

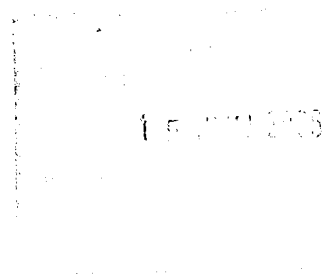
**JOB INSECURITY, AFFECTIVE ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT, BURNOUT,
JOB SATISFACTION AND HEALTH OF HUMAN RESOURCES PRACTITIONERS IN
A CHEMICAL INDUSTRY**

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The reader is reminded of the following:

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SUMMARY

Title: Job insecurity, affective organisational commitment, burnout, job satisfaction and health of human resources practitioners in a chemical industry.

Key terms: Job insecurity, affective organisational commitment, burnout, job satisfaction, health, human resources practitioners and chemical industry.

Globally, changing operations and economic conditions are causing organisations to downsize, outsource and restructure (Lindstrom, Leino, Seitsamo & Tordtila, 1997). These may result in feelings of insecurity, alienation and stress in workers because of higher workloads and pressures brought about by such changes. When the employee is unable to tolerate occupational pressures and feels totally overwhelmed by stress, he or she is likely to reach breaking point and experience burnout, amongst others (Weisberg, 1994). From the literature it is evident that some generic inherent aspects of the Human Resources career field with related functions may cause serious discomfort to Human Resources Practitioners (HRP) worldwide. Mark Gorkin (2003) emphasises that, at present, high work demands, rapidly changing requirements and responsibilities together with a lack of sufficient control, authority and autonomy to deal with change may predispose HRP's to experience chronic stress. This may influence the level of job security, job satisfaction and commitment experienced by HRP's, including their subsequent possible burnout levels as well as a potential decline in general health.

The pressure on HRP's in South Africa to adapt to change, and to deliver unique results, is not different from the rest of the world. HR Future (2003) acknowledges that if Human Resource departments in South Africa are to effect real change, it must be made up of people who have the skills they need to work from a foundation of confidence and should earn what too often it lacks, namely respect. It has been said that executives who recognise the economic value of intellectual capital and organisational capability and the benefit thereof to their customers; need to demand more from the Human Resources function.

The primary objective of this research was to examine the relationship between job insecurity, affective organisational commitment, burnout, job satisfaction and health of Human Resources practitioners in a chemical industry. The Human Resources departments in the chemical industry underwent some vast organisational changes, for example restructuring and centralisation. There was a need to determine how well the HRP's were coping with the changes and the inherent stressors of the Human Resources career field. The measuring instruments used were the Job Insecurity Questionnaire (JIQ), the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), the Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey (MBI-GS), the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) and the Health Questionnaire (GHQ).

A survey design was used to reach the research objectives. The specific design used was the cross-sectional design, whereby a sample is normally drawn from a population at one time (Babbie, 1992). The only difference with this study was that the total population of 505 was targeted, and not only a sample. A response of 144 completed questionnaires was received (29%).

Results demonstrated that the largest practically significant correlation (negative) was between health and exhaustion. There was also a practically significant negative correlation between health and cynicism, and health and affective job insecurity. It was also found that job insecurity had a practically significant correlation with exhaustion and also cynicism. Cognitive job insecurity was practically significantly negatively related to both extrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction, as well as affective organisational commitment. Affective organisational commitment was also practically significantly related to cynicism and exhaustion (negative) and also to job satisfaction (positive). A practically significantly negative correlation was found between job satisfaction and cynicism, as well as exhaustion.

Demographic characteristics were first analysed for statistical significance using Wilk's Lambda statistics. No statistically significant differences ($p < 0,01$) regarding any of the variables could be found for any of the demographic characteristics, such as age, qualifications, gender, home language, service years, job level and area.

Multiple regression analysis indicated that 12% of the variance in affective organisational commitment as measured by the OCQ was predicted by job insecurity, and 12% of the variance in job insecurity was explained by exhaustion as measured by the MBI-GS. Furthermore, the analysis indicated that 14% of the variance in job insecurity was predicted by cynicism as measured by the MBI-GS. Job insecurity was, however, not predicted by professional efficacy. A total of 6% of the variance in intrinsic job satisfaction as measured by the MSQ was predicted by job insecurity, as well as 14% of the variance in extrinsic job satisfaction. A total of 14% of the variance in job insecurity could be explained by health.

Acceptable Cronbach alpha coefficients were obtained on all the scales. All the items on the inter-item correlation coefficients were acceptable ($0,15 \leq r \leq 0,50$; Clark & Watson, 1995). Most scores on the dimensions seemed to be distributed normally (skewness and kurtosis smaller than 1) except cynicism and intrinsic job satisfaction, that were marginally above the 1 cut-off point. The kurtosis of professional efficacy, however, showed a much flatter distribution than normal.

Both subscales of job insecurity indicated that employees experienced below average levels of job insecurity. Affective organisational commitment of employees was above average. Results also indicated excellent health. Low levels of exhaustion and cynicism were recorded; together with a high level of professional efficacy. Above average means for extrinsic job satisfaction as well as intrinsic job satisfaction were recorded.

Recommendations for the organisation and future research were made towards the end of the mini-dissertation. Limitations were discussed and conclusions made.

OPSOMMING

- Titel:** Werksonsekerheid, affektiewe organisasieverbondenheid, uitbranding, werkstevredenheid en gesondheid van menslike hulpbronbeampes in 'n chemiese industrie
- Sleuteltermes:** Werksonsekerheid, affektiewe organisasieverbondenheid, uitbranding, werkstevredenheid, gesondheid, menslike hulpbronbeampes en chemiese industrie

Die veranderende aard van bedryfs- en ekonomiese toestande wêreldwyd gee aanleiding daartoe dat organisasies werknemers verminder en verder ook funksies uitkontraakteer en herstruktureer (Lindstrom, Leino, Seitsamo & Tordtila, 1997). Dit mag lei tot gevoelens van onsekerheid, vervreemding en spanning by werknemers weens hoër werksladings en druk wat teweeggebring word deur sodanige veranderings. Wanneer die werknemer nie weerstand het teen werksdruk nie en totaal oorweldig voel deur spanning, is dit moontlik dat hy of sy 'n breekpunt kan bereik en onder andere uitbranding kan ervaar (Weisberg, 1994). Dit blyk duidelik uit die literatuur dat sommige generies-inherente aspekte van die Menslike Hulpbronne-beroepsveld met verwante funksies moontlik ernstige ongemak by Menslike Hulpbronbeampes wêreldwyd kan veroorsaak. Mark Gorkin (2004) benadruk dat huidige hoër werksverwagtinge, vinning veranderende vereistes en verantwoordelikhede; gepaardgaande met 'n tekort aan voldoende beheer, gesag en selfbestuur om hierdie aangeleenthede aan te spreek, kan lei tot chroniese stres by Menslike Hulpbronbeampes. Dit kan moontlik die vlak van werksonsekerheid, werkstevredenheid en verbondenheid van Menslike Hulpbronbeampes beïnvloed; en kan dus neerslag vind in moontlike uitbrandingsvlakke sowel as 'n afname in hulle algemene gesondheid.

Die druk op Menslike Hulpbronbeampes in Suid-Afrika om aan te pas by veranderinge en steeds unieke resultate te lewer, verskil nie juis van sodanige druk elders in die wêreld nie. HR Future (2003) dui aan dat, indien Menslike Hulpbrondepartemente in Suid Afrika daadwerklike verandering wil teweegbring, dit moet bestaan uit persone wat die bekwaamheid het om vanuit 'n basis van selfvertroue te werk en die nodige respek te verdien. Dit is uiteraard so dat

uitvoerende beamptes wat bewus is van die ekonomies waarde en voordeel van intellektuele kapitaal en organisatoriese bekwaamheid aan hul kliënte, meer van Menslike Hulpbronne vereis.

Die primêre doelwit van hierdie navorsing was om die verhouding tussen werksonsekerheid, affektiewe organisasieverbondenheid, uitbranding, werkstevredenheid en gesondheid van Menslike Hulpbronbeamptes in 'n chemiese industrie te ondersoek. Die Menslike Hulpbronaafdelings in die chemiese industrie het groot aantal organisatoriese veranderinge ondergaan, soos herstrukturering en sentralisering. Daar was 'n behoefte om te bepaal hoe goed die Menslike Hulpbronbeamptes dié veranderinge hanteer, gesien in die lig van die veranderinge asook die inherente stressors van die Menslike Hulpbronne-beroepsveld. Die meetinstrumente wat gebruik is, is die Werksonsekerheidsvraelys (JIQ), die Organisasieverbondenheidsvraelys (OCQ), die Maslach-Uitbrandingsvraelys (MBI-GS), die Minnesota-Werkstevredenheidsvraelys (MSQ) en die Gesondheidsvraelys (GHQ).

'n Opname-ontwerp is gebruik om die oogmerke na te vors. Die spesifieke ontwerp is die dwarsnee-opname-ontwerp, waar 'n steekproef op 'n gegewe tydstip normaalweg van van die populasie getrek word (Babbie, 1992). Die verskil met hierdie studie was dat die totale populasie van 505 gebruik is. 'n Respons van 144 voltooide vraelyste is ontvang (29%).

Resultate toon dat die grootste prakties-betekenisvolle korrelasie (negatief) bestaan het tussen gesondheid en uitputting. Daar was ook 'n prakties-betekenisvolle negatiewe korrelasie tussen gesondheid en sinisme, en gesondheid en affektiewe werksonsekerheid. Daar is verder ook gevind dat werksonsekerheid 'n prakties-betekenisvolle korrelasie gehad het met uitputting en sinisme. Kognitiewe werksonsekerheid het prakties-betekenisvol negatief gekorreleer met beide intrinsieke en eksentrieke werkstevredenheid, sowel as affektiewe organisasieverbondenheid. Affektiewe organisasieverbondenheid is ook prakties-betekenisvol verbind met sinisme en uitputting (negatief) en ook met werkstevredenheid (positief). 'n Prakties-betekenisvolle negatiewe korrelasie is gevind tussen werkstevredenheid en sinisme asook met uitputting.

Demografiese karaktereienskappe is eerstens geanaliseer vir statistiese beduidenheid deur gebruik te maak van Wilk se Lambda-statistiek. Daar is geen statisties-beduidende verskille ($p <$

0,01) gevind ten opsigte van enige van die veranderlikes met betrekking tot die demografiese karaktereienskappe soos ouderdom, kwalifikasies, geslag, huistaal, diensjare, posvlak en area nie.

Meervoudige regressie-analise het aangedui dat 12% van die variansie in affektiewe organisasieverbondenheid soos gemeet deur die OCQ voorspel is deur werksonsekerheid, en 12% van die variansie in werksonsekerheid verklaar kon word deur uitputting soos gemeet deur die MBI-GS. Daar was 'n verdere aanduiding dat 14% van die variansie in werksonsekerheid voorspel kon word deur sinisme soos gemeet deur die MBI-GS. Werksonsekerheid is nie voorspel deur professionele doeltreffendheid nie. 'n Totaal van 6% van die variansie in intrinsieke werkstevredenheid soos gemeet deur die MSQ is voorspel deur werksonsekerheid, en 14% van die variansie in ekstrinsieke werkstevredenheid is voorspel deur werksonsekerheid. 'n Totaal van 14% van die variansie in werksonsekerheid kon verklaar word deur gesondheid.

Aanvaarbare Cronbach-alpha-koëffisiente is verkry ten opsigte van al die skale. Al die items op die inter-itemkorrelasie-koëffisiente was aanvaarbaar ($0,15 \leq r \leq 0,50$; Clark & Watson, 1995). Meeste van die tellings op die dimensies het geblyk om normaal versprei te wees (skeefheid en kurtosis kleiner as 1), behalwe sinisme en intrinsieke werkstevredenheid, wat effens bo die afsnypunt van 1 was. Die kurtosis van professionele doeltreffendheid het egter 'n platter verspreiding getoon as normaalweg.

Beide subskale van werksonsekerheid het 'n aanduiding gegee dat werknemers ondergemiddelde vlakke van werksonsekerheid ervaar het. Affektiewe organisasieverbondenheid van werknemers was bogemiddeld. Lae vlakke van uitputting en sinisme is aangeteken, asook 'n hoë vlak van professionele doeltreffendheid. Bogemiddelde gemiddeldes is aangeteken vir ekstrinsieke werkstevredenheid asook vir intrinsieke werkstevredenheid.

Aanbevelings is gemaak vir die organisasie en ook vir toekomstige navorsing teen die einde van die mini-verhandeling. Beperkinge was bespreek en gevolgtrekkings gemaak.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This research is concerned with job insecurity, affective organisational commitment, burnout, job satisfaction and general health of Human Resources practitioners in a chemical industry.

1.1 PROBLEM STATEMENT

We are living in a globalised world characterised by rapid changes and ever-increasing competitiveness, a situation that makes significant demands on companies to perform better in order to survive. According to Lindstrom, Leino, Seitsamo and Tordtila (1997), organisations worldwide are downsizing, outsourcing and restructuring to remain competitive, because of economic conditions and constant changes. As a consequence, workers at all levels may be developing feelings of stress, insecurity, misunderstanding, undervaluation and alienation. Workloads and pressures are increasing because of changes, and these changes are accompanied by a decreased sense of job control in that employees do not feel in charge of their work environment (Lindstrom et al., 1997). Employees may thus feel insecure regarding their job continuity, feel less committed to their employees, feel stressed and despondent, have less satisfaction in the workplace, and may even experience a decline in their health.

According to the literature, this also seems to be the case for Human Resources practitioners (HRP's) (Katcher, 2002). In Katcher's study it is indicated that HRP's are not immune to the strains and uncertainty that plague the rest of the workforce, and tend to find their work emotionally draining. Gorkin (2003) emphasises that currently high demands, rapidly changing requirements and responsibilities on the one hand, and lack of sufficient control, authority and autonomy to deal with these on the other, may predispose HRP's with chronic stress. He further warns that the role of total rescuer, representative for both management and workers, chronically providing services to angry and disgruntled clients, the pursuit to solve all problems and keeping abreast of daily changes all are factors contributing to stress and possible burnout. The level of job security, job satisfaction and commitment experienced by the HRP's may also be influenced.

including a decline in general health. HRP's are thus just as predisposed to the negative experiences mentioned as other employees in an organisation.

Present inherent aspects of the Human Resources career field are, however, not the only aspects that may influence the wellness of HRP's negatively; possible changes in the total structure of Human Resource departments in general may similarly contribute to the situation. According to a long-term study, the ability of Human Resources to add value at a strategic level: "is currently more promise than reality" (Workforce, 2003). It has been found that today's people managers are still most comfortable with traditional Human Resources activities. If, however, they want to become effective business partners, they will have to change their skills.

Ford (2003) also identifies some new challenges in the field of Human Resources, for example: aligning high technology with the human factor; a movement away from administration to being business partners who understand business needs and act on these; knowledge management; the impact of globalisation, and regarding development as a continuous process and not a time-driven programme. According to Ford (2003), these are some trends that cannot be ignored by HRP's, who have to act on these.

In South Africa, the pressing need to keep abreast of change and to adapt swiftly also seems relevant. Some South African companies such as Sasol are listed on the New York stock exchange and are thus globally exposed to competition; such companies therefore have to adapt continuously to change in order to remain competitive. According to Schwanzer (2003), HRP's are crucial in sustaining a competitive advantage. HRP's are thus faced with new challenges and with these, concomitant potential stressors. The era of Human Resources being an administrative function is a thing of the past. Milani (2003) mentions that the Human Resources professional is expected to: "be a skilled manager of relationships; to think and act with a strategic perspective; and to take the initiative in optimising the human capital of an organisation."

HR Future (2003) acknowledges that, if Human Resources in South Africa were to effect real change, it needs to be made up of people who have the skills required to work from a foundation of confidence and to earn what too often it lacks, namely respect. The time has come to destroy the stereotype of value-sapping support staff and unleash the full potential of Human Resources. This potential will, however, only be attained if HRP's experienced and perceived, among others, adequate job satisfaction and job security with these changes.

From the above it is clear that HR professionals need to change their perceptions regarding their reason for existing, challenge old ways of doing things and start delivering the service that is expected from them. This will most probably add to the stress as described previously, with a possible negative influence on levels of job security, in turn affecting job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment, burnout and general health levels. To support this, De Witte (1997) found that job insecurity may lead to a decrease in job satisfaction and commitment. According to Probst (1998), employees with a perception of low job security are more likely to have lower job satisfaction levels and may leave the organisation.

Job Insecurity

Job insecurity concerns people in their work context who fear that they may lose their jobs and become unemployed (De Witte, 1999). The concept of job insecurity, however, does not only refer to the measure of uncertainty that employees experience about their job continuity, but also to the permanence of certain dimensions of their jobs, such as organisational benefits and promotional opportunities (De Witte, 1999).

Mauno and Kinnunen (1999) mention that the literature usually conceptualises job insecurity from three general points of view, as being a (i) a global, (ii) multidimensional concept or (iii) a job stressor. Job insecurity is usually defined in terms of the global viewpoint, highlighting the threat of job loss or job discontinuity (Caplan, Cobb, French, Van Harrison & Pinneau, 1980). Researchers who have adopted the multidimensional definition of job insecurity, argue that job insecurity refers not only to the degree of uncertainty, but also to the continuity of certain dimensions, such as opportunities for promotion (Ashford, Lee & Bobko, 1989; Borg & Elizur, 1992; Rosenblatt & Ruvio, 1996). Katz and Kahn (1978) developed a stress model or process

describing the circumstances relating to job insecurity. According to them, individuals interpret and evaluate objective reality in subjective and psychological terms. This again triggers physiological, psychological and behavioural reactions; leading to possible psychological and physical health problems. This process is influenced by individual characteristics as well as the environment. Individual characteristics, for example a person's perception of his/her employability and environmental issues, for example financial responsibilities, thus both contribute to, and affect how a person perceives an objective threat to job security (Katz & Kahn, 1978).

Job insecurity is not problematic for employees only, but also for the organisation. De Witte (1997) found that the impact of job insecurity on individual employees might result in the erosion of effectiveness within the organisation. According to Probst (1998), employees with a perception of low job security are more likely to engage in work withdrawal behaviour, and report lower organisational commitment, which often leads to employee turnover. Rosenblatt and Ruvio (1996) also found that job insecurity adversely affects organisational commitment, perceived organisational support, intention to quit and resistance to change. Moeletsi (2003) found that job insecurity correlates with job satisfaction and organisational commitment. When job insecurity was low, organisational commitment and job satisfaction was high.

Affective Organisational Commitment

According to Meyer and Allen (1991), organisational commitment is important to researchers and organisations because of the desire to retain a strong workforce. Researchers such as Meyer and Allen (1991) as well as practitioners are keenly interested in reaching an understanding of the factors that influence an individual's decision to stay or leave an organisation. Meyer and Allen (1991) have observed that the organisational commitment definitions available appear to reflect three general themes – affective orientation, cost-based and moral obligation. This facilitates the grouping of definitions according to the approach they exemplify. Therefore, as a result of the analysis, Meyer and Allen (1991) propose that commitment as a psychological attachment may assume the following three forms: affective, normative and continuance types of commitment.

Affective organisational commitment refers to an employee's attachment to, identification with, and involvement within the respective entity (Meyer & Allen, 1991). It includes a feeling of belonging and sense of psychological attachment to the target of commitment (Hartmann & Bambacas, 2000). This entity, as argued by Meyer and Allen (1997), may be an organisation, a project, a supervisor or a fellow worker; anything that bears importance for an employee.

Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving or abandoning the respective entity, such as aborting a project (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Normative commitment, again, reflects a feeling of obligation to continue membership with the entity in question, for example an organisational project Wiener (1982).

As discussed earlier, job insecurity affects both affective organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Begley and Czajka (1993) furthermore examined the effects of organisational commitment on job satisfaction and intent to quit during organisational turmoil. Their findings show that organisational commitment buffers the relationship between stress and job displeasure interpreted as job dissatisfaction. Rannona (2003) also found a positive correlation between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Job Satisfaction

There seems to be general consensus that job satisfaction can be described as an affective or emotional reaction to a job, resulting from the comparison of actual outcomes within those that are desired, expected or felt to be deserved (Cranny, Smith & Stoner, 1992). Weiss and Cropanzano (1998) define job satisfaction as the process whereby employees seek to achieve and maintain correspondence with their environment. The correspondence with the environment can be described in terms of individuals fulfilling the experience requirements of the environment, and the environment fulfilling the requirements of the individuals. When individuals thus perceive that the outcomes of the job are met or exceeded, they are satisfied.

Hirschfeld (2000) brings into focus two components of job satisfaction, namely intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. Intrinsic satisfaction, according to Hirschfeld (2000), refers to how

people feel about the nature of the job tasks themselves. Workers here only consider the kind of work they do; the tasks that make up the job (including growth, variety and responsibility). Extrinsic job satisfaction describes how people feel about aspects of the work situation that are external to the job tasks. Workers in this regard consider the conditions of work such as their pay, coworkers and supervisor. These two types of satisfaction are clearly different, and it helps to look at jobs from both points of view. For example, if employees are dissatisfied with their current job, they must ask themselves: "To what extent is it due to the kind of work I am doing?" and "To what extent is it due to the conditions of my work?" If it is primarily the kind of work they are doing, it institutes intrinsic job dissatisfaction.

Burnout

According to Holcomb, Cheponis, Hazler and Portner (1994), negative work stress occurs when a worker's needs, expectations and values are not met. This indicates that acceptance/non-acceptance of an organisation's values (organisational commitment) and job satisfaction/dissatisfaction will influence a worker's level of stress and possible burnout. Ransome (1995) also mentions that the possibility of losing his/her job (job insecurity) and uncertain work situations may lead to negative work stress. De Witte (1997) further maintains that job insecurity lies in between stress, burnout and its complement on the one side, and the psychological consequences of unemployment of the other side. The relationship between the constructs discussed and burnout seems evident, should the constructs be experienced negatively.

According to Levert, Lucas and Ortlepp (2000), burnout can be regarded as the end result of consistently unmediated or unsuccessful attempts at mediating stressors in the environment on the part of the individual. Maslach, Jackson and Leiter (1996) and Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter (2001) describe burnout as a syndrome consisting of three dimensions, namely feelings of emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation (cynicism) and reduced personal accomplishment. Emotional exhaustion - the individual stress dimension of burnout - refers to feelings of depleted physical and emotional resources and prompts actions in the worker to distance him/herself emotionally and cognitively from his/her work, presumably as a way to cope with work overload. The interpersonal context dimension is represented by depersonalisation, which entails negative, callous and cynical attitudes or excessively detached responses towards the recipients

of service and care, reducing the recipient to an impersonal object. The third dimension, namely lack of personal accomplishment (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2000), represents the self-evaluation dimension of burnout and refers to feelings of insufficiency (Schaufeli & Buunk, 1996), incompetence, lack of achievement and feelings of unproductiveness (Maslach et al., 2001).

The consequences of burnout are thus potentially serious for employees and the institutions in which they interact. It is the end result of consistently unmoderated or unsuccessful attempts at mediating stressors in the environment on the part of the individual (Levert et al., 2000). According to Van Zyl (2005), the subscales of burnout; cynicism and exhaustion, were practically significant related to general health.

Possible unemployment (Job insecurity) is a dangerous cause of work stress that is associated with serious health problems, amongst others cardiovascular illnesses, for example hypertension (Sutherland & Cooper, 1990). Other research has also indicated that prolonged stress and burnout may have a negative influence on an individual's physical health.

Health

Dating as far back as 1936, Hans Selye (in Carson & Butcher, 1992), demonstrated the detrimental effects of stress on the immune system: individuals may show increased rates of infectious diseases like colds and flu during periods of heightened stress, including diffuse joint and muscle pain, disturbances of the intestines with loss of appetite and weight loss. Stress and burnout may in the long-term lead to heart disease and possible blood pressure problems (Hawkins & Larson, 1984). It seems clear that burnout may lead to reduced physical health, and is worth investigating in this research.

According to Siu (2002) and Winefield, Gillispie, Stough, Dua and Hapuararchchi (2002) there is significant evidence to suggest that chronic and high levels of occupational stress, if left unchecked, are related to mental and physical wellbeing, job dissatisfaction, absenteeism, stress-related injuries, turnover and intention to quit. They have shown a significant correlation

between higher levels of psychological strain and incidences of self-reported, stress-related health symptoms such as sleeping difficulties, headaches, colds and other viral infections.

According to a study in an insurance company by Coetzer (2004), deteriorating physical and psychological health was found to be the major outcome of perceived stress. This study indicated that employees in the company suffering of high levels of burnout, a lack of resources and high demands would develop physical and psychological health problems. The 'burnt-out' employee is likely to experience stress-related health problems since burnout is frequently linked with illness.

The chemical industry that is the focus of this study, and which has been established in 1950 with its current headquarters in Johannesburg, is active in over 20 countries and on 6 continents, and is a global player in chemicals and fuels (Sasol Internet, 2003). The normal Human Resources activities are managed by a Human Resources establishment of 505 HRP's. (These include Human Resources Administrators, Internal Consultants, Generalists, Trainers and Specialists in the various fields of expertise.)

Up to 2001, each and every business unit of the chemical industry (a business unit is responsible for a specific production process) had its own in-house Human Resources Department, responsible for the entire Human Resources function as described previously. For various valid reasons, the Human Resources administrative services were centralised in one centre, with changes impacting on all fields of the Human Resources function. Roles and responsibilities of all Human Resources functions have changed, employees had to take up new positions, and some feared retrenchments and/or demotions.

As discussed previously, it is evident from literature that, under normal circumstances, HRP's are predisposed to possible stress and burnout because of inherent requirements of their jobs and the various roles they have to fulfil (Katcher, 2002). If this is true, a significant concern can be raised regarding the psychological wellbeing of the chemical industry's HRP's. The reason is that the radical changes in work environment caused by the change project, together with a high possibility of resistance to change, may have aggravated this predisposition, and may have led to HRP's not being equipped to successfully maintain an acceptable level of functioning. Added to

this, there are anticipated changes worldwide regarding the role of Human Resources and the dynamic changes in South Africa currently and those expected in future. In light of these, it seems pertinent to investigate the wellness of HRP's in this chemical industry.

Based on the problem statement, the following research questions were formulated for the purpose of the study:

- How are job insecurity, affective organisational commitment, burnout, job satisfaction and health conceptualised in the related literature?
- What is the reliability and validity of the measuring instruments of job insecurity, affective organisational commitment, burnout, job satisfaction and health?
- What is the relationship between job insecurity, affective organisational commitment, burnout, job satisfaction and health of Human Resources practitioners in a chemical industry?
- Do participants differ in terms of their demographical variables such as age, qualifications, gender, home language, service years, job level and area in terms of their experience of job insecurity?
- Does job insecurity hold predictive value with regard to affective organisational commitment?
- Does exhaustion hold predictive value with regard to job insecurity?
- Does cynicism hold predictive value with regard to job insecurity?
- Does professional efficacy hold predictive value with regard to job insecurity?
- Does job insecurity hold predictive value with regard to job satisfaction as measured by intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction?
- Does health hold predictive value with regard to job insecurity?

1.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

1.2.1 General Objective

The general objective of the study is to determine the relationship between insecurity, affective organisational commitment, burnout, job satisfaction and health of HRP's in a chemical industry.

1.2.2 Specific Objectives

The specific research objectives are:

- To determine how job insecurity, affective organisational commitment, burnout, job satisfaction and health are conceptualised in literature.
- To determine the reliability and validity of the measuring instruments of job insecurity, affective organisational commitment, burnout, job satisfaction and health
- To determine the relationship between job insecurity, affective organisational commitment, burnout, job satisfaction and health of Human Resources practitioners in a chemical industry.
- To determine whether participants differ in terms of their demographical variables such as age, qualifications, gender, home language, service years, job level and area in terms of their experience of job insecurity?
- To determine whether job insecurity holds predictive value with regard to affective organisational commitment.
- To determine whether exhaustion holds predictive value with regard to job insecurity.
- To determine whether cynicism holds predictive value with regard to job insecurity.
- To determine whether professional efficacy holds predictive value with regard to job insecurity.
- To determine whether job insecurity holds predictive value with regard to job satisfaction as measured by intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction.
- To determine whether health holds predictive value with regard to job insecurity.

1.3 Research Method

1.3.1 Research Design

A survey design was used to reach the research objectives. The specific design is the cross sectional design, whereby a sample is normally drawn from a population at one time (Babbie, 1992). The only difference with this study is that the total population was utilised, and not only a

sample. Information collected was used to describe the population at the specific time and is appropriate for exploratory and descriptive studies (Babbie, 1992). The study is and was cost-effective and suitable for studying a large number of subjects simultaneously.

1.3.2 Study Population

The study population consisted of all the employees employed in the HR career field of a chemical industry. The total population was targeted ($n = 505$). The participants were sensitised and informed regarding the study via internal e-mail facilities. The actual questionnaires were sent out via the internal mail system, and were accompanied by self-addressed envelopes. Of the 505 questionnaires sent out, a response rate of 29% (144 participants) was obtained.

1.3.3 Measuring Battery

The following measuring instruments were used to investigate wellness:

Job Insecurity Questionnaire (JIQ) (De Witte, 2000)

The questionnaire consists of 11 items relating to job insecurity. Items encapsulate both the cognitive and affective dimensions of job insecurity and are arranged along a 5-point Likert-type scale with 1 = strongly disagree, 3 = unsure and 5 = strongly agree. De Witte (2000) in his studies reported a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0,92 (total) for his questionnaire to which he refers as "globale jobonzekerheid". For the 5 items encapsulating the affective dimension of job insecurity, a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0,85 was reported and for the 6 items referring to the cognitive dimension of job insecurity, a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0,90 was found, thus indicating high reliability (De Witte, 2000). Typical questions are "I am certain/sure I will be able to keep my job" (cognitive insecurity) and "I fear that I might get fired" (affective insecurity). De Witte also found an overlap between the cognitive and affective factor loadings and reported that both scales correlated interdependently very highly ($r = 0,76$).

Studies conducted in South Africa have proved this instrument to be reliable. In a South African study in the mining industry, the Cronbach alpha coefficients were 0,82 for the job insecurity

(total) and 0,84 for job insecurity (affective) scales (Rannona, 2003). The Cronbach alpha of the cognitive scale was 0,56, which is below the acceptable standard, but still acceptable for further analysis. Buitendach (2004) reported a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0,84 for the cognitive dimension and a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0,89 for the affective dimension. In a study by Van Zyl (2005), Cronbach alpha coefficients of 0,89 and 0,84 were obtained for the cognitive and affective dimensions respectively.

Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993)

The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993) consists of 18 items rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale with 1 = strongly disagree, 5 strongly agree. It is useful in the sense that it measures organisational commitment in terms of different subscales (affective, continuance and normative). For the purpose of this study, only affective organisational commitment will be measured. Previous research has indicated that affective organisational commitment is the most desirable form of organisational commitment, as well as the one that organisations generally want to instil in employees (Meyer & Allen, 1997). A typical question is: "I really feel as if the organisation's problems are my own". Allen and Meyer (1990) state that inter-correlations between different samples were often above 0,90, which indicates that the combined factor is congruent. Cronbach alpha coefficients were consistently above 0,80 for each one of these subscales (Suliman & Iles, 2000a). In a South African study in the packaging industry, the Cronbach alpha coefficient of the total organisational commitment on the measuring Organisational Commitment Questionnaire was determined at 0,84 (Moeletsi, 2003). Laage (2003) found a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0,81 for affective organisational commitment.

Maslach Burnout Inventory General Survey (MBI-GS) (Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach & Jackson, 1996)

The Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey (MBI-GS) (Schaufeli et al., 1996) was used to measure burnout. The MBI-GS has three subscales: exhaustion (five items; e.g. "I feel used up at the end of the workday"), cynicism (five items; e.g. "I have become less enthusiastic about my work") and professional efficacy (six items; e.g. "In my opinion, I am good at my job"). Together the subscales of the MBI-GS provide a three-dimensional perspective on burnout. Internal

consistencies (Cronbach alpha coefficients) reported by Schaufeli et al. (1996) varied from 0,87 to 0,89 for exhaustion; 0,73 to 0,84 for cynicism and 0,76 to 0,84 for professional efficacy. Test-retest reliabilities after one year were 0,65 (exhaustion), 0,60 (cynicism) and 0,67 (professional efficacy) (Schaufeli et al., 1996). All items are scored on a 7-point frequency rating scale ranging from 0 ("never") to 6 ("daily").

The following Cronbach alpha coefficients were obtained for the MBI-GS: exhaustion: 0,88; cynicism: 0,79; and professional efficacy: 0,78 (Storm, 2002). In another recent South African study at an insurance company, the following Cronbach alpha coefficients were obtained for the MBI-GS: exhaustion: 0,86 to 0,88; cynicism: 0,79 to 0,80 (Coetzer, 2004).

Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist, 1967).

Two versions of the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire are available, namely a long version consisting of 100 items and a short version consisting of 20 items. The short version was used in the research. The response format was a 5-point Likert-type scale with 1 = very dissatisfied and 5 = very satisfied. The MSQ form measures intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction and typical questions are "Being able to keep busy all the time" (intrinsic) and "The praise I get for doing a good job" (extrinsic). Weiss et al. (1967) reported reliability coefficients that varied between 0,87 to 0,92 for the revised Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire. Lam, Baum and Pine (1998) supported these findings by reporting Cronbach's alpha coefficients that ranged from 0,87 to 0,95, indicating high internal consistency. Reliability coefficients of 0,90 and higher were reported in South African studies for the revised Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire, indicating that this questionnaire indeed offers a reliable and valid measure of general job satisfaction (Kaplan, 1990). Dwyer (2001) reported a reliability coefficient of 0,92 for the same questionnaire, while Thomas and Tymon (1994) found it to be 0,87. Rannona (2003) reported Cronbach alpha coefficients of 0,93 (total), 0,90 (intrinsic) and 0,86 (extrinsic) in a study conducted in a South African mining organisation.

In a study within a chemical organisation conducted by Buckle (2003), a high Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0,88 was recorded for the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire. This study recorded an intrinsic job satisfaction coefficient of 0,80 and a coefficient of 0,85 was recorded

for extrinsic job satisfaction. Van Zyl (2003) reported an intrinsic job satisfaction alpha coefficient of 0,84, with 0,79 for extrinsic job satisfaction.

Health Questionnaire (GHQ) (Cartwright & Cooper, 2002)

The health subscales of ASSET (which refers to an Organisational Stress Screening Evaluation Tool) were developed by Cartwright and Cooper (2002) to assess respondents' level of health. The health subscales consist of 18 items arranged on two subscales: physical health and psychological wellbeing. All items on the physical health subscale relate to physical symptoms of stress. The role of this subscale is to provide a measure of insight into physical health, not an in-depth clinical diagnosis. The items listed on the psychological wellbeing subscale are symptoms of stress-induced mental ill health. Johnson and Cooper (2003) found that the psychological wellbeing subscale has good convergent validity with an existing measure of psychiatric disorders, namely the General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12; Goldberg & Williams, 1988).

A questionnaire was also developed to gather information about the biographical characteristics of the participants. Participants were given the option of providing their names and company numbers should they wish to do so. Other information gathered included gender, marital status, language, education, position and some job-related information that helped to make useful deductions with the end results obtained.

1.3.4 Statistical Analysis

The statistical analysis was conducted with the help of the Statistical Consultation Services of the North-West University; utilising the SAS-programme (SAS Institute, 2000). Cronbach alpha coefficients and inter-item correlation coefficients were used to assess the reliability and validity of the measuring instruments (Clark & Watson, 1995). Descriptive statistics (e.g. means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis) were used to analyse the data

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were used to specify the relationships between variables. A cut-off point of 0,30 (medium effect; Cohen, 1988) was set for the practical significance of correlation coefficients.

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to determine the differences between demographic groups such as age, job level, area, language, gender and service years. MANOVA tests whether mean differences among groups on a combination of dependent variables are likely to have occurred by chance (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Wilk's Lambda is a likelihood ratio statistic that tests the likelihood of the data under the assumption of equal population mean vectors for all groups against the likelihood under the assumption that the population mean vectors are identical to those of the sample mean vectors for the different groups. When an effect was significant in MANOVA, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to discover which dependent variables were affected.

Regression analyses were conducted to determine the percentage of variance in the dependent variables that is predicted by job insecurity. A correlation can be better understood by determining R^2 (Cohen, 1988). The square of the correlation coefficient indicates the proportion of the variance in any two variables, which is indicated by the variance in the other.

1.4 OVERVIEW OF CHAPTERS

Chapter 2 deals with the relationship between job insecurity, affective organisational commitment, burnout, job satisfaction and health of Human Resources practitioners in a chemical industry. Chapter 3 provides conclusions regarding research objectives, details the limitations of this research, and suggests recommendations for the organisation as well as for future research.

1.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 1 provided a discussion of the problem statement and the various research objectives. An explanation regarding the measuring instruments and research method was presented, followed by a brief overview of the chapters to follow.

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CHAPTER 2

RESEARCH ARTICLE

**JOB INSECURITY, AFFECTIVE ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT, BURNOUT,
JOB SATISFACTION AND HEALTH OF HUMAN RESOURCES PRACTITIONERS IN
A CHEMICAL INDUSTRY**

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ABSTRACT

The objective of this study was to investigate the relationship between Job Insecurity (Job Insecurity Questionnaire: JIQ), Affective Organisational Commitment (Organisational Commitment Questionnaire: OCQ), Burnout (Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey: MBI-GS), Job Satisfaction (Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire: MSQ) and Health (General Health Questionnaire: ASSET-GHQ) of Human Resources Practitioners (HRP's) in a chemical industry. The sample comprised the full population of 505 Human Resources officials. The results revealed practically significant relationships between job insecurity, affective organisational commitment, burnout, job satisfaction and health. Health as independent variable explains 14% of the variance in job insecurity. Job insecurity explains 14% of the variance in extrinsic job satisfaction; 6% in intrinsic job satisfaction and 12% in affective organisational commitment. Exhaustion and cynicism explains 12% and 14% of the variance in job insecurity respectively.

OPSOMMING

Die doelstelling van hierdie studie was om die verwantskap tussen Werksonsekerheid (Job Insecurity Questionnaire: JIQ), Affektiewe Organisasieverbondenheid (Organisational Commitment Questionnaire: OCQ), Uitbranding (Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey: MBI-GS), Werkstevredenheid (Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire: MSQ) en Gesondheid (General Health Questionnaire: ASSET-GHIQ) van Menslike Hulpbronbeambptes in 'n chemiese bedryf te ondersoek. Die steekproef het bestaan uit die totale populasie van 505 Menslike Hulpbronbeambptes. Die resultate het prakties- betekenisvolle verbande tussen werksonsekerheid, affektiewe organisasieverbondenheid, uitbranding, werkstevredenheid en gesondheid getoon. Gesondheid as onafhanklike veranderlike verklaar 14% van die variansie in werksonsekerheid. Werksonsekerheid verklaar 14% van die variansie van ekstrasieke werkstevredenheid; 6% van intrinsieke werkstevredenheid en 12% van affektiewe organisasieverbondenheid. Uitputting en sinisme verklaar 12% en 14% onderskeidelik van die variansie van werksonsekerheid

According to Lindstrom, Leino, Seitsamo and Tordtila (1997), organisations globally, because of changing operating and economic conditions, are downsizing, outsourcing and restructuring; leaving workers at all levels with feelings of stress, insecurity, misunderstanding, undervaluation and alienation. Not only are they subjected to increased workloads and pressures brought about by these changes, but also with decreased job control in that they do not feel in charge of their outputs (Lindstrom, Leino, Seitsamo, & Tordtila, 1997). When the employee is unable to tolerate occupational pressures and feels totally overwhelmed by stress, he or she is likely to reach breaking point and experience burnout (Weisberg, 1994). According to the literature, this also seems to be the case for Human Resources Practitioners (HRP's) (Katcher, 2002). In this literature it is evident that some generic inherent aspects of the Human Resources career field with related functions may cause serious discomfort to HRP's worldwide.

In the above-mentioned study, Katcher (2002) also indicates that HRP's are not immune to the strains and uncertainty that plague the rest of the workforce, and find their work emotionally draining. Gorkin (2003) redefines Human Resources as: the Hub of Re-Organisation, indicating the intersection between human exchange and systemic change. He emphasises that at present high demands, rapidly changing requirements and responsibilities, together with a lack of sufficient control, authority and autonomy to deal with these, may predispose HRP's with chronic stress. He further warns that the role of total rescuer, representative for both management and workers, chronically providing services to angry and disgruntled clients, the pursuit to solve all problems and keeping up with daily changes, are all factors contributing to stress and possible burnout. Clients and employees are prone to transfer their anger and discomfort with change to the HRP, who must absorb it; while not having a release valve him/herself (Gorkin, 2003). This may influence the level of job security, job satisfaction and commitment experienced by the HRP's, including their subsequent burnout levels and threats to their general health.

Furthermore, in a presentation by Embree (2003), it is stressed that Human Resources practitioners are subject to powerful double bound messages that are an inherent part of their positions. This is where two powerful but opposite or incompatible messages emerge. One is

where HRP's are given an order to foster trust within the company, with empathy, building rapport and playing a partner role. Yet, when the time comes to downsize or retrench, the HRP must play the role of retrenchment agent too, only to foster trust with the remaining staff again. HRP's also have to promote and implement a culture of a balanced work/social life. The problem is, however, that HRP's do not always have the opportunity themselves to live by such values and sometimes work up to 80 hour work weeks (Embree, 2003). They are expected to be visionary leaders of change, but are not allowed to "rock the boat", or allow such changes to influence themselves. Implementing change normally causes pain and resistance, and may result in HRP's making more enemies than friends. This all may lead, according to Embree (2003), to a type of "multiple personality disorder", adding to possible stress in the workplace.

Current inherent aspects of the Human Resources career field are, however, not the only causes of negative influences on the wellness of HRP's; possible changes in the total structure of Human Resources functions in general may similarly contribute towards this. According to a long-term study, the ability of Human Resources to add value at a strategic level "is currently more promise than reality" (Workforce, 2003). It has been found that today's HRP's are still most comfortable with traditional Human Resources activities. If, however, they want to become effective business partners, they will have to change their skills.

Ford (2003) further identifies some new challenges in the field of HR, for example: Aligning high technology with the human factor; movement away from administration to being business partners who understand business needs and act on it; knowledge management; the impact of globalisation and regarding development as a continuous process and not a time-driven programme. According to her, these are some trends that cannot be ignored by HRP's who have to act on them.

Although it is accepted that change, new demands and alternative thought processes in the field of Human Resources are inevitable and necessary, the influence of these upon corporate wellness - including job security and job satisfaction of HRP's - will only become evident over time (Ford, 2003).

In South Africa, the necessity of keeping up with change and adapting swiftly also seems relevant. According to Schwanzer (2003), HRP's are crucial in sustaining a competitive advantage. Companies such as Sasol Limited have listed on the New York stock exchange, and this means that they are competing in the global environment and are thus facing other challenges than those experienced nationally. In the information age of today, technical and other non-human competitive advantages are less sustainable in the long term than they once were. The only sustainable competitive advantage is an organisation's ability to attract, retain and apply the best human capabilities to the task at hand (Equity Skills News & Views, 2003). HRP's are thus faced with new challenges and possible stressors. It is thus important to determine whether HRP's at the chemical industry involved in this study cope with these changes, and this can be achieved by measuring their levels of job insecurity, job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment, burnout levels and general health.

Milani (2003) mentions that business expects strong Human Resources leadership and that, furthermore, the work of Human Resources is to proactively influence organisations in addressing people management issues. The Human Resources professional is expected to: "be a skilled manager of relationships; to think and act with a strategic perspective; and to take the initiative in optimising the human capital of an organisation." These capabilities are required at all levels of Human Resources practice (Equity Skills News & Views, 2003). The HRP must thus be a strategic business partner working with the business manager in determining his/her strategy, vision, mission; setting up of organisational structures; determining roles and responsibilities; performing gap analyses; compiling development plans and implementing performance management; all in line with the strategy. Again, it is important to determine whether HRP's - besides the necessary cognitive skills and abilities - have the psychological and physical makeup (for example commitment and low burnout levels) to make a success of these actions.

HR Future (2003) acknowledges that if Human Resources in South Africa were to effect real change, it should be made up of people who have the skills they need to work from a foundation of confidence and to earn what is too often lacking, namely respect. It has been said that executives who recognise the economic value and the benefit to their customers of intellectual capital and organisational capability need to demand more of the Human Resources function.

They need to invest in Human Resources as if it were a business and must transcend the stereotype of Human Resources professionals as incompetent value-sapping support staff. It is time to destroy that stereotype and unleash the full potential of Human Resources. This potential will, however, only be realised if HRP's experienced and perceived, among others, adequate job satisfaction and job security with these changes.

From the above it is clear that HR professionals need to change their perceptions regarding their reason for existing; they further need to challenge old ways of doing things and start delivering the service that is expected from them. If not, the future of the Human Resources professional is in the balance; with a risk of business managers looking for other options to address their Human Resources needs. This will most probably add to the stress described previously, with a concomitant possible negative influence on levels of job security, job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment, burnout levels and general health.

Before the situation of HRP's in the chemical industry involved in the study is discussed together with possible reasons for concern regarding their wellness, it is necessary to explore the concepts and constructs that will be utilised to determine the level of wellness of HRP's, and how these relate to each other.

Job Insecurity

Job insecurity concerns people in their work context who fear that they may lose their jobs and become unemployed (De Witte, 1999). Globally, companies are becoming more competitive and one of the ways to achieve this is to optimise work processes and thus have fewer employees to perform the same job. The concept of job insecurity, however, does not only refer to the amount of uncertainty employees experience about their job continuity, but also to the permanence of certain dimensions of their jobs, such as organisational benefits and promotional opportunities (De Witte, 1999).

To demonstrate this, Mauno and Kinnunen (1999) mention that literature usually conceptualises job insecurity from three general points of view, as being a (i) global, (ii) multidimensional

concept or (iii) a job stressor. Job insecurity is usually defined in terms of the global viewpoint, highlighting the threat of job loss or job discontinuity (Caplan, Cobb, French, Van Harrison, & Pinneau, 1980). This definition has generally been applied in the context of organisational change or financial crises, in which job insecurity is considered as the first phase of the process of losing a job. Researchers who have adopted the multidimensional definition of job insecurity, argue that job insecurity refers not only to the degree of uncertainty, but also to the continuity of certain dimensions, such as opportunities for promotion (Ashford, Lee, & Bobko, 1989; Borg & Elizur, 1992; Rosenblatt & Ruvio, 1996). The multidimensional definitions also encompass factors such as threats to various job features and reflect the degree to which employees perceive that they are powerless to counteract such threats (Ashford et al., 1989). Katz and Kahn (1978) developed a stress model or process describing the circumstances relating to job insecurity. According to them, individuals interpret and evaluate objective reality in subjective and psychological terms. This again triggers physiological, psychological and behavioural reactions; leading to possible psychological and physical health problems. This process is influenced by both individual characteristics as well as the environment. Individual characteristics, for example a person's perception of his/her employability, and environmental issues, for example financial responsibilities, both contribute to and affect how a person perceives an objective threat to job security (Katz & Kahn, 1978).

In an attempt to establish the antecedents and consequences of job insecurity, the person-environment fit theory of stress (Friedman, 2000), as well as the affective events theory of stress (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1998) can be investigated (Probst, 2002). Definitions of stress falling within the person-environment fit theory of stress highlight the match between the person and environmental characteristics. Here the stress value depends on the perceived imbalance between the individual's perceptions of the demands made by the environment; and on the other hand the individual's perceived ability and motivation to cope with those demands (Probst, 2002). Based on this, Probst (2002) is of the opinion that job insecurity is perceived by an employee or person as a change or precursor to change that will demand adaptation which may seem difficult to meet. Failure to cope with potential future unemployment or loss of job features may have significant negative consequences. From an affective events theory perspective, work environment characteristics and events are cognitively appraised to determine if such

characteristics and events will facilitate or obstruct the attainment of goals (Probst, 2002). If goal obstruction is perceived, and there is a perceived imbalance between environmental demands and the employee's ability to cope with the demands, stress results. This strain or stress may become evident at a psychological or behavioural level, or both. Probst (2002) explains that for this reason, when stress exists, work attitudes and affective reactions are expected to be negative.

Jacobson (1991) summarises this phenomenon by arguing that job insecurity is a stressful experience because it concerns the future; and the employee does not know whether he/she will actually lose his/her job, and this uncertainty, in turn, restricts coping processes available in a stressful situation.

Job insecurity is not problematic for employees only, but also for the organisation. De Witte (1997) found that the impact of job insecurity on individual employees might result in erosion of effectiveness within the organisation. People develop attitudinal attachments towards their workplace over time, which are demonstrated by high levels of commitment, satisfaction and trust. According to De Witte (1997), feelings of job insecurity may threaten such attachments.

According to Probst (1998), employees with a perception of low job security are more likely to engage in work withdrawal behaviour, and report lower organisational commitment, which often lead to employee turnover. Employees who perceive their jobs as adding little to the organisation may experience some level of job insecurity. Rosenblatt and Ruvio (1996) also found that job insecurity adversely affects organisational commitment, perceived organisational support, intention to quit and resistance to change. Moeletsi (2003) found that job insecurity correlates with job satisfaction and organisational commitment. When job insecurity was low, organisational commitment and job satisfaction was high.

The above discussion thus indicates that feelings of job insecurity are associated with low job satisfaction and reduced commitment to the organisation. In the case of the chemical industry involved in this study, changes in their Human Resources structure may predispose the HRP's for higher levels of job insecurity, which will - according to the studies mentioned - lead to decreased satisfaction and commitment. In a study by Laba (2004), it was found that job

insecurity showed an association with decreased organisational commitment, particularly with regard to decreased affective commitment.

Affective Organisational Commitment

According to Meyer and Allen (1991), organisational commitment is important to researchers and organisations because of the desire to retain a strong workforce. Researchers such as Meyer and Allen (1991) are keenly interested in reaching an understanding of the factors that influence an individual's decision to stay or leave an organisation. Meyer and Allen (1991) have observed that the organisational commitment definitions available appear to reflect three general themes – affective orientation, cost-based and moral obligations. This facilitates the grouping of definitions according to the approach they exemplify. Therefore, as a result of the analysis, Meyer and Allen (1991) propose that commitment as a psychological attachment may assume the following three forms: affective, normative and continuance types of commitment.

Affective organisational commitment refers to an employee's attachment to, identification with, and involvement within the respective entity (Meyer & Allen, 1991). It includes a feeling of belonging and sense of psychological attachment to the target of commitment (Hartmann & Bambacas, 2000). This entity, as argued by Meyer and Allen (1997), may be an organisation, a project, a supervisor or a fellow worker; anything that bears importance for an employee.

Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving or abandoning the respective entity, such as aborting a project (Meyer & Allen 1991). Normative commitment again reflects a feeling of obligation to continue membership with the entity in question, for example an organisational project Wiener (1982).

For the purpose of this study, the focus will be on the affective dimension, as the other two components do not explain as much variance in outcome variables as affective organisational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1996). According to Arzu Wasti (2003), the emphasis on affective organisational commitment has been mostly due to evidence that affective organisational commitment has the strongest and most consistent relationship with desirable outcomes.

Previous research has indicated that affective organisational commitment is the most desirable form of organisational commitment, as well as the one that organisations generally want to instill in employees (Meyer & Allen, 1997). When commitment is a matter of affective choice, rather than of perceived continuance or normative necessity, positive effects on performance are more likely.

As discussed earlier, job insecurity affects both affective organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Begley and Czajka (1993) furthermore examined the effects of organisational commitment on job satisfaction and intent to quit during organisational turmoil. Their findings show that organisational commitment buffers the relationship between stress and job displeasure interpreted to be job dissatisfaction. Rannona (2003) also found a positive correlation between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment; indicating for example that high levels of job insecurity will lead to lower levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Job Satisfaction

There seems to be general consensus that job satisfaction can be described as an affective or emotional reaction to a job, resulting from the comparison of actual outcomes with those that are desired, expected or felt to be deserved (Cranny, Smith, & Stoner, 1992). Weiss and Cropanzano (1998) define job satisfaction as the process whereby employees seek to achieve and maintain correspondence with their environment. The correspondence with the environment can be described in terms of individuals fulfilling the experience requirements of the environment, and the environment fulfilling the requirements of the individuals. Job satisfaction can also be regarded as an internal, conscious interpretation of real outcomes of the job against ideal outcomes. Steers (1998) suggests that job satisfaction is best understood as a discrepancy between how much a person wants or expects from the job and how much the person actually receives. When individuals perceive that the outcomes of the job are met or exceeded, they are satisfied. When their expectations are not met, they feel betrayed by the management and develop a sense of mistrust.

Berry (1997) further defines job satisfaction as an individual's reaction to the job experience. He also maintains that there are various components that are considered to be vital to job satisfaction. These variables are important because they all influence the way a person feels about his/her job. These components include the following: pay, promotion, benefits, challenges, supervision, co-workers, working conditions, safety, productivity and the work itself. Each of these component variables, according to Berry (1997), figures into an individual's job satisfaction differently. The research also maintains that the way this component influences job satisfaction will depend on the uniqueness of individual employees. For instance, one employee might think that pay is the most important component regarding job satisfaction, while another might consider conducive working conditions or challenging work to be the important component regarding his/her job satisfaction.

This conceptualisation brings into focus two components of job satisfaction, namely intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction (Hirschfeld, 2000). Intrinsic satisfaction, according to Hirschfeld (2000), describes how people feel about the nature of the job tasks themselves. Workers consider here only the kind of work they do; the tasks that make up the job (including growth, variety and responsibility). Extrinsic job satisfaction refers to how people feel about aspects of the work situation that are external to the job tasks. Workers thus consider the conditions of work, such as their pay, coworkers and supervisor. These two types of satisfaction are clearly different, and it helps to look at jobs from both points of view. For example, if employees are dissatisfied with their current jobs, they must ask themselves: "To what extent is it due to the kind of work I am doing?" and "To what extent is it due to the conditions of my work?" If it is primarily the kind of work they are doing, it is intrinsic job dissatisfaction. This calls for a different solution, than in the case of their dissatisfaction being extrinsic in nature.

Job satisfaction is thus a reaction to a job, where an employee compares his/her required expectations or of a job with the actual outcomes. If the actual reward is close to the expected or anticipated reward, job satisfaction will be high. Important to note here is that what is satisfying for one worker may be totally different for the next one.

Van Zyl (2005) found that exhaustion and cynicism as independent variables explained 36% of job satisfaction as dependable variable. This clearly indicates a significant correlation between job satisfaction and burnout.

Burnout

According to Holcomb, Cheponis, Hazler and Portner (1994), negative work stress is caused when a worker's needs, expectations and values are not met. This indicates that acceptance/non-acceptance of an organisation's values (organisational commitment) and job satisfaction/dissatisfaction will influence a worker's level of stress and possible burnout. The possibility of losing his/her job (job insecurity) and uncertain work situations may also lead to negative work stress (Ransome, 1995). De Witte (1997) maintains further that job insecurity lies in between stress, burnout and its complement on the one side, and the psychological consequences of unemployment of the other side. The relationship between the constructs discussed and burnout seems clear, should the constructs be experienced negatively.

Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998, p.36) define burnout as follows: "Burnout is a persistent, negative, work-related state of mind in 'normal' individuals that is primarily characterised by exhaustion, which is accompanied by distress, a sense of reduced effectiveness, decreased motivation, and the development of dysfunctional attitudes and behaviours at work." According to them, burnout can be considered as a particular kind of prolonged job stress. An individual experiences job stress when the demands of the workplace exceed his or her adaptive responses. Burnout is thus a particular, multidimensional, chronic stress reaction that goes beyond the experience of mere exhaustion.

According to Levert, Lucas and Ortlepp (2000), burnout can be seen as the end result of consistently unmediated or unsuccessful attempts at mediating stressors in the environment on the part of the individual. Maslach, Jackson and Leiter (1996) and Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter (2001) describe burnout as a syndrome consisting of three dimensions, namely feelings of emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation (cynicism) and reduced personal accomplishment. Emotional exhaustion, the individual stress dimension of burnout, refers to feelings of depleted physical and emotional resources and prompts actions in the worker to distance him/herself

emotionally and cognitively from his/her work, presumably as a way to cope with work overload. The interpersonal context dimension is represented by depersonalisation, which entails negative, callous and cynical attitudes or excessively detached responses towards the recipients of service and care, reducing the recipient to an impersonal object. The third dimension, namely lack of personal accomplishment (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2000), represents the self-evaluation dimension of burnout and refers to feelings of insufficiency (Schaufeli & Buunk, 1996), incompetence, lack of achievement and feelings of unproductiveness (Maslach et al., 2001).

The consequences of burnout are thus potentially serious for employees as well as the institutions in which they interact. It is the end result of consistently unmoderated or unsuccessful attempts at mediating stressors in the environment on the part of the individual (Levert et al., 2000). According to Van Zyl (2005), the subscales of burnout; cynicism and exhaustion, were practically significant related to general health.

Health

Possible unemployment is a dangerous cause of work stress that is associated with serious health problems, amongst others cardiovascular illnesses, for example hypertension (Sutherland & Cooper, 1990). Other research has also shown that prolonged stress and burnout may have a negative influence on an individual's physical health. Dating as far back as 1936, Hans Seyle (Carson & Butcher, 1992), demonstrated the detrimental effects of stress on the immune system: individuals may show increased rates of infectious diseases such as colds and flu during periods of heightened stress, including diffuse joint and muscle pain, disturbances of the intestines with loss of appetite and weight loss. Stress and burnout may, in the long term, lead to heart disease and possible blood pressure problems (Hawkins & Larson, 1984). It seems clear that burnout may lead to reduced physical health, and is therefore worth investigating in this research.

According to Siu (2002) and Winefield, Gillispie, Stough, Dua and Hapuararchchi (2002), there is significant evidence to suggest that chronic and high levels of occupational stress, left unchecked, are related to reduced mental and physical wellbeing, job dissatisfaction, absenteeism, stress-related injuries, turnover and intention to quit. The researchers have shown a

significant correlation between higher levels of psychological strain and incidences of self reported stress-related health symptoms such as sleeping difficulties, headaches, colds and other viral infections.

According to a study by Coetzer (2004), conducted in an insurance company, deteriorating physical and psychological health was found to be the major outcome of perceived stress. This study indicated that employees in the company suffering from high levels of burnout, a lack of resources and high demands would develop physical and psychological health problems. The 'burnt-out' employee is likely to experience stress-related health problems since burnout is frequently linked with illness.

The chemical industry that is the focus of this study, and which has been established in 1950 with its current headquarters in Johannesburg, is active in over 20 countries and on 6 continents, and is a global player in chemicals and fuels (Sasol Internet, 2003). The normal human resources activities are managed by a human resources establishment of 505 HRP's. (These include Human Resources Administrators, Internal Consultants, Generalists, Trainers and Specialists in the various fields of expertise.)

Up to 2001, each and every business unit of the chemical industry (a business unit is responsible for a specific production process) had its own in-house Human Resources Department, responsible for the entire Human Resources function as described previously. For various valid reasons, the Human Resources administrative services were centralised in one centre, and the concomitant changes impacted on all fields of the Human Resources function. Roles and responsibilities of all Human Resources functions have changed, employees had to take up new positions, and some feared retrenchments and/or demotions.

As discussed previously, it is evident from literature that, under normal circumstances, HRP's were predisposed to possible stress and burnout because of inherent requirements of their jobs and the various roles they have to fulfil (Katcher, 2002). If this is true, a significant concern can be raised regarding the psychological wellbeing of the chemical industry's HRP's. The reason is that the radical changes in work environment caused by the change project, together with a high

possibility of resistance to change, may aggravate this predisposition, and may lead to HRP's not being equipped to successfully maintain an acceptable level of functioning. Added to this there are anticipated changes worldwide regarding the role of Human Resources and the dynamic changes in South Africa currently and those expected in future. In light of these, it seems pertinent to investigate the wellness of HRP's in this chemical industry.

Based on the problem statement, the following questions were formulated for the purpose of the study:

- How are job insecurity, affective organisational commitment, burnout, job satisfaction and health conceptualised in the related literature?
- What is the reliability and validity of the measuring instruments of job insecurity, affective organisational commitment, burnout, job satisfaction and health?
- What is the relationship between job insecurity, affective organisational commitment, burnout, job satisfaction and health of Human Resources practitioners in a chemical industry?
- Do participants differ in terms of their demographical variables such as age, qualifications, gender, home language, service years, job level and area in terms of their experience of job insecurity?
- Does job insecurity hold predictive value with regard to affective organisational commitment?
- Does exhaustion hold predictive value with regard to job insecurity?
- Does cynicism hold predictive value with regard to job insecurity?
- Does professional efficacy hold predictive value with regard to job insecurity?
- Does job insecurity hold predictive value with regard to job satisfaction as measured by intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction?
- Does health hold predictive value with regard to job insecurity?

Aim of the study

What is the importance of this study with regard to the field of Industrial Psychology? As discussed earlier, HRP's are mostly the custodians and executors of Industrial Psychology

interventions, especially in the Industry. As Asuncion (2002) describes: "The mission of Human Resources personnel is to develop holistic individuals who will help improve organisational productivity and effectiveness, and be socially responsible citizens." This indicates, amongst others, that HRP's must look after the wellness of other employees; but can they do this if they are struggling with their own wellbeing?

Furthermore, the HRP's at the chemical industry have also experienced change. It is thus worthwhile to investigate how they are dealing with the inherent requirements of their jobs as well as the changes.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

General Objective

The general objective of the study is to determine the relationship between insecurity, affective organisational commitment, burnout, job satisfaction and health of HRP's in a chemical industry.

Specific Objectives

The specific research objectives are:

- To determine how job insecurity, affective organisational commitment, burnout, job satisfaction and health are conceptualised in literature.
- To determine the reliability and validity of the measuring instruments of job insecurity, affective organisational commitment, burnout, job satisfaction and health
- To determine the relationship between job insecurity, affective organisational commitment, burnout, job satisfaction and health of Human Resources practitioners in a chemical industry.
- To determine whether participants differ in terms of their demographical variables such as age, qualifications, gender, home language, service years, job level and area in terms of their experience of job insecurity?

- To determine whether job insecurity holds predictive value with regard to affective organisational commitment.
- To determine whether exhaustion holds predictive value with regard to job insecurity.
- To determine whether cynicism holds predictive value with regard to job insecurity.
- To determine whether professional efficacy holds predictive value with regard to job insecurity.
- To determine whether job insecurity holds predictive value with regard to job satisfaction as measured by intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction.
- To determine whether health holds predictive value with regard to job insecurity.

Research Method

Research Design

A survey design was used to reach the research objectives. The specific design is the cross-sectional design, whereby a sample is normally drawn from a population at one time (Babbie, 1992). The only difference with this study is that the total population was utilised, and not only a sample. Information collected was used to describe the population at the specific time and is appropriate for exploratory and descriptive studies (Babbie, 1992). The study is and was cost-effective and suitable for studying a large number of subjects simultaneously.

Study Population

The study population consisted of all the employees employed in the HR career field of a chemical industry. The total population was used (n = 505). The participants were sensitised and informed regarding the study via internal e-mail facilities. The actual questionnaires were sent out via the internal mail system, and were accompanied by self-addressed envelopes.

Of the 505 questionnaires sent out a response rate of 29% (144 participants) was obtained. The biographical characteristics of the study population are detailed in Table 1.

Table 1 indicates that 47% of the study population were 45 years or older, with 28% of them being 34 years and younger. Most of the participants (76%) have diplomas or higher qualifications. An almost equal percentage of male and females responded. 76% of the participants were white. In this population, 34% have been working for the industry for 9 years or less; 31% for 10 to 19 years and 33% for 20 years or more. 31% of the participants were on Level 6C (Paterson Level D1) and higher. These are also the levels receiving company car allowances. Most of the participants were from Secunda (53%), while 33% resided in Sasolburg. The remaining participants were from the Johannesburg area.

Table 1

Compilation of the Participants (n = 144)

Item	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Age	34 years and younger	41	28,4
	35 – 44 years	35	24,3
	45 years and older	67	46,5
	Total	143	99,2
Qualifications	Grade 12 and lower	32	22,2
	Diplomas and Degrees	71	49,3
	Postgraduate Degrees	38	26,3
	Total	141	97,8
Gender	Male	71	49,3
	Female	69	47,9
	Total	140	97,2
Culture Group	White	109	75,6
	Black and Other	32	22,2
	Total	141	97,8
Service Years	9 years and lower	49	34
	10 – 19 years	45	31,2
	20 years and more	48	33,3
	Total	142	98,5
Job Level	Level 6 and lower	98	68
	Level 6C	15	10,4
	Level 5 B and higher	29	20,1
	Total	142	98,5
Area	Sasolburg	48	33,3
	Johannesburg	19	13,1
	Secunda	76	52,7
	Total	143	99,1

Measuring Instruments

The following measuring instruments were used to investigate the constructs:

Job Insecurity Questionnaire (JIQ) (De Witte, 2000)

The questionnaire consists of the 11 items relating to job insecurity. Items encapsulate both the cognitive and affective dimensions of job insecurity and are arranged along a 5-point Likert-type scale with 1 = strongly disagree, 3 = unsure and 5 = strongly agree. De Witte (2000) in his research reported a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0,92 (total) for his questionnaire to which he refers as "globale jobonzekerheid". On the 5 items encapsulating the affective dimension of job insecurity, a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0,85 was reported and with the 6 items referring to the cognitive dimension of job insecurity, a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0,90 was found, thus indicating high reliability (De Witte, 2000). Typical questions are "I am certain/sure I will be able to keep my job" (cognitive insecurity) and "I fear that I might get fired" (affective insecurity).

Studies conducted in South Africa have proved this instrument to be reliable. In a South African study in the mining industry, the Cronbach alpha coefficients were 0,82 for the job insecurity (total) and 0,84 for job insecurity (affective) scales (Rannona, 2003). Buitendach (2004) reported a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0,84 for the cognitive dimension and 0,89 for the affective dimension. In a study by Van Zyl (2005), Cronbach alpha coefficients of 0,89 and 0,84 were obtained for the cognitive and affective dimensions respectively.

Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993)

The organisational commitment questionnaire (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993) consists of 18 items rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale with 1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree. It is useful in the sense that it measures organisational commitment in terms of different subscales (affective, continuance and normative). For the purpose of this study, only affective organisational commitment will be measured. A typical question is: "I really feel as if the organisation's problems are my own". Allen and Meyer (1990) state that inter-correlations between different samples were often above 0,90, which indicates that the combined factor is

congruent. Cronbach alpha coefficients were consistently above 0,80 for every one of these subscales (Suliman & Iles, 2000). In a South African study in the packaging industry, the Cronbach alpha coefficient of the total organisational commitment on the measuring Organisational Commitment Questionnaire was determined at 0,84 (Moeletsi, 2003). Laage (2003) found a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0,81 for affective organisational commitment.

Maslach Burnout Inventory General Survey (MBI-GS) (Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach, & Jackson, 1996)

The Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey (MBI-GS) (Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach, & Jackson, 1996) was used to measure burnout. The MBI-GS has three subscales: exhaustion (Ex) (five items; e.g. "I feel used up at the end of the workday"), cynicism (Cy) (five items; e.g. "I have become less enthusiastic about my work") and professional efficacy (PE) (six items; e.g. "In my opinion, I am good at my job") Together the subscales of the MBI-GS provide a three-dimensional perspective on burnout. Internal consistencies (Cronbach alpha coefficients) reported by Schaufeli et al. (1996) varied from 0,87 to 0,89 for exhaustion; 0,73 to 0,84 for cynicism and 0,76 to 0,84 for professional efficacy. Test-retest reliabilities after one year were 0,65 (exhaustion), 0,60 (cynicism) and 0,67 (professional efficacy) (Schaufeli et al., 1996). All items are scored on a 7-point frequency rating scale ranging from 0 ("never") to 6 ("daily"). The following Cronbach alpha coefficients were obtained for the MBI-GS: exhaustion: 0,88; cynicism: 0,79; and professional efficacy: 0,78 (Storm, 2002). In another recent South African study at an insurance company, the following Cronbach alpha coefficients were obtained for the MBI-GS: exhaustion: 0,86 to 0,88; cynicism: 0,79 to 0,80 (Coetzer, 2004).

Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967).

Two versions of the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire are available, namely a long version consisting of 100 items and a short version consisting of 20 items. The short version was used in the research. The response format was a 5-point Likert-type scale with 1 = very dissatisfied and 5 = very satisfied. The MSQ form measures intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction and typical questions are "Being able to keep busy all the time" (intrinsic), "The praise I get for doing a good job" (extrinsic). Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist (1967) reported reliability coefficients that varied between 0,87 to 0,92 for the revised Minnesota Job

Satisfaction Questionnaire. Lam, Baum and Pine (1998) supported these findings by reporting Cronbach's alpha coefficients that ranged from 0.87 to 0.95, indicating high internal consistency. Reliability coefficients of 0,90 and higher were reported in South African studies for the revised Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire, indicating that this questionnaire indeed offers a reliable and valid measure of general job satisfaction (Kaplan, 1990). Dwyer (2001) reported a reliability coefficient of 0,92, while Thomas and Tymon (1994) found it to be 0.87.

In a study within a chemical organisation conducted by Buckle (2003), a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0,88 was recorded. This study recorded an intrinsic job satisfaction coefficient of 0,80 and a coefficient of 0,85 was recorded for extrinsic job satisfaction. Van Zyl (2003) reported an intrinsic job satisfaction alpha coefficient of 0,84, with 0,79 for extrinsic job satisfaction.

Health Questionnaire (ASSET-GHQ) (Cartwright & Cooper, 2002)

The health subscales of ASSET (which refers to An Organisational Stress Screening Evaluation Tool) were developed by Cartwright and Cooper (2002) to assess the respondents' level of health. The health subscales consist of 18 items arranged on two subscales: physical health and psychological wellbeing. All items on the physical health subscale relate to physical symptoms of stress. The role of this subscale is to provide a measure of insight into physical health, not an in-depth clinical diagnosis. The items listed on the psychological wellbeing subscale are symptoms of stress-induced mental ill health. This subscale gives an insight into physical health, not an in-depth clinical diagnosis. Johnson and Cooper (2003) found that the psychological wellbeing subscale has good convergent validity with an existing measure of psychiatric disorders, namely the General Health Questionnaire (ASSET-GHQ-12; Goldberg & Williams, 1988).

A questionnaire was also developed to gather information about the biographical characteristics of the participants. Participants were given the option of providing their names and company numbers should they wish to do so. Other information gathered included gender, marital status, language, education, position and some job-related information that helped to make useful deductions with the end results obtained.

Statistical Analysis

The statistical analysis was conducted with the help of the Statistical Consultation Services of the North-West University; utilising the SAS-programme (SAS Institute, 2000). Cronbach alpha coefficients and inter-item correlation coefficients were used to assess the reliability and validity of the measuring instruments (Clark & Watson, 1995). Descriptive statistics (e.g. means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis) were used to analyse the data.

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were used to specify the relationships between variables. A cut-off point of 0,30 (medium effect, Cohen, 1988) was set for the practical significance of correlation coefficients.

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to determine the differences between demographic groups such as age, job level, area, language, gender and service years. MANOVA tests whether mean differences among groups on a combination of dependent variables are likely to have occurred by chance (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Wilk's Lambda was used to test the significance of the effects. Wilk's Lambda is a likelihood ratio statistic that tests the likelihood of the data under the assumption of equal population mean vectors for all groups against the likelihood under the assumption that the population mean vectors are identical to those of the sample mean vectors for the different groups. When an effect was significant in MANOVA, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to discover which dependent variables were affected.

Regression analyses were conducted to determine the percentage of variance in the dependent variables that is predicted by the independent variables. A correlation can be better understood by determining R^2 (Cohen, 1988). The square of the correlation coefficient indicates the proportion of the variance in any two variables, which is indicated by the variance in the other.

Research Procedure

The measuring battery was compiled, and a letter requesting participation and motivating the research was included. Ethical aspects regarding the research were discussed with the participants. The measuring battery, participation letter, biographical information sheet, date of return and return envelope were distributed via internal company post to all participants. A small token of appreciation (boiled sweet) was also included to prompt participants' response. Participants were informed and sensitised beforehand via e-mail regarding the research and motivation. Two weeks after distribution, participants were also reminded via e-mail to hand in questionnaires.

The results were analysed and feedback will be provided to all individuals who requested feedback, as well as to Human Resources Management in the chemical industry.

RESULTS

Construct validity of the measuring instruments

Job Insecurity

A simple principal components analysis was conducted on the 11 items of the JIQ on the total sample of employees at the chemical industry. Analysis of eigenvalues (larger than 1) and scree plot indicated that two factors could be extracted that explained 60,97% of the total variance, and the results are indicated in Table 2.

Table 2

Component Matrix of the JIQ for employees in a Chemical Industry.

Items	Component	
	Affective	Cognitive
1 <i>I think that I will be able continue working here.</i>	0,02	0,82
2 <i>There is only a small chance that I will become unemployed.</i>	0,09	0,44
3 <i>I am certain/sure of my job environment.</i>	0,17	0,84
4 <i>I am very sure that I will be able to keep my job.</i>	0,39	0,76
5 <i>It makes me anxious that I might become unemployed.</i>	0,74	0,15
6 <i>I feel uncertain about the future of my job.</i>	0,62	0,37
7 <i>I worry about the continuation of my career.</i>	0,76	0,24
8 <i>I fear that I might lose my job.</i>	0,85	0,24
9 <i>I fear that I might get fired.</i>	0,75	-0,04

Inspection of Table 2 indicates that item 2 did not load as strongly as the other items on the cognitive subscale. It is possible that the sentence can be interpreted in either a positive or negative manner; for example focusing either on "small chance" or on "unemployed". It was also found that items 10 and 11 loaded on the affective job insecurity subscale, instead of the intended cognitive subscale. Buitendach (2004) also indicated that items 10 and 11 did not load correctly. The two items were thus disregarded for the purpose of this study. All the other items loaded correctly.

Affective Organisational Commitment

A simple principal components analysis was conducted on the 6 items of affective OCQ on the total sample of employees at the chemical industry. Analysis of eigenvalues (larger than 1) and scree plot indicated that one factor could be extracted that explained 48,89% of the total variance, and the results are indicated in Table 3.

Table 3

Component Matrix of the Affective OCQ for employees in a Chemical Industry

Items	Component
	Affective
1 <i>I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organisation.</i>	-0,71
4 <i>I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own.</i>	-0,54
7 <i>I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organisation.</i>	-0,69
10 <i>I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organisation.</i>	-0,74
13 <i>This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.</i>	-0,82
16 <i>I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation.</i>	-0,63

Inspection of Table 3 indicates that all items loaded on the factor, the lowest one being -0,54., and therefore will be used in this research as being representative of affective commitment.

Health

A simple principal components analysis was conducted on the 18 items of ASSET-GHQ on the total sample of employees at the chemical industry. Analysis of eigenvalues (larger than 1) and scree plot indicates that two factors could be extracted that explained 51,23% of the total variance, and the results are indicated in Table 4.

Table 4

Component Matrix of the ASSET-GHQ for employees in a Chemical Industry

Items	Component	
	Physical	Psychological
1 <i>Lack of appetite or over-eating</i>	0,67	0,15
2 <i>Indigestion or heartburn</i>	0,66	0,03
3 <i>Insomnia – sleep loss</i>	0,63	0,22
4 <i>Headaches</i>	0,78	-0,17
5 <i>Panic or anxiety attacks</i>	0,45	0,27
6 <i>Muscular tension/aches and pains</i>	0,70	0,06
7 <i>Feeling nauseous or being sick</i>	0,62	0,29
8 <i>Tendency to drink more alcohol than usual</i>	0,05	0,79
9 <i>Tendency to smoke more than usual</i>	0,04	0,62
10 <i>Constant irritability</i>	0,63	0,31
11 <i>Difficulty in making decisions</i>	0,57	0,43
12 <i>Feeling or becoming angry with others too easily</i>	0,70	0,25
13 <i>Constant tiredness</i>	0,79	0,08
14 <i>Feeling unable to cope</i>	0,76	0,25
15 <i>Avoiding contact with other people</i>	0,54	0,25
16 <i>Mood swings</i>	0,68	0,33
17 <i>Unable to listen to other people</i>	0,47	0,60
18 <i>Having difficulty concentrating</i>	0,63	0,31

After inspection of Table 4 it can be indicated that items 1, 2, 4, 6, 7 and 13 all loaded correctly on the physical subscales as expected. Further inspection of the Table indicates that 9 of the 12 items supposed to load on the psychological subscale did in fact load on the physical subscale. They are items 3, 5, 10, 11, 12, 14, 15, 16 and 18. One item (17) loaded on both subscales. For the purpose of this research, health will be addressed as one factor.

Job Satisfaction

A simple principal components analysis was conducted on the 20 items of MSQ on the total sample of employees at the chemical industry. Analysis of eigenvalues (larger than 1) and scree plot indicated that two factors could be extracted that explained 47.50% of the total variance, and the results are indicated in Table 5.

Table 5

Component Matrix of the MSQ for employees in a Chemical Industry

Items	Component	
	1	2
1 <i>Being able to keep busy all the time.</i>	0,17	0,51
2 <i>The chance to work alone on the job.</i>	0,06	0,33
3 <i>The chance to do different things from time to time.</i>	0,37	0,63
4 <i>The chance to be "somebody" in the community.</i>	0,07	0,57
5 <i>The way my boss handles his/her workers.</i>	0,73	0,12
6 <i>The competence of my supervisor in making decisions.</i>	0,70	0,24
7 <i>Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience.</i>	0,13	0,58
8 <i>The way my job provides for steady employment.</i>	0,31	0,53
9 <i>The chance to do things for other people.</i>	0,09	0,78
10 <i>The chances to tell people what to do.</i>	0,30	0,40
11 <i>The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.</i>	0,38	0,68
12 <i>The way company policies are put into practice.</i>	0,50	0,20
13 <i>My pay and the amount of the work I do.</i>	0,59	0,26
14 <i>The chances for advancement on this job.</i>	0,73	0,17
15 <i>The freedom to use my own judgement.</i>	0,78	0,28
16 <i>The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.</i>	0,75	0,26
17 <i>The working conditions.</i>	0,75	0,25
18 <i>The way my co-workers get along with each other.</i>	0,57	0,02
19 <i>The praise I get for doing a good job.</i>	0,71	0,29
20 <i>The feeling of accomplishment I get from my job.</i>	0,60	0,55

After inspection of Table 5 it can be indicated that items 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9, 10 and 11 all loaded correctly on the intrinsic subscales (items 2 and 10 are slightly below the preferred cut-off point of 0,45). Items 15 and 16 loaded on the extrinsic subscale; which was not the intended factors of these items. Buitendach (2004) also recorded similar findings. Item 20 loaded on both subscales, where it was expected to load on the intrinsic subscale. Hirschfeld (2000) also indicated that item 20 loaded on intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. Items 5, 6, 12, 13, 14, 17, 18 and 19 loaded correctly on the extrinsic subscale.

Burnout

A simple principal components analysis was conducted on the 16 items of MBI-GS on the total sample of employees at the chemical industry. Analysis of eigenvalues (larger than 1) and scree plot indicated that three factors could be extracted that explained 58,50% of the total variance, and the results are indicated in Table 6.

Table 6

Component Matrix of the MBI-GS for employees in a Chemical Industry

Items	Component		
	Exhaus- tion	Professional Efficacy	Cynicism
1 <i>I feel emotionally drained from my work.</i>	0,78	-0,09	0,25
2 <i>I feel used up at the end of the workday.</i>	0,90	0,04	0,01
3 <i>I feel tired when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.</i>	0,79	-0,18	0,32
4 <i>Working all day is really a strain for me.</i>	0,74	-0,08	0,30
5 <i>I can effectively solve the problems that arise in my work.</i>	0,16	0,55	0,05
6 <i>I feel burned out from my work.</i>	0,82	0,09	0,18
7 <i>I feel I am making an effective contribution to what this organisation does.</i>	0,02	0,62	-0,40
8 <i>I have become less interested in my work since I started this job.</i>	0,20	-0,15	0,83
9 <i>I have become less enthusiastic about my work.</i>	0,23	-0,08	0,84
10 <i>In my opinion, I am good at my job.</i>	-0,23	0,59	0,26
11 <i>I feel exhilarated when I accomplish something at work.</i>	0,03	0,66	-0,15
12 <i>I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.</i>	-0,15	0,74	-0,14
13 <i>I just want to do my work and not be bothered.</i>	0,10	0,05	0,24
14 <i>I have become more cynical about whether my work contributes anything.</i>	0,22	-0,35	0,59
15 <i>I doubt the significance of my work.</i>	0,20	-0,46	0,62
16 <i>At my work, I feel confident that I am effective at getting things done.</i>	-0,04	0,63	-0,19

After inspection of Table 6 it was indicated that items 1, 2, 3, 4 and 6 loaded correctly on the exhaustion subscale as expected. Further inspection of the Table indicated that items 5, 7, 10, 11, 12 and 16 loaded correctly on the professional efficacy subscale. Items 8, 9 and 14 loaded correctly on the cynicism subscale with the exception of item 13, which did not load on any subscale. One item (15) was supposed to load on the cynicism subscale; but it also loaded on

professional efficacy. For the purpose of this research it was decided not to remove problematic items.

Descriptive Statistics, Cronbach alpha coefficients and the inter-item correlation coefficients of the JIQ, OCQ, ASSET-GHQ, MBI-GS and MSQ for employees (n =144) working in a chemical industry are reported in Table 7.

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics, Cronbach Alpha Coefficients and the Inter-Item Correlation Coefficients of the JIQ, OCQ, ASSET-GHQ, MBI-GS and MSQ for employees (n =144) working in a chemical industry

Measuring Instrument	Mean	Std.Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis	Inter-item r	Cronbach Alpha
Job Insecurity						
Jl_Aff	2,30	0,83	0,36	0,14	0,51	0,83
Jl_Cog	2,29	0,77	0,47	0,00	0,43	0,72
Organisational Commitment						
OC_Aff	3,57	0,72	-0,59	0,13	0,38	0,78
Health						
H_Physical	2,42	0,84	0,38	-0,22	0,47	0,84
H_Psychological	1,96	0,61	0,58	0,44	0,38	0,87
Health Total	2,11	0,65	0,45	0,07	0,39	0,91
Burnout						
MB_Ex	2,03	1,54	0,60	-0,66	0,64	0,89
MB_Cy	1,52	1,21	1,02	0,99	0,43	0,74
MB_PE	4,91	1,00	-1,63	4,23	0,31	0,73
Job Satisfaction						
JS_Int	3,92	0,57	-0,96	1,43	0,34	0,86
JS_Ext	3,40	0,78	-0,80	0,54	0,45	0,86

Table 7 shows that acceptable Cronbach alpha coefficients were obtained on all the scales. No score below the 0,70 cut-off point was recorded (see Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). All the items on the inter-item correlation coefficients were acceptable, except affective job insecurity and exhaustion, that was marginally higher than the accepted range ($0,15 \leq r \leq 0,50$: Clark & Watson, 1995). Most scores on the dimensions seem to be distributed normally (skewness and kurtosis smaller than 1) except for cynicism and intrinsic job satisfaction, that were marginally

above the 1 cut-off point. The kurtosis of professional efficacy, however, showed a much flatter distribution than normal.

Pearson product-moment correlations (r) were calculated to provide evidence of the strength of the linear relationship between the constructs and variables. The correlations between the different constructs and variables are shown in Table 8. Medium and large correlations between the constructs and variables will be discussed.

Table 8

Pearson correlations between JIQ, OCQ, ASSET-GHQ, MBI-GS and MSQ.

	JI_Aff	JI_Cog	OC_Aff	H_Phy	H_Psy	Health	MB_Ex	MB_Cy	MB_PE	JS_Int	JS_Ext
JI_Aff	-										
JI_Cog	0.46**	-									
OC_Aff	-0.09	-0.37*+	-								
H_Phy	0.31**	0.18*	-0.16	-							
H_Psy	0.30**	0.28*	-0.12	0.77***	-						
Health	0.32**	0.25*	-0.14	0.92***	0.96***	-					
MB_Ex	0.30**	0.32**	-0.34**	0.61***	0.57***	0.62***	-				
MB_Cy	0.30**	0.34**	-0.51***	0.41**	0.37**	0.41**	0.55***	-			
MB_PE	-0.15	-0.19*	0.20*	-0.26*	-0.33**	-0.32**	-0.19*	-0.32**	-		
JS_Int	-0.21*	-0.30**	0.47**	-0.28*	-0.21*	-0.25*	-0.32**	-0.50***	0.43**	-	

* Statistically significant $p \leq 0.05$

+ Correlation is practically significant $r \geq 0.3$ (medium effect)

++ Correlation is practically significant $r \geq 0.5$ (large effect)

The findings indicate that there are practically significant correlations of large effect between the subscales of health (physical and psychological health). Employees who experienced high levels of psychological health tended to experience high levels of physical health. In this study, it is evident that the largest practically significant correlation was between health and exhaustion. The correlation was also statistically significant, $p \leq 0.05$. Employees with high levels of exhaustion experienced decreased levels of health. (Although a positive correlation was

recorded, the health questionnaire's response format is reversed.) There was also a practically significant correlation between physical and psychological health and cynicism, also indicating that higher levels of cynicism led to decreased levels of health. Higher levels of professional efficacy led to better health, except for one subscale, namely physical health, where no correlations were found.

Affective job insecurity was also found to be practically significant related (medium effect) to psychological and physical health. The correlation was also statistically significant, $p \leq 0,05$. Employees who experienced high levels of affective job insecurity tended to experience poorer health. It was, furthermore, found that affective job insecurity has a practically significant correlation (medium effect) with exhaustion and also cynicism. Employees who thus experienced high levels of affective job insecurity, also tended to be more exhausted and experienced more cynicism. On investigation of cognitive job insecurity, it was also clear that employees with cognitive job insecurity experienced more exhaustion and cynicism (practically significant correlation, medium effect; statistically significant, $p \leq 0,05$). Cognitive job insecurity was practically significant correlated (medium effect) to both extrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction (statistically significant, $p \leq 0,05$). This negative correlation indicates that employees with high cognitive job insecurity experienced less job satisfaction. The same correlation was also found with affective organisational commitment. (medium effect). High cognitive job insecurity led to lower affective organisational commitment. No correlation could be detected between affective organisational commitment and affective job insecurity.

Affective organisational commitment was practically significantly related (large) to cynicism (statistically significant, $p \leq 0,05$). This large correlation indicates that the higher the affective organisational commitment; the lower the employees' cynicism. A similar practically significant related (medium effect) (statistically significant, $p \leq 0,05$) was found between affective organisational commitment and exhaustion. It is, furthermore, evident that higher levels of affective organisational commitment led to higher levels of job satisfaction (practically significant related; large and medium effect respectively).

A negative practically significant correlation (large effect) between job satisfaction and cynicism was recorded (statistically significant, $p \leq 0,05$). Employees with high levels of job satisfaction experienced lower levels of cynicism. The same trend (medium effect) was found between job satisfaction and exhaustion (also statistically significant, $p \leq 0.05$).

The MANOVA analysis followed to determine the relationship between data from the *JIQ*, *OCQ*, *ASSET-GHQ*, *MBI-GS* and *MSQ* and various demographic characteristics such as age, qualifications, gender, language, service years, job level and area. Demographic characteristics were first analysed for statistical significance using Wilk's Lambda statistics. Surprisingly, in an analysis of Wilk's Lambda values, no statistically significant differences ($p < 0,01$) regarding any of the variables could be found for any of the demographic characteristics.

Next, regression analyses were conducted with job insecurity as an independent variable as well as dependent variable, also controlling for the effects of demographic variables such as age, qualifications, gender, language, service, job level and area.

The regression analysis reflected in Table 9 indicates that the demographic variables contributed to 1% of the variance in affective organisational commitment. A R-value of 0,25 was obtained, which falls below the significance cut-off point (0,30) and the model was not found to be statistically significant. Upon inclusion of job insecurity, however, the adjusted R² increased by 12%. A practically significant R-value of medium effect (0,43) was obtained. The influence of affective job insecurity was not found to be statistically significant. This implies that cognitive job insecurity (statistically significant) had predictive value with regard to affective organisational commitment.

As indicated by Table 10, the demographic variables did not contribute to job insecurity. Upon inclusion of exhaustion, the adjusted R² measured 12%. A practically significant R-value of medium effect (0,41) was obtained. The influence of exhaustion was found to be statistically significant. This implies that exhaustion had predictive value with regard to job insecurity.

Table 11 again indicates that the demographic variables did not contribute to job insecurity. A R-value of 0,20 was obtained, which falls below the significance cut-off point (0,30) and the model was not found to be statistically significant. Upon inclusion of cynicism, however, the adjusted R² increased to 14%. A practically significant R-value of medium effect (0,43) was obtained. This implies that cynicism (statistically significant) had predictive value with regard to job insecurity.

The regression analysis reflected in Table 12 again indicates that the demographic variables did not contribute to job insecurity. Upon inclusion of professional efficacy, the adjusted R² increased by only 2%. The influence of professional efficacy was not found to be statistically significant. This implies that professional efficacy did not have predictive value with regard to job insecurity.

The regression analysis as indicated in Table 13 indicates that the demographic variables did not contribute to intrinsic job satisfaction. Upon inclusion of job insecurity, the adjusted R² was recorded at 6%. A practically significant R-value of 0,36 was obtained, somewhat below the cut-off point of 0.40. The influence of affective job insecurity was not found to be statistically significant. This implies that cognitive job insecurity (statistically significant) had predictive value with regard to intrinsic job satisfaction.

Table 14 indicates that the demographic variables did not contribute to extrinsic job satisfaction. Upon inclusion of job insecurity, the adjusted R² was recorded at 14%. A practically significant R-value of medium effect (0,44) was obtained. The influence of affective job insecurity was not found to be statistically significant. This implies that cognitive job insecurity (statistically significant) had predictive value with regard to extrinsic job satisfaction.

As again indicated by Table 15, the demographic variables did not contribute to job insecurity. Upon inclusion of health, however, the adjusted R² was recorded at 14%. A practically significant R-value of medium effect (0,44) was obtained. This implies that health (statistically significant) had predictive value with regard to job insecurity.

Table 9

Regression Analysis – Demographic variables and Job Insecurity: OCQ (Affective Organisational Commitment)

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE						
Model 1: Demographic variables						
R: 0.25	Source of variation					
R ² : 0.06						
Adjusted R ² : 0.01	Regression					
Standard Error: 0.72	Residual					
	$F = 1.28 \quad p < 0.26$					
Model 2: Demographic variables and job insecurity						
R: 0.43	Source of variation					
R ² : 0.19						
Adjusted R ² : 0.13	Regression					
Standard Error: 0.67	Residual					
	$F = 3.31 \quad p < 0.00$					
VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION						
INDEPENDENT VARIABLES	Beta	Std. Err. of Beta	B	Std. Err. of B	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Age	0.02	0.12	0.02	0.10	0.17	0.867
Qualification	-0.08	0.10	-0.08	0.11	-0.79	0.430
Gender	0.12	0.11	0.17	0.15	1.11	0.269
Language	0.11	0.09	0.20	0.17	1.18	0.242
Service Years	0.20	0.12	0.17	0.11	1.64	0.104
Job level	0.17	0.10	0.15	0.09	1.65	0.101
Area	0.02	0.09	0.01	0.07	0.18	0.858
Age	0.04	0.11	0.03	0.10	0.34	0.733
Qualification	-0.05	0.10	-0.05	0.10	-0.51	0.612
Gender	0.07	0.10	0.10	0.14	0.71	0.477
Language	0.07	0.09	0.13	0.16	0.80	0.426
Service Years	0.18	0.11	0.16	0.10	1.60	0.112
Job level	0.13	0.10	0.11	0.09	1.31	0.193
Area	-0.03	0.09	-0.03	0.07	-0.40	0.693
Job Insecurity: Affective	0.10	0.09	0.09	0.08	1.09	0.276
Job Insecurity: Cognitive	-0.41	0.09	-0.38	0.09	-4.42	0.000*

* Statistically significant $p \leq 0,05$

Table 10

Regression Analysis – Demographic variables and MBI (Exhaustion): Job Insecurity

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE					
Model 1: Demographic variables					
R: 0.20	Source of variation				
R ² : 0.04					
Adjusted R ² : ___	Regression				
Standard Error:	Residual				
	$F = 0.82 \quad p < 0.57$				
Model 2: Demographic variables and MBI: Exhaustion					
R: 0.41	Source of variation				
R ² : 0.17					
Adjusted R ² : 0.12	Regression				
Standard Error:	Residual				
	$F = 3.29 \quad p < 0.00$				
VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION					
INDEPENDENT VARIABLES	Beta	B	Std. Err. of B	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Age	0.12	0.10	0.09	1.01	0.31
Qualification	0.03	0.03	0.10	0.30	0.75
Gender	-0.13	-0.19	0.14	-1.27	0.20
Language	0.03	0.06	0.16	0.36	0.71
Service Years	-0.08	-0.07	0.10	-0.71	0.47
Job level	-0.12	-0.10	0.09	-1.17	0.24
Area	-0.13	-0.10	0.07	-1.45	0.14
Age	0.15	0.12	0.09	1.35	0.17
Qualification	0.00	0.00	0.09	-0.06	0.94
Gender	-0.09	-0.13	0.14	-0.97	0.33
Language	0.08	0.14	0.15	0.94	0.34
Service Years	-0.09	-0.07	0.09	-0.79	0.42
Job level	-0.07	-0.06	0.08	-0.79	0.42
Area	0.11	-0.09	0.06	-1.34	0.18
MBI: Exhaustion	0.36	0.16	0.37	4.44	0.00*

* Statistically significant $p \leq 0,05$

Table 11

Regression Analysis – Demographic variables and MBI (Cynicism): Job Insecurity

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE					
Model 1: Demographic variables					
R: 0.20	Source of variation				
R ² : 0.04					
Adjusted R ² : ___	Regression				
Standard Error:	Residual				
	$F = 0.82 \quad p < 0.57$				
Model 2: Demographic variables and MBI: Cynicism					
R: 0.43	Source of variation				
R ² : 0.19					
Adjusted R ² : 0.14	Regression				
Standard Error:	Residual				
	$F = 3.75 \quad p < 0.00$				
VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION					
INDEPENDENT VARIABLES	Beta	B	Std. Err. of B	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Age	0.12	0.10	0.09	1.01	0.31
Qualification	0.03	0.03	0.10	0.30	0.75
Gender	-0.13	-0.19	0.14	-1.27	0.20
Language	0.03	0.06	0.16	0.36	0.71
Service Years	-0.08	-0.07	0.10	-0.71	0.47
Job level	-0.12	-0.10	0.09	-1.17	0.24
Area	-0.13	-0.10	0.07	-1.45	0.14
Age	0.17	0.14	0.09	1.51	0.31
Qualification	0.05	0.06	0.09	0.61	0.53
Gender	-0.10	-0.14	0.13	-1.07	0.28
Language	0.06	0.11	0.15	0.74	0.46
Service Years	-0.02	-0.02	0.09	-0.20	0.83
Job level	-0.07	-0.06	0.08	-0.81	0.41
Area	-0.17	-0.13	0.06	-1.96	0.05
MBI: Cynicism	0.39	0.24	0.05	4.82	0.00*

* Statistically significant $p \leq 0.05$

Table 12

Regression Analysis – Demographic variables and MBI (Professional Efficacy): Job Insecurity:

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE					
Model 1: Demographic variables					
R: 0.20	Source of variation				
R ² : 0.04					
Adjusted R ² : ____	Regression				
Standard Error:	Residual				
	$F = 0.82 \quad p < 0.57$				
Model 2: Demographic variables and MBI: Professional Efficacy					
R: 0.28	Source of variation				
R ² : 0.08					
Adjusted R ² : 0.02	Regression				
Standard Error:	Residual				
	$F = 1.38 \quad p < 0.20$				
VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION					
INDEPENDENT VARIABLES	Beta	B	Std. Err. of B	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Age	0.12	0.10	0.09	1.01	0.31
Qualification	0.03	0.03	0.10	0.30	0.75
Gender	-0.13	-0.19	0.14	-1.27	0.20
Language	0.03	0.06	0.16	0.36	0.71
Service Years	-0.08	-0.07	0.10	-0.71	0.47
Job level	-0.12	-0.10	0.09	-1.17	0.24
Area	-0.13	-0.10	0.07	-1.45	0.14
Age	0.13	0.11	0.09	1.15	0.25
Qualification	0.05	0.06	0.10	0.57	0.56
Gender	-0.12	-0.16	0.14	-1.14	0.25
Language	0.04	0.07	0.16	0.45	0.64
Service Years	-0.06	-0.05	0.10	-0.52	0.60
Job level	-0.11	-0.09	0.08	-1.12	0.26
Area	-0.14	-0.10	0.71	-1.53	0.12
MBI: Professional Efficacy	-0.19	-0.14	0.06	-2.26	0.02

Table 13

Regression Analysis – Demographic variables and Job Insecurity: Job Satisfaction (Intrinsic)

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE						
Model 1: Demographic variables						
R: 0.19	Source of variation					
R ² : 0.03						
Adjusted R ² : ____	Regression					
Standard Error: 0.55	Residual					
	$F = 0.74 \quad p < 0.63$					
Model 2: Demographic variables and job insecurity						
R: 0.36	Source of variation					
R ² : 0.13						
Adjusted R ² : 0.06	Regression					
Standard Error: 0.53	Residual					
	$F = 2.09 \quad p < 0.03$					
VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION						
INDEPENDENT VARIABLES	Beta	Std. Err. of Beta	B	Std. Err. of B	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Age	0.10	0.12	0.06	0.08	0.81	0.417
Qualification	0.10	0.10	0.08	0.08	0.96	0.340
Gender	0.09	0.11	0.10	0.12	0.82	0.414
Language	0.03	0.10	0.04	0.13	0.30	0.766
Service Years	0.06	0.12	0.04	0.08	0.53	0.599
Job level	0.10	0.10	0.07	0.07	0.96	0.340
Area	0.08	0.09	0.05	0.06	0.85	0.397
Age	0.13	0.12	0.08	0.08	1.10	0.272
Qualification	0.12	0.10	0.09	0.08	1.18	0.242
Gender	0.04	0.10	0.05	0.12	0.41	0.682
Language	0.02	0.09	0.03	0.13	0.20	0.844
Service Years	0.04	0.12	0.03	0.08	0.37	0.711
Job level	0.06	0.10	0.04	0.07	0.61	0.541
Area	0.03	0.09	0.02	0.06	0.32	0.752
Job Insecurity: Affective	-0.08	0.10	-0.06	0.06	-0.87	0.386
Job Insecurity: Cognitive	-0.26	0.10	-0.19	0.07	-2.72	0.007*

* Statistically significant $p \leq 0.05$

Table 14

Regression Analysis – Demographic variables and Job Insecurity: Job Satisfaction (Extrinsic)

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE						
Model 1: Demographic variables						
R: 0.14	Source of variation					
R ² : 0.02						
Adjusted R ² : ____	Regression					
Standard Error: 0.77	Residual					
	$F = 0.41 \quad p < 0.88$					
Model 2: Demographic variables and job insecurity						
R: 0.44	Source of variation					
R ² : 0.20						
Adjusted R ² : 0.14	Regression					
Standard Error: 0.71	Residual					
	$F = 3.51 \quad p < 0.00$					
VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION						
INDEPENDENT VARIABLES	Beta	Std. Err. of Beta	B	Std. Err. of B	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Age	-0.08	0.12	-0.07	0.11	-0.66	0.513
Qualification	0.01	0.10	0.01	0.12	0.05	0.961
Gender	0.01	0.11	0.01	0.17	0.07	0.942
Language	0.04	0.10	0.07	0.18	0.39	0.700
Service Years	0.05	0.12	0.05	0.11	0.45	0.654
Job level	0.13	0.11	0.12	0.10	1.20	0.231
Area	-0.05	0.09	-0.04	0.08	-0.49	0.623
Age	-0.04	0.11	-0.04	0.10	-0.37	0.710
Qualification	0.03	0.10	0.03	0.11	0.33	0.742
Gender	-0.06	0.10	-0.08	0.15	-0.55	0.580
Language	0.02	0.09	0.03	0.17	0.18	0.861
Service Years	0.03	0.11	0.03	0.10	0.30	0.768
Job level	0.08	0.10	0.08	0.09	0.82	0.413
Area	-0.12	0.09	-0.10	0.07	-1.38	0.170
Job Insecurity: Affective	-0.07	0.09	-0.06	0.08	-0.74	0.459
Job Insecurity: Cognitive	-0.40	0.09	-0.39	0.09	-4.31	0.000*

* Statistically significant $p \leq 0.05$

Table 15

Regression Analysis – Demographic variables and Health: Job Insecurity:

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE	
Model 1: Demographic variables	
R: 0.20	Source of variation
R ² : 0.04	
Adjusted R ² : ___	Regression
Standard Error:	Residual
	$F = 0.82 \quad p < 0.57$
Model 2: Demographic variables and Health	
R: 0.44	Source of variation
R ² : 0.19	
Adjusted R ² : 0.14	Regression
Standard Error:	Residual
	$F = 3.87 \quad p < 0.00$

VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION					
INDEPENDENT VARIABLES	Beta	B	Std. Err. of B	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Age	0.12	0.10	0.09	1.01	0.31
Qualification	0.03	0.03	0.10	0.30	0.75
Gender	-0.13	-0.19	0.14	-1.27	0.20
Language	0.03	0.06	0.16	0.36	0.71
Service Years	-0.08	-0.07	0.10	-0.71	0.47
Job level	-0.12	-0.10	0.09	-1.17	0.24
Area	-0.13	-0.10	0.07	-1.45	0.14
Age	0.17	0.14	0.09	1.58	0.11
Qualification	0.09	0.09	0.09	0.94	0.34
Gender	-0.22	-0.30	0.13	-2.21	0.02
Language	0.06	0.10	0.15	0.71	0.47
Service Years	-0.11	-0.09	0.09	-0.99	0.32
Job level	-0.20	-0.17	0.08	-2.09	0.39
Area	-0.11	-0.09	0.06	-1.35	0.17
Health	0.41	-0.43	0.08	4.9	0.00*

* Statistically significant $p \leq 0.05$

DISCUSSION

The first objective of this study was to determine the reliability and construct validity of job insecurity, organisational commitment, burnout, job satisfaction and general health. Acceptable Cronbach alpha coefficients of between 0.72 and 0.91 were recorded for all constructs (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Inter-item correlation coefficients comply with the acceptable range of $0,15 \leq r \leq 0,50$; Clark & Watson, 1995). This indicated that the measuring instruments were reliable as well as valid. This is confirmed by Heymans (2002) and De Witte (2000).

Another objective of the study was to determine if there were any differences between participants from different demographics in terms of levels of job insecurity, organisational commitment, burnout, job satisfaction and health. No practically significant differences were found between age, qualifications, gender, culture, service years, job level and geographical area with regards to any of the constructs. Rannona (2003) found practically significant differences between job insecurity and age and also job insecurity and qualifications. Buckle (2003) reported practically significant differences between job satisfaction and job levels and organisational commitment and age. The chemical industry follows a strict policy of no tolerance for discrimination against any variable such as age, gender, race, job level etc. A set of well communicated values also govern actions of employees. This drive to treat all employees fairly may have contributed to the fact that no differences could be found in terms of the mentioned variables.

Another objective of the study was to determine the relationship between job insecurity, organisational commitment, burnout, job satisfaction and health of the HRP's.

There were practically significant correlations of large effect between the subscales of health (statistically significant). Similar results were also recorded in a study by Van Zyl (2003). Employees who experienced high levels of psychological health tended to experience high levels of physical health. It was also found that the largest practically significant correlation existed between health and exhaustion (statistically significant). Employees with low levels of exhaustion experienced increased levels of health. Maslach et al. (2001) support this notion by

indicating that: "the exhaustion component predicts stress-related health consequences and refers to feelings of being over-extended and drained of one's emotional and physical resources." Van Zyl (2003) confirms this. It was also indicated in this study that lower levels of cynicism caused increased levels of health (statistically significant). Higher levels of professional efficacy led to better health, except for one subscale, namely physical health, where a low correlation was found. In the chemical industry it is thus clear that lower burnout levels led to increased health, as confirmed in literature and other research.

Both subscales of job insecurity were also found to be practically significantly related (medium effect) with exhaustion and also cynicism (statistically significant). Employees who thus experienced low levels of job insecurity also tended to be less exhausted and experienced less cynicism. These results make sense in terms of reports in the literature (De Witte, 2000). Van Zyl (2005) also reported similar results in a South African study in the Vaal Triangle. She found that exhaustion was statistically significantly related to cognitive job insecurity, and that cynicism was statistically significantly related to affective job insecurity. Human Resources practitioners should thus experience low burnout levels should they have job security in the chemical industry.

Cognitive job insecurity is practically significantly correlated (medium effect) to both extrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction (statistically significant). This negative correlation indicates that employees with low cognitive job insecurity experienced increased job satisfaction. Van Zyl (2005) confirmed this and found that job satisfaction was practically significantly related to cognitive job insecurity, and also statistically related to affective job insecurity. Similar results were recorded in a South African study by Rannona (2003). He found that job security (affective and cognitive) is related to job satisfaction (intrinsic and extrinsic). Lower job insecurity led to increased job satisfaction.

In this study, the same correlation was also found with affective organisational commitment (medium effect). Low cognitive job insecurity led to higher affective organisational commitment. Rannona (2003) also found that both the subscales of job insecurity correlated with affective organisational commitment; employees with high job insecurity will thus report lower

affective organisational commitment. The results from the chemical industry thus support earlier studies that high job insecurity negatively influences job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment.

Affective organisational commitment was practically significantly related (large) to cynicism and also to exhaustion (medium effect). These correlations indicate that the higher the level of affective organisational commitment, the lower the employees' cynicism and exhaustion. This is verified by a study by Laba (2004), where practically significant correlations were recorded between affective organisational commitment and exhaustion (medium effect); and also between affective organisational commitment and cynicism (large effect).

It is also evident that higher levels of affective organisational commitment led to higher levels of job satisfaction (practically significantly related; large and medium effect respectively) (statistically significant). Laage (2003) found a practically significant relationship (medium effect) between affective organisational commitment and intrinsic job satisfaction, but not between affective organisational commitment and extrinsic job satisfaction. Moeletsi (2003) recorded similar results in his study in that, amongst others, there was a significant correlation between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

A negative practically significant correlation (large effect) between job satisfaction and cynicism was recorded (statistically significant). This was also recorded in a study by Van Zyl (2005) where she found a practically significantly negative relationship between the two constructs, which indicates that the more cynicism an employee experiences, the less satisfied he/she will be. The same negative practically significant correlation (medium effect) was found in this study between job satisfaction and exhaustion (also statistically significant). Van Zyl (2005) recorded similar results. According to Maslach (1982), negative correlations are often found between job satisfaction and burnout.

According to the regression analysis 12% of the variance in affective organisational commitment as measured by the OCQ was predicted by job insecurity, and 12% of the variance in job insecurity was explained by exhaustion as measured by the MBI-GS. Furthermore, the analysis

indicated that 14% of the variance in job insecurity was predicted by cynicism as measured by the MBI-GS. A total of 6% of the variance in intrinsic job satisfaction as measured by the MSQ was predicted by job insecurity, as well as 14% of the variance in extrinsic job satisfaction. A total of 14% of the variance in job insecurity could be explained by health. It thus seems important that the chemical industry must understand how these variables impact on each other and focus their initiatives accordingly to ensure that burnout and job insecurity levels do not increase; while health and organisational commitment levels have to stay as high as possible.

LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

The researcher regards the following as limitations of the study:

Although the official business language within the organisation is English, the majority of the employees who completed the questionnaires are Afrikaans-speaking. It is possible that employees might have interpreted the questions differently in their home language. The questionnaires also took some time to complete, which might raise issues of reliability. The responses were not representative of culture (race); stratified random sampling would, however, not have resolved the issue, because the entire population was targeted. The self-report questionnaires measured perceptions; and it is possible that interviews with selected employees could have enhanced this study. The study was conducted shortly after the Human Resources function was seriously restructured and job contents changed drastically. The HRP's did not yet experience the full impact, positive or negative, of the changes. One can thus not be certain whether they completed the questionnaires according to their perceptions of what was coming, or based on what they really experienced at that stage.

RECOMMENDATIONS

It seems that HRP's in the chemical industry in general were experiencing good health, low levels of job insecurity, had job satisfaction, experienced organisational commitment and had low burnout levels. It thus does not seem that the inherent job stressors, as discussed earlier, and the changes they went through, had a severely negative influence on their general wellbeing.

It is recommended that a qualitative study be conducted to determine the elements that caused the HRP's to have the positive experiences as discussed. These may entail successful communication, effective change management, involving employees with decision-making, correct job content, sufficient rewards and recognition, effective career planning, and so forth. When this is determined, future change intervention can be addressed even more successfully and confidently by focusing on interventions that have proved successful in the past. If one cannot determine that the positive results are the consequence of inherent aspects of HRP's, for example emotional intelligence or internal locus of control, it may be an excellent input for recruitment processes to recruit the best HRP's for the industry.

Symptoms that may indicate a decline in the wellbeing of HRP's, for example health and grievance reporting, must be monitored regularly to facilitate pro-active action.

It is also recommended that the results of this study are communicated to Senior Management, HR Management as well as HRP's. Managers will feel satisfied that they are "doing something right", and will be assured of having a sound and well-functioning HR team working in the industry. It can be expected that not all employees experienced or shared the positive results of this study. If they do not agree with the results, employees must be invited to talk to their managers or the researcher and address their concerns. This is necessary, because it is not possible to generalise the results as being relevant to all HRP's (because of the relatively low response rate with the study).

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Future longitudinal studies are needed to verify the results of this study and to ensure that employees' current state of wellness does not decrease. Such future studies must include other variables to verify current results, but also to expand knowledge.

Larger samples must be used, with the addition of qualitative studies to counter possible perceptions associated with questionnaires.

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CHAPTER 3

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this chapter, conclusions are drawn regarding the specific objectives of this study. The limitations of the research are discussed, followed by recommendations for the organisation and future research.

3.1 CONCLUSIONS

The aim of the study was to investigate the relationship between job insecurity, affective organisational commitment, burnout, job satisfaction and health as experienced by Human Resources practitioners in a chemical industry.

In line with the first research objective, job insecurity was defined as the measure of uncertainty that employees experience regarding their job continuity, and with regard to the permanence of certain dimensions of their jobs, such as organisational benefits and promotional opportunities (De Witte, 1999). Affective organisational commitment was conceptualised as an employee's attachment to, identification with, and involvement within the respective entity (Meyer & Allen, 1991). This includes a feeling of belonging and sense of psychological attachment to the target of commitment (Hartmann & Bambacas, 2000). There seems to be general consensus that job satisfaction can be described as an affective or emotional reaction to a job, resulting from the comparison of actual outcomes within those that are desired, expected or felt to be deserved (Cranny, Smith, & Stoner, 1992). Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) define burnout as: "a persistent, negative, work-related state of mind in 'normal' individuals that is primarily characterised by exhaustion, which is accompanied by distress, a sense of reduced effectiveness, decreased motivation, and the development of dysfunctional attitudes and behaviours at work." To indicate the importance of health in the workplace, a study in an insurance company by Coetzer (2004) found that employees in the company who were suffering from high levels of burnout, a lack of resources and high demands, also developed physical and psychological health problems.

The second objective of this study was to determine the reliability and construct validity of job insecurity, organisational commitment, burnout, job satisfaction and general health. Acceptable Cronbach alpha coefficients of between 0,72 and 0,91 were recorded for all constructs (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Inter-item correlation coefficients complied with the acceptable range of $0,15 \leq r \leq 0,50$; Clark & Watson, 1995). This indicated that the measuring instruments were reliable as well as valid. This is confirmed by Heymans (2002) and De Witte (2000).

Another objective of the study was to determine if there were any differences between participants from different demographic groups in terms of levels of job insecurity, organisational commitment, burnout, job satisfaction and health. No practically significant differences were found between age, qualifications, gender, culture, service years, job level and geographical area with regards to any of the constructs. Rannona (2003) found practically significant differences between job insecurity and age and also job insecurity and qualifications. He found that employees with lower qualifications, as well as younger employees, experienced increased job insecurity. Buckle (2003) reported practically significant differences between job satisfaction and job levels and organisational commitment and age. The chemical industry follows a strict policy of no tolerance for discrimination against any variable such as age, gender, race, job level etc. A set of well communicated values also governs actions of employees. This strive to treat all employees fairly may have contributed to the fact that no differences could be found in terms of the mentioned variables.

A further objective of the study was to determine the relationship between job insecurity, organisational commitment, burnout, job satisfaction and health of the HRP's.

There were practically significant correlations of large effect between the subscales of health (statistically significant). This was also recorded in a study by Van Zyl (2003). Employees who experienced high levels of psychological health tended to experience high levels of physical health. It was also found that the largest practically significant correlation existed between health and exhaustion (statistically significant). Employees with low levels of exhaustion experienced increased levels of health. Maslach et al. (2001) support this by indicating that: "the exhaustion component predicts stress-related health consequences and refers to feelings of being over-

extended and drained of one's emotional and physical resources." Van Zyl (2003) confirms this. It was also indicated in this study that lower levels of cynicism led to increased levels of health (statistically significant). Higher levels of professional efficacy led to better health, except for one subscale, namely physical health, where a low correlation was found. In the chemical industry it is thus clear that lower burnout levels is associated with increased health, as confirmed in the literature and other similar research.

Both subscales of job insecurity were also found to be practically significantly related (medium effect) to exhaustion and also to cynicism (statistically significant). Employees who thus experienced low levels of job insecurity also tended to be less exhausted and experienced less cynicism. These results make sense in terms of reports in the literature (De Witte, 2000). Van Zyl (2005) reported similar results in a South African study in the Vaal Triangle. She found that exhaustion was statistically significantly related to cognitive job insecurity, and that cynicism was statistically significantly related to affective job insecurity.

Cognitive job insecurity was practically significantly correlated (medium effect) to both extrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction (statistically significant). This negative correlation indicates that employees with low cognitive job insecurity experienced increased job satisfaction. Van Zyl (2005) confirms this and found that job satisfaction was practically significantly related to cognitive job insecurity and statistically related to affective job insecurity. Similar results were recorded in a South African study by Rannona (2003). He found that job security (affective and cognitive) was related to job satisfaction (intrinsic and extrinsic). Lower job insecurity led to higher levels of job satisfaction.

In this study, the same correlation was also found with affective organisational commitment (medium effect). Low cognitive job insecurity led to higher affective organisational commitment. Rannona (2003) also found that both the subscales of job insecurity correlated with affective organisational commitment; employees with high job insecurity would thus report lower affective organisational commitment. The results from the chemical industry thus supported earlier studies that high job insecurity negatively influenced job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment.

Affective organisational commitment was practically significantly related (large) to cynicism and also to exhaustion (medium effect). These correlations indicate that the higher affective organisational commitment, the lower the employees' levels of cynicism and exhaustion. This is verified by a study by Laba (2004), where practically significant correlations were recorded between affective organisational commitment and exhaustion (medium effect); and also between affective organisational commitment and cynicism (large effect).

It is also evident that higher levels of affective organisational commitment led to higher levels of job satisfaction (practically significantly related; large and medium effect respectively) (statistically significant). Laage (2003) found a practically significant relationship (medium effect) between affective organisational commitment and intrinsic job satisfaction, but not between affective organisational commitment and extrinsic job satisfaction. Moeletsi (2003) recorded similar results as in this study in that, amongst others, there is a significant correlation between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

A negative practically significant correlation (large effect) between job satisfaction and cynicism was recorded (statistically significant). This was also recorded in a study by Van Zyl (2005) where she found a practically significantly negative relationship between the two constructs, which indicates that the more cynicism an employee experiences, the less satisfied he/she will be. The same negative practically significant correlation (medium effect) was found in this study between job satisfaction and exhaustion (also statistically significant). Van Zyl (2005) recorded similar results.

According to the regression analysis 12% of the variance in affective organisational commitment as measured by the OCQ was predicted by job insecurity, and 12% of the variance in job insecurity was explained by exhaustion as measured by the MBI-GS. Furthermore, the analysis indicated that 14% of the variance in job insecurity was predicted by cynicism as measured by the MBI-GS. A total of 6% of the variance in intrinsic job satisfaction as measured by the MSQ was predicted by job insecurity, as well as 14% of the variance in extrinsic job satisfaction. A total of 14% of the variance in job insecurity could be explained by health. It thus seems

important that the chemical industry must understand how these variables impact on each other and focus their initiatives accordingly to ensure that burnout and job insecurity levels do not increase while health and organisational commitment levels have to stay as high as possible.

3.2 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

The researcher regards the following as limitations of the study:

Although the official business language within the organisation is English, the majority of the employees who completed the questionnaires are Afrikaans-speaking. It is possible that employees might have interpreted the questions differently in their home language. A vast number of black employees, because of Apartheid education structures and the previous Afrikaans culture of the chemical industry; also understand Afrikaans better than English.

The questionnaires also took some time to complete, which might raise issues of reliability. The questionnaires were printed in an A5 size booklet format, mostly in an eight font format; that could have added to eye fatigue. The response was not representative of culture (race); stratified random sampling would, however, not have resolved the issue, because the full population was targeted. The self-reported questionnaires measured perceptions; interviews with selective employees could have enhanced this study. This was however not possible because of the geographical location and time constraints.

The study was conducted soon after the Human Resources function was seriously restructured and job contents changed drastically. The HRP's did not yet experience the full impact, positive or negative, of the changes. It is thus not certain whether they completed the questionnaires according to their perceptions of what was coming, or based on what they really experienced at that stage. Although confidentiality was guaranteed, some participants reported that because of the vast amount of biographical information that was requested, participants could still be identified. This could also have had an influence in the way participants completed the questionnaires.

A relative low response rate of 29% was recorded. It is not sure why the other 71% did not participate, and how their participation could have influenced the final results.

3.3 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE ORGANISATION

It seems that HRP's in the chemical industry in general experienced good health, low levels of job insecurity, had job satisfaction, experienced organisational commitment and had low burnout levels. It thus does not seem as if the inherent job stressors as discussed earlier, and the changes they went through, had a severely negative influence on their general wellbeing. It is possible that other factors, for example change management or actions from HRP's themselves counteracted or acted as buffers for the stressors.

It is recommended that a qualitative study be conducted to determine the elements that caused the HRP's to have the positive experiences as discussed. These may include elements of successful communication, effective change management, involving employees with decision-making, correct job content, sufficient rewards and recognition, effective career planning, and so forth. When this is determined, future change intervention can be addressed even more successfully and confidently by focusing on interventions that have worked in the past. If it is determined that that the positive results are a consequence of inherent aspects of HRP's, for example emotional intelligence, internal locus of control or even healthy living values for example exercising, it may be an excellent input for recruitment processes to recruit the best HRP's for the industry. (It will be necessary to determine whether HRP's in the new proposed study also participated in the current study or not. If HRP's not involved in this study report the same positive results, it may heighten the validity of this study. It is important to take into consideration that the questionnaires were completed during 2004, and inherent aspects of the HRP jobs might have changed.)

Symptoms that may indicate a decline in the wellbeing of HRP's, for example health and grievance reporting, must be monitored regularly to facilitate pro-active action. The Human Resources managers of the respective business units in the chemical industry can be asked to

draw up a wellness matrix of their HRP's where these and other variables, for example irregular leave and sick leave, performance management, and so forth, can be monitored and acted upon.

It is also recommended that the results of this study should be communicated to Senior Management, HR management as well as HRP's. PowerPoint slides of the crucial parts of the study can be prepared, and a road show can be hosted with scheduled Human Resources and managerial meetings. The HRP's were promised feedback when they were asked to complete the questionnaires, and it will therefore perhaps be beneficial to communicate the core results via internal e-mail to make sure that everybody receives the information. Managers will feel satisfied that they are "doing something right", and will be ensured that they have a sound and well HR team working in the industry. It can be expected that not all employees experienced or shared the positive results of this study. Employees who do not agree with the results must be invited to talk to their managers or the researcher and address such issues. This is necessary because it is not possible to generalise the results to all HRP's (due to the low response rate in the study).

3.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Future longitudinal studies are needed to verify the results of this study and to ensure that employees' current state of wellness does not decrease. Future studies should include other variables, for example work locus of control, sense of coherence and career orientation to verify current results, but also to expand knowledge.

Larger samples must be used, with the addition of qualitative studies to counteract perceptions associated with questionnaires. The inclusions of expatriate HRP's in the employment of the organisation will be necessary, as these employees are on the increase and not much is known about their wellbeing.

Other chemical industries in South Africa must be included with further research, to compare results nationally. This can then be compared with international trends to determine if there are any differences between South Africa and the rest of the world regarding Human Resources practitioners' wellbeing.

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