone & Sekaran, 1994), and others show that subordinates are more likely to blame female managers for negative work outcomes (Cooper, 1997). Evidence also suggests that gender attitudes may affect the evaluation of and preference for females leadership (McGlashan et al, 1995).

Studies show that an employee's direct supervisor has the most influence on whether he or she finds a job satisfying. Working with a manager who "understands" employees and gives them some choices in their work lives, tends to improve the satisfaction level of most employees (Hochgraf, 1998).

Supervisors who perceive greater responsibility in their work may therefore be more satisfied with their jobs. Reskin and Padavic (1994), indeed claim that "workers value authority in its own right", and that "having authority increases workers' job satisfaction".

Supervisors who perceive greater job responsibility and enrichment may also be more likely to monitor the activities of their employees. Monitoring typically involves assessing employee performance, providing employee feedback and implementing control mechanisms that enable employees to succeed in their jobs. Monitoring can therefore be considered a critical aspect of supervision because it enhances employee performance and productivity (Valentine, 2001).

Although employee monitoring has not been fully explored in the organisational sciences (using the present definition), Fried and Ferris (1987) and Fried (1991) concluded that many of the job factors proposed by Hackman and Oldham (1980) are related to employee performance. However, other studies have presented less encouraging results (Cotton, 1993; Kelly, 1992), and



few studies have examined the enrichment-performance link using a supervisory scope. Consequently, further inquiry into the supervisory process using unique measures of performance and supervision is required.

v. *Structures and Personnel policy*

The structures of an organisation are related to the management style of its management cadre. Mintzberg (1992), states that the structures of an organisation may be defined as the sum total of the way in which its labour is divided into specified tasks and the degree of coordination achieved between these tasks.

Gibson, Ivancevich, Danelly (1976), regard a personnel policy as having a direct influence on employee functioning. Examples of this influence are:

a) The Compensation Policy



Guidelines for the compensation policy of the organisation are:

- There must be a common pay structure, based on an accredited job evaluation system, which applies throughout the organisation.
- Employees must be paid according to the value of the job performed.
- Salaries of the lowest remunerated employees are pegged at the minimum living level or the supplementary living level.
- An employee's race, or sex is no factor in determining that employee's salary.
- Job evaluation must be done to analyse jobs to determine their relative worth within organisations (Nel et al, 2001).

According to Hackman (1989), individuals compare their job inputs and outcomes with those of others and then respond as to eliminate any inequities. This is known as the Equity Theory.

Based on equity theory, when employees perceive an inequity they can be predicted to make one of six choices (Wall, Kemp, Jackson & Clegg, 1986). The choices are:

- Change their inputs – do not exert as much effort.
- Change their outcomes – increase pay by producing a higher quantity of units of low quality.
- Distort perceptions of self – I work much harder than others.
- Distort perception of others – my friend’s job is not as desirable as I thought.
- Choose a different referent – I do not make as much as Peter, but I’m doing a lot better than Sam.

According to Bragg (2000), monetary compensation is important. Psychologists argue, though, that money is a short-term motivator at best. Over time, the psychology of entitlement takes over and money quickly loses its effectiveness as a motivator.

Although the booming economy has given most employees enough wealth to stop worrying about basic needs such as food and clothing, the economy has also seduced them with ever-higher materialistic goals, such as making more money and buying bigger cars. The drive for money actually has the opposite effect. It causes workers to give up the things that actually do create happiness. Instead of blaming misplaced values for their despair, they blame their jobs (Caudron, 2001).

b) Reward system

A good reward system is needed to encourage employees to perform to their best ability. Bragg (2000), gives six principles for an effective reward system.

- Reward must support organisational goals. Reward the behaviour to be repeated. First, identify the type of behaviour that will help the organisation achieve its goals. Next, decide how the organisation succeed.
- Rewards must be fair. Fairness is in the eye of the beholder. Fairness is subjective, and perception is reality. Usually, employees perceive a reward as fair if they believe that everyone has an equal chance of qualifying for the reward. Employees view a reward as unfair if only a few employees can obtain the reward.
- Rewards must promote cooperation. Rewards should encourage people to work together. Although competition can spur employees to great achievement, it can also destroy teamwork because of envy, jealousy and resentment. Competition often creates winners and losers. Cooperation allows everyone to win. The way to make rewards a win-win is to reward employees who achieves a certain level of productivity.
- Rewards must have a positive impact on performance. The impact of a reward is often difficult to predict. Use short-term trials to test reward programs to make sure they have a positive impact on performance.
- Rewards must be effective in good times and bad times.
- Rewards must focus performance on serving the customer.

According to Michael LeBoeuf, author of *The Greatest Management Principle in the World*,

“employees do what you reward them for. If you want to change people’s behaviour and get them to improve their performance, you must influence their perception of how you reward them for their behaviour and performance (<http://www.findarticles.com>)”.

c) Job Specialisation

According to Carrell et al (1998), specialisation-intensive jobs are those that are characterised by very few, repetitive tasks, which require few skills and little mental ability. Job specialisation is also known as job simplification and it is designed for people with very limited skills or little experience.

A number of problems can be caused by job specialisation, which are:

- routine tasks, if repeated several times causes boredom;
- the mechanical speed of a production line causes employees who find the pace too slow to divert their attention away from the task at hand;
- employees, who are not part of the entire process and never see the end product, have little pride or enthusiasm for their work;
- no or little social interaction;
- employees do not make inputs regarding how the job should be performed, work procedures, tools used – which then creates a lack of interest, as employees are unable to change or improve anything (Nel, 2001).

Limited, uniform, and repetitive tasks yield a narrow job range. The consequences of a narrow job range are job discontent, high dissatisfaction, turnover and absenteeism (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1999).

- *Job enlargement*

Job enlargement, expands the scope of the job by increasing the number of different but related processes a person does. Workers perform numerous, often unrelated, job tasks (Robbins, 1997).

Job extension, is a process in which workers do more of the same types of activities. Employer satisfaction increased and boredom is reduced (Kilbridge, 1960).

Job rotation, is a process where the worker performs two or more tasks but alternates them in a predefined way over a period of time. This way workers are trained in numerous jobs (Gordon, 1999).

- *Job enrichment*

Job enrichment involves changing a job both horizontally by adding tasks and vertically by adding responsibility. Self-managed teams are used in organisations. Employees in these teams perform many types of tasks and receive training on many jobs so that they can exchange jobs with other workers when necessary.

A job can be enriched by increasing any of the following core dimensions:

Combining tasks – This increases skill variety and task identify.

Forming natural work units – This distributes work in a natural and logic way, increases task identity and task significance.

Establishing client relationships –This increases skill variety, autonomy and feedback.

Loading a job vertically – Used to combine implementation and control increases autonomy.

Opening feedback channels – to increase knowledge of result.

Job enrichment brings about the following benefits (Davis, 1992):

- Employee growth and self-actualisation
- Improved motivation

- Better job performance
- Less turnover
- Less absenteeism
- Fewer grievances
- Reduced idle time
- Greater job satisfaction
- Greater effectiveness as a citizen in the community.

Job enrichment encourages growth, self-actualisation and motivation, therefore performance should improve, thus providing both a more human and a more productive job with greater job satisfaction (Davis, 1992).

d) Promotion

According to Nel et al (2001), a promotion occurs when an employee is moved from one job to another that is higher in pay, responsibility, or organisational level. Promotions are usually based on merit or seniority.

According to Werther and Davis (1993), merit-based promotions occur because of an employee's superior performance in his or her present job. The promotion is sometimes a "reward" for past efforts. There is a distinction between superior performance and other grades of performance, and those employees who are regarded as "Superior Performers" must be treated consistently when it comes to promotional opportunities. It is vital to consider that good performance in one job does not guarantee good performance in another (Nel et al, 2001).

Seniority-based promotions are given to the employees with the longest service. The best is to compare the seniority records of the candidates to determine who should be promoted (Nel et al, 2001).

Trade Unions can actively promote the interest of their members since they have the backing of the Labour Relations Act to ensure that fair promotion procedures are followed for promoting employees.

vi. *Working conditions*

Working conditions are created by the interaction of employees with their physical work environment. A distinction should be made between the:

A. **Physical working conditions**

a) **Available facilities**

Physical working conditions refer to the amount of work and the availability of facilities, such as production machinery and protective clothing and to aspects of the physical environment in which the employees work, such as ventilation, light and space. According to Madlala (1998), the police service is under-trained, ill-equipped and under-resourced. It is also common knowledge that policemen believe themselves to be grossly underpaid.

In terms of numbers, the common assumption is that South-Africa is under policed, but comparisons with other countries suggest otherwise (Shaw, 1996a). The problem is rather the maldistribution of police, which is a product of apartheid priorities. Not only are most police concentrated in former white residential areas – until recently about 80 percent of police were based in the suburbs and city centres, with only 8 percent in black townships. However the policing style in townships has been characterised more by crime control than prevention.

Reforms within the police service have focused more on visible policing (and community policing) than other activities. Detective work, for example, is a crucial part of the criminal justice process, but has been sorely neglected by policy makers (Shaw, 1996b). Detectives receive no overtime pay, have heavy workloads (each having as many as fifty dockets) and do not receive training (only about 26 percent have been on a detective course). As a result, incentives are few, and many experienced detectives leave the service for the private sector. Also in terms of staffing, many uniformed officers currently occupy administrative jobs: 80 percent of the 500 staff at the police's main warehouse in Pretoria for example, are trained officers. Meanwhile, Johannesburg's flying squad has no more than six of its 59 vehicles

operational at any one time because there are too few policemen on duty to drive them (Financial Mail, 15 December 1995).

b) Resignations and a lack of cooperation

The Financial Mail further reports that problems along the criminal justice pipeline are signaled by the fact that while the number of crimes reported to police continues to increase, the number of convictions decreases. The conviction rate has in fact been declining steadily over the past forty years, a trend which has been associated with a declining rate of cases solved by police (Glanz, 1996). However, problems within the prosecution service abound. Lack of experience, heavy workloads, a high rate of resignations among magistrates and prosecutors and a lack of cooperation between prosecutors and detectives take their toll. In terms of technology, prosecutors have no computer network to track and sort cases according to priority, resulting in poor management which adds to the workload.

c) Criminal justice breakdown

The cumulative impact of the breakdown in the criminal justice process is evinced by the problems with the system of incarceration in South Africa. Prisons themselves are overcrowded, under-staffed and plagued by prisoner and warder unrest and corruption (Thinane, 1996). Some of these problems, Thinane believes, can be attributed to sentencing and parole policies. Overcrowding is partly due to the courts' inclination to favour convictions with prison terms in an effort to 'get tough on crime'.

Thinane (1996), states that South Africa's high prison population rate of 311 people per 100 000 makes it one of the most punitive societies in the world. This dubious status is likely to become entrenched by the stricter parole and release policies announced in August 1996. Until recently, the Commissioner of Correctional Services had the power to cut sentences by as much as three quarters of the original term, which not only meant dangerous criminals could be released in an effort to relieve pressure on the system, but also created an environment conducive to corruption (Shaw 1996b & Powell, 1996).



d) Uniform problems

Members of the South African Police Service wear police uniforms which is part of their work outfits. Some of the members are also equipped with protective clothing, which is to be used in circumstances where they encounter dangerous situations. The purpose of the uniforms is to distinguish them from members of other services. Although these uniforms assist the public in recognising members of the force, the uniform also causes them to be a target of criminals.

e) Shift work

Members of the police force often have to engage in shift work. Mont & Folkhard (1983) identifies shift work as one of the most important problems associated with task. Many workers today, as indicated by Arnold, Robertson and Cooper (1991), have jobs which require them to work in shifts, some of which are said to involve staggering hours. The human being is not naturally a nocturnal creature. Activity is usually concentrated in the daylight, with the night given-over to rest.

f) Placement of physical objects and floor planning

The arrangement and positioning of physical objects in the workplace, or floor-planning as it is sometimes termed should allow the individual to perform his or her task both quickly and accurately. In accordance with Osborne (1982) it is suggested that optimum arrangement and positioning can best be achieved by adhering to the principles of sequence-of-use, functional similarity, importance and frequency-of-use. This argument applies to the allocation of floor space between individuals, as well as to the arrangement of physical objects within a particular floor space or workplace.

g) Physical distance

Physical distance obviously affects communication. Employees in close proximity can more easily communicate face to face, check the accuracy of their communication by requesting feedback and revise their communication. As physical distance increases, noise and other barriers of communication also increase, creating greater communication distortions (Gordon, 1998).

Physical environment provides the context of social behaviour and as such could to some extent facilitate or thwart social interaction. For formal communication, in which an individual can exercise discretion as to the medium through which to communicate, the likelihood of face to face conversation increases with the accessibility and proximity of individual workspaces. For formal communication, the preferred medium is face-to-face conversation. The chances of selecting a particular co-worker as a partner in conversation increase with the accessibility and proximity of his or her workspace (Sundstrom, 1986).

Hall (1966), distinguishes between different distance zones, which describe different interpersonal situations. These are labelled intimate, personal, social and public zones, and are shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Preferred interpersonal distances.

<b>Distance Zone</b>	<b>Approximate Interpersonal Distance (m)</b>	<b>Type of situation and Associated Behaviour</b>
Intimate	0 – 0,31	Emotional encounters with close friends, intimates. Low voice level.
Personal	0,31 – 1,21	Encounter with friends. Conversation voice level.
Social	1,21 – 3,65	Formal encounters. Normal voice level.
Public	3,65 – 7,62	Formal encounters. Raised voice level.

Source: Sandstorm (as cited in Hall, 1966). The Hidden Dimension. New York, Doubleday.

Whereas the purpose of psychological or interpersonal distance may be variously interpreted, it is suggested that it relates to the individual's needs for interaction, psychological comfort, privacy and influence (Blignaut, 1988). In the South African Police Service offices the space is limited, noise levels high and there is a lack of privacy.

Reaction to noise is ultimately a subjective experience (Kummer, 1983). Often the task itself is also a source of stress. Exposure to noise is associated with reported fatigue, headaches, irritability and poor concentration. Behavioural consequences are in terms of reduced performance, lower productivity rates and accident occurrence. Social behaviour is also influenced; for example, a reduction in "helping behaviour", a more extreme or negative attitude to others, more open hostility and overt aggression (Jones, 1983).

h) Thermal conditions

Physiological response to thermal conditions varies greatly between workers and within the same individual from one occasion to the next (Ramsey, 1983). The work environment is frequently characterised as too hot, too cold, too stuffy or too draughty and thus creates both physical and attitudinal problems (Smith, Cohen, Cleveland and Cohen, 1978). More dissatisfaction was expressed about overheated working conditions than about the cold. The general effect of working in overheated conditions is a negative reaction to one's surroundings and Smith et al (1978) state that this may result in lower tolerance to other aspects of the work and affect worker motivation.

i) Lighting

Poor lighting and glare lead to eye strain, damaged vision, headaches, visual fatigue, tension and frustration, because the task may be more difficult and time consuming (Pouldon, 1978). Many work environments require constant artificial lighting. Therefore, it is important that a workplace creates a pleasant environment which facilitates performance and promotes safety.

j) Underload and Overload

Both underload and overload of work cause dissatisfaction. Underload results from the employee being given too few tasks to complete in a given period of time. The individual feels his skills are not utilised. Overload results from the employee being given too many tasks to complete in a given period of time, which leads to the feeling that the individual is incapable of doing the job given (French & Caplan, 1973).

k) Long hours

According to Sutherland and Cooper (1992), working long hours has an overall impact. The individual spends less time on social relationships and so the benefits of social support as a buffer in a stressful jobs are reduced. It must be acknowledged that some individuals regard work and working hours as a psychological haven and a means of escape from the pressures of home and family and indeed in satisfactory personal relationships. French et al (1973), suggest that both over- and underload of work produce many different symptoms in addition to psychological and physical strain, e.g., job dissatisfaction, job tension, threat and lowered self-esteem.

l) Monotonous work

Work that is dull, repetitive and monotonous is equally detrimental to the individual's physical and mental well-being (Kornhauser, 1965). The job stress associated with passive, low skill demands, lack of variety, repetitiveness and low decision latitude work also spills over into leisure time and negatively affects life outside work (Gardell, 1976; as cited in ILO, 1986).

Some workers may be in a constant state of arousal, ready to react immediately. The resulting adrenalin rush, muscle tension and respiration changes might be a threat to long-term health. Bohemier (1985), suggests that it is human nature to avoid thinking about danger or death in a hazardous or risky environment and that it is necessary to block out some of the realities which the worker must otherwise continually face.

According to Van Niekerk and Prince (2000) the police officer comes into contact with a broad range of pathologies including family violence, sexual abuse and abuse of spouses or children, which he or she may not be equipped to deal with effectively, both in the emotional sense and otherwise. Furthermore, given the violent context in which police officers operate, they themselves are at great risk of becoming South African crime statistics. This clouds many a police officer's life experience.

The risks and hazards associated with many occupations cannot be changed but the perception of risk can be reduced by training and education.

## **B. The psychological working conditions**

This includes the psychological expectations of employees as to the psychological contract in respect of their working conditions, compared to what they actually experience.

The psychological contract is a type of social contract between the employee and the employing organisation. It is characterised by an exchange concept (Beehr & Newman, 1978). The organisation has expectations of what it will offer the individual in the area of work, e.g.

- a meaningful job
- opportunities for personal development
- challenging work
- compensation.

the individual expects to offer the organisation:

- the ability to execute tasks
- the ability to learn various aspects of the job
- the ability to work productively with groups of people
- the ability to use time and energy to the benefit of the organisation (Schein, 1980).

Schein further states that if a working relationship is to be developed and maintained between the individual and the organisation, both parties will have to respond to mutual expectations and needs. People put into the jobs, what they expect to get out of them, according to Vroom's Expectancy theory (as cited in Robbins, 1997).

According to DiMarco, there is a gap between expectations and reality. If job satisfaction is low, expectations could be relatively high. High or at least misplaced expectations do seem to be at the heart of the current job-satisfaction crises (<http://www.findarticles.com>).

### **C. Physical layout of the job**

This aspect refers to the neatness, organisation, convenience, attractiveness and stimulus value of an employee's micro work environment. Too many of the world's workforce are employed where hygienic conditions are poor, and exposure to accidents and diseases causes a constant threat to health (ILO, 1986). A clean and orderly place of work is important for both safety and hygiene reasons and for the morale of the workforce.

People need to establish psychological identity, but also to express their identity in a variety of ways. A person's environment must be personalized. Some means towards this end can be to have individuals select and arrange their furniture as they see fit and to respect and encourage aesthetic individuality, should items such as arrangements, family or other portraits and artifacts be displayed (Sommer, 1974). People need to feel they are in control over their environment.

#### *vii. Interpersonal and group relations*

Interpersonal relations can be defined as the whole range of human conduct between individuals who interact as they are involved in relationships of communicating, cooperating, problem solving and motivation.

Good relationships between members of a work group are considered a central factor in individual and organisational health. Poor relationships at work are defined as having “low trust low levels of supportiveness and low interest in problem solving within the organization”. Mistrust is positively related to high role ambiguity, which leads to inadequate interpersonal communications between individuals and psychological strain in the form of low job satisfaction, decreased well being and feelings of being threatened by one’s boss, supervisor and colleagues (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, Rosenthal, 1964; French and Caplan, 1973).

a) Relationship with the boss

Physicians and clinical psychologists support the view that problems with emotional stability often result when the relationship between a subordinate and a boss is psychologically unhealthy for one reason or another. In addition, it is believed, when a boss is perceived as considerate, this creates a friendly and mutual trust, respect and a certain warmth between boss and subordinate. Bosses perceived by their workers as low on consideration tend to feel more job pressure (Arnold, Cooper & Robertson, 1991).

One characteristic of female bosses is their perception of their leadership style as sensitive and responsive, especially to the people with whom they work. They want to involve their people and use various terms to describe this: being collaborative consensus building, facilitative, teambuilding, and participatory. It therefore seems likely that women monitor their employees’ work performance more so than do men in an effort to increase team building and cohesion (Valentine, 201).

b) Relationship with Subordinates

McLean (1979) suggests that social support in the form of group cohesion, interpersonal trust and liking of a supervisor is associated with decreased levels of perceived job stress and better health. Inconsiderate behaviour on the part of the supervisors appear to contribute significantly to feelings of job pressure (Buck, 1972; McLean, 1979) and close supervision and rigid performance monitoring can also be stressful.



c) Relationship with Colleagues

Poor working relationships with co-workers in an organisation is a potential source of job dissatisfaction; but as work group cohesiveness increases, anxiety about work-related matters decreases. Relationships among co-workers can provide valuable social support and this can ease job strain (Sutherland et al, 1992).

Although feelings of security and confidence may be generated by the sense of belonging to a stable work crew, the reverse can apply, as Sartre (cited in Quick and Quick, 1984) suggests: “hell is other people”. Interpersonal demands and social pressures which arise from social system relationships at work, may be potential sources of work dissatisfaction.

3.2.1.3 The external environment

- It refers to the areas, outside the organisation that affect employees via the organisation, as well as areas within the organisation that affect individual employees.

i. *The labour market*

An employee may be unhappy with his or her job content and job context environment in an organisation, but is forced to stay with the organisation because of labour market conditions. Such an employee will probably do just enough work not to be dismissed (Nel et al, 2001).

The state of the economy has a direct effect on employees compensation packages, job satisfaction and their willingness to leave the organisation. Dell states that

“one of the biggest reasons may be the fact that things have been so good for so long. Although the actual number of workers who have pocketed the big bucks is extremely low, widespread press attention about those who have has raised everyone’s expectations. This, in turn, has created a psychological climate in which those who have not scored financial windfalls are seized with envy and start subscribing to grass-is-greener thinking”.



“When the economy is good and people start thinking they can do better at other companies, their job dissatisfaction rises” (Caudron, 2001).

Caudron observes that at the other end of the spectrum are employees who do stay put at their companies and work harder than ever, hoping to share the riches they have helped to generate. This strike-while-the-iron-is-hot mentality has caused far too many workers to forfeit personal relationships, community involvement and workouts at the gym. Instead, they are putting in long hours at the office in an effort to make their mark and build their bonus packages. Granted, far too many companies still require overtime from employees. It is also with the expectation that they will be rewarded. If they are not ultimately rewarded as they expected to be, they feel taken advantage of and job satisfaction plummets.

ii. *Technological change*

Owing to the lack of skilled employees in the South Africa, organisations are sometimes forced to mechanise and this often leads to unemployment. These factors often have an direct effect on employees’ performance inclinations. Salas (2001), states that organisations must rely on workplace learning and continuous improvement in order to remain competitive. In addition, organisations have shifted their views about training from a separate, stand-alone event to a fully integrated, strategic component of the organisation. Investment made in training must be justified in terms of improved organisational performance increased productivity, profit, or safety; reduced error and enhanced market share (Huselid 1995, Martocchio & Baldwin 1997, Salas et al, 2000).



The greatest challenge of an organisation according to Wagner (2001), is to make sure its workforce is well trained, certified, qualified and proficient to work safely. The requests for training is to ensure that training is the correct intervention to a performance issue and that appropriate training is delivered to the right people, in the right medium, at the right time.

## 2.4 SUMMARY

At the bottom of the needs pyramid are physiological needs such as hunger and thirst. Once those needs are met, people pay attention to safety needs, such as avoidance of pain and anxiety. When a person feels safe, he or she can begin to seek a sense of belonging and love. Next comes the need for self-respect and mastery of a talent. Finally, people can begin to search for the pinnacle of human existence – a state that Maslow called “self-actualisation”.

It is generally assumed in need-satisfaction theories that employees come to the workplace with some pre-dispositional needs (Salancik & Pfeifer, 1977). If these needs are satisfied, employees will have positive attitudes towards their work, which, in turn, will generate constructive behaviour. Applying this need-based view to job satisfaction, a worker would be generally satisfied if s/he is satisfied in all important facets of job satisfaction (e.g., satisfaction with pay, with the supervisor, with co-workers, with promotion and with work itself). In other words, the facet satisfaction leads to overall satisfaction.

The same argument can be applied to job characteristics perception. Employees come to the workplace with pre-established needs for skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. A job that requires different skills, that is self-identified and significant, is autonomous and gives the employee constructive feedback that satisfies the pre-dispositional needs of the employees.

It is at this point that people have the time to seek truth, beauty, and the complete realisation of who they are as individuals (Caudron, 2001). One must strive to become the best person one can be.

The next chapter focuses on stress, burnout and job engagement.

## CHAPTER THREE

### LITERATURE SURVEY : STRESS

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

According to Hickley (2001),

the stress we experience on the job spills over into our personal lives as well, affecting our families and our physical and mental health. When we start to see pigs fly and cats bark, we know our lives are out of control. So how do we get a handle on the stress in our lives and develop strategies to balance the load?

Harpold (2002) describe the stress of police officers as follows:

“The day-to-day stress of dealing with people and their problems, especially the deeply disturbing aspects of dealing with critical incidents, can traumatize officers and poison their spirits. “Whoever fights monsters should see to it that in the process he does not become a monster. And, when you look into and abyss, the abyss also looks into you”. This aptly applies to the law enforcement profession because officers look into the abyss of evil and negative behaviour every day. Although they may face physical jeopardy, their souls remain constantly susceptible to poisoning with each encounter at the edge of the abyss”.

High levels of stress can interfere with your ability to perform your job, is rarely pleasurable and can lead to emotional and physical problems. Moderate stress in many cases increases productivity and can be pleasant for some people (Kristin, 2001).

It is not improbable; individuals can take control of their life by managing stress. According to Vernarec (2001), “stress is one-third what happens and two-thirds how you react to it”.

“ACCORDING TO HINCKLEY (2001), “STRESSED” SPELLED BACKWARDS IS ‘DESSERTS!’” (Hinckley, 2001).

## **2. DEFINITIONS**

According to Levi (as cited in Sutherland et al, 1998), a definition of stress is:

“poor-fit, that is “the interaction between, or misfit of, environmental opportunities and demands, and individual needs and abilities, and expectations, that elicit reactions.

Beehr and Newman (1978) define job stress as:

“a situation wherein job-related factors interact with a worker to change (i.e. disrupt or change) his or her psychological and or physiological condition such that the person (i.e. mind, or body) is forced to deviate from normal functioning!”

Schuler (as cited in Robbins, 1991), defines stress as

“a dynamic condition in which an individual is confronted with an opportunity, constraint, or demand related to what he or she desires and for which the outcome is perceived to be both uncertain and important”.

## **3. FORMS OF STRESS**

Stress is not always bad; it can also be good. There is a distinction between two different kinds of stress namely, bad, destructive stress (distress) and good or positive stress (eustress).

### **3.1 DISTRESS**

This is regarded as a unpleasant, detrimental or disease producing stress. In this chapter stress refers to distress.

## 3.2 EUSTRESS

Eustress is a pleasant or constructive form of stress. This form of stress is linked to the positive emotions experienced when being congratulated for doing a good job or negotiating a good agreement (Hillriegel & Slocum, 1989).

Since 1970, the National Crime Prevention Institute (NCPI) in Louisville, Kentucky, has taught that crime prevention is “the anticipation, recognition and appraisal of a crime risk; and the initiation of some action to remove or reduce it” (National Crime Prevention Institute (NCPI), 1986). Prior to the advent of a formal crime prevention philosophy at NCPI in 1970, a basic example of such action would have involved officers who worked the midnight shift checking for unlocked or open doors of businesses. When they found a door open or unlocked, they surmised that a thief could enter and steal what was inside. Recognising this as a crime risk, officers understood that something had to be done to remove this opportunity from the criminal. Therefore, officers would have called the business owner to come and secure the business, which would have removed or at least reduced the opportunity for theft.

According to Harpold (2002), the law enforcement community can apply this definition of crime prevention to the concept of negative stress reduction by simply substituting “negative stress”, or, more correctly, “distress” (as opposed to eustress or positive stress, such as winning the lottery), in the place of “a crime risk”. Now, officers have a working definition of stress reduction: “the anticipation, recognition, appraisal of distress and the initiation of some action to remove or reduce it”. Anticipation means that anyone can experience distress. The importance of recognition lies in the awareness of the particular distress that bothers someone the most. Appraisal relates to understanding stress and how it affects people in general and why certain distress bothers a person. With these concepts in mind, the law enforcement community can begin to “initiate some action to remove or reduce it (distress)”.

## 4. GENERAL ADAPTION SYNDROME (GAS)

### 4.1 RESPONSE-BASED APPROACH

The work of Hans Selye in the 1930s and 1940s marks the beginning of a response-based approach to the study of stress. In 1936, Selye introduced the notion of stress-related illness in terms of the general adaption syndrome (GAS) suggesting that, “stress is the non-specific response of the body to any demand made upon it ‘...’ (Selye, 1956). Selye’s focus was from a medical perspective (i.e. that all patients whatever the disease, looked and felt sick. This general malaise was characterised by loss of motivation, appetite, weight and strength. According to Selye,

“... the apparent specificity of diseases of adaption is ascribed to conditioning factors, such as generic predisposition, sex, age, learning and diet. Response to stress was deemed to be invariant to the nature of the stressor and followed a universal pattern”.

### 4.2 THREE STAGES OF RESPONSE ARE DESCRIBED WITHIN GAS

#### *i. Stage 1 – The alarm stage*

This stage is the immediate psycho- physiological response, when the initial shock phase of lowered resistance is followed by counter shock. At this time, defence mechanisms are activated, forming the emergency reaction known as the ‘fight or flight’ response. Heart rate and blood pressure increase (Sutherland et al, 1990).

#### *ii. Stage 2 – Resistance stage*

This stage is the stage during which the individual adapts to the stressful situation. Outwardly the individual may appear to be unstressed, but nonetheless physiological symptoms are still operative in order to deal with the stressful situation (Blignaut, 1988).

iii. *Stage 3 – The Exhaustion stage*

It denotes the stage where the stress mechanisms of the individual cannot maintain their resistance to a continued stressor, or combination of stressors. The alarm reaction is repeated and eventually, when too exhausted to facilitate adaptation, the coping mechanisms of the individual may collapse, with various behavioural and physiological consequences.

## **5. LIFE EVENTS AND DEPRESSION**

Immediate stress events like birth, illness, overwork and loss may precipitate acute depression, while stagnation and boredom may lead to chronic depression. The birth of a child may cause depression in both mother and father. In the mother it may be related to emotional stress or to hormonal changes. In the father it may be due to many different and unexpected emotional reactions to the child, to the change in family lifestyle, or to the increased financial burden. Acute depressive reaction following the death of a loved one is almost universal. However, repression of grief may also lead to long-lasting depression (Patel, 1991).

Patel (1991) reports that Brown and Harris from New Bedford College in London have carried out a lot of work on the relation between life events and depression and they fear that to quantify stress by just adding up the score of life events is too simplistic. It is not a particular life event per se but it's meaning to the person concerned that is important.

Holmes and Rahe (as cited in Patel, 1991), compiled a schedule of life events which commonly occur in life. In the right-hand column there are stress points. Higher points mean the likelihood that higher stress is created by that event. Each new and persistent stressor adds to an individual's stress level. A single stressor, in and of itself may seem relatively unimportant, but if it is added to an already high level of stress, it can aggravate the condition and lead to more stress. In order to appraise the total amount of stress an individual is under, it is necessary to sum up his or her opportunity stresses, constraints stresses and demand stresses (Robbins, 1991).

Table 3.1 Holmes and Rehe's Schedule of Recent life events.

<b>Life events</b>	<b>Stress points</b>
Death of spouse	100
Divorce	73
Marital separation	65
Jail term	63
Death of a close family member	63
Personal injury or illness	53
Marriage	50
Fired at work	47
Marital reconciliation	45
Retirement	45
Pregnancy	39
Business readjustment	39
Death of a close friend	37
Change to different line of work	36
Change in number of arguments with spouse	35
Taking out a large mortgage or loan	31
Foreclosure on mortgage or loan	30
Change in work responsibilities	29
Trouble with in-laws	28
Outstanding personal achievement	28
Spouse begins or stops work	26
Change in living conditions	25
Revision of personal habits	24
Trouble with boss	23
Change in work hours or conditions	20

Source: Holmes and Rehe (as cited in Patel, 1991). The complete guide to stress management. London, Plenum Press.

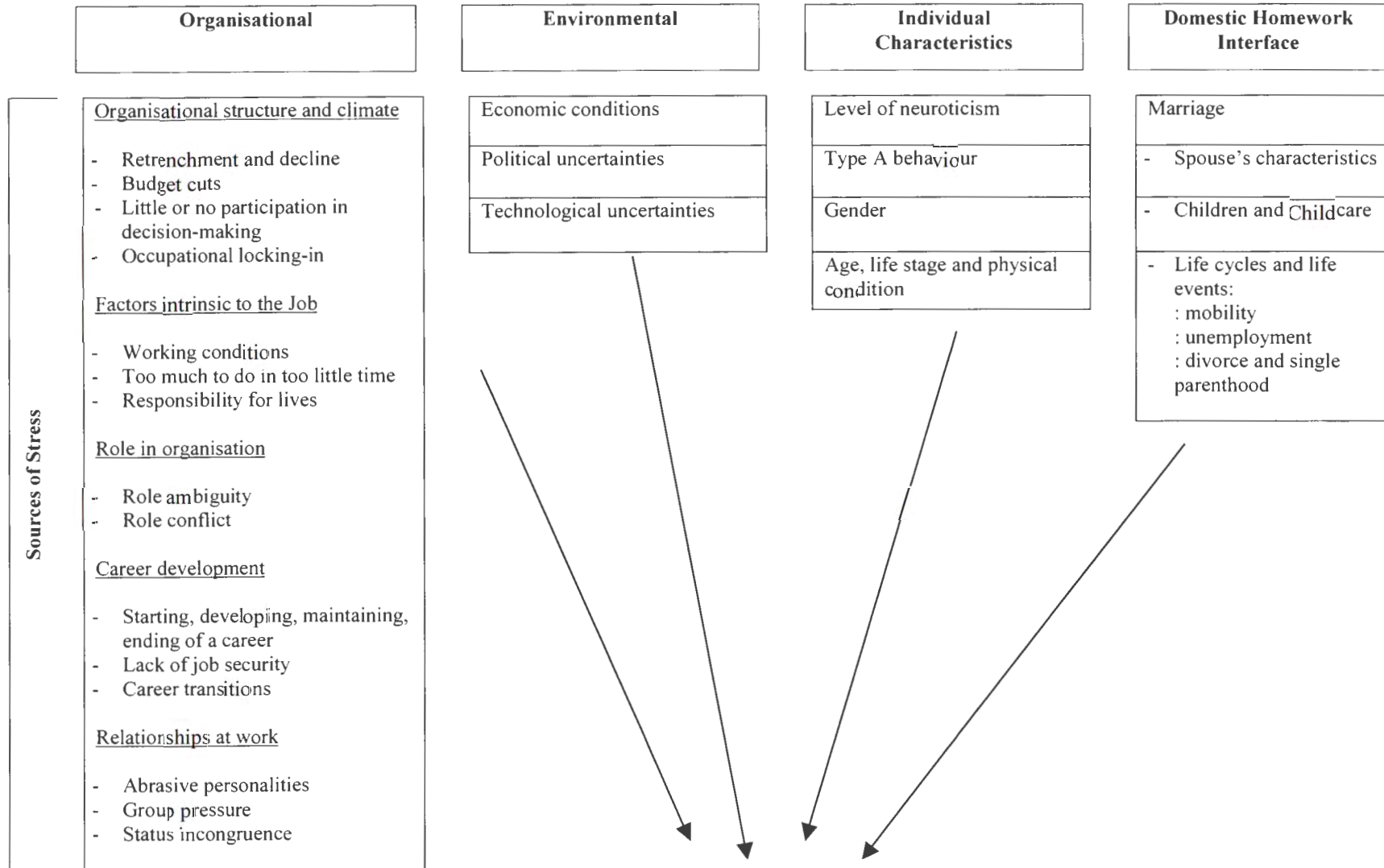


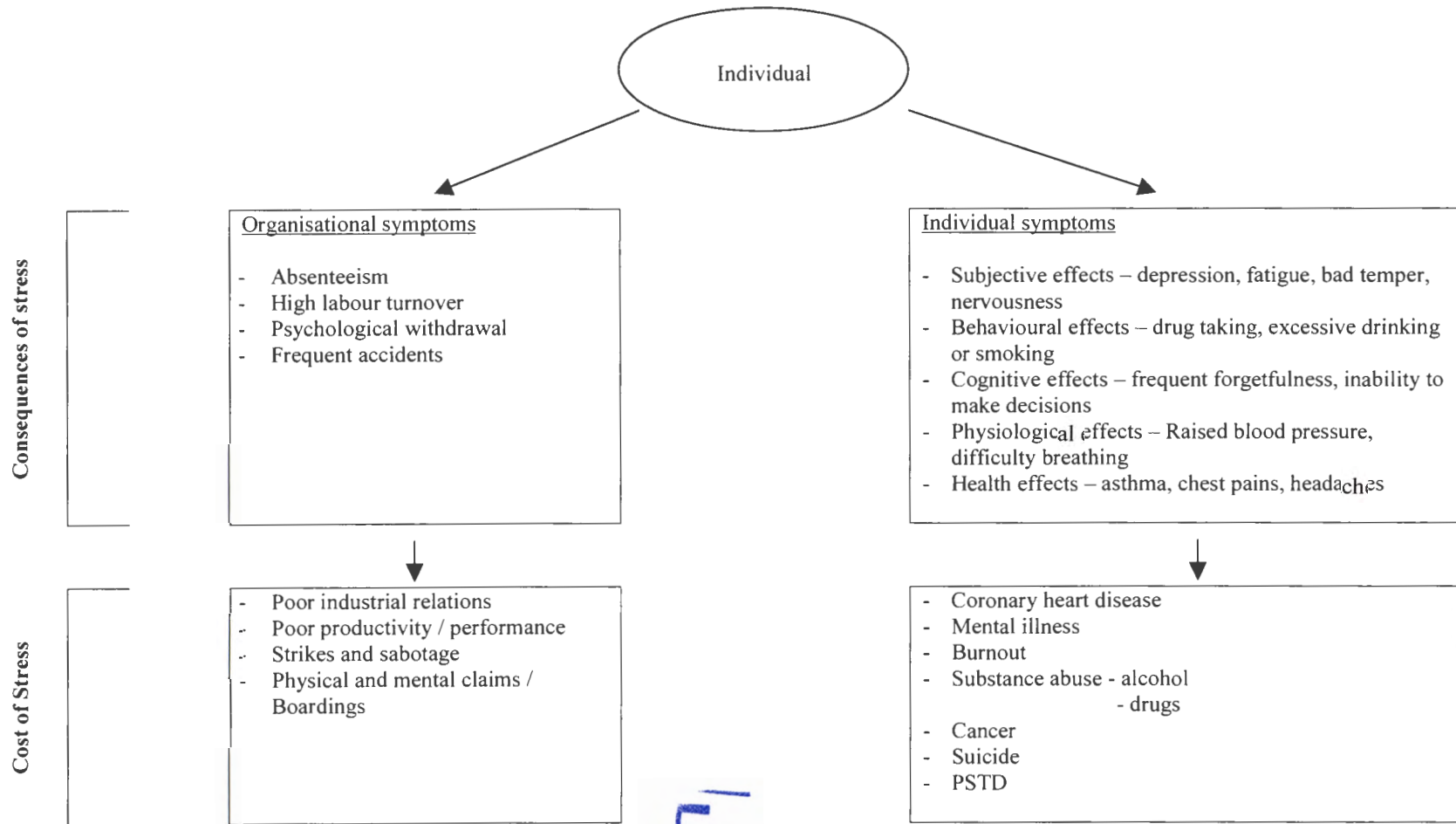
- What does the score mean?

- Less than 150. A 30 percent probability of developing an illness, i.e. no more than average risk.
- Between 150 and 299 A 50 percent probability of developing an illness.
- Over 300 An 80 percent probability of developing an illness.

One of the problems of such predictive measures is the possibility of their becoming self-fulfilling prophecies. The purpose behind them, however, is not to notify us of the probability of becoming ill, but to encourage us to take preventative measures (Patel, 1991).

**FIGURE 3.1 STRESSMODE: Factors causing stress, consequences of stress, costs of stress**





## 6. FACTORS CAUSING STRESS

In Figure 3.1 the different factors causing stress consequences of stress and the cost of stress are mentioned. Each of these will be discussed in this chapter.

Stress is caused not only by **external** factors, which are called stressors, but is also generated **internally** by hopes and aspirations, beliefs and attitudes, as well as by personality, attitudes and by unrealistic expectations. Stress occurs at work, at home and in individuals' social life. Even though people like to think that they live autonomous lives, they are affected by a wide variety of national and international economic, political and ecological factors. Although people may have little control over their environment, how they respond to it, or how they allow it to affect them, remains their own responsibility entirely.

In order to reduce stress, people need first to be aware of the factors which cause stress in their life and how these factors may strain their health (Patel, 1991).

### 6.1 ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS

According to Kaufer, it is important that companies assess the work environment. A company needs to ask whether its work environment emphasises common goals or competition, as well as whether it has addressed what effect repetitious, tedious and boring tasks may have on morale. Also, whether the company offers employee-friendly work schedules whether employees are well compensated and treated professionally and if they have concerns about job security (<http://www.findarticles.com>). Rosenstock in Verespej (2000) states that the most effective way to reduce workplace stress is to identify the stress factors and make organisational changes".

The following factors can cause stress within an organisation:

### **6.1.1 Organisational structure and climate**

Cooper and Marshall (1978) describe this category of stress in terms of being in the organisation and the threat to freedom, autonomy and identity that this imposes. Thus the organisation has a personality to the extent that these factors may be seen as the way in which the organisation treats its members. How employees perceive the culture, customs and climate of the organisation are important in the understanding, of potential sources of stress, resulting from being in the organisation.

#### **6.1.1.1 Retrenchment and decline**

The late 1970s and early 1980s have been characterised by economic slowdown, plant closings and layoff and budget cutbacks. More organisations are working towards balanced budgets and fiscal responsibility – becoming ‘leaner and meaner’. These initiatives, however, have been found to increase work stressors of job incumbents. Jick (as cited in Cooper and Payne, 1995).

Jick (as cited in Cooper et al, 1995), summarised some research findings on budget cuts in the following way:

- the greater the size of the budget cuts, the higher the likelihood of experienced stress.
- the greater the extent to which the cuts affect changes in goals, programmes or organisational survival, the higher the likelihood of experienced stress.
- the higher the frequency of cuts, the higher the likelihood of experienced stress.

#### **6.1.1.2 Little or no participation in decision making**

Lack of participation in work activity is associated with negative psychological mood and behavioural responses, including escapist drinking and heavy smoking (Caplan et al, 1975a). Increased opportunity to participate results in improved performance, lower staff turnover and improved levels of mental and physical well-being.

Participation in the decision-making process increases investment in the organisation, helps to create a sense of belonging and improves communication channels (ILO, 1986).

#### 6.1.1.3 Occupational locking-in

Kay (as cited in Cooper et al, 1995), identifies several factors associated with increasing discontent in middle management ranks. One of these was a boxed-in feeling when individuals had almost no opportunity to move from their present jobs or when the only position for which they were qualified was the one they currently held.

Quinn (1975) uses the term “locking-in” to refer to the same phenomenon. The author distinguishes three components of “locking-in”:

- low probability of securing another job as good as or better than the present one;
- little opportunity to modify a present disliked employment situation by securing a change in job assignments;
- low likelihood that a worker who was dissatisfied with his job would take psychological refuge in the performance of other roles not linked to his job.

### 6.1.2 Factors intrinsic to the job

To understand stress at work, one should identify potential harmful conditions in order to improve the quality of working life and be able to fit the person to the job (Sutherland et al, 1995).

#### 6.1.2.1 Working conditions

Kornhauser (as cited in Sutherland et al, 1995), has found that unpleasant working conditions, the necessity to work fast, to expend a lot of physical effort and working excessive and inconvenient hours were related to poor mental health.

Police are often victims, not only of violence but of other kinds of disasters. Police are present in most situations which can be described as critical incident stressors: the serious injury or death of a child, a colleague, or a woman or mother who leaves small children behind; suicide of a colleague; incidents in which odours sounds and sights trigger uneasy feelings, such as decomposing bodies, shooting incidents and bomb blast scenes; environmental dangers; and national disasters (Mitchell as cited in Dietrich & Hatting, 1993).

#### 6.1.2.2 Too much to do in too little hours

According to Gamow in Verespej (2001):

The two most common complaints we hear from employees are that there is too much to do in too little time and that there is too much pressure from constant deadlines. When you feel under stress, you find your mental wheels spinning and you work mechanically rather than creatively. You find yourself thinking about that last had interaction with your manager, rather than concentrating on your task. And tasks that normally would take a few minutes of time sit unfinished for days because you lose the capacity to prioritize and you put off larger, important projects that take more energy and concentration.

Having too much to do in the normal working day or shift, leads to overtime working. In addition, the worker who struggles to do a job that is too difficult is likely to take more time to finish the task and may need to work extra hours to complete the job to a satisfactory standard. A link between working long hours and stress and ill-health has been established (Patel, 1991).

According to Patel (1991), most managers may find that there is more demand on their time and resources than they are able to meet. When they resolve new problems and questions, the daily work leaves them no time to plan and innovate or learn new things until everyone has gone home, when they can sit down and work uninterrupted. This work period is often extended into family life; catching upon reading literature or preparing reports can occupy evenings or weekends, fast moving, high-pressured business often means crossing time zones on long-

distance flights, sleeping on hotel beds, drinking excessively and eating rich food, as well as separation from family and all these strains can add up.

Working long hours also has an overall impact on stress. The individual spends less time in social relationships and so the benefits of social support as a buffer in a stressful job are reduced. However, it must be acknowledged that some individuals regard work and working long hours as a psychological haven and a means of escape from the pressures of home and family and indeed unsatisfactory personal relationships (Sutherland et al, 1995).

#### 6.1.2.3 Responsibility for lives

Responsibility for lives are more likely to be linked to cardiovascular disease (French et al, 1970). Lack of responsibility may also be stressful. For some workers, responsibility for other people's lives and safety is a major source of stress.

### **6.1.3 Role in organisation**

Within the organisation, certain behaviours and demands are associated with expected roles fulfilled. However, dysfunction may occur at two different levels and be a major source of worker stress, that is, role conflict (conflicting job demands) and role ambiguity (lack of clarity about the task) (Kahn et al, 1964).

#### 6.1.3.1 Role ambiguity

According to Kahn et al, when an employee does not have adequate information in order to carry out the task; or does not understand or realise the expectations associated with that particular role, role ambiguity takes place. Stress arising from unclear goals and/or objectives can ultimately lead to job dissatisfaction, lack of self-confidence, feelings of futility, a lowered sense of self-esteem, depression, low motivation to work, increased blood pressure and pulse rate and intention to leave the job.



There is a wide range of situations which can create role ambiguity such as the first job, a promotion, a transfer, a new boss, a new company or changes in an existing structure (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1980).

#### 6.1.3.2 Role conflict

Role conflict exists when an individual is torn by the conflicting demands of other members in the organisation; doing tasks that are not perceived to be part of the job; or by being involved with a job that conflicts with personal values or beliefs. Stress is caused by the inability to meet various expectations of demands (Kahn et al, 1964).

Miles and Perregult (1976) identify four different types of role conflict:

*i. Person-role conflict*

The individual would like to do a task differently from that suggested by the job description.

*ii. Intra-sender conflict*

This happens when a boss communicates expectations which are incompatible, e.g. the individual receives an assignment without sufficient personnel to complete the task successfully.

*iii. Inter-sender conflict*

The individual is asked to behave in such a manner that one person will be pleased with the result, while others will not be.

*iv. Role overload*

The individual is assigned more work than can be effectively handled.

Research indicates that personality traits are an important determinant of response to role conflict (Kasl, 1978).

#### **6.1.4 Career development**

Career stress is attributed to the fact that individuals face stress around issues that are a direct out-growth of how careers unfold over time and across life domains. Individuals suffering from career stress often show job dissatisfaction, burnout, poor work performance and unsatisfactory interpersonal relationships at work (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1980).

##### 6.1.4.1 Starting, developing, maintaining and ending of a career

###### *i. Starting a career*

According to Katz (1985) the first year is for many a frustrating period full of stress, anxiety and disillusionment. Potential sources of early career stress include; reality shock from the clash of naïve or incorrect expectations with reality, inadequate socialisation experiences, particularly of a sink or swim nature; ambiguity and uncertainty, concern about establishing one's organisational role identity; learning to deal with one's manager and co-workers; understanding the reward system and situational norms.

###### *ii. Developing a career*

Bartolome and Evans (1979) in their research found tensions and ambiguity that individuals experience in their attempts to balance commitments to professional versus private lives. Their research indicated that eighty percent of the 532 male middle managers in their sample attached a high value to batch work-career and family-leisure. Yet they spent 62% of their time and 71% of their energy on their professional lives. In addition, the boundary between professional and personal lives allowed movement in only one direction – job concerns pervade family and leisure lives.

According to Bartolome et al (1979) only half of their managers are satisfied with the way they were distributing time and energy between professional and private live. They propose the life stage of the manager as the most important single fact or in determining how managers experience their lifestyles. Managers cope with the tensions and ambiguities inherent in their lifestyles by limiting the focus of their attention and concerns to one or a few aspects of their lives at any one stage. The career is central while the family is secondary in the early stage. At a later stage the family is central while the career is secondary.

*iii. Maintaining a career*

Korman and Korman (as cited in Cooper, 1995) identify the male mid-life stage as a key influence on personal and social alienation. This career and life stage is characterised by an awareness of one's advancing age and mortality, goals one may never attain, decreased job mobility and changes in one's family patterns.

*iv. Ending a career*

McGoldrick and Copper (1985) list potential sources of stress individuals face in the final stage of their working career. These include:

- the ageing process itself, resulting in psychological changes in later years;
- changes in work abilities, both mental and physical;
- the individual's perceptions of work and retirement;
- the individual's non-work circumstances.

More specifically, individuals must deal with their changing psychological, physiological and social circumstances. The approach of retirement itself may be a threat which signifies old age, uselessness and dependence.

Major work stressors for older managers would include dealing with new technology, lack of promotion possibilities, dealing with potential skill obsolescence, retraining, discriminations and concerns about meeting performance expectations. Sources of stress in the non-work sphere include one's marital relationship, home circumstances, own health and health of spouse, financial security, dependants and family.

- Charles Prugh, a San Francisco career consultant asserts that every job has a beginning, a middle and an end (<http://www.findarticles.com>).
- At the beginning of this cycle, during the job interview and the first few months of work, everything seems perfect. Both employer and employee are enthusiastic.
- In the middle, employees learn the system, understand the people around them more fully and find challenges. It is at this stage that employees realise this may not be the one job for the rest of their lives.
- Toward the end, employees may start to think this about their jobs: "I've heard all this before and the challenge is gone. That's the time when you figure out that it's time to move on".

Some people actually let their stress level get so high that they cannot get out of bed in the morning to go to work. Prugh calls this stage – beyond the end stage – the “unreasonably intolerable” stage. In the ‘end’ stage and certainly in the “unreasonably intolerable stage”, employees may need more drastic change to decrease their level of stress. Sometimes this will mean a lateral move or a promotion within the same company; other times it will mean getting a job with another company and in more rare cases, it may mean needing to change to another career entirely (Hochgraf, 1998).

#### 6.1.4.2 Lack of job security

Fears of job loss and the threat of redundancy are common features of working life. Job security may also be related to the introduction of new technology. Automation simplifies jobs because machinery does the work of many people. Added to the threat of unemployment is the stress associated with 'job deskilling'. Cakir (1979) found that when the qualification level of a job was changed after automation, the workers complained of monotony, even though the job was not repetitive.

In addition, the use of contract labour in many industries may add to this burden of job insecurity. Serious health problems, including ulcers, colitis and alopecia are associated with stress because of job loss. The morale and motivation of the workforce is affected, with subsequent negative impact on productivity and efficiency. Indirectly, fear of job loss and insecurity in times of high unemployment adversely affects both the individual and the organisation (Smith et al, 1981).

The stress associated with the need to change and/or retrain is also likely to manifest at a time of life when the individual is most vulnerable. An individual under the strain of impending job loss realises that in middle age, learning seems to take longer, energy is more scarce, opportunities are less and the threat of a keen, younger workforce competing for jobs are formidable obstacles. Fear of rejection and rejection itself, are damaging to morale, self-esteem and confidence. Overall the perception of stability in the organisation and employment affects the well-being of employees. In times of instability, poor conditions are tolerated-exposure to long hours, arduous conditions, stressful travel arrangements – all add to the stress chain (Kelly & Cooper, 1981).

#### 6.1.4.3 Career transitions

A career transition may result in a change of job or profession, or a change in one's orientation to work in the same jobs (Cooper et al, 1995). Career transitions include geographical relocation, demotion or being sidetracked into a plateauing position (Nteyi, 2001).

*i. Geographic relocation*

This is an abrupt environmental change for the employee, the family and also a work role change for the employee. Relocation could be a result of promotion, a transfer to acquire new work experiences, or an assignment to provide the organisation with specific expertise at a new location. According to Smith (1991), relocation has an adverse effect on the well being of the employees, their spouse and children.

Overseas stints are almost inevitable in this global industry. They can be exciting, but they also put huge stress on family life. For employees, the stakes are high, too. Unhappy families represent the main cause of failed foreign assignments.

The stress of moving can be especially hard on the family. While the employee has a built-in social structure, those left at home may not be so lucky. A husband may adjust quite well while the wife have a difficult time. With no local mass transit “she felt like she was in prison”. For that reason, multinational companies are being much more proactive in assisting the entire family when it comes to overseas assignments. At Siemens, a number of company-paid services are provided including cross-cultural training, mail service, housing locators, tax services and even how to find a good local grocery store (<http://www.findarticles.com>).

For Americans going overseas, clearly, learning a new language is among the highest stresses (Martin, 1999).

*ii. Demotion*

Demotion may be part of the human resource strategy, to demote, rather than dismiss employees who do not perform well from the organisation. Demotion places an extra risk on employees to perform and can be viewed as a source of stress as it places pressure on employees to deliver work of excellent quality (Ivancevich et al, 1980).

### *iii. Plateauing*

Career plateauing is the point in a person's career where there is no longer any opportunity to progress in the organisational hierarchy according to Leibowitz (as cited in Nteyi, 2001). Chances for advancement in the organisation may be limited as downsizing, affirmative action or restructuring takes place (Beehr, 1995).

#### **6.1.5 Relationships at work**

Good relationships between members of a work group are considered a control factor in individual and organisational health. According to Davis (1992), having to live with other people is one of the most stressful aspects of life.

##### 6.1.5.1 Abrasive personalities

Some individuals in the organisation may unwillingly cause stress to others because they ignore the interpersonal aspects of feelings and sensibilities in social interaction. Levinson (1978) labels these individuals abrasive personalities. They are usually achievement orientated, hard driving and intelligent but function less well at an emotional level. The need for perfection, the pre-occupation with the self and the condescending, critical style of the abrasive personality induce feelings of inadequacy among other workers.

##### 6.1.5.2 Group pressure

Benefits of the group work are well documented (Smith et al, 1982). Individual needs for affiliation are satisfied and the group social support to the worker, which is a source of strength. Both formal and informal groups in an organisation put considerable pressure on an individual to conform to group norms, which may concern production rates, status and style of relationships.



A stressor situation develops if the values, beliefs and behaviour of the individual are suppressed (Quick et al, 1984). Social influence can affect productivity rates and attitudes to work and safety, which could be detrimental to both the individual and the organisation.

#### 6.1.5.3 Status incongruence

Status and social esteem of workers in society is of great value and is related to skill level, professional and technical competency, educational background and the value placed on a particular industry. Shostak (1980) believes that overall, the general public devalues manual work when measuring its standards against the dimensions used in assessing a job. Although this may be a potential stressor for the individual, within every organisation status incongruence may also exist by virtue of one's job category and nationality and when the individual believes or perceives that status expectations are not met.

Sutherland et al (1995) state that incongruence between actual status at work and what the worker believes it should be can lead to stress and frustration, especially when status is lower than expectations demand. Stress and insecurity will also be experienced by the individual who perceives that the status position assigned to a job is higher than perceived rightful entitlement.

## 6.2 ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS

Just as environmental uncertainty influences the design of an organisation's structure, it also influences stress levels among employees in an organisation.

### 6.2.1 Economic conditions

Changes in the business cycle create economic uncertainties. When the economy is contracting, people become increasingly anxious about their security. Robbins (1991) states that it was not a chance occurrence that suicide rates skyrocketed during the Great Depression of the 1930's minor recessions too, increase stress levels. Downward savings in the economy are often accompanied by permanent reductions in force, temporary layoffs, reduced pay, shorter work weeks and the like.



### **6.2.2 Political uncertainties**

If a country has a stable political system where change is typically implemented in an orderly manner, stress is not created in the individual. Yet political threats and changes can be stress-inducing. Political uncertainty increases stress among some workers, particularly those with little or no skills in a certain area (Robbins, 1991).

### **6.2.3 Technological uncertainties**

According to Cooper (1974), new innovations can make an employee's skill and experience obsolete in a very short period of time. Computers, robotics, automation and other forms of technological innovations are a threat to many people and cause them stress. The need to constantly become familiar with new equipment and systems may pose a threat to the individual. Unless adequate training is provided, potential stressful situations may develop when technology is introduced into the workplace and the individual feels unable to perform a given task.

## **6.3 INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS**

Situations are not inherently stressful or damaging. An event is only stressful if it is perceived as such by the individual. An imbalance in perceived threat and ability to meet demands defines an experience as distress or strain. Thus stress is in the eye of the beholder.

Some individuals become ill and adversely suffer the consequences of stress exposure, while others survive and thrive under the same conditions. Thus, included in this 'person-factor' are the many personality traits, characteristics and behaviour patterns, based on attitudes, needs values and ability (Sutherland, 1995).

### **6.3.1 Level of neuroticism**

Eysenck (1967) describes neuroticism or an individual scoring high on this factor, as a worrier who tends to feel depressed, has considerable mood swings, sweats easily and feels anxious before important events.

Furnham (1981) found that neurotic individuals tend to avoid stimulating, active and unusual situations more than stable individuals. Shyness is associated with anxious behaviour. Eysenck and Eysenck (1969) postulate two distinct forms of social shyness. Introverted shyness stems from the preference to be alone, although the introvert is capable of functioning effectively in company. However, the neurotic individual may desire the company of others but also be fearful of it because of worries of inadequacy. In the work environment, neurotics and neurotic introverts are the most susceptible to stressful situations.

### **6.3.2 Type A Behaviour**

Two Cardiologists from San Francisco, Meyer Friedman and Ray Rosenman (1974), have done extensive work in the area of Type A behaviour. They describe an overt behaviour pattern and called it Type A behaviour. An individual with this behaviour pattern is portrayed as intensely ambitious, hard-driven, competitive, having a sustained drive for achievement, impatient, having a keen sense of time urgency, constantly preoccupied with occupational deadlines, involved in a chronic struggle to achieve as many things as possible in the shortest possible time, and, if anybody or anything gets in their way, likely to become aggressive and hostile.

#### **6.3.2.1 Characteristics of Type A Behaviour**

- Rapid movements, walks and eats fast.
- Impatience – rate at which events take place is too slow. Hurry up the speech of others by saying very quickly over and over again, “yes, yes, yes, yes, or uh, huh, uh, huh., or interrupting before other people finish their sentences.
- Thinking or doing two or more things simultaneously, like using a electric razor while eating breakfast.

- Feels guilty when relaxing, body is restless, reflected in mannerisms like, rapid tapping of the fingers.
- Work long hours constantly under deadlines and conditions of overload, feels frustrated in work situations.
- Take work home on evenings and at weekends.
- Cut holidays short, or may not even take holidays.
- Speaking in explosive, unpleasant-sounding voice.
- Constantly compete with themselves and other and drive themselves to meet high unrealistic standards.
- Are irritable with the work effort of their subordinates and feel misunderstood by their supervisors.
- Play any type of game to win.
- Clenching fists, pounding the table or hand.
- Use obscene language, or have a tendency to swear (Brief, Rude. & Rabinowitz, 1983).

#### 6.3.2.2 Characteristics of Type B Behaviour pattern

- Absence of all habits and traits listed under the Type A behaviour pattern.
- Absence of the sense of time urgency and its accompanying impatience. No unrealistic commitments.
- Absence of free-floating hostility and no need to display or discuss achievements or accomplishments.
- Plays for fun and relaxation.
- Able to relax, work without agitation.
- Cooperates with other.
- Flexible, can be a leader or a follower.
- Respectful of others' integrity. Admit mistakes.
- Encourages trust and openness in team efforts.
- Delegates authority.
- Takes a break when fatigued.
- Not devastated by criticism; "Tell me more" attitude (Rosenman & Friedman 1974).

Type As reported greater job stress; had more accidents, more recorded sick-day absenteeism and more official reprimands than Type B individuals (Evans, Palsane & Carrere, 1987).

### **6.3.3 Gender**

Davidson and Cooper (1983) found that certain stressors in society have a more adverse impact on females than males. These include male attitudes towards working females, lack of resource support for working matters and expectations in child rearing practices. Behavioural response to stress includes a substantial increase in the proportion of women alcoholics in the early 1960's and early 1970's.

The overall pattern of stressor and outcome associations were quite similar for males and females, although both job/outcome and family burden/outcome associations were stronger for females than for males. In addition for full-time working females the associations are stronger with work than they are for family. This shows that it is mainly job-related problems and not family ones that are the cause of employees' psychological trouble (Karasek, Gardell & Lindell, 1987).

### **6.3.4 Age, life stage and physical condition**

Age may perform a moderator role in the perception of job stress, linked to the factors of expectations and aspirations (Theorell, 1976). The impact of stress may be influenced by the age of an individual in two ways:

- the biological condition of the person will mediate the response e.g. complaints about the physical strain of work, such as difficulties in adapting to shift work increases with age; and age in relation to past experiences, will affect the way stress is perceived.
- one's physical condition is likely to be related to the age of the individual. An unfit or ill employee may be less tolerant and more vulnerable to other stressors at work (Buchholz, 1978).

McLean (1978) suggests that mid-life crisis increases one's sensitivity to stress, regardless of occupation and is therefore a period of particular vulnerability.

Henningan and Wortham (1975) demonstrated that individuals in good physical condition and who were non-smokers were able to maintain a low heart rate during the normal stress of the day, whereas stress is more likely to increase the heart rate of others less physically fit. Low capacity to respond to a situation due to ill-health or disease can exacerbate a stress reaction.

#### 6.4 DOMESTIC HOME/WORK INTERFACE

Issues concerning the family and life-crises may all put a strain on the individual at work, in the same way that stress at work may spill-over and have a negative impact on family and personal life. However, personal life events, in the form of social support, may reduce the impact of organisational stressors (Cooper & Marshall, 1978).

##### 6.4.1 Marriage

According to Laws (1979) marriage often appears to limit occupational achievement, particularly for females. Laws concluded that for females, marriage and children had a much greater negative impact on employment than employment had on marriage and children. High achieving men are married whereas high achieving women tend to be unmarried.

Employed women in low quality marriages appear to suffer most from inter-role conflict, inter-role overload and home management stress. Compared with singles, married women do report more role conflict in areas such as time and household management (Nevill & Damico, 1975).

The notion of a wife as a valuable career resource comes from Kanter (1977) who identifies four contributions of a wife's work to her husband's career:

- direct substitution for the work of a paid employee;
- indirect support including entertaining;
- consultation and advice giving; and

- emotional support which keeps the husband motivated and interested in his work.

Pfeffer and Ross (1982) argue that within society, men are supposed to support a wife and are rewarded for doing so. For men, marriage represents an opportunity to take on “the good provider role”, whereas for women, marriage can represent a source of conflict with her employment.

Repetti (1987) in a time-sample study involving air traffic controllers, found that controllers’ rating of a fast pace and increased air traffic volume at work were associated with social withdrawal during interactions with their spouses on subsequent days. At the same time, angry and tense marital interactions on previous days were followed by perceptions of increased task-load at work. The findings support the proposition that conditions at work influence marital behaviour and that experiences at home affect perceptions of stress levels at work.

The following examples of domestic stressors experienced in marriage were identified by Patel (1991):

- Difference in mutual interests.
- Recurrent financial problems.
- Different values and priorities heading to conflict.
- High unmet expectations.
- Sharing domestic chores.
- Demanding in-laws.
- Deciding to have or not have children.

#### **6.4.2 Spouse’s characteristics**

For a woman, the characteristics of her husband’s job, such as demands on his time and the expectation that his wife will act as an organisational member, are viewed as contributors to her job stress. When their wives are employed, men may feel that their identity as the good provider is threatened and that they are losing family power (Ross, Mirowsky & Huber, 1983).

Patel (1991), identified certain characteristics in a spouse which may cause stress.

- Lack of communication with spouse.
- Sexual difficulties.
- Different sleeping patterns through habit or nature of working life.
- Spouse who snores.
- Spouse who is overweight.
- Irrational jealousy.
- Unfaithfulness.
- Spouse's smoking and drinking habits.
- Spouse's being away from home too much.
- Illness of spouse.

#### 6.4.3 Children and childcare



Despite parental misgivings about combining children and a career, children like spouses, appear to have a positive effect on parent's job satisfaction (Crosby, 1984). Other researchers have found that mothers of children with few behaviour problems report greater job satisfaction and less work-family role conflict (Barling & Van Bart, 1984).

Patel (1991) identified certain problems experienced with children which can cause stress.

- Sleep disturbances due to crying infants.
- Sick children.
- Disobedient children.
- Jealous siblings.
- Temper tantrums in shops.
- Handicapped child.
- Poor academic performance.
- Bad behaviour at school.
- Untidy rooms.
- Children with drug problems.

- Teenage pregnancies.

Investigators are not yet able to distinguish the effect that children have on parents' job experiences from the effect that parental enjoyment of work has on children. At the moment it seems plausible to assume that a spillover from family to work can only be beneficial when parents have good relations with their children (Cooper & Payne, 1995).

#### **6.4.4 Life cycles and life events**

Each stage of an individual's life cycle may present a different source of stress or pressure. At certain stages of life or career there are going to be times when an individual may not function to full capacity, is unproductive and even disruptive to those around him or her.

Numerous studies have shown predictive relationships between life strains and health outcomes, including death and disability due to heart disease, diabetes and psychiatric disturbances. Bhagat (1983) suggests that life strains increase the likelihood of anxiety and depressive symptoms and so the individual finds it difficult to maintain the psychological stamina needed for job involvement. Ultimately the effects are in terms of reduced job satisfaction, job performance and stress.

##### **6.4.4.1 Mobility**

Some individuals need to remain geographically mobile in order to stay in employment. This may require relocation of the family or the need to work away from home and family for extended periods of time. Some individuals cope, whilst others experience it as stressful and traumatic. If this happens it becomes a 'lose lose' situation for all concerned. According to Cooper (1981), the problems for the individual relocating vary according to life stage. Young, single, employees have the pressures of starting a new job and being alone in a strange town or city may cause stress. They need to build a completely new life structure without the support of a partner, family or friends while trying to maintain former contracts.



According to Marshall and Cooper (1979) young married couples have the least constraints, but the dual career people face causes additional problems when one partner is forced to relocate. Children find relocation stressful; infants experience insecurity when their routines are disrupted. Older children must become familiar with new schools and learn to make new friends. The partner left at home does not have the organisation or related structure of work to help in the building of a new social network and so might be more lonely and unhappy initially.

According to Guest and Williams (1973), actual relocation is therefore a stressful event; but the decision not to move or accept a transfer may also be a source of pressure, if the individual feels that job security and career aspirations are threatened by their actions. However, for many individuals the stress of relocation is preferable to unemployment.

#### 6.4.4.2 Unemployment

Having been made redundant, the individual may suffer a variety of possible negative consequences such as loss of status which accompanied the job, a sense of failure, loneliness and isolation, low life satisfaction, lowered self esteem and depression (Fryer & Payne, 1986).

Surveys have shown that negative feelings and stress associated with redundancy and unemployment change over time, and will vary as a function of age and career-stage of the person (Swinburne, 1981).

#### 6.4.4.3 Divorce and single parenthood

People involved in a divorce usually go through a series of stages, lowered self-esteem and finally, recovery. The new roles that emerge put strains and pressures on an individual, especially if it involves single parenthood. Stressors associated with family life cycles and child rearing are burdens more acutely felt by the single parents, for example, finding good child care taking facilities is vital; school holidays and child illness are difficult problems that must be overcome.

Organisations must be more realistic about the spill-over problems that exist. Counseling services, flexible work schedules and career breaks will assist employees to cope positively with potential distressful events (Sutherland et al, 1995).

## **7. CONSEQUENCES OF STRESS**

Stress has many consequences which have an influence on the employees in the organisation and the individual.

### **7.1 INDIVIDUAL SYMPTONS OF STRESS**

According to Patel (1991), some individuals may respond to stress by developing one or more of the following effects of stress.

#### **7.1.1 Subjective / Psychological effects**

In its purest form, this relates to the way that information arising from outside of the person, mediated by the higher centres of the central nervous systems, is causal in illness and disease (Hinkle, 1987). Subjective effects include anxiety, aggression, apathy, boredom, depression, fatigue, frustration, guilt and shame, irritability and bad temper, moodiness, low self-esteem, threat and tension, nervousness and loneliness.

#### **7.1.2 Behavioural effects**

Employee assistance programmes are job-based programmes operating within a work organisation for the purpose of identifying troubled employees, motivating them to resolve their troubles, and providing access to counseling or treatment for those employees who need these services Sonnenstuhl and Trice (as cited in DeSimone, 1998). Certain behavioural effects that surface are: accident proneness, drug taking, emotional outbursts, excessive eating or loss of appetite, excessive drinking and smoking, excitability, impulsive behaviour, impaired speech, nervous laughter, restlessness and trembling.

### **7.1.3 Cognitive effects**

Cognitive effects of stress include inability to make decisions and concentrate, frequent forgetfulness, hypersensitivity to criticism and mental blocks.

### **7.1.4 Physiological effects**

Physiological effects associated with stress, most often experienced by individuals include increased blood and urine catecholamines and corticosteroids, increased blood glucose levels, increased heart rate and blood pressure, dryness of mouth, sweating, dilation of pupils, difficulty breathing, hot and cold spells, a lump in the throat, numbness and tingling in parts of the limbs.

### **7.1.5 Health effects**

Individuals may suffer from one or more of the following health effects of stress asthma, amenorrhoea, chest and back pains, coronary heart disease, diarrhoea, faintness and dizziness, dyspepsia, frequent urination, headaches and migraine, neuroses, nightmares, insomnia, psychoses, psychosomatic disorder, diabetes mellitus, skin rash, ulcers, loss of sexual interest and weakness.

## **7.2 ORGANISATIONAL “SYMPTONS” OF STRESS**

According to Ostermann, who deals with executive health,

“Executives think that uncovering stress among employees is going to highlight faults in the company and they simply don’t want to expose faults. They don’t want to create a negative situation that exposes them to liability” (<http://www.findarticles.com>).

Masi states that a lot of companies are simply unaware that stress is a problem in their corporations and even deny it.

“They just can’t believe it is going to happen in their workplace. Managers judge others by themselves, and CEOs and senior managers often are not aware of the stress that the average person undergoes” (<http://www.findarticles.com>).

One explanation for that ignorance may be that it is hard to isolate workplace stress from personal stress. It is even harder to pinpoint the costs to business of workplace stress. It is suggested that the best way to start addressing workplace stress is to admit that it is a business issue and to provide support to employees (Verespej, 2000).

Employees in organisations may reveal the following symptoms of stress:

### **7.2.1 Absenteeism**

According to Beehr (1995), not coming to work because of occupational stress seems to be one way to avoid the pain of stress. As stress increases, so does absenteeism. Alcohol and drug abuse cost employers billions of dollars every year in lost work time. A substantial part of this loss is undoubtedly a reaction to personal and work-related stress. Robbins (1991) states that stress related headaches are the leading cause of lost work time in the United States industry. Coronary heart disease is a leading killer of Americans. Over one million Americans suffer heart attacks each year and half of them are fatal. One out of every five average, healthy male Americans will suffer a heart attack before he reaches the age of sixty-five. Heart disease causes an annual loss of more than 135 million workdays. The premature loss of valued employees means the loss of experienced personnel and additional cost of replacing these people. These facts are important because currently there exists a wealth of research that links stress to heart disease.

Studies demonstrate that women suffer more stress than men and have higher absentee rates, but this is largely due to role conflicts created by being career women, homemaker and parent. As traditional male and female roles at home are redefined toward greater sharing of home and parenting responsibilities, these differences between the sexes on absentee rates should disappear (Jick & Mitz, 1985).

According to Kahn (as cited in Van Niekerk en Prins, 1998), “on any given day some ten thousand policemen are absent from work”. Police officers currently suffer unacceptable levels of physical and psychological trauma, this leads to a high level of stress and depression, reflected in absenteeism, unacceptable levels of alcohol consumption and impaired functionality.

According to Mubley (2000), the number of cases of occupational stress and days away from work have decreased from 1992 to 1997 with 15 percent fewer cases reported, according to a 1999 survey by the U.S. Department of Labour, Bureau of Labour Statistics. Days away from work that involved occupational stress were 4,011 in 1992 and dropped to 3,418 in 1997.

### **7.2.2 High labour turnover**

Turnover is logically a more extreme step than simply staying away from work for a day. Turnover occurs because the employee has better alternatives, but does not apply to voluntary turnover. Turnover can be positive or neutral from the organisation’s perspective. It can be viewed as positive if an organisation has to downsize, through sometimes offering retirement incentives to people (Colarelli & Beehr, 1993).

Turnover can also be functional or good if the employee is a poor performer, or costly to keep if the labour market is overflowing with people who have relevant skills (Colarelli et al, 1993). Employees can also be “driven” out of the organisation by something unpleasant in the organisation itself. Job stress is one reason, but there might be other reasons as well. Overall, the evidence is mixed regarding whether job stressors are related to turnover, but they do seem to be related to intentions to quit (Beehr, 1995).

The high turnover in personnel also reflects the state of mind within the South African Police Service. About 10% per annum, some 23 362 members left the South African Police Service between January 1991 and August 1994. Along with increased medical boardings, this significantly reduced the numbers of senior police officials, meaning that the young new recruits are often left unprepared for the demands of policing.

### **7.2.3 Frequent accidents**

According to Sutherland et al (1995), a person under stress may be accident prone. The physiological effects of stress include slowed reaction time, impaired concentration and poor physical co-ordination. "Response to a stressor involves the activation of the sympathetic nervous system, which prepares the body for 'fight or flight'" (Cannon, 1935). Glucose stores as glycogen in the liver is released; without an adequate intake of carbohydrates to maintain blood sugar levels, performance may be impaired, because the ability to concentrate is affected and vulnerability to accident-involvement enhanced.

Powell et al (1971), found that the number of accidents appeared to be directly related to the amount of work that people did. Concentration is impaired if the individual has too many tasks to complete at the same time, or cannot cope with the task because skills are lacking.

Exposure to increased risk is an obvious contributory factor in the occurrence of an accident; stress associated with dangerous and hazardous conditions and lack of training might increase accident potential (ILO, 1986). The cumulative effects of repeated and continuous exposure to stress over an entire career can be accepted as responsible for both physical and psychological ill health (Washaw, 1979).

The cost of work-related accidents in the United States is approximately \$ 32 billion per year. It is estimated that at least three-quarters of all industrial accidents are caused by the inability of employees to cope with emotional stress (Robbins, 1993).

### **7.2.4 Psychological withdrawal**

Although an employee is physically present at work, he or she may be absent in spirit. Lack of interest in the job might tend to lead people to be absent in their spirit and thought (Beehr & Gupta, 1978). A person can withdraw himself or herself while still being in a surrounding for example, slowness or failure to return phone calls to others, keeping one's office door closed and one's phone on call forward, missing or being late for staff meetings, avoiding eating lunch

with others in the workplace. Although job stress may not be the only cause of the above behaviour, it may be one of the causes (Beehr, 1995).

## **8. COST OF STRESS**

Stress has a significant negative impact on the well being of both the individual and the organisation. The cost of stress to the organisation and the cost of stress to the individual can be evaluated.

### **8.1 COST OF STRESS TO THE ORGANISATION**

According to Stieber, (as cited in Verespej, 2000),

“a company can assess its stress level”. Stieber suggests that executives first “do the acid test” on themselves. “Have them ask themselves what the most stressful thing is on their job, why it is stressful, what it costs them, and how many other people in the organisation it affects”. To assess the level of stress in the rest of the workforce, companies should measure whether essential work is getting done, whether workforce levels are sufficient, whether they are losing people, and whether projects are failing”.

Sutherland et al (1995), identified four costs of stress in the workplace.

#### **8.1.1 Poor industrial relations**

Several discrete factors are responsible for an effective union-management relationship, namely; local settlement of disputes, union satisfaction with relations, bargaining style, skill of the workforce, legalism and effective grievance handling (Stagner, Derber & Chalmers, 1959). Not only is the union-management relationship multi-faceted, it is also complicated by the inherent conflict on interests between the parties (Fox, 1973).

If participation in decision making is forced, the attitude of both management and non-management personnel are likely to be more antagonistic than when participation in decision making is increased voluntarily (Jackson, 1983). On the other hand, where unions are operating effectively, participation is not given by management, it is demanded by labour. Once the 'voluntary' nature of imposing participation is removed from management, the process would become stressful.

### **8.1.2 Strikes, and sabotage**

Cooper (1995) states that not getting an expected increment would increase the worker's stress associated with reorganising his or her budget, standard of living and family problems. Similarly, having to cut back on departmental spending because of negotiated increases of labour costs can be a source of stress for management.

The handling of disciplinary and grievance procedures can also be stressful, as they are concerned with resolving conflict at its source of origin (Van Coller, 1979).

If there is a breakdown in the relationship, it may lead to a strike or lock-out. Feelings of powerlessness, unpredictability and uncontrollability would be consistent with the uncertainty surrounding the outcome of a strike. Shiron (1982), refers to the spillover effect where the hostility between labour and management carries over to the post-strike stage and becomes manifest in acts such as reduced productivity and sabotage.

The strike can exert negative consequences in both the community and the family where the strike results in a reduction of family income.

### **8.1.3 Poor productivity or performance**

Where there is no stress, job challenges are absent and performance tends to be low. As stress increases, performance tends to increase, because stress helps a person call up resources to meet job requirements. Stress is a healthy stimulus that encourages employees to respond to challenges.



If stress becomes too great, performance begins to decline because stress interferes with it. An employee loses ability to cope, becomes unable to make decisions and is erratic in behaviour. If stress increases to a breaking point, performance becomes zero; the employee has a breakdown, becomes too ill to work, is fired, or refuses to come to work to face the stress (Davis, 1992).

#### 8.1.4 Physical and mental claims or boarding

According to De Carlo (2001), “workers’ compensation so-called “mental-mental” stress claims are claims in which mental disability results from mental stress on the job”. Mental-mental cases involve no physical injury and are based primarily on conceptual rather than tangible evidence. In mental-mental cases, neither the stress nor the disability can be attached to any physical event or condition of the claimant.

More than sixty percent of long term disability is related to psychological or psychosomatic problems often brought on or made worse by stress. State workers’ compensation boards are increasingly awarding compensation for physical and mental stress claims

(<http://www.findarticles.com>).



A single claim for permanent total disability can cost in excess of \$ 250,000. Since each employer’s worker’s compensation costs are based on claims against that employer, any increase in awards is an added cost of doing business (Robbins, 1991).

The NIOSH report (as cited in Sutherland et al, 1995) confirms observations in that mental disturbances, especially severe mental illnesses, are most heavily concentrated among workers with lower income, lower education, less skilled and in less prestigious jobs.

Poor mental well-being was directly related to unpleasant work conditions, the necessity to work fast, expenditure of physical effort and inconvenient hours. Miner and Brewer (1976) suggest that ‘certain stresses in the occupational sphere can be a source of emotional disorder’. Therefore stress is indirectly implicated in this stress-strain-accident outcome relationship

because the individual is rendered more vulnerable, due to an impaired or reduced level of mental well-being.

Dr. Paul Rosch, president of the American Institute of Stress and clinical professor of medicine and psychiatry at the New York Medical College, estimates the cost of stress in the U.S. alone to be \$ 200 billion annually and suggests that 75% to 90% of physician visits are for stress-related complaints and illnesses, and that 60% to 80% of all industrial accidents are due to worker stress (<http://www.findarticles.com>).

Medical boarding of police officers constitutes a high percentage of medical retirements because of stress-related disabilities. Medical boardings for psychological reasons, including PTSD, have increased dramatically since 1991 (see table), suggesting that many police officials experience their circumstances as traumatic and feel unsupported and unable to cope Nel (as cited in Nel & Burgers, 1998).

The costs of medical boarding are high in terms of loss of valuable human resources and often irreplaceable expertise. Equally distressing is the expense to the taxpayer: R 250 million in the first six months of 1994, for 904 police officials Nel (as cited in Nel et al, 1998).

Table 3.2 Medical Boarding of police officials in South Africa from 1991 – 1997.

Year	Total boarded	Psychological reasons	% of total boarded
1991	571	37	7%
1992	788	236	30%
1993	1 166	379	33%
1994	1 375	540	39%
1995	1 500	616	41%
1996	860	357	42%
1997	958	404	42%
<b>Total</b>	<b>7 218</b>	<b>2 569</b>	<b>36%</b>

Source: Nel (as cited in Nel & Burgers, 1998). Stress and Trauma in the work environment. The South African Police Service. Unisa Psychologia, 25(2).

## 8.2 THE COST OF STRESS TO THE INDIVIDUAL

When an individual is faced with a demand or an outright threat, his or her stress hormones—adrenaline and cortisol—trigger a cascade of physiological events that put his or her nervous, endocrine, cardiovascular and immune systems on alert. Those changes provide the fuel an individual needs to face a crisis, large or small (Patel, 1991).

The problem comes when this response does not shut off. This can occur because the threat—real or perceived—is frequent or prolonged and an individual feel powerless to resolve it. If he or she predisposed to health conditions that are aggravated by stress (such as hypertension), he or she may be unable to calm down physiologically, even after the stressful event has passed (Patel, 1991).

Being exposed to constant stress can result in long term adverse effects on health. Medical studies have linked stress to depression, immune system suppression, cardiovascular disease, infertility, miscarriage and premature birth (MoEwen, 1998).

According to Vernarec (2001), the short-term effects are devastating. Individuals become tense and irritable. They develop headaches or muscle pain and their blood pressure goes up. They do not eat, or they overeat and stomach and bowel problems may ensue. At work they find it hard to concentrate and at home they cannot sleep, or they see stress disrupt their family life.

According to Gershon (as cited in Harpold, 2002), the United States Department of Justice's National Institute of Justice conducted research involving one of the major law enforcement agencies in the United States. Through an anonymous survey of the officers in this agency, researchers discovered that apparently the law enforcement profession had not learned from the history of negative influences of job stress and what that stress does to officers exposed to it. The study, Project Shield, provided information about the negative effects of stress and broke these down into categories of psychological, physical, behavioural and organisational public health.

During this research project, officers admitted anonymously to increased vulnerability to alcohol abuse and anxiety within the first five years of employment. Project Shield also found that officers experienced increased risks of mortality and morbidity from cancer, heart disease, hypertension, acute migraine headaches, reproductive problems, chronic back problems, foot problems and insomnia.

The study showed that profound emotional effects from stress occurred most often when officers attended a police funeral, where the subject of an internal affairs investigation, experienced a needle stick or exposure to body fluids, made a violent arrest, or personally knew victims. In addition, the study discovered that officers experienced organisational, or job-related stress most often when making split-second decisions with serious consequences; hearing media reports of police wrongdoing biased against police; having administrators who did not support their officers; putting work ahead of anything, including family and not having enough time for personal or family responsibilities.

Wombach (1973) believes what most policemen share is an abhorrence of the predictable, a distaste for the foreseeable experiences of working life. The author feels that the job is not particularly hazardous physically but is incredibly hazardous emotionally and too often leads to divorce, alcoholism, and suicide. Wombach concludes that “never mind whether they can interpret, never mind if it is potentially hazardous to the soul. To be there is the thing”.

However, choosing to live as healthy a life as possible remains one of the most important choices that officers should make. Deciding to battle the negative influences of life by developing and accentuating positive influences reduces stress in officers’ daily activities. Research has shown that negative influences increase distress (negative stress), which, in large enough quantities, may cause some individuals to become sick (Edward, Charleworth & Nathan, 1998).

The following are the cost of stress to the individual.

### 8.2.1 Coronary heart disease

Death due to cardiovascular disease is the most prominent killer among industrialised nations. The situation assumes popular significance because heart disease often kills when individuals are in their peak years of economic activity. Therefore it is costly in terms of unrealised human potential and for industry, when an organisation fails to capitalise on many years of investment in development and training. Cardiovascular diseases may also exist for many years before they are clinically manifest and so it is important but a difficult task to identify the risk factors involved (Sutherland et al, 1995).

Des Marets (1755 – 1821), as cited in Sutherland et al (1995), have founded cardiac symptomatology and described the mechanics of heart failure in 1806 and observed that

“heart diseases had two principle causes, ‘from the action of the organ and from the passions of man’ and this included anger, madness, fear, jealousy, despair, joy, avarice, cupidity, ambition, ...revenge!!”

Wolf (as cited in Sutherland et al, 1995), found similar reports of dissatisfaction and dejection among myocardial infarction patients compared to a matched control group. He also observed an association between emotional state and fluctuations in physiological state. A marked variability in blood pressure was observed along those with coronary heart disease and this was most marked among those who subsequently died from cardiovascular disease. This psychophysiological responsiveness to emotional stress is referred to as reactivity. Evidence from other studies tend to support these observations but the retrospective design generally used does not permit us to state whether the observed differences are casual in the development of heart disease or the effect. It is therefore necessary to consider evidence from prospective studies. Generally, these results seem to consider evidence for coronary disease (Byrne, 1986).

Currently, research efforts seek to identify the biological mechanisms that link Type As and Bs to disease outcomes and the hyper responsibility of Type As is considered to be the biological precursor to atherogenesis (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1988). Numerous studies demonstrate that Type As respond to challenge, high demands and loss of personal control with a greater



elevation in systolic blood pressure, heart rate, cortisol, adrenalin, non-adrenalin and skeletal muscle vasodilation than Type Bs. Individuals in occupational groups doing strain work run the highest risk of myocardial infarction (Theorell, 1986). In a Swedish prospective study, hectic work pace, lack of control and lack of opportunity to learn new things are associated with a significant increase in relative risk of myocardial infarction.

An alternative view suggests that social support acts as psychological mediator in health outcomes - supportive relationships and the perception that others will provide aid lead to positive effect and a stable psychological state. Consequently, this leads to better physical and mental health (Cohen & Syme, 1985), because social support reduces the impact of stress by increasing one's self-esteem and sense of personal control.

### **8.2.2 Mental illness**

Days lost each year due to psychological disorder, that is reduced mental well-being, nervous debility and tension headaches continue to show an increase. Relationships are observed between emotional disorder and low educational attainment and intelligence (Milner & Anderson, 1958). Some evidence suggests that emotional disturbed men gravitate to low skill occupations but other evidence indicates that routine, boring work might cause emotional disturbance (Kornhauser, 1965). Poor mental well-being was directly related to unpleasant work conditions, the necessity to work fast, expenditure of physical effort and inconvenient hours.

According to Milner et al (1976), certain stresses in the occupational sphere can be a source of emotional disorder.

Figure 3.2 Characteristics of people with good mental health.

**Feel comfortable about themselves.**

- are not bowled over their own emotions by their fears, anger, love, jealousy, guilt or worries,
- can take life's disappointments in their stride,
- have a tolerant, easy-going attitude towards themselves as well as other,
- never underestimate or overestimate their abilities,
- can accept their shortcomings,
- have self-respect,
- feel able to deal with most situations,
- get satisfaction from the simple, everyday pleasures.

**Feel right about other people.**

- are able to give love and to consider the interests of others,
- have personal relationships that are satisfying and lasting,
- except to like and trust others and visa versa,
- respect the many differences they find in people,
- do not push people around,
- can feel they are part of a group,
- feel a sense of responsibility to their neighbours and others.

**Are able to meet the demands of life.**

- do something about their problems as they arise,
- accept their responsibilities,
- shape and adjust their environment,
- plan ahead, do not fear the future,
- welcome new experiences and new ideas,
- make use of their natural capacities,
- set realistic goals for themselves,
- are able to think for themselves and make their own decisions,
- put their best effort into what they do and get satisfaction out of doing it.

Source: Arlington. Characteristics of people with good health (as cited in Davis, 1992). Human behaviour at work: Organisational Behavior (6<sup>th</sup> ed). New York, McGraw-Hill.

### **8.2.3 Burnout**

It has often been assumed that burnout would lead people to leave not just their current employer, but their entire profession because, the same problems would occur in any employment situation involving the same work (Beehr, 1995).

According to Patel (1991), any situation which the individual perceives to be psychologically or physically damaging involves active coping. Successful coping will improve performance up to a certain point, after which there is no further improvement, but neither is there any deterioration, as coping efforts are matched to the person's tolerance level. However, if changes come too fast to allow adequate time for the person to adapt, he may begin to experience warning signs suggesting that he is overstretched or overburdened. If he continues his efforts and his initial symptoms of fatigue or other stress indicators are ignored, he may reach a point where a breakdown in health or a "burnout" syndrome is likely to occur.

Rogers (1984) describes sufferers of burnout as people low in energy, fatigued, feeling helpless and trapped and exhibiting negative attitudes about themselves, work and life in general. Work-related stressors can culminate in burnout, but do not always do so. Aspects which lead to burnout is the existence of organisational or individual stressors such as role ambiguity, performance pressures, work overload, or interpersonal conflicts. Another aspect is that the candidate tends to hold unrealistic expectations or ambitions. These combine to create stress, fatigue, frustration, and feelings of helplessness and guilt.

Individuals always believe that they must be self-sacrificing, and that it is wrong of them to pay attention to their own need. To always allow themselves to settle for second-best, is a recipe for disaster. Individuals always have needs and they have the right to attend to them first, ignoring oneself is a highway to burnout.



## 8.2.4 Substance Abuse

### 8.2.4.1 Alcohol

Drinking in response to the occurrence of stressful demand is common. Under the effects of alcohol the person is free of feelings of anxiety, depression and incompetence. As Samuel Johnson (as cited in Cox, 1980) wrote, “in the bottle, the discontent seeks for comfort, cowardice for courage, shyness for confidence”.

It is argued that alcohol causes an irregular descending depression of the central nervous system, first affecting cortical function. Its actions at this level seems to remove restraint, and social inhibitions disappear, behaviour becoming more childlike. However, Lawrence (1973) believes this view to be naïve. He sees ordinary doses of alcohol acting chiefly on the arousal mechanism of the brainstem reticular formation. Direct cortical depression then only occurs with high doses.

Tolerance appear to be the most important determinant of the behavioural response. However, there are other factors to consider; such as: the person’s sex, the time of day at which the alcohol is taken, the nature of the drink and the amount of food in the person’s stomach. Furthermore, the response to the drug is potentiated by certain tranquillisers and antihistamines. In such circumstances, very small amounts of alcohol can again have quite dramatic effects (Cox, 1980).

Social influence and social pressures are strong influences in alcohol use and abuse Plant (as cited in Sutherland et al, 1995). Selye (1976) have found that those individuals experiencing high job stress, drank more than those in low stress occupations, although it is not understood why some individuals under stress control their alcohol intake whereas others become alcoholics (Sutherland et al, 1995). The true extent of the problem is probably not known because of the conspiracy of silence that protects the worker. Individuals do not seem to realise that performance and judgment are impaired with intake of even relatively small amounts of alcohol but paradoxically, many people mistakenly believe that “some” alcohol improves ability (Sutherland, 1995).

Table 3.3 The effect of the alcohol level in a person's blood volume.

Amount of alcohol	Blood alcohol level	Gross Effects
Pints of beer (1 litre = 1.76 pints)  3.8% alcohol	Mg / 100ml blood	
	Up to 50	Feelings of satisfactory and comfort.
1.5	50	Loss of social inhibition garrulous, reckless.
3	100	Lack of coordination, slurred speech.
6	200	Obviously drunk but mobile.
9	300	Drunk but stuporous.
12	400	Dead drunk, anaesthetized, comatose.
	Above 400	Dead.

Source: Cox (1980). Stress. London, The MacMillan Press Ltd.

#### 8.2.4.2 Drugs

Drugs do provide a powerful way of changing cognitive appraisal and may do so by distorting a number of important perceptions such as perception of demand, of capability and of the consequences of attempts at coping. As a result of altered appraisal of his or her situation, a person may feel differently about it and respond differently to it (Cox, 1980).

Cox (1980) states that although a particular drug may reduce the immediate experience of stress, it may also reduce the person's ability to cope both cognitively and behaviourally. Because of the fact that the drug reduces the experience of stress, taking it is a reward process and this may form the basis for the development of psychological and then possibly physical dependence.

Leavitt (1974) discusses the role and personal rewards of drug taking in dealing with life problems (Stress). The first, most obvious satisfying aspect of drug taking lies in the pharmacological effects of the drug. It may produce elation, reduce anxiety, heighten the senses; the drug may make the person's world less worrying or more exciting. Through its direct effects, it offers a form of escapism, or facilitates social interaction.

Tolerance is characterised by administered response to a drug with repeated usage. As the drug is repeatedly administered it becomes progressively less effective. Larger and larger doses are required to produce the effect to the same degree.

Physical dependence occurs when body function, including that of the central nervous system, adapts to the extent that it is only efficient in the presence of the drug and is disrupted when the drug is withdrawn. The disruption is caused by the development of hyperactivity in the aspects of function depressed by the drug. This withdrawal syndrome is often referred to as a rebound phenomenon. The withdrawal syndrome can be very severe, even fatal and can only be prevented or relieved by taking the drug (Cox, 1980).

### **8.2.5 Cancer**

Research findings indicate the importance of considering personality dispositions as a mediator in the response to stressful life events. It seems that personality may have an effect on the onset and development of cancer. Schmale and Iket (as cited in Sutherland et al, 1995), found both life events preceding the illness and personality disposition were associated with a high incidence of cervical cancer.

Selye (1979) believed that stress plays some role in the development of all diseases, these effects may be curative or damaging, depending on whether the biochemical reactions characteristics of stress combat or accentuate the trouble.

Rosch (1984) states us that both hormonal factors and the immunologic competency of the individual influences malignant growth and the central nervous system play a dominant role in the control of these determinants of malignant activity. The role of stress is emphasised because endocrine and immune function are sensitive to its influence and states of mind have long been suspected for having an effect on the immune system (Baker, 1987).

### 8.2.6 Suicide



One factor that increases the risk of suicide is depression, which may develop from perceived failure or difficulty coping with loss (Lester et al (as cited in Huff, 1999). A simple mental health crisis may set the stage for suicide ideation. Family disruption is also a contributing factor (Elkind; Rubenstein et al; Lester (as cited in Huff, 1999).

A presentation at a national conference on police suicide held at the FBI Academy in September 1999 indicated that police officers are three to four times more likely to kill themselves than to be killed in the line of duty. Given the predisposition to suicide that a few officers harbor, there seems to be a real potential for violence in the workplace of a police station by an officer who turns from suicidal to homicidal thoughts. U.S. Department of Justice, Federal Bureau of Investigation, Suicide and Law Enforcement Washington, DC (as cited in Harpold, 2002).

Current suicide statistics among police officers are alarming. When comparing the incidence of suicide among police officials in South Africa in 1991 (60 of every 100 000) with that of the general population (5 of every 100 000), the extent of the problem is evident. Although suicide figures also show an increase from 1991 to 1996, suicide has decreased from 14 suicides per 10 000 police officials in 1996 to 13 suicides per 10 000 police officials in 1997. Rossouw (as cited in Nel & Burgers, 1998).

Table 3.4 The total number of suicides in the South African Police Service from 1991 – 1997.

Year	Total number of suicides
1991	65
1992	106
1993	134
1994	179
1995	154
1996	169
1997	154

Source: Rossouw (as cited in Nel et al, 1998). Stress and trauma in the work environment: The South African Police Service. *Unisa Psychologia*, 25(2).

Proactive action is taken on entry to the South African Police Service, when Psychological Services select applicants with above average stress tolerances. Members are trained during and after basic training to handle stress in their daily work. At station level Psychological Services also deliver lectures and offer sergeants and warrant-officers training courses (Nel et al, 1998).

Reactive support includes counseling and crisis intervention. A suicide follow-up questionnaire helps identify the circumstances surrounding suicides and suicide attempts. This helps family and colleagues understand and cope with their experiences of loss. In 1991 an anonymous crisis line was installed, staffed daily by trained counsellors to help officers (Nel et al, 1998).

### 8.2.7 Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD)

The possibility of over exposure to violence and trauma is great in South Africa (Nel et al, 1998). Continuous and excessive exposure to critical incidents without counseling can eventually lead to post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). However, even when help is available some incidents are so acute that exposure to them will result in PTSD regardless of the assistance offered (Burgers, 1994).

Police officers do not always need substantial emotional debriefing or support following traumatic incidents (Burgers, 1994). Good staff management and organisational practices can serve as effective antidotes to PTSD. However, though some do manage the effects of psychological trauma, many cannot cope well. PTSD may manifest years after the incident; assuming a police official is coping well is dangerous and shortsighted. Leaving potential sufferers to apply for help is inadequate because they often fail to do so. Instead, treatment must be initiated, though not imposed (Gordon, 1993).

## **9. STRESS MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES**

According to Harpold (2002), the law enforcement profession must go upstream to prevent the negative impact of stress. Prevention, or at least the reduction, of the negative impact of stress proves crucial to the health of law enforcement officers. Comparing stress prevention or reduction to similar efforts, such as crime or disease prevention and reduction, can lead to a better understanding of how to approach the problem.

To bring the reduction or prevention of negative stress about, however, law enforcement officers first must consider some contributing factors inherent in their profession. For example, research in criminal victimisation has shown that those who have become victims are never the same as they were prior to their criminal victimisation Morton (as cited in Harpold, 2002). Likewise, officers are never the same as they were prior to entering the law enforcement profession. When they come in contact with individuals who have been victimised by criminals, officers also are victimised because people naturally relate to the pain of others. Victims of crime have experienced a violation of their inner selves and officers can easily empathise because of the realisation that this could have happened to anyone. Each time officers encounter this poisonous contact, the potential exists for their spirits to erode. After a period of time, the mind begins to build a wall to protect itself from experiencing any more pain. When this occurs, officers may display cold, unfeeling or cynical attitudes, even though they do not mean to. To prevent this from occurring, officers need the skills to combat this exposure and avoid becoming sick and dispirited. Anticipation through education may develop a better understanding of how

this distress may be contagious and will help to initiate action to guard against this phenomenon (Harpold, 2002).

## 9.1 INDIVIDUAL APPROACHES TO COPING WITH STRESS

Individuals are responsible for their own mechanisms for coping with stress. Stress management approaches which can be used include physical exercise, biofeedback, meditation, managing time effectively, nutrition and massage.

### 9.1.1 Physical exercise

Exercise is good for the mind as well as the body. Quick et al (1984) state that aerobically fit individuals have been shown to have a better interplay between their activating stress-response sympathetic nervous system and their relaxing, restorative para sympathetic nervous system. This suggests that fit individuals may be less psychologically reactive in stress situations.

Additional benefits of exercise include improved self-esteem, more restful sleep, a stronger and more attractive body and reduction of anxiety and depression (Patel, 1991). Exercise is also viewed as a coping mechanism which reduces the physiological consequences of stressful situations, alters mood states in the short-term and personality traits (e.g. anxiety and depression) in the long-term (Falkenberg, 1987).

According to Quick et al (1984), aerobic exercise is the only form of exercise which can predictably achieve cardio-respiratory fitness. Recreational sports such as squash and tennis can all be excellent ways of releasing tension and frustration but they do not provide the aerobic benefits. Similarly, many people find that a favorite activity or hobby such as gardening, sewing, listening to music, or soaking in a hot bath, can be tremendously helpful in releasing the build up tension.

Patel (1991) cites the following “S” factors that should be taken into account when exercising and they are:

**Safety:** choose a suitable activity for your age and ability.

**Suppleness:** develop the maximum range of movement of your joints, back and neck without strain to your muscles.

**Stamina:** staying power, endurance, or the ability to keep going without gasping for air.

**Strength:** the stronger the body the greater its chances of meeting physical demands without undue strain or injury.

**Satisfaction:** enjoy the exercise you do.

### **9.1.2 Biofeedback**

Biofeedback treatment is a way of regulating deranged biological functions by connecting an individual to electronic instruments, usually by means of electrode wires attached to appropriate parts of the body. The instruments then measure a variety of physiological functions and display them by means of visual or sound signals, skin temperature, sweat gland activity, the level of tension in the muscles, blood pressure, heart rate, and the electrical activity of the brain are examples of the functions which can be measured and displayed in these ways.

An individual can then try to change the function by subjective mental processes, in the desired direction. Any change in the physical function is immediately obvious by an appropriate change in the visual or sound signals. When individuals become relaxed, sweat gland activity becomes lower and the sound signal becomes fainter and fainter and eventually stops (Patel, 1991).



### 9.1.3 Meditation

According to Patel (1991), meditation has certain physiological and psychological effects, as well as the physical, emotional and spiritual well-being of the individual. Meditation practice involves taking a comfortable position; either sitting, lying down, or standing, although sitting is the most usual posture. The environment must be quiet. The practitioner regulates his breath, adopting a physical relaxed and mental passive attitude and finally he or she dwells single-mindedly upon an object.

The object of meditation does not have to be physical. It can be an idea, image, or happening; it can be mental repetition of a word or phrase as in mantra meditation; it can be observing own thoughts, perceptions or reactions, or it can be concentrating on some bodily generated rhythms like breathing. In religious practice, the object of concentration is God.

The ultimate idea is to learn the discipline of concentrating on one thing and only one thing at a time, everything else excluded. By giving voluntary concentration to a subject, not only is an individual able to see and think about that subject with greater clarity, but the mind also brings into consciousness all the different ideas and memories associated with the subject. The practical implication is an increased ability to find a solution to any problem.

In a deeper state of concentration, the process becomes more intimate and compelling. The mind that holds an idea becomes held by it. The goal of meditation is to narrow down the focus of attention to a point where, eventually, ordinary awareness breaks through to a more intense plane of consciousness. It is a state during which the mind is said to transcend the ordinary plane of awareness and is described as a state where the mind experiences intense joy, happiness, peace or serenity. "Meditation is an experience, a state of being" (Patel, 1991).

#### **9.1.4 Managing time effectively**

Many people manage their time poorly, however the things they have to accomplish in any given day or week are not necessarily beyond completion if they manage their time properly. The well-organised employee can accomplish twice as much as the person who is poorly organised. Understanding and utilisation of basic time management principles can help individuals better cope with job demands.

Haynes (1985) outlines the following ways of managing time:

- Making daily lists of activities to be accomplished;
- Prioritising activities by importance and urgency;
- Scheduling activities according to the priorities set;
- Knowing your daily cycle and handling the most demanding parts of your job during the high part of your cycle when you are most alert and productive.

#### **9.1.5 Nutrition**

When nutrition is good, organs, muscles, and tissues are healthy. Energy levels are high, bodies are strong and resistant to adverse effects of the environment, and minds are clear. When nutrition is defective, individuals can be susceptible to every kind of illness. Many diseases of modern society, including obesity, coronary heart disease, cancer of the bowel and migraine and even unlikely things like varicose veins have their roots in the type of foods eaten and the way these foods are processed (Patel, 1991).

Consume food containing omega-3 fatty acids which are found in fish; as well as fresh fruit and vegetables and a high quantity of fiber. An individual should try to cut out on the following food and additives:

- Saturated fats, as they encourage the liver to produce cholesterol and make the blood more prone to clot.

- Sugar, as it contributes to the risk of coronary heart disease. Those who consume a lot of sugar normally also consume a lot of fat, which causes an increase in the level of blood cholesterol.
- Salt, as a high consumption of salt is thought by many doctors to be a risk factor in high blood pressure which is, in turn, a risk factor in coronary heart disease and strokes (Patel, 1991).

### **9.1.6 Massage**

Patel (1991) describes massage as follows:

Deliberate, purposeful manipulation of either part or the whole of the body. Informally, it also includes vigorous rubbing, gentle stroking, or even kissing to ease pain or anxiety. Being massaged is enjoyable and relaxing. The human touch brings feelings of warmth and of being cared for. These gently increase our sense of well-being. Massage stimulates the circulation which both brings a fresh supply of fuel to all parts of the body and removes accumulated toxic wastes. It helps fluid damage and can reduce swelling.

Giving someone a massage using some of the best-known massage techniques, (Stroking, pummeling, kneading, circular pressure, and percussion movement), can be relaxing for both the giver and the recipient of the massage (Patel, 1991).

## **9.2 ORGANISATIONAL APPROACHES TO COPING WITH STRESS**

Several of the factors that cause stress – particularly task and role demands and organisation structure – are controlled by management. Management might consider the following strategies, as indicated by Robbins (1991), to alleviate stress, selection and placement, goal setting, job redesign, participative decision making and organisational communication.

### **9.2.1 Selection and placement**

While certain jobs are more stressful than others, individuals can differ in their response to stress situations. Individuals with little experience or an external locus of control tend to be more stress-prone. Selection and placement decisions should take these facts into consideration. While management should not restrict hiring to any experienced individuals with an internal locus, such individuals may adapt better to stress jobs and perform those jobs more effectively (Robbins, 1991).

### **9.2.2 Goal setting**

Robbins (1991) states that individuals perform better when they have specific and challenging goals and receive feedback on how well they are progressing toward these goals. The use of goals can reduce stress as well as provide motivation-specific goals that are perceived as attainable and clarify performance expectations. Goal feedback reduces uncertainties as to actual job performance and cause less employee frustration, role ambiguity and stress to occur.

### **9.2.3 Participative decision making**

Role stress is detrimental to a large extent because employees feel uncertain about goals, expectations, how they will be evaluated and the like. By giving employees voice in decisions that directly affect their job performances, management can increase employee control and reduce this role stress. Managers should thus consider increasing employee participation in decision making (Jackson, 1983).

### **9.2.4 Job redesign**

Redesigning jobs to give employees more responsibility, more meaningful work, more autonomy and increased feedback can reduce stress, because these factors give the employee greater control over work activities and lessen dependence on others. Employers must however be careful, because not all employees want enriched jobs. Employees with a low need for

growth might prefer job redesign where there is less responsibility and increased division of labour.

If individuals prefer structures and routine, reducing skill variety should also reduce uncertainties and stress levels (<http://www.findarticles.com>).

### **9.2.5 Organisational communication**

Increasing formal communication with employees reduces uncertainty by lessening role ambiguity and role conflict. Given the importance that perceptions play in moderating the stress-response relationship, management can also use effective communications as a means of shaping employee perceptions. What employees categorise as demands, threats or opportunities are merely an interpretation and that interpretation can be affected by the symbols and actions communicated by management (Robbins, 1991).

In a study published recently in the *British Medical Journal*, Harvard University researcher Yawen Cheng, Ph.D., surveyed more than 21,000 women and found that those with the most demanding jobs, little control over their work environment and lack of support from co-workers and supervisors were more likely to suffer from stress than those more content with their jobs. They also found that women suffered physical effects and symptoms ranged from anxiety to difficulty performing daily tasks like climbing stairs (Madison, 2000).

Ford-Martin (2000) suggests that the best therapy for alleviating stress sometimes is a family member, colleague or friend who will listen. Talking about stressful situations and events can help an individual work through his or her problems and consequently reduce the level of stress related to them. Having a social support network to turn to in times of trouble is critical to everyone's mental and physical well-being. Pet therapy has also been reported to relieve stress.

### 9.3 CORPORATE PROGRAMMES

Workers and management perceive work differently. Management places the problems on an “individual” basis related to personal limitations in personality traits, lifestyle behaviours and shortcomings in interpersonal communication skills. Workers tend to see the issues as related to the physical environment; the job itself with all its components, their colleagues, supervisors and management inputs.

Within the South African Police Service context the aim of primary prevention intervention at the level of the organism would be to contribute to the well-being of the police officer. Levels of happiness, satisfaction, adjustment and – it is hoped – functionality would be increased contributing to a safer community. At the level of the organisation such intervention aims at improving the general well-being of employees, reducing financial burdens, absenteeism, low productivity and dysfunctionality while increasing overall intra-organisational effectiveness.

Preventative educational workshops may focus on psychological well-being; symptoms indicative of pathology, such as impending suicide, depression and post-traumatic stress syndrome, inter-personal effectiveness; communication skills; assertiveness training. However, conflict resolution management; stress management; rational-emotive thinking skills; problem-solving skills; lateral thinking skills; cultural and gender sensitivity; leadership; decision-making skills and affirmative action also need attention (Van Niekerk et al, 2002).

An empowerment strategy may include the notion of self-help groups serving as a support network. Such networks may fulfill a dual function, providing a catchment for referrals from the South African Police Service psychological services as well as creating an opportunity for voluntary participation.

In self-help organisations people with problems in common are brought into contact with one another. This provides for mutual support in requesting or offering active assistance and dealing with common problems. Group members are expected to play a role in the management of their own problems, via confrontation within a supportive environment. Groups are democratically run, while individual members are not pathologised or stigmatised.

Although self-help groups allow for some professional participation or sponsorship, the achievement of success depends on the active participation and commitment of group members. The effective helper often receives valuable personalised learning while assisting the 'helpee'.

Kibel (as cited in Van Niekerk et al, 2000), discusses a possible physiological foundation to the experience of increased well-being by members of support groups. The author states that it is likely that serotonin levels in the brain increase as a result of successful participation in self-help groups. This has an effect similar to the psychotropic drug fluoxetine, which elevates serotonin levels with a concomitant experience of well-being.

Police officers job satisfaction may be enhanced by exposure to self-help groups. Such experiences equip officers to deal more sensitively and effectively with the psychological effects of crisis situations on victims, promoting while executing their daily duties, thus further enhances empowerment (Van Niekerk et al, 2000).

Matteson & Ivancevich (1987) classify stress management in various ways. Some of these strategies are described as preventative interventions, that is those which focus on eliminating stressors or neutralising it in some way before it becomes a source of stress. Others might be categorised as curative, that is, dissipating or relieving stress once it has been experienced. An alternative way of distinguishing between programmes is to identify the level of intervention.

The following corporate programmes have been developed: Employee Assistance Programs (EAPs), and wellness or Health Promotion Programmes (HPPs).

### **9.3.1 Employee Assistance Programmes (EAPs)**



EAPs are defined as “job-based programmes operating within a work organisation for the purposes of identifying troubled employees, motivating them to resolve their troubles and providing access to counseling or treatment for those employees who need these services” (Sonnenstuhl & Trice, 1986).

Although they have their origins in the occupational alcoholism programme begun in the 1940s, modern EAPs also help employees with drug and mental health problems that may be affecting their work (Masi, 1992). Possible outcomes that may be affected by EAPs include productivity, turnover, unemployment costs, treatment for substance abuse, absenteeism, use of supervisors' time, accidents, training and replacement costs and insurance benefits (Cascio, 1991).

### **9.3.2 Wellness or Health Promotion Programmes (HPPs)**

Wellness or Health Promotion Programmes (HPPs) are made up of activities that promote behaviour and company practices that ensure employee health and fitness Gebhard & Crump (as cited in DeSimone, 1998).

Unlike disease prevention and health protection programmes, HPPs and wellness programmes are based on the premise that wellness is more than mere absence of disease. These programmes attempt to encourage individuals to adopt lifestyles that maximise overall well-being (Wolfe, 1994).

Four common components of HPPs are exercise and fitness, smoking cessation, nutrition and weight control and hypertension control.

## **10. SUMMARY**

Just as with the crime prevention comparison, the law enforcement community can borrow the three phases of disease prevention from public health medicine to help in the battle against stress. In the primary phase of disease prevention, doctors focus on educating people who live healthy lifestyles about unhealthy behaviours so that they will not choose to engage in those behaviours and become ill.



In the secondary phase of disease prevention, doctors target those individuals engaged in behaviour that may lead to disease, but who are still healthy. The doctors attempt to educate these people so that they will stop the dangerous behaviour (e.g., smoking) before they contract such ailments as lung cancer, emphysema, or heart disease. The final, or tertiary, prevention phase involves treating sick individuals and educating them to choose not to continue the behaviour that resulted in their illness. This represents the most costly phase of the three and the one that stands the least chance of being effective because treatment usually offers no guarantee of success once a serious illness has developed, American Psychiatric Glossary, (6<sup>th</sup> ed.) (as cited in Harpold, 2002).

If the law enforcement community applies the three phases of public health medicine's concept of prevention to developing a stress reduction model, then choosing the primary phase makes the most sense. Why wait until the negative influences have broken into a healthy lifestyle and the individual is so sick with stress that the tertiary phase is required to attempt to restore health?, American Psychiatric Glossary, (16<sup>th</sup> ed.) (as cited in Harpold, 2002).

Peale (1996) suggests that "officers also can choose to think positive thoughts". According to Plato (2001) "thinking is the soul talking to itself". This should be a positive dialogue. Officers should choose to cultivate an energetic, positive, and loving spirit. To help in this effort, they also should choose to associate or interact with others who think and act in a positive manner as well.

Fortunately, the law enforcement profession has made great strides since 1963 in the development of programmes to treat officers exposed to horrific incidents. However, room exists for improving these treatment efforts and for enhancing the credibility of programmes so that officers will participate in them. Most important, however, the law enforcement community must remind officers of the negative effects of stress and provide them with the skills to deal with the demands of their profession (Harpold, 2002).

As law enforcement officers become healthier, their agencies need to consider their health as well. According to Harpold (2000)

“police agencies need to be healthy before they can treat the community’s illnesses and injuries. Signs of good health include pride, self-esteem, quality leadership, comprehensive training, and board certification. They always should demonstrate an appropriate bedside manner and always practice what they preach.

Choosing to be healthy is the best weapon against the negative influences of stress. Once a commitment is made to fight back against the negative factors of stress, life becomes healthier and more enjoyable. Fighting back includes the deliberate adoption and implementation of stress reduction techniques and the vigilance of the law enforcement community to protect its members from the effects of negative stress as vigorously as officers protect society from lawlessness.

More important than discovering that the negative impact of stress still exists is developing a comprehensive strategy to prevent or reduce it. Sadly, little is being done to inoculate new law enforcement personnel against the poisonous effects of negative stress.

The next chapter will focus on Burnout including its definitions, stages and solutions.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **LITTERATURE SURVEY: BURNOUT AND ENGAGEMENT**

#### **1. INTRODUCTION**

The relationship that people have with their work and the difficulties that can arise when that relationship goes awry have been long recognised as a significant phenomenon of the modern age. The use of the term burnout for this phenomenon began to appear with some regularity in the 1970s in the United States, especially among people working in the human services. This popular usage was presaged by Greene's 1961 novel, *A Burn-Out Case*, in which a spiritually tormented and disillusioned architect quits his job and withdraws into the African jungle. Even earlier writing, both fictional and non-fictional, described similar phenomena, including extreme fatigue and the loss of idealism and passion for one's job. What is noteworthy is that the importance of burnout as a social problem was identified by both practitioners and social commentators long before it became a focus of systematic study by researchers (Maslach, 2001).

Abstract burnout is a prolonged response to chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors on the job and is defined by the three dimensions of exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficacy (Maslach, 2001).

#### **2. DEFINITIONS OF BURNOUT**

Burnout is conceptualized as a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that occurs frequently among individuals who do "people work" of some kind (Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

Burnout, as defined by Ford-Martin (2002), is an emotional condition, marked by tiredness, loss of interest, or frustration that interferes with job performance. Burnout is usually regarded as the result of prolonged stress.

Dessler (1997), defines burnout as the total exhaustion of physical and mental resources as a result of excessive striving to reach an unrealistic work-related goal, combined with an overload of job stress.

According to Frings, (2001) Webster's Dictionary defines burnout as exhaustion of physical or emotional strength or motivation, usually as a result of prolonged stress or frustration.

Bailey (2001), summarises the definitions of burnout as:

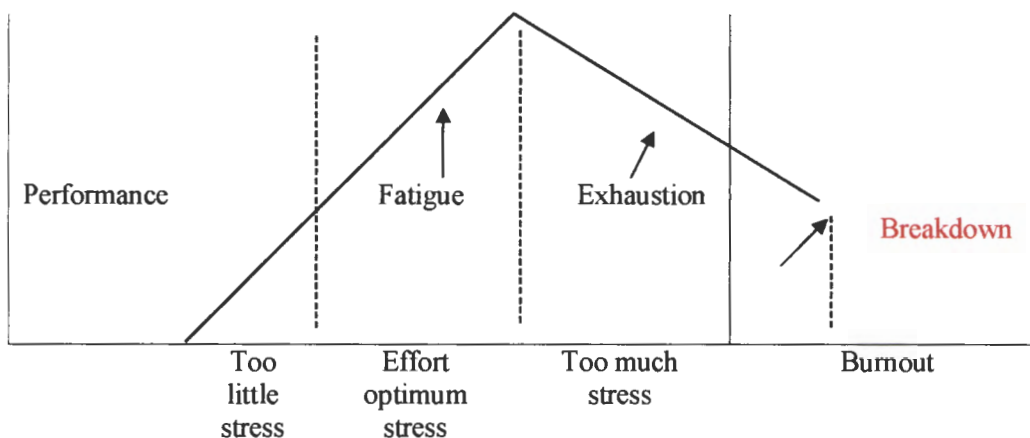
“a self-induced state that goes hand-in-hand with allowing yourself to be victimised by life, by your job, or anything else. A major part of burnout is doing something for such a long period of time or so intensely that it creates stress. Although you can work at maximum intensity for a long period of time without being stressed if the task is something you enjoy. Therein lies the key to understanding what's called burnout in the workplace. Burnout is likely to occur when you spend a great deal of time and energy on something that you don't like to do or that you don't feel is important. We're all the more vulnerable because of the frantic pace of our lives; we're always trying to do more in less time. This imposes an even higher level of frustration when we feel that our precious time is being spent inappropriately”.

When an individual identifies a stressor at work, the normal reaction is to blame someone or something—his or her boss, the new computer system, the merger or regulations. While any of these things may have caused a change that has created stress for an individual, the only thing accomplished by blaming someone or something is to allow himself or herself to continue as a victim. As long as an individual feels victimised, he or she will not feel good and he or she will be in a potential burnout mode (Frings, 2001).

### **3. THE HUMAN PERFORMANCE CURVE**

Burnout does not occur all of a sudden, it first starts with stress and then develops further, until the situation becomes unbearable.

Figure 4.1 The human performance curve.



Source: Patel (1991). The complete guide to stress management. London, Plenum Press.

The human performance curve as described by Patel (1991).

**Too little stress** – In this situation there is insufficient challenge to achieve a sense of personal accomplishment. Skills are underutilised and lack of stimulation leads to boredom. There is a lack of purpose or meaning in life.

**Optimum stress** – Life is balanced and despite ups and downs, perfectly manageable. Job satisfaction and a sense of achievement enable the person to cruise through daily work without much difficulty and to be pleasantly tired at the end of the day.



**Too much stress** – There is a constant feeling of having too much to do every day. Despite emotional and physical exhaustion the person is unable to take time off to rest and play. He is in permanent overdrive but is not achieving results as expected.

**Breakdown** – If his or her efforts are continued the person may develop chronic neurotic tendencies or one of several psychosomatic illnesses. Excessive stress may show up in excessive drinking or smoking or in reliance on tranquilizers or sleeping pills. Accidents may occur at work or at home as the stressed individual is likely to be preoccupied with unresolved tensions. He or she may attack others or incite others to attack him or her. Sometimes opposite reactions may occur. As relationships deteriorate, the person may become withdrawn. If these signs are recognised by the individual or by those who surround him or her and appropriate steps are taken, he or she may pull himself/herself out of disequilibrium, and mental or physical tragedies will be avoided. If on the other hand, he or she continues his or her efforts, despite exhaustion, he or she is likely to have a mental or physical breakdown. Severe depression and coronary heart attack are examples of such breakdowns.

#### **4. STAGES IN THE STRESS CYCLE**

According to Patel (1991), one of the most common and often unrecognised syndromes of job stress is burnout. Like a disease, it progresses slowly and goes through recognisable stages.

Veninga and Spradley (as cited in Patel, 1991) describe five stages of stress, which are:

##### **4.1 STAGE OF JOB CONTENTMENT**

The individual is happy with the job he or she does. He or she puts in more and more energy, but if it is not replenished in good time or adequately, the second stage is gradually reached.

##### **4.2 STAGE OF FUEL SHORTAGE**

This person begins to feel tired, there is a lack of energy, and sleep becomes disturbed. He or she begins to complain of not being able to do as many things as he or she once did, creativity is low, there is a tendency to avoid making decisions and toward increased cynicism.

#### 4.3 STAGE OF CHRONIC SYMPTIONS

He or she begins to feel exhausted and may feel physically ill. There are vague symptoms like bodyache, nausea, tension headaches or back pain. There is a tendency to wake up in the morning feeling tired. A once calm, easygoing person becomes chronically angry or always on the verge of losing his or her temper.

#### 4.4 STAGE OF CRISIS

Symptoms become critical and periods when the person's thoughts are not riveted on the job are increasingly rare. The mind is constantly preoccupied with work problems, even when the person is watching television or having family dinner. At times there is an overwhelming urge to escape from it all – the job, the family and the whole way of life.

#### 4.5 STAGE OF FINAL BREAKDOWN

Finally, the persons feels unable to continue and some drown themselves in alcohol and drugs. Others have a mental or physical breakdown in the form of depression or a heart attack. There is serious deterioration in the functioning of one or more organs of the body.

Organisational Factors:

1. *Job demands:*

- work overload
- role conflict
- role ambiguity
- deadlines
- more responsibility
- critical and immediate decisions
- emotional demands

2. *Job resources:*

- physical
- psychological
- social
- organisational aspects
- staff shortages
- inadequate equipment
- lack of recognition
- lack of supervisory support
- lacking of opportunities for advancement
- inadequate salary
- poor collegial support

Demographic Variables:

- age
- gender
- marital status
- education

Personality Traits:

- neuroticism
- extraversion
- openness to experience
- agreeableness
- conscientiousness

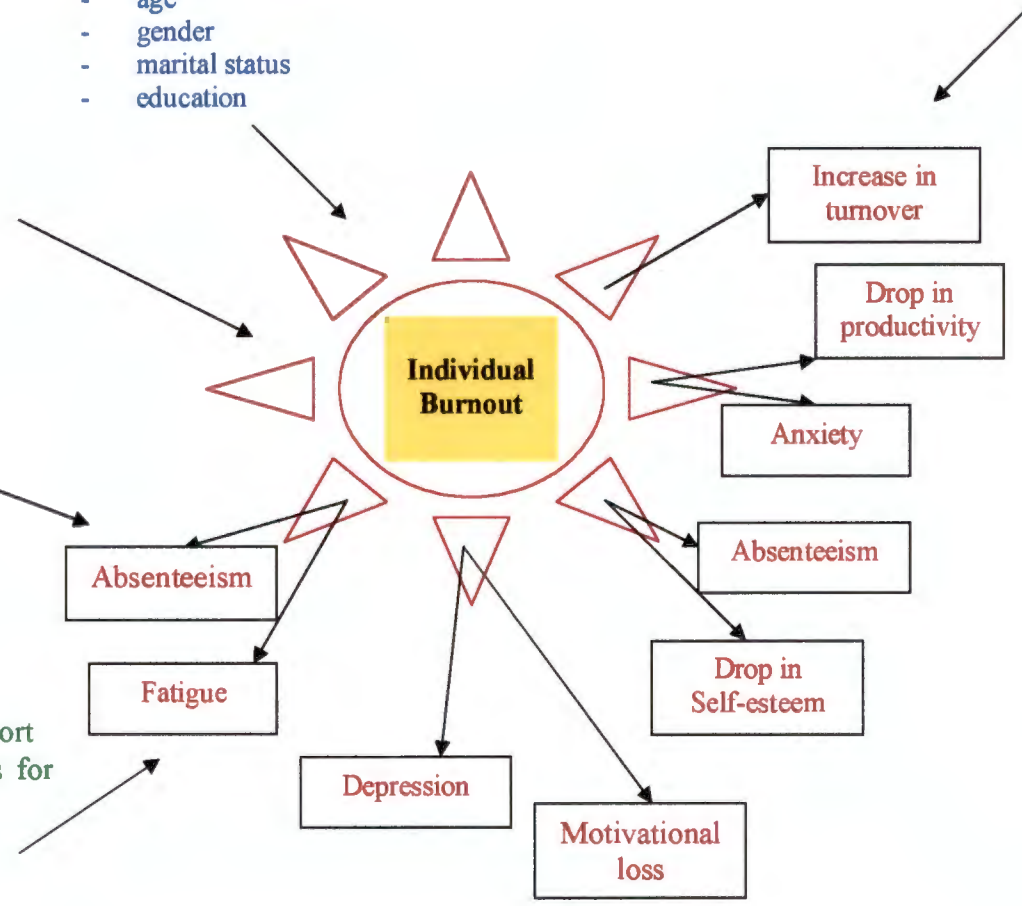


Figure 4.2 Factors which causes burnout and the effects of burnout on the individual.



## **5. FACTORS WHICH CAUSE BURNOUT**

Factors which contribute to burnout are; organisational factors, biographical characteristics and personally traits.

### **5.1 ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS**

Burnout is an individual experience that is specific to the work context. Thus, the research over the past 25 years has maintained a consistent focus on the situational factors that are the prime correlates of this phenomenon. The results of this research paint a clear picture of the impact of the work situation on individual burnout.

#### **5.1.1 Workload**

According to Maslach (2000), a mismatch in workload is generally found as excessive overload, through the simple formula that too many demands exhaust an individual's energy to the extent that recovery becomes impossible. A workload mismatch may also result from the wrong kind of work, as when people lack the skills or inclination for a certain type of work, even when it is required in reasonable quantities. Emotional work is especially draining when the job requires people to display emotions inconsistent with their feelings.

Quantitative job demands (e.g. too much work for the available time) have been studied by many burnout researchers and the findings support the general notion that burnout is a response to overload. Experienced workload and time pressure are strongly and consistently related to burnout, particularly the exhaustion dimension. This pattern is found with both self-reports of experienced strain and more objective measures of demands (such as number of hours worked and number of clients) (Maslach, 2001).

According to Wellsley (2000), being under-worked is even more likely to lead to burnout than being overworked. The fact is, most people want to work and feel as if they are contributing something to the company. If an employer does not allow employees to work at their full potential, they will feel unproductive and unsatisfied. Generally, workload is most directly related to the exhaustion aspect of burnout (Maslach, 2001).

### **5.1.2 Role conflict and ambiguity**

Studies of qualitative job demands have focused primarily on role conflict and role ambiguity, both of which consistently show a moderate to high correlation with burnout. Role conflict occurs when conflicting demands at the job have to be met, whereas role ambiguity occurs when there is a lack of adequate information to do the job well. Other qualitative job demands (such as the severity of client's problems) have only been studied occasionally, but the correlations are in the same direction (Maslach, 2001).

### **5.1.3 Control**

Rigid policies or a chaotic office environment prevents an employee from following through on his or her projects and leaves him or her floundering (Maslach, 1999). Maslach (2001) also states that a mismatch in control is generally related to the inefficacy or reduced personal accomplishment aspect of burnout. Mismatches in control most often indicate that individuals have insufficient control over the resources needed to do their work or have insufficient authority to pursue the work in what they believe is the most effective manner. Individuals who are overwhelmed by their level of responsibility may experience a crisis in control as well as in workload. This mismatch is reflected as one of responsibilities exceeding one's authority. It is distressing for people to feel responsible for producing results to which they are deeply committed while lacking the capacity to deliver on that mandate.

Burnout is also higher for people who have little participation in decision making. Similarly, a lack of autonomy is correlated with burnout, although the strength of the relationship is weaker.

According to Teitler (1999), “without a sense that you are responsible and are empowered to make decisions, you’re bound to feel like you’ve got no control over the outcome of your efforts”.

#### **5.1.4 Absence of job resources**

The resource that has been studied most extensively has been social support and there is now a consistent and strong body of evidence that a lack of social support is linked to burnout. Lack of support from supervisors is especially important, even more so than support from coworkers. Within the social support literature, there is also a “buffering” hypothesis that suggests that social support should moderate the relationship between job stressors and burnout (i.e. the relationship will be strong when social support is low, but weak when support is high). However, studies of this hypothesis have met with mixed success and it is not clear whether this outcome is due to methodological or theoretical issues (Maslach, 2001).

Vernarec (2001) states that peer counselors are recommended as they help individuals release their emotions and understand that sleep disturbance, dreams and even flashbacks are normal reactions to experiencing a critical incident. The author believes that “knowing there’s a peer you can talk with accelerates recovery”. The support of coworkers and supervisors -- beyond their importance during episodes of traumatic stress – is also an important antidote to chronic stress.

It might happen that people lose a sense of positive connection with others in the workplace. People thrive in community and function best when they share praise, comfort, happiness and humor with people they like and respect. In addition to emotional exchange and instrumental assistance, this kind of social support reaffirms a person’s membership in a group with a shared sense of values. Unfortunately, some jobs isolate people from each other, or make social contact impersonal. However, what is most destructive of community is chronic and unresolved

conflict with others on the job. Such conflict produces constant negative feelings of frustration and hostility and reduces the likelihood of social support (Maslach, 2001).

### **5.1.5 Reward**

There is sometimes, a lack of appropriate rewards for the work people do. Sometimes these may be insufficient financial rewards, as when people are not receiving the salary or benefits commensurate with their achievements. Even more important at times is the lack of social rewards, as when one's hard work is ignored and not appreciated by others. This lack of recognition devalues both the work and the workers. The simplest kind words can often motivate to strive for even higher goals and make people feel like the work they're doing is worth the effort and stress (Teitler, 1999). In addition, the lack of intrinsic rewards (such as pride in doing something of importance and doing it well) can also be a critical part of this mismatch. Lack of reward is closely associated with feelings of inefficiency (Maslach, 2001).

### **5.1.6 Fairness**

According to Teitler (1991), when companies place emphases on short-term financial success rather than building an organisational community, they are fostering an environment that lacks trust, openness and respect. Pressure and competition in the marketplace can lead to secrecy. When a company fails to disclose important information to its employees, it makes planning very difficult. In essence, it is simply unfair to expect planners to be able to work when they are not even sure in what direction their company is moving.

Maslach (2000) states that a serious mismatch between the person and the job occurs when there is not perceived fairness in the workplace. Fairness communicates respect and confirms people's self-worth. Mutual respect between people is central to a shared sense of community. Unfairness can occur when there is inequity of workload or pay, when there is cheating or when evaluations and promotions are handled inappropriately. If procedures for grievance or dispute resolution do not allow for both parties to have a voice, then those will be judged as unfair. A

lack of fairness exacerbates burnout in at least two ways. First, the experience of unfair treatment is emotionally upsetting and exhausting. Second, unfairness fuels a deep sense of cynicism about the workplace.

### **5.1.7 Values**

According to Maslach (2001), it might occur that there is a conflict between values. In some cases, people might feel constrained by the job to do things that are unethical and not in accord with their own values. The example given is that, in order to make a sale or to obtain a necessary authorisation, they might have to tell a lie or be otherwise deceptive or not forthcoming with the truth. In other instances, there may be a mismatch between their personal aspirations for their career and the values of the organisation. People can also be caught between conflicting values of the organisation, as when there is a discrepancy between the lofty mission statement and actual practice, or when the values are in conflict (e.g. high quality service and cost containment do not always co-exist).

If the company is consistently looking at the bottom line, while customer satisfaction is its main concern, perhaps the problem lies in a conflict of values. If management is telling employees to act in a manner that goes against their personal beliefs about how their job should be performed, they are swimming upstream (<http://www.findarticles.com>).

## **5.2 DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES**

According to Maslach (1999)

people do not simply respond to the work setting; rather, they bring unique qualities to the relationship. These personal factors include demographic variables such as age, gender, marital status and education. Several of these individual characteristics have been found to be related to burnout. However, these relationships are not as great in size as those for burnout and situational factors, which suggests that **burnout is more of a social phenomenon than an individual one.**

### 5.2.1 Age

According to Maslach et al (2001), Schaefer and Enzman (1998), of all the demographic variables that have been studied, age is the one that has been most consistently related to burnout. Among younger employees the level of burnout is reported to be higher than it is among those over 30 or 40 years old. Age is confounded with work experience, so burnout appears to be more of a risk earlier in one's career. The reasons for such an interpretation have not been studied very thoroughly.

Wissing and Van Eeden (as cited in Storm et al, 2002) found that clear difference between young and older individuals on various indexes of psychological well-being. Young officers could be expected to experience lower levels of work engagements than the older individuals. However, these findings should be viewed with caution because of the problem of survival bias, i.e., those who burn out early in their careers are likely to quit their jobs, leaving behind the survivors who consequently exhibit lower levels of burnout (Maslach, 2001).

### 5.2.2 Gender

The relationship of burnout with gender is not so clear-cut. Some studies show higher burnout for females, some show higher scores for males and others found no difference at all. The one small but consistent difference is that females scored slightly higher on exhaustion and males on depersonalization (Maslach et al, 2001). Johnson (1991) found that female officers scored

relatively high on emotional exhaustion, whereas males scored relatively high on depersonalization. However, Kop et. al. (1999) found no difference between male and female police officers. Stearns and Moore (1990) found that males reported only moderate burnout on the depersonalization subscale, while females reported a higher level of burnout. On the personal accomplishment subscale, both male and female police officers reported high burnout levels. Cannizzo and Liu (1995) also found that males scored higher on depersonalisation and females higher on emotional exhaustion, but these differences were not statistically significant (Storm & Roothman in press).

Another small but consistent gender difference is that males often score higher on cynicism (Maslach, 1999). Maslach (1999) states that the results could be related to gender role stereotypes, but they may also reflect the confounding of gender with occupation (e.g. police officers are more likely to be male, nurses are more likely to be female).

### **5.2.3 Marital status**

With regard to marital status, those who are unmarried (especially men) seem to be more prone to burnout compared with those who are married. Singles seem to experience even higher burnout levels than those who are divorced. As for ethnicity, very few studies have assessed this demographic variable, so it is not possible to summarise any empirical trends (Maslach, 1999).

### **5.2.4 Education**

Maslach (2001) states that some studies have found that those with a higher level of education report higher levels of burnout than less educated employees. It is not clear how to interpret this finding, given that education is confounded with other variables, such as occupation and status. It is possible that people with higher education have jobs with greater responsibilities and higher stress. Or it may be that more highly educated people have higher expectations for their jobs and are thus more distressed if these expectations are not realized.



Some indications were found that those with a higher level of education were more prone to experience burnout than less educated employees. Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) attribute this to higher expectations of more educated individuals or to the fact that they might gain positions with more responsibility (over less educated persons).

### 5.3 PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS

Several personality traits have been studied in an attempt to discover which types of people may be at greater risk for experiencing burnout (Storm & Rothman, 2002).

The FFM is used in research regarding personality in organisations. The FFM identity five constrains to the personality (McCrae & Costa, 1997). The five constraints are however better defined by Storm and Rothman (2001).

#### 5.3.1 Neuroticism

Such people have a tendency to experience negative emotion such as anxiety, depression or madness, hostility and self-consciousness, as well as a tendency to be impulsive.

#### 5.3.2 Extraversion

People high in extraversion tend to experience positive emotions and to be warm, gregarious, fun loving and assertive.

#### 5.3.3 Openness to experience

People high in openness to experience are inclined to be curious, imaginative, empathetic, creative, original, artistic, psychologically minded, aesthetically responsive and flexible.



### **5.3.4 Agreeableness**

It reflects a proclivity to be good-natured, acquiescent, courteous, helpful, flexible, co-operative, tolerant, soft-hearted and trusting.

### **5.3.5 Conscientiousness**

These people have a tendency to be habitual, careful, reliable, hard-working, well-organised and purposeful.

## **6. DIMENSIONS OF BURNOUT**

In the 1980s the work on burnout shifted to more systematic empirical research. This work was more quantitative in nature, utilising questionnaire and survey methodology and studying larger subject populations. A particular focus of this research was the assessment of burnout, and several different measures were developed. The scale that has had the strongest psychometric properties and continues to be used most widely by researchers is the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981).

The MBI was originally designed for use in human service occupations. However, in response to the interest in burnout by teachers, a second version of the MBI was soon developed for use by educational occupations. With the growing body of empirical research, alternative proposals began to be generated about the developmental course of burnout over time.

What has emerged from all of this research is a conceptualisation of job burnout as a psychological syndrome in response to chronic interpersonal stressors on the job. The three key dimensions of this response are an overwhelming exhaustion, feelings of cynicism and detachment from the job and a sense of ineffectiveness and lack of accomplishment (Maslach, 1998).

The exhaustion component represents the basic individual stress dimension of burnout. It refers to feelings of being overextended and depleted of one's emotional and physical resources. The cynicism (or depersonalisation) component represents the interpersonal context dimension of burnout. It refers to a negative, callous, or excessively detached response to various aspects of the job. The component of reduced efficacy or accomplishment represents the self-evaluation dimension of burnout. It refers to feelings of incompetence and a lack of achievement and productivity at work (Leiter & Maslach, 1988).

## 6.1 EXHAUSTION

Exhaustion is the central quality of burnout and the most obvious manifestation of this complex syndrome. When people describe themselves or others as experiencing burnout, they are most often referring to the experience of exhaustion. Of the three aspects of burnout, exhaustion is the most widely reported and the most thoroughly analysed. The strong identification of exhaustion with burnout has led some to argue that the other two aspects of the syndrome are incidental or unnecessary (Shirom, 1989). However, the fact that exhaustion is a necessary criterion for burnout does not mean it is sufficient. If one were to look at burnout out of context, and simply focus on the individual exhaustion component, one would lose sight of the phenomenon entirely (Maslach, 2001).

In a study in South Africa, Pieters (as cited in Storm & Rothman, 2002), found relatively low burnout levels in a sample of police officers. It must however be mentioned that the Burnout Measure was used (Pines, Aronson & Kafry, 1981) – a measuring instrument that has not yet been standardised in South Africa and could also not be used to classify people who are presumably at risk of developing burnout because valid norms were lacking Schaufeli, Ensmann and Girault (as cited in Storm & Rothman, 2002). Pieters (as cited in Storm et al, 2002), also mentions that the low burnout levels could be due to the measuring instrument as well as to a denial of the problem in the SAPS.

In South Africa increases in layoffs for psychological reasons since 1991 have been noted, suggesting that many police officers experience their present circumstances as traumatic and feel unsupported and unable to cope. Often, members of the police force are also victims of violence. In Gauteng Province alone there were 143 attacks on police officials in 2001. An average of four officers a month was killed in the line of duty (Van der Walt, 2002).

There are often few positive counterbalances to the psychological and emotional stresses that accompany the police profession. Police officers do not have appropriate outlets for dealing with stresses common in their work. Expression of feelings is extremely limited in the police culture. In the face of highly traumatic and stressful situations, it is expected of them to maintain their composure and distance themselves from intense emotional reactions (Nel & Burgers, 1996).

As the psychological and emotional stress begins to take its toll, many police officers eventually become almost unemotional and find it difficult to respond emotionally to conflict situations (Maslach, 1978). Therefore, it could be expected that police officers would experience high levels of exhaustion.

Although exhaustion reflects the stress dimension of burnout, it fails to capture the critical aspects of the relationship people have with their work.

## 6.2 CYNICISM

Exhaustion is not something that is simply experienced - rather, it prompts actions to distance oneself emotionally and cognitively from one's work, presumably as a way to cope with the work overload. Within the human services, the emotional demands of the work can exhaust a service provider's capacity to be involved with and responsive to the needs of service recipients. Depersonalisation can be described as an attempt to put distance between oneself and service recipients by actively ignoring the qualities that make them unique and engaging people. Their demands are more manageable when they are considered impersonal objects of one's work.

People use cognitive distancing by developing an indifference or cynical attitude when exhausted and discouraged. Distancing is an immediate reaction to exhaustion; a strong relationship from exhaustion to cynicism (depersonalisation) is found consistently in burnout research, across a wide range of organisational and occupational settings (Maslach, 2001).

Negative aspects of police work such as threats of violence, the militaristic and bureaucratic nature of the organisation and contact with the public that are sometimes negative and confrontational may contribute to feelings of cynicism Stearns and Moore (as cited in Storm et al, 2002). The latter is the most devastating, in that a police officer may tend to feel rejection from a society which he or she has undertaken to serve and protect. Violence, with its consequences, is another factor which influences levels of cynicism. Constant exposure to violence and crime change almost a person's outlook upon his environment and also his feelings toward other people. According to Violanti and Marshall (1983), cynical and authoritarian attitudes are considered to be a form of coping with the demands of such a stressful occupation. Because of a possibility of overexposure of police members to violence and trauma in South Africa, high levels of cynicism are expected.

### 6.3 INEFFICACY

The relationship of inefficacy (reduced personal accomplishment) to the other two aspects of burnout is somewhat more complex. In some instances it appears to be a function, to some degree, of either exhaustion, cynicism, or a combination of the two (Byrne, 1994).

A work situation with chronic, overwhelming demands that contribute to exhaustion or cynicism is likely to erode one's sense of effectiveness. Exhaustion or depersonalisation interfere with effectiveness. It seems difficult to gain a sense of accomplishment when feeling exhausted or when helping people toward whom one is indifferent. In other job contexts, inefficacy appears to develop in parallel with the other two burnout aspects, rather than sequentially (Leiter, 1993). The lack of efficacy seems to arise more clearly from a lack of relevant resources (Maslach, 2001).

According to Jackson, Schwab and Schuler (as cited in Storm et al, 2002),

Police professionals also seem as experiencing an overall lack of feeling professional efficacy. Police members who see little, if any, positive change as a result of their efforts are likely to view themselves negatively and do only what is required and nothing more. These officers will eventually feel that nothing they do will truly satisfy anyone. Ever-rising crime rates and violence, lack of opportunity due to the nature of the job, recurring conflicts settled the previous day as well as little chance for promotion, to name a few, can contribute to decreased feelings of efficacy.

## **7. COSTS OF BURNOUT**

According to Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998), burnout has shown to have several negative consequences for the organisation as well as for the individual. Burnout attributes to health problems, fatigue, motivation loss and a sense of failure. To the organisation the outcomes will be employee absenteeism, drop in productivity rates and an increase in turnover rates.

People who are experiencing burnout can have a negative impact on their colleagues, both by causing greater personal conflict and by disrupting job tasks. Thus, burnout can be “contagious” and perpetuate itself through informal interactions on the job. There is also some evidence that burnout has a negative “spillover” effect on people’s home life (Burke & Greenglass, 2001).

In terms of mental health, the link with burnout is more complex. As mentioned earlier, burnout has been linked to the personality dimension of neuroticism and the psychiatric profile of job-related neurasthenia. Such data might support the argument that burnout is itself a form of mental illness. A more common assumption has been that burnout causes mental dysfunction – that is, it precipitates negative effects in terms of mental health, such as anxiety, depression and

drops in self-esteem. People who are mentally healthy are better able to cope with chronic stressors and thus less likely to experience burnout (Maslach, 2001).

According to (Die Beeld, 10 Desember 2003) up to 60 percent of the members of the police service are victims of household violence or are the oppressor of the house. Due to the fact that officers have this problem in their own home, they find it difficult to know how to handle the problem when one of the members of the public asks for help.

## **8. SOLUTIONS TO COUNTERACT BURNOUT**

Burnout is a serious problem in today's workplace. Companies everywhere are downsizing, outsourcing and restructuring, leaving workers at all levels feeling stressed, insecure, misunderstood, undervalued and alienated. The cost of unhappy workers is high -- both for employees and organisations -- because burned-out employees do the bare minimum instead of their very best (Maslach, 1999).

### **8.1 WORKLOAD**

Maslach (1999) makes the following suggestion:

don't allow the job to eat you alive, make your workload manageable, enabling you to meet the demands of the job and even extend yourself to meet new challenges (Maslach, 1999). Do the work you can, the work you can't --  
- delegate.

Cejka (1999) suggests that a person can ask for the position to be restructured so that it is less stressful.

According to Wellsley (2000):

if bored, the solution is to ask for more work. Not getting a chance to work to your full potential is one of the biggest reasons for job burnout. Some managers never learned to delegate. Another reason may be that managers make themselves feel more important by hogging all the work and leaving staffers in the dark.

Wellsley also suggests breaking a daily routine by doing something new, or taking on different work, or learning something new enriches ones life. Life and work become dull when you stop learning. Learning something new about your work, keep your interest and excitement levels high”.

## 8.2 CONTROL

Many people take on too many commitments and drain nearly all of their energy. An individual should start taking control of his or her time by realising that he or she does not have to accept every invitation or tolerate every interruption. She or he should learn how to tactfully say ‘no’ and save his or her energy for more important matters (Ammondson, 2001).

According to Maslach (1999)

“A good idea is to take the opportunity whenever to make decisions, solve problems and determine the outcome of the projects for which you’re accountable”.

## 8.3 REWARD

Even though an individual’s reward may be insufficient, an individual can take pride in his or her work. Knowing that others see the work as important will cause the individual’s to continue putting in extraordinary efforts (Maslach, 1999).

## 8.4 OTHER SOLUTIONS TO BEAT BURNOUT

Parachin (1999), suggests several ways to relieve internal stress, they are:

**Begin the day with peaceful thinking.** Rather than jumping out of bed and rushing to start your day, take a few minutes – from five to 15 – to meditate, read a short inspiring passage, think peaceful thoughts and/or appreciate the gift of a fresh day. This establishes a peace in your spirit which will manifest itself throughout the day.

**Live in the present moment.** Anxiety increases when we brood about a past issue or fret about a future event. Remind yourself daily to live in the present.

**Give yourself some credit.** Each day, take a moment to pat yourself on the back for all the things you did. Remember, you get to make mistakes. Many people sink into despair or scold themselves unmercifully after making a mistake. The important thing to remember is that everyone makes mistakes, so ease up on yourself.

**Create peaceful images in your mind.** Several times during your workday, pause briefly to create a peaceful image in your mind. An example, be to picture yourself gently canoeing on a calm, still lake with the sun shining brilliantly. Imagine yourself sitting quietly on a hillside where you are completely surrounded by beautiful wildflowers. The more you practice this technique, the easier you will relieve daily stresses.



**Think positively.** During a day when you face a crisis, think “challenge”. Approaching any stressful event in this manner will positively boost your energy. So the next time you face a conflict, think in positive terms. When you face an obstacle, think “opportunity”.

**Carry the serenity prayer with you.** This 25-word prayer, written years ago by Professor Reinhold Niebuhr at Union Theological Seminary in New York, has helped many people regain balance in their lives: “God, grant me the serenity to accept the things I cannot change, courage to change the things I can, and wisdom to know the difference”. Carry those words with you and memorize them (<http://www.findarticles.com>).

## **9. JOB ENGAGEMENT**

Traditionally, the focus of psychology has been on negative states rather than on positive ones. In fact, the number of articles examining negative states outnumbers the positive states by a ratio of 17 to 1 Diener Suh, Lucas and Smith (as cited in Maslach, 2001). However, more attention is now being paid to the study of human strengths and optimal functioning. This “positive psychology” is seen as an alternative to the predominant focus on pathology and deficits. The concept of burnout (which represents a negative psychological state) is being supplemented and enlarged by its positive antitheses of job engagement.

## 9.1 DEFINING OF JOB ENGAGEMENT

### DEFINITION OF JOB ENGAGEMENT BY MASLACH AND LEITER (1997)

Maslach and Leiter (1997) rephrased burnout as an erosion of engagement with the job. What started out as important, meaningful and challenging work becomes unpleasant, unfulfilling and meaningless. Energy turns into exhaustion, involvement turns into cynicism and efficacy turns into ineffectiveness. Accordingly, engagement is characterised by energy, involvement and efficacy – the direct opposites of the three burnout dimensions. By implication, engagement is assessed by the opposite pattern of scores on the three MBI dimensions.

According to Maslach (2001), engagement is distinct from established constructs in organisational psychology, such as organisational commitment, job satisfaction, or job involvement. Organisational commitment refers to an employee's allegiance to the organisation that provides employment. The focus is on the organisation, whereas engagement focuses on the work itself. Job satisfaction is the extent to which work is a source of need fulfillment and contentment, or a means of freeing employees from hassles or dissatisfies. It does not encompass the person's relationship with the work itself. Job involvement is similar to the involvement aspect of engagement with work, but does not include the energy and effectiveness dimensions. Engagement provides a more complex and thorough perspective on an individual's relationship with work.

Maslach and Leiter (1997), propose that if engagement is indeed the opposite of burnout, then a profile of engagement scores on the MBI should be associated with a profile of better matches in the six areas of job-person fit. Such a "matched" profile would include a sustainable workload, feelings of choice and control, appropriate recognition and reward, a supportive work community, fairness and justice and meaningful and valued work.

Studies performed by Maslach (2001) on two hospital units showed support for conceptualisation of engagement. The employees in one unit displayed a typical burnout profile (i.e. high scores on exhaustion and cynicism and low scores on efficacy), whereas employees in the other unit had an opposite profile of engagement (i.e. low scores on exhaustion and cynicism and high scores on efficacy). Indeed and as expected, the former unit showed unfavourable scores on most of the six areas – particularly on reward and values – whereas the latter unit showed predominantly favourable scores – particularly on workload, control, fairness and values (Maslach, 2001).

Schaufeli et al (1998) have taken a different approach to the concept of engagement. Engagement is defined and operationalized in its own right. Although engagement is still conceptualized as the positive antithesis of burnout, there is not the presumption that it is assessed by the opposite profile of MBI scores.

Burnout and engagement may be considered two prototypes of employees well-being that are part of a more comprehensive taxonomy constituted by the two independent dimensions of pleasure and activation (Watson & Tellegen, 1985). Burnout is thus characterised by low levels of activation and pleasure, whereas engagement is characterised by high levels of activation and pleasure.

DEFINING OF JOB ENGAGEMENT BY SCHAUFELI ET AL (2001)



Schaufeli and his colleagues define engagement as a persistent, positive affective-motivational state of fulfillment in employees that is characterised by vigor, dedication, and absorption.

### **9.1.1 Vigour**

Vigour refers to high levels of energy and resilience, the willingness to invest effort in one's job, the ability to not be easily fatigued, and persistence in the face of difficulties.

### **9.1.2 Dedication**

Dedication refers to a strong involvement in one's work, accompanied by feelings of enthusiasm and significance and by a sense of pride and inspiration.

### **9.1.3 Absorption**

Absorption refers to a pleasant state of total immersion in one's work, which is characterised by time passing quickly and being unable to detach oneself from the job.

## **10. BURNOUT AND THE EMPLOYEE**

Burnout is related to job demands; work overload and emotional demands, but engagement is particularly related to job resources; job control, availability of feedback and learning opportunities. Burnout interventions focus on individual-centered solutions, such as removing the worker from the job, or individual strategies for the worker, in which one either strengthens one's internal resources or changes one's work behaviours (Maslach, 1998).

Situational and organisational factors play a bigger role in burnout than individual ones. Individual-oriented approaches (e.g. developing effective coping skills or learning deep relaxation) may help individuals to alleviate exhaustion, but they do not really deal with the other two components of burnout. Individual strategies are relatively ineffective in the workplace, where a person has much less control over stressors than in other domains of his or her life. There are both philosophical and pragmatic reasons underlying the predominant focus on the individual, including notions of individual causality and responsibility and the assumption that it is easier and cheaper to change people than organisations (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998).

Schaufeli and Bakker (as cited in Rothman, 2002), summarise the characteristics of engaged workers as follows:

- Employees who are engaged take initiative and give direction to their lives. They give form to their environment, direction to their lives and do not submit passively to the influence of the environment; they look for challenge outside their current environment.
- Employees who are engaged generate their own positive feedback. They create their “rewards” by recognition, achievement, admiration and appreciation.
- Employees who are engaged also show engagement outside their work environment. They exert high energy levels.
- Employees who are engaged show values and norms which corresponds with their organisations.
- Engaged employees compared to burned out employees, experience a different type of exhaustion. Energy reserves of engaged employees are limited, but are enough to satisfy them.
- Engaged employees might have been burned out, but have shown engagement previously.
- Engaged employees have the best of two worlds; they work hard, and they play hard.

## 11. SUMMARY

Burnout research had its roots in care-giving and service occupations, in which the core of the job was the relationship between provider and recipient. This interpersonal context of the job meant that, from the beginning, burnout was studied not so much as an individual stress response, but in terms of an individual's relational transactions in the workplace. Moreover, this interpersonal context focused attention on the individual's emotions, and on the motives and values underlying his or her work with recipients (Maslach, 2001).

According to Alexander (as cited in Storm et al, 2002),

Police work has been described as one of society's most stressful occupations. Yet, despite the highly stressful nature of police work, there are still officers who are able to manage the stress well enough to continue this work for years. In accordance with the development of positive psychology and the focus on psychological well-being, it is necessary to investigate the rewarding aspects of a job. Thus, in order to get a balanced picture of police work, it is important to look at both stressful and rewarding aspects of police work. However, studies that focus on the negative aspects of police work, such as stress and burnout, are typically overwhelming, thereby neglecting potential rewards.

Although to the vast amount of literature reports all the harmful and traumatic aspects of police work, it was found by Larsson, Kempe and Starring (1988), that police officers perceived considerably more challenge than threat in the situations. They also viewed stressful situations as solvable. Policing was experienced basically as a rewarding job as found by Kop, Euwema and Schaufeli (1999). Working with people was viewed as the most rewarding part of their work. Positive aspects also include variation of work, freedom, responsibility, action and working on the street in the midst of society.

Kop et al (as cited in Storm, 2002), also found that specific aspects of police work were often mentioned as rewarding, which include special duties as working with a police dog and contact with external institutions.

According to McGee-Cooper (1994), a person starved for joy, is a person at risk for burnout. It is not how hard or how long an individual is working on something that causes stress, but the value that an individual places on the work and whether or not an individual enjoys what an individual are doing. There is only one way to avoid or control burnout and that is to make a continuous effort to eliminate the stressors in an individuals life and as much as possible replace these with activities that you enjoy. This may mean getting a new job in the same profession, switching professions, developing new hobbies or reactivating old ones, moving to a smaller house, or simply giving yourself the gift of free time (Frings, 2001).

What determines how individuals interpret a stressful event are faulty beliefs that developed from an individuals earliest experiences in life. One faulty belief that is especially common among nurses, is that they must be self-sacrificing, that it is somehow wrong for them to pay attention to their own personal needs. “You have needs as much as anyone else. Ignoring them is a key ingredient for burnout” (<http://www.findarticles.com>).

Ammondson (2001), quotes George Eliot: “It’s never too late to become the person you were meant to be”.



The next chapter deals with the presentation and analysis of the research data.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF RESEARCH DATA**

#### **1. INTRODUCTION**

The main aim of this chapter is to present, analyse and interpret the collected data, to draw conclusions and to determine whether objectives were reached. Data collected will be presented as follows:- There will be a presentation and analysis of questionnaire data. Section A covers biographical details, section B, the results of the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Survey (MSQ), section C, results of the Police Stress Survey, part A and part B (PSS), section D, results of the Maslach Burnout Inventory–General Survey (MBI-GS), and lastly section E, the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES). A total of one hundred and seven questionnaires were handed out, but just a total of seventy-six were completely filled in.

#### **2. PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA**

##### **2.1 SECTION A. BIOGRAPHICAL DETAIL**

###### **2.1.1 Presentation of biographical details**

The following variables which were collected in the questionnaire will be discussed: gender, age, marital status, language, rank, tenure in present position, job classification and qualifications. Data of males and females will firstly be presented separate in a table, and then be compared and analysed.



Table 5.1 Presentation of biographic date of male police officers in the Zeerust District as obtained from the questionnaire.

	Variable	Frequency	Percentage (%)
A.	GENDER		
	Male	48	100
	<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>100</b>
B.	AGE (YEARS)		
	21 – 35	18	37,5
	36 – 43	16	33,3
	44 – 55	14	29,2
	<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>100</b>
C.	MARITAL STATUS		
1.	Single	16	33,33
2.	Married	27	56,25
3.	Divorced	3	6,25
5.	Widowed	2	4,17
	<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>100</b>
D.	LANGUAGE		
2.	Afrikaans	2	4,17
3.	Setswana	43	89,58
5.	Xhosa	1	2,08
6.	Sotho	1	2,08
8.	Venda	1	2,08
	<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>100</b>
E.	RANK		
1.	Constable	8	16,67
2.	Sergeant	3	6,25
3.	Inspector	35	72,92
4.	Captain	2	4,17
	<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>100</b>

	<b>Variable</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
F.	TENURE IN PRESENT POSITION		
	1 – 3	14	29,17
	4 – 6	24	50,00
	7 - 20	10	20,82
	<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>100</b>
G.	JOB CLASSIFICATION		
1.	Crime prevention	16	33,33
2.	Detective Service	3	6,25
3.	Administration	9	18,75
4.	Community Service / Operation Response	20	41,67
	<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>100</b>
H.	QUALIFICATIONS		
1.	Grade 12	41	85,42
2.	University	2	4,17
3.	College	5	10,42
	<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>100</b>

Table 5.2 Presentation of biographic data of female police officers in the Zeerust District as obtained from the questionnaire.

	<b>Variable</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
A.	GENDER		
	Female	28	100
	<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>100</b>

	Variable	Frequency	Percentage (%)
B.	AGE (YEARS)		
	21 - 35	12	42,86
	36 - 43	12	42,85
	44 - 55	4	14,29
	<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>100</b>
C.	MARITAL STATUS		
	Single	12	42,86
	Married	9	32,14
	Divorced	6	21,43
	Widowed	1	3,57
	<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>100</b>
D.	LANGUAGE		
1.	English	2	7,14
2.	Afrikaans	5	17,86
3.	Setswana	17	60,71
4.	Zulu	1	3,57
5.	Xhosa	1	3,57
8.	Venda	1	3,57
11.	Sjangaan	1	3,57
	<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>100</b>
E.	RANK		
1.	Constable	11	39,29
2.	Sergeant	4	14,29
3.	Inspector	12	42,86
4.	Captain	1	3,57
	<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>100</b>

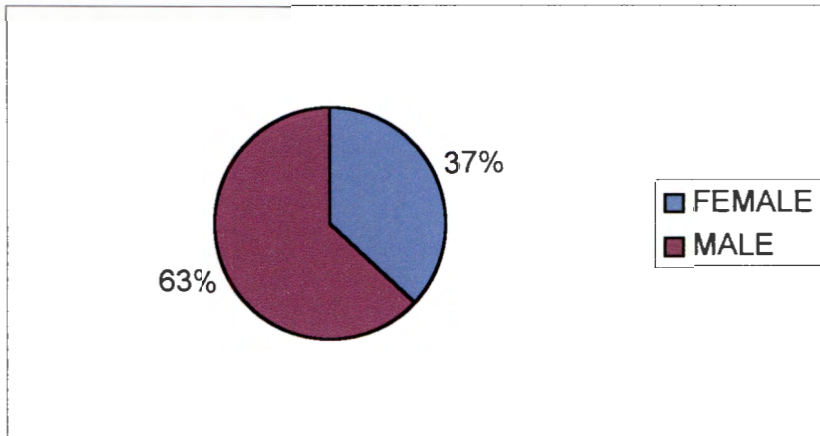
	<b>Variable</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
F.	<b>TENURE IN PRESENT POSITION</b>		
	1 – 3	6	21,43
	4 – 6	12	42,86
	7 - 20	10	35,71
	<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>100</b>
G.	<b>JOB CLASSIFICATION</b>		
1.	Crime prevention	3	10,71
2.	Detective Service	2	7,14
3.	Administration	15	53,57
4.	Community Service / Operation Response	8	28,57
	<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>100</b>
H.	<b>QUALIFICATIONS</b>		
1.	Grade 12	23	82,14
2.	University	1	3,57
3.	College	4	14,29
	<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>100</b>

### 2.1.2 Analysis and interpretation of Data

Compiled data will not be analysed regarding the different variables.

### 2.1.2.1 Gender

Figure 5.1 Gender of Police Officers.



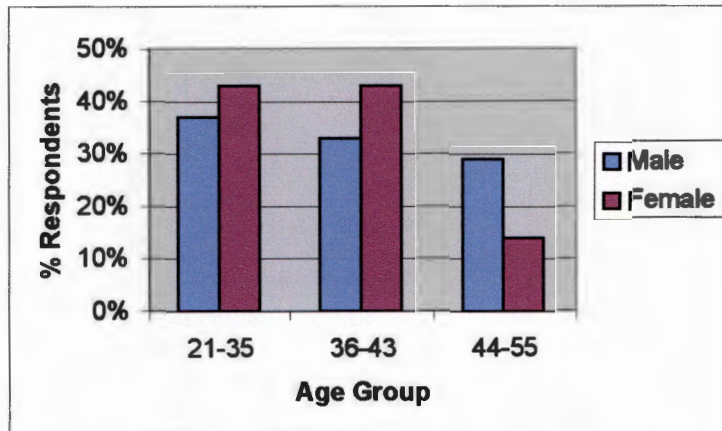
A total of 76 respondents completed the job satisfaction questionnaire. Figure 1 indicates that 63 percent of employees who completed the questionnaires were males and 37 percent were females. Slightly more males than females participated in this study.

Police work was traditionally seen as a male job, whereby females were often only utilised for office work and seldom had encounters of the “hard” life that police work embrace. Judging from data collected in the Zeerust area, it still seems to be the case today, as less females were available to complete questionnaires.



### 2.1.2.2 Age

Figure 5.2 Age of male and female officers.

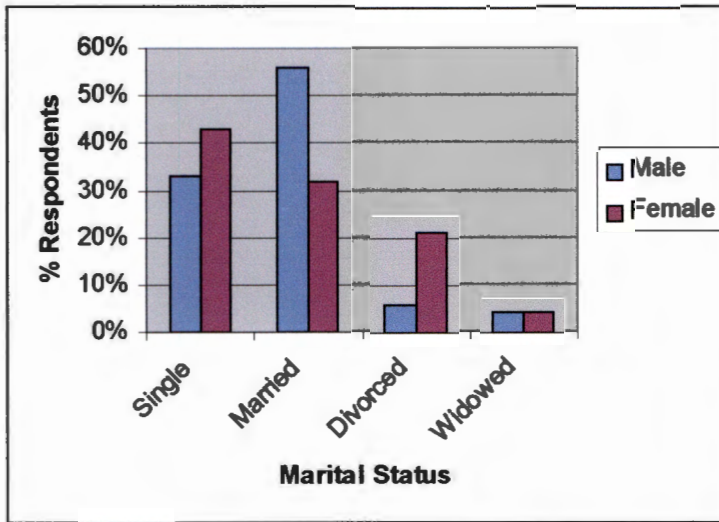


A total of 85,71 percent of all female employees who completed the questionnaire, indicated that they were between 21 and 43 years old, and 14,29 percent of female employees were between 44 and 55 years old.

A total of 70,80 percent of all male employees who completed the questionnaire, indicated that they were between 21 and 43 years old and 29,2 percent of male employees were between 44 and 55 years old.

### 2.1.2.3 Marital Status

Figure 5.3 Marital status of male and female police officers in the Zeerust District.



The results from the study indicate that most policemen were married (56,25 percent), while most policewomen were single (42,86 percent). Looking at the divorce rate it is obvious that more women (21,43 percent) than men (6,25 percent) were divorced. One aspect which was also found to cause stress was the spillover effect of stress in the marriage.

2.1.2.4 Language

Figure 5.4 Languages spoken by male police officers in the Zeerust District.

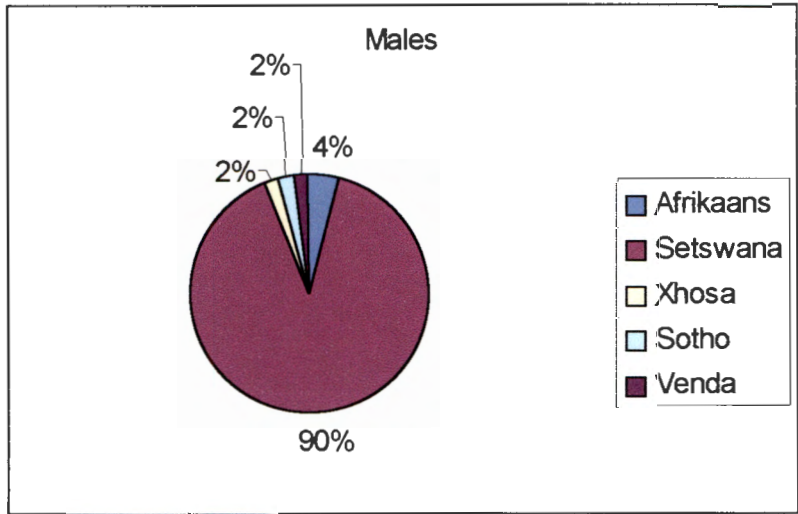
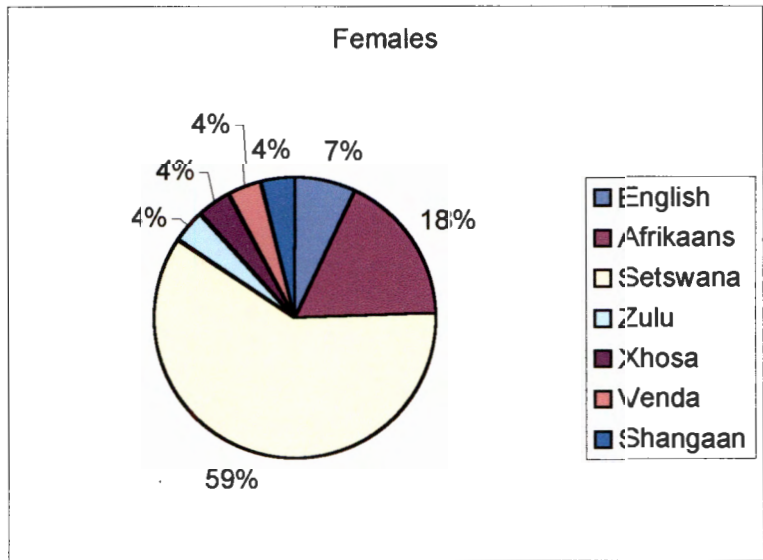


Figure 5.5 Languages spoken by female police officers in the Zeerust District.

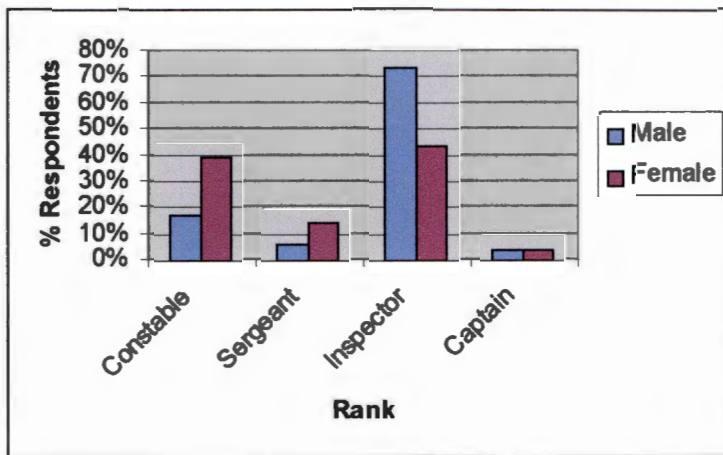




Of the employees that participated in this study, Setswana was the most frequently spoken language; 89,58 percent of the males spoke Setswana and, 60,71 percent of the females spoke Setswana. Surprisingly only 7,14 percent was English speaking. It can be attributed to the fact that the two biggest police stations that were visited namely Motswedi and Lehurutshe are situated in a predominantly Setswana speaking rural area.

### 2.2.2.5 Rank

Figure 5.6 Ranks of male and female police officers in the Zeerust District.



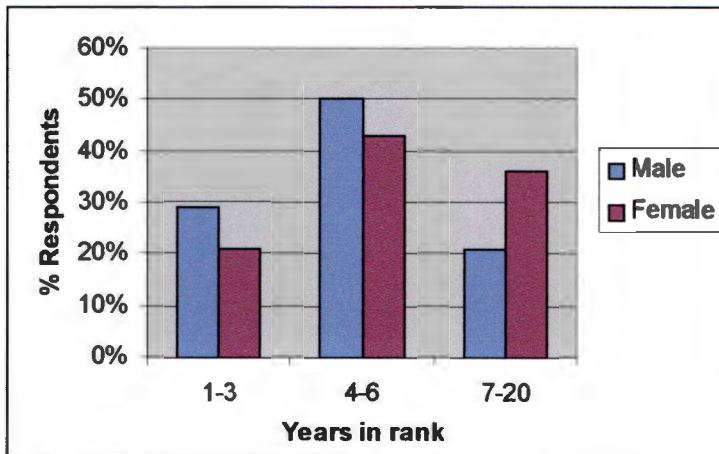
Most of the women in this study were employed as inspectors (42,86 percent) and also most of the males who participated in this study were inspectors (72,92 percent).

From the study it is obvious that quite a few of the officers, although more females (39,29 percent), compared to males (16,67 percent) were employed as constables, which leaves room for promotion to the post of sergeant.

Police work is demanding and therefore it is encouraging to see that 4,17 percent of the male officers with the rank of captain and 3,57 percent of the female officers with the rank of captain took time to complete the survey.

### 2.1.2.6 Tenure in present position

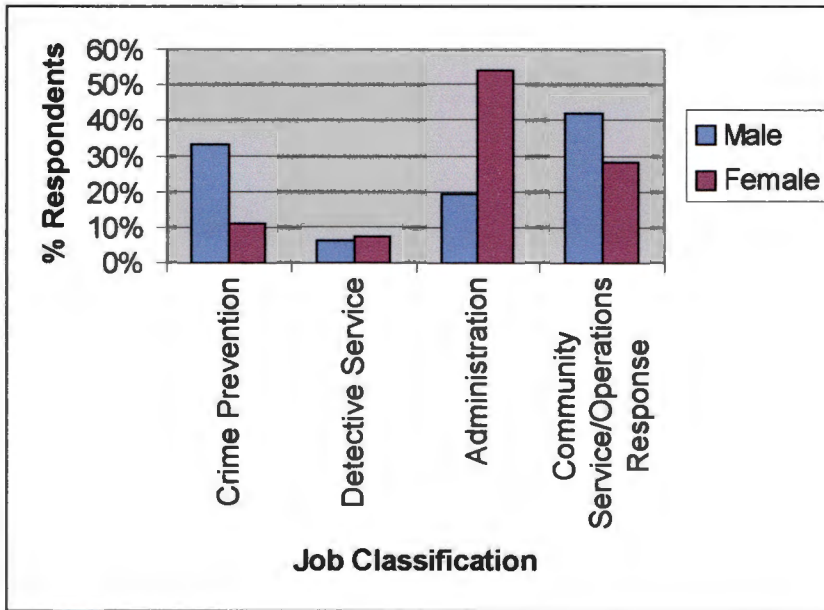
Figure 5.7 Tenure in present position of male and female police officers in the Zeerust District.



More males (79,17 percent) were in fixed position than females (64,29 percent) for between 1-6 years of service and more females (35,71 percent) than males (20,83 percent) were in fixed positions for between 7-20 years. To keep a job alive there should be possibilities for promotion and one should not be kept too long in a certain position without promotion, one can become stagnated.

### 2.1.2.7 Job Classification

Figure 5.8 Job classification of male and female police officers in the Zeerust District.



Most of the male respondents (41,67 percent) were doing community service or were engaged in operational response work whilst more females (53,57 percent) were engaged in doing administration. This indicates that women were spared for “soft jobs” whilst men were engaged in “hard jobs” like crime prevention and community service or operational response work.

### 2.1.2.8 Qualifications

Figure 5.9 Qualifications of males in the police force in the Zeerust District.

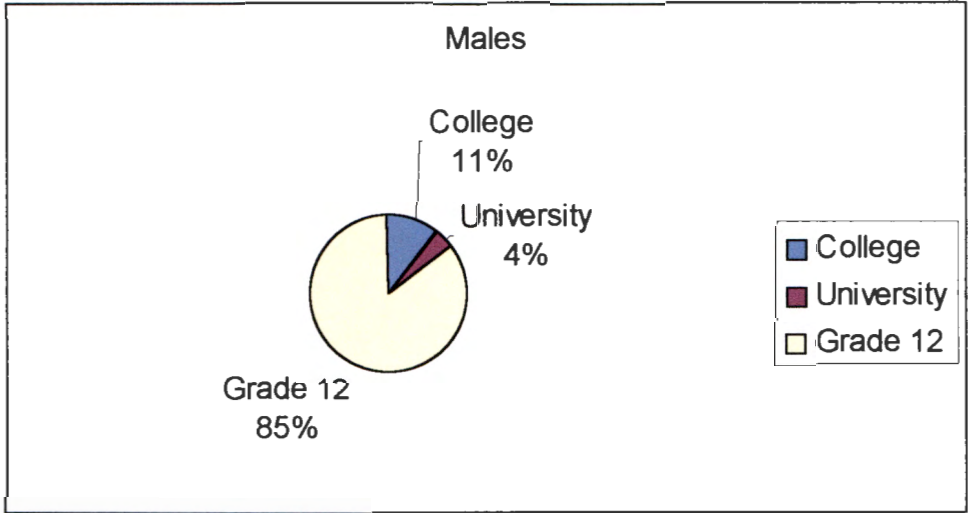
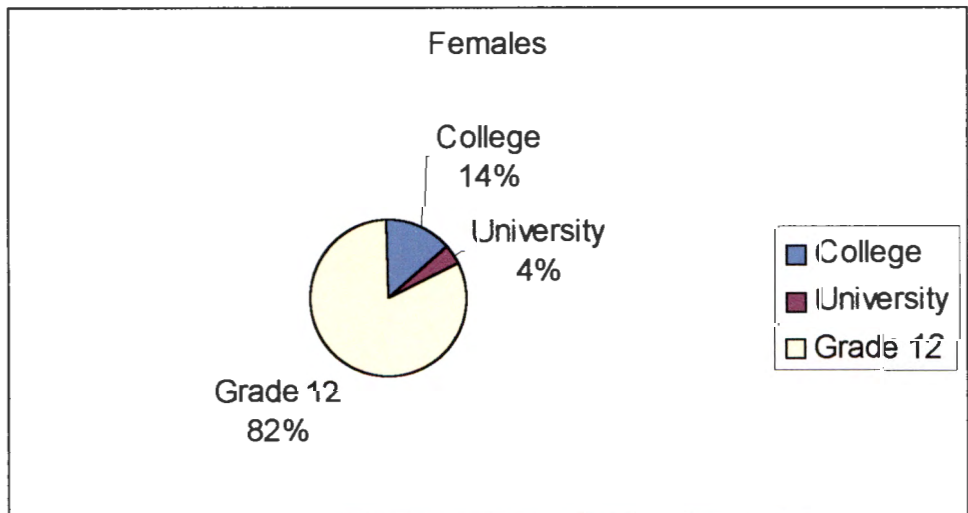


Figure 5.10 Qualifications of females in the police force in the Zeerust District.



The percentage of males and females with grade twelve qualifications were almost equal, with males (85,42 percent) and females (82,14 percent), although more females (14,29 percent) than males (10,42 percent) were in possession of college qualifications. For university qualifications, there were slightly more (4,17 percent) males than (3,57 percent) females. In this case, there were ample room for improvement and a suggestion may be that more officers be granted the opportunity to further their education, by sending them to college or university, to allow them to perform a better task and to be in line for promotion.

### **3. SECTION B. MINNESOTA JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY (MSQ)**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

According to Robbins (1993), job satisfaction is a general attitude toward one's job; the difference between the amount of rewards workers receive and the amount they believe they should receive.

To determine whether officers were satisfied or dissatisfied with their work, the researcher made use of the Minnesota Satisfaction Survey.

This section and the following ones neglect that descriptive statistics was used to analyse data, which was obtained from members of the police force in the North West Province, District Zeerust. There are three types of descriptive statistics, frequencies, measures of central tendency, and measures of dispersion.

Respondents were asked to rate themselves on 20 questions by responding to a five-point scale that varied from 1, which indicates that a person is very dissatisfied to 5, which is an indication that a person is very satisfied. Various questions were included like: "The relation between pay and the amount of work I do"; "The working conditions"; "The feeling of accomplishment I get from my job"; "The chance to be 'somebody' in the community".

A simple factor analysis was conducted to identify the number of factors for a sample of 76 police officers in the North West Province, District Zeerust: Two interrelated factors were extracted by using the Oblique method with a promax rotation. The factors that were identified were a) Extrinsic Job Satisfaction (10 items;  $\alpha = 0,78$ , for males, and  $\alpha = 0,83$  for females) and b) Intrinsic Job Satisfaction (9 items;  $\alpha = 0,75$ , for males and  $0,80$  for females). See Table 5.3.

Hypothesis a

Intrinsic aspects such as doing things for others and being somebody cause members South African Police Service in the Zeerust District to be satisfied with their work (Ch.1.p.4).

Hypothesis b

Extrinsic aspects cause members of the force to be dissatisfied with their jobs.

Table 5.3 Aspects which causes intrinsic satisfaction/dissatisfaction of males/females in Zeerust District (N=76).

Aspects	Mean	
	Males	Females
(MSQ)		
<u>Intrinsic Job Satisfaction</u>		
Use of own abilities	3.52	3.25
Do different things	3.58	3.46
Chance to supervise	3.60	3.43
Do things for others	3.81	4.00
Keep busy all the time	3.65	3.75
Work alone	3.13	3.46
To be somebody	3.77	3.54
Don't go against my conscience	3.46	3.46
Steady employment	3.40	3.71

The Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire contained nine questions to determine intrinsic Job Satisfaction. The questions were rated on a five point scale. The cut-off point were as follows: A mean of 3.5 – 5 was classified as high, and a mean of 2.5 – 3.4 was classified as moderate and a mean of 2.4 and lower was classified as low.

When evaluated, it was revealed that male and female members of the police force in the Zeerust District vary on a scale from moderate to highly satisfied with the intrinsic aspects of their job. Means obtained on the intrinsic aspects of their jobs varied from 3.13 to 3.8 for males and the mean for females varied from 3.25 to 4.00.

Hypothesis a proved to be valid as males and females prove to be intrinsically satisfied with doing things for others. Males obtained a mean of 3.81 and females obtained a mean of 4.00, which is a high score on this certain aspect.

Both males and females obtained a high score on the intrinsic aspect “to be somebody”. Males obtained a mean of 3.77, whilst females obtained a mean of 3.54 on this aspect of intrinsic job satisfaction. Females however felt that being kept busy all the time satisfied them more than “being somebody”.

The intrinsic aspect of being able to work alone had the least intrinsic satisfying effect on males as they scored a mean of 3.13 which is moderate on this aspect.

Hypothesis b

Extrinsic aspects such as being underpaid, non-receiving of praise and working conditions cause members of the South African Police Service in the Zeerust District to be satisfied with their jobs.

Table 5.4 Aspects which cause extrinsic satisfaction/dissatisfaction of males/females in the South African Police Service in the Zeerust District.

Aspects	Mean	
	Males	Females
(MSQ)		
<u>Extrinsic Job Satisfaction</u>		
Praise	2.90	2.96
Working conditions	2.56	3.11
Pay and amount of work	3.00	3.07
Chances for advancement	3.08	2.86
Supervisor	3.58	3.18
Own methods	2.94	3.11
Own judgements	3.10	2.79
Company policies	3.06	3.21
Co-workers	3.02	2.93
Competence of Supervisor	3.15	3.25

The Minnesota Job Satisfaction questionnaire contained ten questions to determine Extrinsic Job Satisfaction. The questions were rated on a five point scale. The cut-off point were as follows: A mean of 3.5 – 5 was classified as high, and a mean of 2.5 – 3.4 was classified as moderate and a mean of 2.4 and lower was classified as low.



The findings of this study revealed that certain aspects in the job caused males and females to be dissatisfied on their job. However, none of the scales was as low as to draw the conclusion that males and females were very dissatisfied with their work. The means obtained for males ranged from 2.56 - 3.58, and the means obtained for females ranged from 2.79 to 3.25.

Female officers felt most satisfied with the competence of their supervisor, scoring a mean of 3.25, whilst males were mostly satisfied with their supervisor overall, scoring a mean of 3.58 on this aspect. For females the making of own judgements, with a mean of 2.79 caused most dissatisfaction with the extrinsic aspects of their job and for males working conditions proved to be the extrinsic aspect which caused the most dissatisfaction, scoring a mean of only 2.56 on this aspect.

Hypothesis b also proved to be partly valid, extrinsic aspects such as a lack of praise and working conditions caused males in the force to be extrinsically dissatisfied with their work, another aspect which caused extrinsic dissatisfaction as the use of own methods; pay and amount of work is not such a great dissatisfier of extrinsic satisfaction to males.

To females a lack of praise caused extrinsic dissatisfaction but factors which have a greater effect on the extrinsic dissatisfaction of females is chances for advancement, the using of own judgements and those of co-workers.

#### **4. SECTION C. THE POLICE STRESS SURVEY (PSS)**

##### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

According to Gordon (1999) stress can be defined as a psychological and physiological state that results when certain features of the environment cause discomfort, anxiety, or a feeling of being overwhelmed.



For this study the Police Stress Survey (PSS) was developed to measure the job stress of participants. The PSS focused mainly on common work events that often result in psychological strain.

Aspects which caused stress were divided into three factors namely: Job demands (17 items), Lack of job resources (14 items) and police stressors (8 items). The alpha coefficients for job demands were 0,87% for males and 0,84% for females, lack of resources were 0,89% for males and 0,86% for females, and police stressors were 0,90% for males and 0,87% for females, which indicate highly acceptable internal consistency of the items contained within the three factors.

The questionnaire was divided in two parts. Part A consisted of 39 stressful job-related events, focusing mainly on the amount of stress people experience. The scales used ranged from 1-9, with 1 as the lowest amount of stress and 9 as the highest amount of stress.

Part B consisted of the same 39 stressful job related events as used in Part A, but this time the participants were asked to evaluate the frequency of the stressful event in the last six months on a nine point scale.

### Hypothesis c

Stress of the South African Police Service members in the Zeerust District is caused by a) staff shortages, b) the legal system which falls them and c) poor or inadequate equipment (Ch.1.p.4).

Table 5.5 Stressful Job related events, intensity, frequency and seriousness.

Stressful job related events	Intensity		Frequency		Seriousness	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
<b><u>Job demands</u></b>						
Working overtime	4.38	5.36	3.52	4.21	15.42	22.57
Crisis situation	4.60	4.89	3.08	3.36	14.17	16.43
Tasks not in job description	5.38	4.93	3.73	4.14	20.07	20.41
Increased responsibility	4.88	4.79	4.10	3.07	20.01	14.71
Noisy work area	3.85	4.32	3.15	3.29	12.13	14.21
Frequent interruptions	4.42	4.54	3.50	3.71	15.47	14.07
Excessive paperwork	4.69	5.04	3.90	4.96	18.29	25.00
Meeting deadlines	3.98	4.21	3.46	4.32	13.77	18.19
Insufficient personal time	4.42	4.46	3.33	4.14	14.72	18.46
Other employee's work	4.65	4.62	3.83	4.64	17.81	19.30
<b><u>Job resources</u></b>						
Lack of resources	4.21	4.96	3.38	3.61	14.23	17.91
Others not doing their job	4.96	5.21	3.42	3.57	16.96	18.60
Inadequate support-supervisor	4.73	4.61	3.42	3.82	16.18	17.61
Lack of recognition	5.33	5.07	3.29	3.21	17.54	16.27
Poor / inadequate equipment	5.10	5.64	4.10	4.43	20.91	24.99
Negative attitudes	4.38	4.86	3.98	3.64	17.43	17.69
Insufficient personnel to handle assignments	4.50	5.14	4.02	4.00	18.09	20.56
Inadequate salary	4.81	5.11	4.15	4.07	17.35	20.80
Competition for advancement	4.17	4.04	3.58	3.57	14.93	14.42
Poorly motivated co-workers	4.77	5.04	3.71	4.32	17.70	21.77
Staff shortage	5.23	5.61	3.96	4.29	20.71	24.07
<b><u>Police stressors</u></b>						
A fellow-officer killed in the line of duty	4.29	4.61	1.71	2.07	7.34	9.54
Racial conflict	3.96	4.57	2.02	2.39	8.00	10.92
Seeing criminals go free	5.00	5.21	3.35	3.29	16.75	17.14

Table 5.5 indicates that males and females differed in their view of factors causing stress in the Zeerust District.

Females experienced difficulty in handling excessive paperwork (25.00), poor or inadequate equipment (24.99) and staff shortages (24.07). Males experienced difficulties in handling poor or inadequate equipment, staff shortages (20.71) and tasks to be performed which were not in the job description.

Few problems were caused by a fellow officer dying in the line of duty, and racial conflict. In this district there were also no real problems experienced with the legal system. One must keep in mind that Zeerust is a rural area under investigation here. Surprisingly to notice here is that noise was not considered to be causing a problem.

Hypothesis c thus proves also to be partly valid as police officers in this district do experience problems with staff shortages and poor or inadequate equipment but not with the legal system. The allocation of tasks to be done which are not described in the job description can be the cause of a staff shortage.

Table 5.6 Results of the Canonical Analysis: Job Stress and Job Satisfaction of police officers in the Zeerust District (N=76).

Set	First canonical variate		Second canonical variate	
	Correlation	Coefficient	Correlation	Coefficient
<b>Set 1 Job Satisfaction</b>				
Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	-0.67	-1.18	-0.26	-0.15
Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	0.23	0.89	0.09	0.12
<b>Set 2 Job Stress</b>				
Job demands	0.59	0.40	0.22	0.02
Lack of resources	0.50	0.11	0.19	0.003
Police stressors	-0.04	0.23	-0.01	0.03

The first canonical correlation was 0.38 (15 % overlapping variance). The second canonical correlation was 0.24 (06% overlapping variance): with both canonical correlations included  $F(12,136) = 1.32, p=0,216$ . Subsequent  $F$ -tests were not statistically significant. The first pair of canonical variates accounted for the significant relationship between the two sets of variables namely Job Satisfaction and Job Stress.

Using a cut-off correlation of 0.30 the variables in the first set (Job Satisfaction) that correlated with the first canonical variate was only extrinsic job satisfaction. Among the second set (Job Stress), job demands and lack of resources correlated with the first canonical variate. The first pair of the canonical variates indicates that a low level of extrinsic job satisfaction (0.67) can be associated with high levels of job demands (0.59) and high levels of lack of resources.

There were no variables in the Job Satisfaction set that correlated with the second canonical variate. There were also no variables in the Job Stress set that correlated with the second canonical variate.

Hypothesis c can also be viewed as partly valid as Table 5.6 reflects that members of the police force in the Zeerust District are extrinsically dissatisfied with job stress aspects such as job demands and lack of resources, as there is a negative correlation between extrinsic job satisfaction and job demands and lack of resources.

Table 5.5 shows that considerable stress among police force members in the Zeerust District is caused by staff shortages and poor or inadequate equipment but not by the legal system which fails them. The fact that the legal system does not contribute to their stress level can be attributed to the fact that Zeerust is seen as a rural area and is not as subjected to crime as is Gauteng or any of the other districts. Two of the police units namely Motswedi and Lehurutshe were also part of the former Bophuthatswana where crime was handled with an iron fist.

## **5. SECTION D. THE MASLACH BURNOUT INVENTORY-GENERAL SURVEY (MBI-GS)**

### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

Maslach and Jackson (1986) define burnout as "... a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that occurs among individuals who do people work of some kind".

For this study the Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey (MBI-GS) developed by Maslach was used to measure burnout. The MBI-GS make use of three subscales: i) Exhaustion (Ex) (five items; e.g. "I feel emotionally drained by performing my work"), ii) Cynicism (Cy) (five items; e.g. "I have become less interested in my work since I started this job"), iii) and Professional Efficacy (PE) (six items; e.g. "I can effectively solve the problem that arise in my work").

These subscales of the MBI-GS provide a three-dimensional perspective on burnout. All items are scored on a seven point frequency-rating scale ranging from 0-6, 0, to indicate "never" and 6 to indicate "everyday". High scores on exhaustion and cynicism and low scores on professional efficacy are indicative of burnout. Engagement on the other hand which is the opposite of burnout requires low scores on exhaustion and cynicism and high scores on efficacy.

Maslach et al (1996) define the three subscales of burnout as follows:

#### **Exhaustion**

It refers to feelings of being overextended and depleted of ones emotional and physical resources.

**Cynicism**

It is described in terms of negative, callous or detached response to various aspects of the job.

**Professional efficacy**

It relates to feeling of competence, productivity and achievement at work.

**Hypotheses d**

Members of the South African Police Service suffer from high burnout levels (Ch.1, p.4).

Item 13 had the lowest factor loadings on the three subscales and Leiter and Schaufeli (1996) found that this factor should be left out of the original scale. By leaving this factor out, the internal consistency is increased.

Table 5.7 Results of the Canonical Analysis: Burnout and Engagement of police members in the Zeerust District (N=76).

Set	First canonical variate		Second canonical variate	
	Correlation	Coefficient	Correlation	Coefficient
<b>Set 1 Burnout</b>				
Exhaustion	-0.54	-0.29	-0.28	-0.35
Cynicism	-0.72	-0.70	-0.38	-0.10
Professional efficacy	0.50	0.67	0.26	0.07
<b>Set 2 Engagement</b>				
Vigour	0.64	0.24	0.33	0.03
Dedication	0.93	1.26	0.49	0.20
Absorption	0.47	-0.69	0.24	-0.09

The first canonical correlation was 0.52 (27% overlapping variance), the second canonical correlation was 0.27 (7% overlapping variance). The third canonical correlation was 0.11 (1% overlapping variance): with all three correlations, included  $F(9,170.51) = 3.48$ ,  $p=0,0006$ . subsequent  $F$ -tests were not statistically significant. The first pair of canonical variates, accounted for the significant relationship between the two sets of variables namely burnout and engagement.

Using a cut-off correlation of 0.30 the variables in the first set (Burnout) that correlated with the first canonical variate were Exhaustion, Cynicism and Professional Efficacy. Among the second set (engagement), Vigour, Dedication and Absorption correlated with the first canonical variate. The first pair of the canonical variates indicates that low levels of exhaustion (-0.54) and (-0.72). Cynicism and high levels of professional efficacy (0.50) can be associated with vigour (0.64), dedication (0.93) and absorption (0.53).



The variable in the burnout set that correlated with the second canonical variable was cynicism. The variables in the engagement set that correlated with the second canonical variate were Vigour and Dedication. The second pair of canonical variates indicates that cynicism (0.38) can be associated with Vigour (0.33) and Dedication (0.49).



Table 5.8 Results of the canonical analysis: Burnout and Job Stress of police members in the Zeerust District (N=76).

Set	First canonical variate		Second canonical variate	
	Correlation	Coefficient	Correlation	Coefficient
<b>Set 1 Burnout</b>				
Exhaustion	0.67	0.33	0.42	0.04
Cynicism	0.78	0.51	0.50	0.08
Professional efficacy	0.68	0.53	0.43	0.06
<b>Set 2 Stress</b>				
Job demands	0.80	-0.34	0.50	0.013
Job resources	0.70	0.19	0.43	0.01
Police stressors	0.56	0.09	0.35	0.01

The first canonical correlation was 0.62 (39%) overlapping variance. The second canonical correlation was 0.47 (22%) overlapping variance. The third canonical correlation was 0.11 (13%) overlapping variance, with all three canonical correlations included  $F(18,189.99) = 3.48$ ,  $p < 0,0006$ . Subsequent  $F$ -tests were not statistically significant. The first pair of canonical variates, therefore accounted for the significant relationship between the two sets of variables.

With a cut-off correlation of 0.30 the variables in the first set (Burnout) that correlated with the first canonical variate were exhaustion, cynicism and professional efficacy. Among the second set (stress), job demands, job resources and police stressors correlated with the first canonical variate. The first pair of the canonical variates indicates that high levels of exhaustion (0.67), high levels of cynicism (0.78) and high levels of professional efficacy (0.68) can be associated with job demands (0.80), job resources (0.70) and police stressors (0.56).

The variables in the Burnout set that correlated with the second canonical variate were Exhaustion, Cynicism and Professional Efficacy. Variables in the Job Stress set that correlated with the second canonical variate were Job Demands, Job Resources and Police Stressors. The second pair of canonical variates indicates that exhaustion (0.42), cynicism (0.50) and professional efficacy (0.43) can be associated with job demands (0.50), job resources (0.43) and police stressors (0.35).

Table 5.9 Results of the Canonical Analysis. Burnout and Job Satisfaction of Police Officers in the Zeerust District (N=76).

Set	First canonical variate	
	Correlation	Coefficient
<b>Set 1 Burnout</b>		
Exhaustion	0.25	0.66
Cynicism	0.28	0.68
Professional efficacy	0.48	0.56
<b>Set 2 Job Satisfaction</b>		
Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	-0.22	-0.89
Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	0.67	1.17

The first canonical correlation was 0.38 (14% overlapping variance). The other canonical correlation 0.26 (7% overlapping variance): with both canonical correlations included  $F(6,142) = 2.94$   $p=0,0099$ . Subsequent  $F$ -tests were not statistically significant. The first pair of canonical variates, accounted for the significant relationship between the two sets of variables.

With a cut-off of 0.30 the variable of the first set (Burnout) that correlated with the first canonical variate was professional efficacy. The variable of Job Satisfaction which correlated with the first canonical variable was extrinsic job satisfaction. The first pair of canonical variates indicates that professional efficacy (0.48) is associated with high levels of Intrinsic Job Satisfaction (0.67).

Hypothesis d can also be seen as valid as can be judged from Table 5.8, where the results of the canonical analysis of burnout and job stress are analysed. Table 5.8 indicates that high levels of exhaustion, cynicism and professional efficacy correlate with high levels of job demands, lack of resources and even police stressors to a certain extent.

Upon evaluation of the results in Table 5.7, it is revealed that low levels of exhaustion and cynicism and a high level of professional efficacy to the opposite, can be associated with eagerness towards one's work which is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption.

In evaluating the canonical analysis between burnout and job satisfaction in Table 5.9, it is revealed that moderate levels of exhaustion and cynicism and a high level of professional efficacy correlate with low levels of extrinsic job satisfaction and high levels of intrinsic job satisfaction.

## **6. SECTION E. THE UTRECHT WORK ENGAGEMENT SCALE (UWES)**

### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

Engagement – The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES).

Schaufeli (2002) defines work engagement as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption.

Maslach et al (1996), define the three sub-scales of engagement as follows:

### **Vigour**

Characterised by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one's work, not being easily fatigued, and persistence even in the face of difficulties.

### **Dedication**

The deriving of a sense of significance from one's work, by feeling enthusiastic and proud about one's job and by feeling inspired and challenged by it.

### **Absorption**

It refers to a pleasant state of immersion in one's work, which is characterised by time passing quickly and being unable to detach oneself from the job.

The UWES includes three dimensions namely vigour, dedication and absorption, which is seen as the opposite of burnout. It is rated on a seven-point frequency-rating scale, varying from a 0, ("never") to 6, ("everyday"). The questionnaire consists of 17 questions.

The subscale vigour (VI) (six items) make use of questions like e.g. "I feel strong and vigorous in my job", the subscale dedication (DE) (five items) make use of questions like e.g. "I am enthusiastic about my job", and the subscale absorption (AB) (six items) make use of questions like e.g. "I feel happy when I am engrossed in my work".

### **Hypothesis e**

Male and female officers in the Zeerust District are equally engaged in their jobs (Ch.1.p.4).

Table 5.10 Comparison between males and females in the South African Police Service, District Zeerust of results of t-Tests done to determine whether their engagement levels are equal.

Aspects	Mean Males	Mean Females	<i>d</i>	p-values
<b><u>Burnout</u></b>				
Exhaustion	11.75	9.89	1.85	0.30
Cynicism	9.10	11.35	-2.25	0.15
Professional efficacy	23.87	23.5	0.37	0.85
<b><u>Engagement</u></b>				
Vigour	27.66	25.03	2.63	0.13
Dedication	23.5	22.03	1.46	0.31
Absorption	27.10	24.78	2.31	0.17

One should remember that low scores on exhaustion and cynicism and a high score on professional efficacy is indicative of engagement. In Table 5.10 the presence of low scores on exhaustion and cynicism and a high score on professional efficacy exists which causes the conclusion to be drawn that officers are engaged in their work.

The cut-off point were as follows: The difference of 6 in the means of males and females was classified as statistically significant. The greatest difference in means between males and females on Burnout was on Exhaustion (1.85), but it is not seen as statistically significant. The smallest difference in means between males and females on burnout was on cynicism (-2.25).

The acceptable significance level is when  $p$  is less than 0.05 ( $p < 0,05$ ). “This indicates that 95 times out of 100, we can be sure that there is a true or significant correlation between the two variables, and there is only a 5 percent chance that the relationship does not exist” (Sakaran, 1992).

Due to the fact that the p-values are larger than 0.05 ( $p > 0,05$ ) it can be seen as statistically significant.

Hypothesis e has thus been proven as valid as the results of the t-Tests evaluated indicated that males and females are equally engaged in their jobs.

Hypothesis e

Women in the police force, experience lower stress levels than men in the police force in the Zeerust District.

Table 5.11 Comparison between males and females in the South African Police Service in the Zeerust District of results of t-Tests done to determine whether females experience lower stress levels than males in the force.

Aspects	Mean Males	Mean Females	<i>d</i>	p-values
<b><u>Job Stress</u></b>				
Job demands	67.89	71.62	-3.72	0.55
Job resources	58.31	61.35	-3.04	0.57
Police stress	26.41	28.14	-1.72	0.70

Table 10 reveals that male and females police officers in the Zeerust District experience high stress levels. Stress is caused by Job demands and Job resources.

The cut-off point were as follows: A difference of 6 in the means of males and females was classified as statistically significant. The largest difference in means between males and females was on Job demands (-3.72) but it is not seen as statistically significant. The smallest difference was in police stress (-1.72).

In this case the p-values are larger than 0.05 ( $p > 0,05$ ) which indicates that it can be seen as statistically significant.

Hypothesis f has not been proven valid as the results of the t-Tests evaluated indicated that females do not experience lower stress levels than men in the force. There is no significant difference between males and females concerning stress.



## **7. DISCUSSION OF CRONBACH ALPHA COEFFICIENT, INTER-ITEM-R, KURTOSIS, SKEWNESS, SD AND THE MEAN**

Table 5.12 Mean, SD, Skewness, Kurtosis, Inter-Item r and Cronbach Alpha Coefficients of the MSQ, PSS, MBI-GS and UWES.

		Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Inter-item r	$\alpha$
<b>MSQ</b>							
<b><u>Extrinsic Job Satisfaction</u></b>							
	Males:	30.40	7.30	0.70	0.08	0.27	0.78
	Females:	30.46	8.80	-0.09	-0.21	0.34	0.83
<b><u>Intrinsic Job Satisfaction</u></b>							
	Males:	34.81	6.59	0.12	-0.70	0.24	0.75
	Females:	35.43	7.70	0.25	-1.11	0.29	0.80
<b>PSS</b>							
<b><u>Job Demands</u></b>							
	Males:	67.90	24.90	0.06	-0.28	0.29	0.87
	Females:	71.63	22.55	0.30	0.03	0.24	0.84
<b><u>Lack of Resources</u></b>							
	Males:	58.31	22.77	0.19	0.47	0.36	0.89
	Females:	61.36	20.76	0.55	-0.10	0.30	0.86
<b><u>Police Stressors</u></b>							
	Males:	26.42	17.28	0.73	-0.43	0.55	0.90
	Females:	28.14	16.28	0.22	-1.96	0.47	0.87
<b>MBI-GS</b>							
<b><u>Exhaustion</u></b>							
	Males:	13.50	8.33	0.23	-1.05	0.43	0.79
	Females:	13.39	6.65	0.32	-0.06	0.29	0.65
<b><u>Cynicism</u></b>							
	Males:	14.10	6.93	0.27	-0.10	0.23	0.59
	Females:	16.39	6.33	-0.62	1.22	0.16	0.50
<b><u>Professional Efficacy</u></b>							
	Males:	17.13	7.07	-0.77	0.37	0.29	0.66
	Females:	17.29	6.55	-0.61	0.82	0.27	0.63
<b>UWES</b>							
<b><u>Vigor</u></b>							
	Males:	23.65	5.53	-0.64	-0.69	0.43	0.78
	Females:	21.25	6.93	-0.78	0.40	0.43	0.79
<b><u>Dedication</u></b>							
	Males:	27.83	7.02	-0.81	0.00	0.45	0.82
	Females:	26.04	7.25	-0.33	-0.24	0.39	0.78
<b><u>Absorption</u></b>							
	Males:	26.79	7.43	-0.64	-0.09	0.44	0.81
	Females:	25.57	8.38	0.19	-1.30	0.47	0.84



Table 5.12 shows that acceptable Cronbach Alpha coefficients were obtained on all the dimensions of the MSQ, PSS, MBI-GS and UWES, varying from 0.50 to 0.90. The Cronbach Alpha Coefficient measures reliability. Judging from this table, it can be seen that scores are high and when repeated, the same results would be obtained.

The inter-item  $r$  is below 0.50. There is no large correlation between items. If the correlations are larger than 0.5, the same aspect is measured.

The results obtained for the different dimensions indicate that distributions are relatively normal with low skewness and kurtosis. There are no deviations from a normal distribution.

Table 5.13 Correlation Coefficients of Police Members in the Zeerust District between the MSQ, PSS, MBI-GS and UWES (N=76).

Items	Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	Job Demands	Lack of Resources	Police Stressors	Exhaustion	Cynicism	Professional Efficacy	Vigour	Dedication
Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	0.56 #									
Job demands	-0.23 *	-0.02 *								
Lack of resources	-0.17 *	0.03 *	0.82 #							
Police stressors	-0.11 *	-0.16 *	0.55 #	0.43 •						
Exhaustion	-0.27 *	-0.12 *	0.44 •	0.43 •	0.13					
Cynicism	-0.11 *	-0.27 *	0.41 •	0.34 •	0.45 •	0.49 •				
Professional efficacy	-0.03 *	0.13	0.42 •	0.38 •	0.23	0.14	0.18			
Vigour	0.11	0.24	0.10	0.04 *	-0.09 *	-0.25 *	-0.19 *	0.18		
Dedication	0.11	0.29	0.08	0.09	-0.10 *	-0.27 *	-0.28 *	0.29	0.80 #	
Absorption	0.14	0.24	0.14	0.07	-0.06 *	-0.18 *	-0.05 *	0.22	0.88 #	0.75 #

- \* Statistical significant  $p > 0.30$  (medium effect)
- Correlation is practically significant  $r > 0.30$  (medium effect)
- # Correlation is practically significant  $r > 0.50$  (large effect)

Results from Table 12 indicate that there is a statistical significant correlation between Dedication on the one hand and Exhaustion and cynicism on the other hand.

Practically positive significant correlation with a medium effect were found between 1)Exhaustion and Cynicism on the one hand and Job demands and Lack of Resources on the other hand, and 2) Lack of resources on the one hand and Exhaustion and Cynicism on the other. 3) Police Stressors on the one hand and Cynicism on the other.

## **8. SUMMARY**

Having administered the different job satisfaction questionnaires and discussed the results, the focus of the next chapter will be the recommendations based on the results obtained and then also the conclusions from the study will be drawn.

## **CHAPTER SIX**

### **DISCUSSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION**

#### **1. INTRODUCTION**

The purpose of this study was to determine the level of job satisfaction of male and female members of the police force in the North West Province, District Zeerust.

The study was conducted in the Department of Correctional Services in the North West Province, District Zeerust. The co-operation of members of the force was excellent and this simplified data gathering. The outstanding assistance of two captains in the force, namely captains Edwin Sebele and Sarah Moagi was of inseparable value.

#### **2. DISCUSSION**

The aims of the research was to determine

- a. Whether intrinsic aspects such as doing things for others and being somebody caused members of the South African Police Service in the Zeerust District force members to be satisfied with their work.
- b. Whether extrinsic aspects of their jobs such as being underpaid, non-receiving of praise and working conditions caused members of the South African Police Service in the Zeerust District force members to be dissatisfied with their jobs.
- c. Which factors caused the most stress for the members of the South African Police Service in the Zeerust District.

- d. Whether members of the South African Police Force District Zeerust suffered from high burn-out levels.
- e. Whether male and female members of the South African Police Service in the Zeerust District officers, were equally engaged in their jobs.
- f. Whether women in the South African Police Service had lower stress levels than men in the South African Police Service in the Zeerust District force.

Data was gathered in the form of the completion of a job satisfaction questionnaire, containing section A, Biographical Details, Section B, a Job Satisfaction Survey (MSQ), Section C, a Police Stress Survey (PSS), Section D, the Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (MBI-GS), and Section E, the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES).

A total of 76 members of the police force in the Zeerust District completed questionnaires, of which 48 were males and 28 were females. The ages ranged from 21 to 55 for both males and females.

Most of the male participants were married, whilst most of the female participants were single.

The language most spoken by the participants was Setswana. It should also be mentioned that the two biggest police units visited were in the old Bophuthatswana homeland.

The rank of participants ranged from constable to captain, however most of the participants both males and females were ranked as inspectors, However 39,29 percent of females were in the rank of constable and only 42,86 percent of females were in the rank of inspector, compared to the 72,92 percent of all male participants that were in the rank inspector. This fact causes diselebrum in the ranks of male and female participants.

An average of 50,00 percent of males were in the same position for four to six years compared to 42,86 percent of females. What is evident however is the fact that 35,71 percent of the female and 20,82 percent of male participants were in the same position for between 7-20 years in the service. To be kept in the same position for so many years causes a person to feel unappreciated and unfulfilled.

Most of the males 41,67 percent had the job classification of community service or operational response, whereas most of the females, (53,51 percent) had the job classification of administration. Only 18,75 percent of males did administration work and only 28,57 percent of females did community service or operational response work. This shows that women were kept from the “hard part” of police work and were utilised in the “soft part” or the administration part. Men on the contrary were used in mostly community service or operation response and crime prevention work.

Most of the candidates had grade 11 qualifications and some, however a small number had college or university qualifications.

The first aim of the study was to determine whether intrinsic aspects such as doing things for others and being somebody caused members of the South African Police Service in the Zeerust District force members to be satisfied with their work. Green (1989) states that there is sufficient evidence supporting the acknowledgement of a relationship between police stress and the aspects of the job satisfaction-dissatisfaction link.



Results obtained from the study applied to police officers indicated that police officers in the Zeerust district were relatively intrinsically satisfied with their jobs. They had the greatest scores on the fact that they could do things for others. They did not seem to be bored, as the score for being kept busy all the time is also high. The chance to be somebody also caused them to be satisfied with their job and gave meaning to their job.

The second aim of the study was to determine whether extrinsic aspects of their jobs such as being underpaid, lack of praise and working conditions caused members of the South African Police Service in the Zeerust District force members to be dissatisfied with their jobs.

If one takes a look at the situational factors of the job environment such as the sources of stress, as in this case identified by job demands, job resources and police stressors, there seems to be a link between extrinsic job satisfaction and levels of stress of police force members in the Zeerust District.

The officers are relatively extrinsically dissatisfied with their jobs. Female officers feel they cannot use their own judgement, so their work cannot become their own as methods and judgements are prescribed. The lack of chances for advancement also serves to deprive female officers of job satisfaction, as was also seen from the biographical details concerning women, where quite a few of them were only appointed as constables, and remained in that position for quite some time.

The aspect which caused both male and female offices in the Zeerust District to be dissatisfied with their work was the fact that they did not receive enough praise. As seen from experience the media likes to publish articles of “police mistakes” but are reluctant to publish articles on police praise. As seen from the literature survey, the most important thing to job satisfaction is not MONEY, but PRAISE. Working conditions also caused members of the force in the Zeerust district to be dissatisfied with their work, however pay was not such a great dissatisfier of extrinsic satisfaction to males.

The third aim was to determine which factors caused the most stress for the members of the South African Police Service in the Zeerust District.

The literature survey indicated that stress may stem from organisational or structural sources, those internal or inherent to the job, environmental stressors, stressors stemming from individual characteristics and stress stemming from domestic home and work interface.

From the results of the Police Stress Survey, results indicated that the most stressful job related events are poor or inadequate equipment, the shortage in staff members, excessive paperwork and inadequate salary. The fact that police officers both males and females in the Zeerust District were dissatisfied with the situational factors in the job environment suggest that police officers experience low levels of extrinsic job satisfaction.

Nel and Burgers (1994), note that medical boarding constitutes a high percentage of medical retirements because of stress related disabilities and they have increased dramatically since 1991.

The fourth aim was to determine whether members of the South African Police Force District Zeerust suffered from high burn-out levels.

The findings of this study reveal that members of the police force in the Zeerust District suffer from high burnout levels. The results of the canonical analysis of the relation between burnout and stress indicate that lack of resources, stressful job demands and police stressors correlate with high levels of cynicism, exhaustion and professional efficacy. Information obtained from statistical analysis indicates that low levels of exhaustion, and cynicism and high levels of professional efficacy can be associated with vigour, dedication and absorption. Canonical results from the burnout and Job Satisfaction in comparison indicate that professional efficacy is associated with high levels of intrinsic job satisfaction.

The fifth aim was to investigate whether male and female members of the South African Police Service in the Zeerust District officers, were equally engaged in their jobs.

Judging from the results obtained from questionnaires and statistically evaluate it can be concluded that males and females were equally engaged in their jobs. The difference in the means of males and females are too small to be of statistical significance. It can thus be said that males and females are equally engaged in their jobs.



The sixth aim was to determine whether women in the South African Police Service have lower stress levels than men in the South African Police Service in the Zeerust District.

The results of t-Tests performed revealed that the difference in the means of male and female officers are too small to be of statistical significance. It can thus be held that males and females equally experience the same amount of stress levels. There is no significant difference between their stress levels.

### **3. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

Information concerning this study cannot be generalised to other populations because the sample size to use is small, and stations to visit do not have many members; also due to the fact that the study concentrated on the Zeerust District only.

The reason being that members of the Police Force in the Zeerust District are only a few compared to the rest of the members in the other districts of the province. The Zeerust Area is also known as a rural district and members of the force may not be as subjected to crime as members from the other Districts.

The recommendation is that results gathered from this study be compared to the same studies done in the different districts and also with the same studies done in the province to establish whether correlations exist between information gathered in the different districts and provinces.

### **4. RECOMMENDATIONS TO THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE**

A chain is just as strong as its weakest link, therefore job dissatisfaction is the chain and the weakest links the factors which cause dissatisfaction, something can be done to replace the weak links. The weakest links amongst male and female officers in the Zeerust District have proved to be working conditions, the non-receiving of praise and the discouraging of use of own methods, pay, co-workers, company policies and chances for advancement. Working conditions

is a wide concept, which entails a lot of aspects and needs more thorough investigation to determine the exact factors which cause dissatisfaction in this regard.

As seen from the literature, praise is more important than money. Special ceremonies may be held on a monthly basis to reward the best police officer of the station, a certificate given and may be an article published in a local newspaper may suffice. Motivational speakers can also be used frequently to uplift the spirit of police officers.

Police officers must be encouraged to use their own methods although they may deviate from prescribed methods, as long as such methods are responsibly and ethically employed.

People all over the world in all different jobs complain about inadequate salaries and the researcher does not think there will ever be a person who will be satisfied with his/her pay. Although if an investigation is done on the pay structure and it is found that the pay is inadequate, something should be done about this problem e.g. an increased budget for the police force.

Police officers through their unions should address the issue of company policies. All employees should be taken on board before decisions are taken or policies made.

As previously stated, male and female officers should not remain too long in a certain rank. This matter should be investigated further, maybe with the introduction of more ranks, causing a more horizontal hierarchy and distribution of posts.

Stress can kill, and since the survey has revealed the factors causing stress, something can be done about it. In this technological era the question is asked whether excessive paperwork is really necessary whilst computers are available to assist with paperwork and reducing filing of paperwork. Without sufficient and effective equipment, it cannot be expected from the correctional service employees to perform to the best of their abilities. This problem should be addressed as soon as possible.

Staff shortage causes employees to work harder and to work overtime. The working of overtime causes members to be away from their families and to be isolated from social activities, which as seen from the literature survey cause more stress. Recommendations may be the employing of temporary staff, or the increase of the budget to employ more police officers. Poorly motivated co-workers go hand in hand with the problem of staff shortage.

A recommendation is that job-fit assessments should be conducted to identify whether applicants are suitable for police work. Personality traits may play an important role in the working conditions of police work, and this factor should be investigated before appointing any employee in such an important job such as police work.

Special interventions should be taken to assess and address burnout in the police service. A centre is suggested where officers with post-traumatic stress disorders can be treated. It is also recommended that a burnout and/or stress survey be done frequently, on a six-month or even three monthly basis, to assess possible stress problems, to immediately address the snowflake before it becomes a snowball.

As previously stated, police conferences may be held in different regions to award officers who excelled in their job, or to have motivational speakers to uplift the morale of police officers.

It is also strongly recommended that all police officers for at least one year, as the shortest time attend a police college, where they will be skilled in all aspects of police work. This will serve to equip them to cope with the difficulties experienced in police work.

These are all recommendations, which if applied might lead to a solution of present problems experienced in the police force.

## 5. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Thorough research should be conducted at all police stations in all the regions throughout South-Africa to assess job satisfaction, stress, burnout and engagement levels of members of the police force.

Research should be concluded by suggesting ways to address serious occurrence of stress and burnout and also to uplift the morale of police officers.

The salary structure should be investigated to determine whether police officers are really underpaid.

## 6. CONCLUSION

The results of this research have accomplished its purpose. The use of questionnaires to reveal information about job satisfaction, stress, burnout and engagement has served its purpose. The validity of all the hypothesis have been proved, except hypotheses d, which was proved as partly correct, because the legal system which fails officers did not prove to be a factor which caused stress in officers in the Zeerust District.

Recommendations were made for action as well as for further research, in this regard.

This survey conducted at the Zeerust District is only applicable to the Zeerust District and can not be generalised to other regions, as each region may have their own shortcomings to deal with.



With the correct interventions the word "STRESSED" can be turned into the word

"DESSERTS"

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**DETERMINING  
OF  
JOB SATISFACTION  
OF MEMBERS  
OF THE POLICE FORCE  
IN THE  
NORTH WEST PROVINCE**

**SECTION A**

**Biographical Details**

1. Please state the city/town and police station you are working:

\_\_\_\_\_

2. Are you: Male  Female

3. Your age:

4. Marital status: Singles  Married  Divorced

Widowed  Other

5. Your home language: English  Afrikaans  Tswana

Zulu  Xhosa  Other

6. Education /Qualification:

Highest grade/standard:  University

College/Technikon  Apprenticeship

Other:

7. Your rank

\_\_\_\_\_

8. Approximate time serving in current tank

\_\_\_\_\_

9. Classification of your job:

Crime prevention  Detective Service and Crime Intelligence

Administration  Operational Response Service

Others: \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

**SECTION B:****Job satisfaction survey (MSQ)**

Indicate how you feel about the following aspects, ranging from very dissatisfied (1) to (5) very satisfied by crossing out/circling the relevant figures.

1 = Very dissatisfied

5 = Very satisfied

	Very dissatis- fied				Very satisfied
1. Being able to keep busy all the time	1	2	3	4	5
2. The chance to work alone on the job	1	2	3	4	5
3. The chance to do different things from time to time	1	2	3	4	5
4. The chance to be 'somebody' in the community	1	2	3	4	5
5. The way my supervisor handles his/her workers	1	2	3	4	5
6. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions	1	2	3	4	5
7. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience	1	2	3	4	5
8. The way my job provides for steady employment	1	2	3	4	5
9. The chance to do things for other people	1	2	3	4	5
10. The chance to tell people what to do	1	2	3	4	5
11. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities	1	2	3	4	5
12. The way company policies are put into practice	1	2	3	4	5
13. The relation between pay and the amount of work I do	1	2	3	4	5
14. The chances for advancement on this job	1	2	3	4	5
15. The freedom to use my own judgement	1	2	3	4	5
16. The chance to try my own methods	1	2	3	4	5
17. The working conditions	1	2	3	4	5
18. The way my co-workers get along with each other	1	2	3	4	5
19. The praise I get for doing a good job	1	2	3	4	5
20. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job	1	2	3	4	5

**SECTION C:**

**Police stress survey**

Job stress can have serious effects on the lives of employees and their families. The impact of stressful job events is influenced by both the **amount** of stress associated with a particular event and the **frequency** of its occurrence. This survey will determine your perception of important sources of stress in your work. The survey lists 44 job-related items that many employees find stressful. **First, (Part A)** you will be asked to rate the amount of stress associated with each event. Then, **(Part B)** indicate the **number of times within the last 6 months** that you have experienced each event.

In making your ratings of the amount of stress for each stressor event, use all your knowledge and experience. Consider the amount of time and energy that you would need to cope with or adjust to the event. Base your ratings on your personal experience as well as what you have seen to the case for others. Rate the average amount of stress that you feel is associated with each event, rather than the extreme.

Persons rated the first event, ASSIGNMENT OF DISAGREEABLE DUTIES, in a variety of occupations as producing an average amount of stress. This event has been given a rating of "5" and will be used as the **standard** for evaluating the other events. Compare each event with this standard. Then assign a number from "1" to "9" to indicate whether you judge the event to be less or more stressful than being assigned disagreeable duties.

**PART A**

**- Amount of stress**

Please rate the amount of stress associated with each event.

If the event listed is more stressful to you than the ASSIGNMENT OF DISAGREEABLE DUTIES, **circle** the number appropriately larger than "5". For example:

2 Working overtime 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
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If the event listed is less stressful to you than the ASSIGNMENT OF DISAGREEABLE DUTIES, **circle** out the number appropriately smaller than "5". For example:

2 Working overtime 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---



If you make a mistake or change your mind on any item, cross out and circle the correct response. For example:

2 Working overtime

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Stressful job-related events	Amount of stress								
	Low		Moderate					High	
1. Assignment of disagreeable duties	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2. Working overtime	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
3. Lack of opportunity for advancement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4. Assignment of new or unfamiliar duties	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
5. Fellow workers not doing their job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
6. Inadequate support by supervisor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
7. Dealing with crisis situations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
8. Lack of recognition for good work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
9. Performing tasks not in job description	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10. Inadequate or poor quality equipment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
11. Assignment of increased responsibility	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
12. Periods of inactivity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
13. Difficulty getting along with supervisor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
14. Experiencing negative attitudes toward the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
15. Insufficient personnel to handle an assignment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
16. Making critical on-the-spot decisions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
17. Personal insult from customer/consumer/colleague	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
18. Lack of participation in policy-making decisions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
19. Inadequate salary	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
20. Competition for advancement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
21. Poor inadequate supervision	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
22. Noisy work area	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
23. Frequent interruptions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
24. Frequent changes from boring to demanding activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
25. Excessive paperwork	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
26. Meeting deadlines	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
27. Insufficient personal time (e.g. coffee breaks, lunch)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
28. Covering work for another employee	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
29. Poorly motivated co-workers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
30. Conflicts with other departments	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
31. Shift work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
32. Too much supervision	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
33. Delivering a death message or bad news to someone	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
34. Attending to incidences of domestic violence	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
35. Reorganisation and transformation within the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Stressful job-related events	Amount of stress								
	Low		Moderate					High	
36. Staff shortages	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
37. Killing someone in the line of duty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
38. A fellow officer killed in the line of duty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
39. Racial conflict	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
40. Having to handle a large crowd/mass demonstration	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
41. A forced arrest or being physically attached	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
42. Having to go to court	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
43. Having to deal with the media	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
44. Seeing criminals go free (for example because of lack of evidence, court leniency)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9



**- Frequency of event**



For each of the job-related events listed, please indicate the approximate number of days during the past 6 months on which you have personally experienced the event. For example, if you have experienced the event listed on 4 days in the past six months, **circle** the “4”. If you have not experienced the event to any days during the past six months, **circle** the “0”. If you have experienced the event listed on 9 or more days during the past six months, **circle** the “9+”

If you make a **mistake** or change your mind on any item, cross out **and circle** the correct response. For example:

1A Assignment of disagreeable duties 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+
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Stressful job-related events	Number of days on which the event occurred during the past 6 months									
45. Assignment of disagreeable duties	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+
46. Working overtime	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+
47. Lack of opportunity for advancement	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+
48. Assignment of new or unfamiliar duties	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+
49. Fellow workers not doing their job	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+
50. Inadequate support by supervisor	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+
51. Dealing with crisis situations	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+
52. Lack of recognition for good work	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+
53. Performing tasks not in job description	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+
54. Inadequate or poor quality equipment	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+
55. Assignment of increased responsibility	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+
56. Periods of inactivity	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+
57. Difficulty getting along with supervisor	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+
58. Experiencing negative attitudes toward the organisation	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+



Stressful job-related events	Number of days on which the event occurred during the past 6 months										
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	
59. Insufficient personnel to handle an assignment	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	
60. Making critical on-the-spot decisions	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	
61. Personal insult from customer/consumer/colleague	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	
62. Lack of participation in policy-making decisions	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	
63. Inadequate salary	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	
64. Competition for advancement	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	
65. Poor or inadequate supervision	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	
66. Noisy work area	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	
67. Frequent interruptions	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	
68. Frequent changes from boring to demanding activities	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	
69. Excessive paperwork	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	
70. Meeting deadlines	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	
71. Insufficient personal time (e.g. coffee breaks, lunch)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	
72. Covering work for another employee	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	
73. Poorly motivated co-workers	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	
74. Conflicts with other departments	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	
75. Shift work	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	
76. Too much supervision	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	
77. Delivering a death message or bad news to someone	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	
78. Attending to incidences of domestic violence	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	
79. Reorganisation and transformation within the organisation	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	
80. Staff shortages	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	
81. Killing someone in the line of duty	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	
82. A fellow officer killed in the line of duty	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	
83. Racial conflict	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	
84. Having to handle a large crowd/mass demonstrating	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	
85. A forced arrest or being physically attacked	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	
86. Having to go to court	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	
87. Having to deal with the media	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	
88. Seeing criminals go free (for example because of lack of evidence, court leniency)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	

**SECTION D:**

**MBI Survey**

The purpose of this survey is to assess how you view your job and what your reactions are to your work. The following are statements of job-related feelings. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you **never** had this feeling, **circle** or **cross out** the "0" (zero) in the space next to the statement. If you **had** this feeling, indicate how often you experience it by **circle** or **cross out** the number (from 1-6) that best describes how frequently you feel that way:

SCALE:

0 = Never	1 = A few times a year or less	2 = Once a month or less	3 = A few times a month	4 = Once a week	5 = A few times a week	6 = Everyday
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	STATEMENTS	SCALE							
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	
1	I feel emotionally drained by performing my work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	
2	I feel used up at the end of the workday.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	
3	I feel tired when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	
4	Working all day is really a strain for me.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	
5	I can effectively solve the problem that arise in my work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	
6	I feel burned out from my work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	
7	I feel I am making an effective contribution to what this organisation does.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	
8	I have become less interested in my work since I started this job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	
9	I have become less enthusiastic about my work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	
10	In my opinion, I am good at my job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	
11	I feel exhilarated when I accomplish something at work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	
12	I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	
13	I just want to do my work and not be bothered.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	
14	I have become more cynical about whether my work contributes anything.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	
15	I doubt the significance of my work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	
16	At my work, I feel that I am effective at getting things done.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	



**SECTION E:**

**Utrecht Work Engagement Sale**

The following 17 statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have never had this feeling, cross the "0" (zero) in the space after the statement. If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you feel it by crossing the number (from 1 to 6) that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

Never	Almost never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very often	Always
0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Never	A few times a year or less	Once a month or less	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Everyday

1	I am bursting with energy in my work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	I find my work full of meaning and purpose.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Time flies when I'm working.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I feel strong and vigorous in my job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	I am enthusiastic about my job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	When I am working, I forget everything else around me.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	My job inspires me.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	I feel happy when I am engrossed in my work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	I am proud of the work that I do.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	I am immersed in my work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	In my job, I can continue working for very long periods at a time.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	To me, my work is challenging.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	I get carried away by my work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	I am very resilient, mentally, in my job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	It is difficult to detach myself from my job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	I always persevere at work, even when things do not go well.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

**Thank you for your kind co-operation in completing this set of questionnaires.**