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# The Stressor - Outcome and Moderator Relationships amongst South African Managers

Debra Lynne Chanoch

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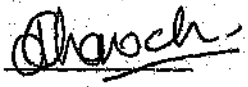
Debra Lynne Chanoch

A Dissertation submitted to the School of Psychology, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts (Industrial Psychology), by coursework.

Johannesburg, 1998

# DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this dissertation is my own work. It is submitted for the degree of Master of Arts at the University of the Witwatersrand, and has not been submitted to any other university, or for any other degree.



D L. CHANOCH

31 January 1998

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**The University of the Witwatersrand**, for their financial assistance.

Having said this, I would like to add that the views and opinions expressed in this dissertation, are those of the author and do not represent the views and opinions of the university or the organisation concerned.




Despite the potentially devastating effect that stress may have on the performance and productivity of the workforce (Greenblo,1992), few South African companies have thoroughly looked at and studied the various aspects of stress. By doing this, they should then be able to develop and implement effective stress reduction programmes.

The aim of the present study, therefore, was to identify some of the causes, outcomes, and moderators of stress, which could then be used as the basis for developing stress reduction programmes. Some stressor-outcome relationships (such as job satisfaction, self-esteem, propensity to leave the organisation, and health) were looked at, after which the possible moderating effect of certain variables (gender, personality, coping style, job pressure, and organisational support) were considered.

The study adopted a cross-sectional design and the data was collected using both quantitative and qualitative means. The sample consisted of 290 managers all of whom belong to one of the country's largest financial institutions, and work in one of the various branches in and around the Gauteng region. Correlations, t-tests, anovas and a content analysis were used to evaluate the stressor-outcome relationships. In addition to these statistical analyses, moderated multiple linear regressions were conducted in order to test for any moderating variables.

Overall, most of the stressor-outcome relationships were found to be significant, but the number of actual moderating variables was shown to be rather minimal. In addition, the information which was derived from the content analysis served to add some insight into the sometimes contradictory findings. An in-depth look at the findings of the present study can be found in the discussion section, where possible reasons and explanation for the results are presented. Theoretical and practical implications of the study, together with the limitations, are offered. Following this, some important guidelines and suggestions for future research are considered.

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# CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

It is now a relatively well established fact that stress in the workplace has a negative impact on the mental and physical health of workers (Frese,1985), by adversely affecting things like productivity, absenteeism, worker turnover and employee health and well-being (Cooper and Payne, 1988; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek and Rosenthal, 1964; Matteson and Ivancevich, 1982). Growing concerns over the consequences of job stress for both the employees and the organisation, have stimulated efforts to understand the sources and consequences of stressors in the workplace (Spielberger and Reheiser, 1995). Despite the potentially devastating threat to performance and productivity, few South African companies have thoroughly looked at, developed and implemented effective stress programmes (Greenblo, 1992).

Speaking more specifically, the management population in South Africa are under a great deal of psychological stress, and as a result, many are neglecting their physical health and well-being (Toovey,1997). In a recent study that was conducted in South Africa, 75% of managers reported moderate to high frustration levels, while 82% complained of work overload. Furthermore, psychometric tests have revealed that around two-thirds of management are "handicapped" by inadequate coping mechanisms. Adding fuel to the fire, so to speak, other disheartening statistics include, that 69% of management have cholesterol problems, 21% experience high blood pressure, 22% are smokers, 49% admit to consuming alcohol on a regular basis, 63% can be described as obese, and only 35% exercise 3 times a week or more (ibid.).

The acknowledgement and legitimisation of executive stress is considered to be the first step in tackling this ever-worsening problem (Ivancevich, Matteson, Freedman and

Phillips,1990; Jex, Spector, Gudanowski and Newman,1995; Pretorius,1992). From there, however, the real problems (causes), outcomes and possible moderators need to be identified, with the aim of making recommendations which can be implemented (Ivancevich et al., 1990; Toovey,1997). The present study tackles this stated need by identifying some of the causes, outcomes and moderators of stress. In turn, this identification will hopefully go a long way towards developing implementable solutions.

# CHAPTER 2

# LITERATURE REVIEW

*The contents of this chapter will form the basis for much of the explanations in the discussion section (Chapter 5). In brief, it contains a review of the relevant literature required for the present study, where each of the variables measured are explained in terms of the literature.*

*A theoretical model of stress was developed, and then served to act as the basis for much of the statistical analyses. The method of formulation, an explanation as well as the model itself, are all contained within this chapter.*

*In addition to this, the operational definition of stress which is used in the present study, the concept of felt stress, is formulated and explained.*

*At the conclusion of this chapter, the hypotheses, which form the basis for this research study, are presented.*

# Stress

Over the last few decades much research has been conducted, and steady progress has been made in the development and application of stress theories in the workplace (Cox, 1987). Unfortunately, despite this plethora of research, the literature has r ..od many inconsistencies. This is largely due to the fact that "stress" as a construct has been difficult to define, and has resulted in different researchers using different definitions in their studies. Out of all this confusion three main approaches to defining and viewing stress have been identified. These schools of thought view stress as either a response variable, a stimulus variable, or the result of an interaction between the person and environment, which is further divided up into a poor person-environment fit or an individual response. When defined as a stimulus, stress is considered to be a force that acts on the person, causing discomfort and strain, in this case, work overload, role ambiguity and role conflict are used as measures of stress. Alternatively, however, the response action of stress views stress as a physiological or psychological response or outcome to a stressor, for example headaches, anxiety and anger (Hendrix, Summers, Leap and Steel, 1995; Ivancevich and Matteson,1980). According to this school of thought, stress occurs when there is a poor match between the abilities of the person, and the demands of the job (Spielberger and Reheiser, 1995). The last definition of stress to be looked at is known as the Transactional Approach to stress. Basically, this approach views stress as an individual response, one that is purely subjective. The main founder of this approach, Richard Lazarus, says that stress occurs only if the way in which people evaluate what is happening to them is perceived to be harmful (Lazarus and Launier, 1978).

The three main approaches to stress will now be looked at in greater detail, after which an operational definition of stress will be determined.

## STIMULUS - BASED APPROACH:

This approach treats stress as a stimulus characteristic of the person's environment (Cox and Ferguson,1991). Stress is usually described in terms of the load or level of demand placed on the person, or some aversive or noxious element of that environment (ibid.). A stimulus definition of stress, therefore, could be that it is "the force or stimulus acting on the individual that results in a response of strain, where strain is pressure, or in a physical sense, deformation." (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1990, p219). Stress, so defined, produces a strain reaction (Cox and Ferguson,1991).

This stimulus approach assumes that stressors exist in the environment, external to and independent of, the individual (Dohrenwend and Dohrenwend,1984). Furthermore, these objectively defined events in the environment are normatively stressful to those who experience these events (Lazarus and Folkman,1984). This means that every individual who is exposed to a stressful environment will experience a stress-strain response, regardless of any individual or circumstantial differences (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1990).

Stress as an internal state of the organism refers to both physiological and emotional reactions (Aldwin,1994; Fletcher,1991). While there is a common assumption that stress has negative physiological effects, it would be more accurate to perceive stress as having an activating effect, which can be either positive or negative, depending on various personal and contextual factors (ibid.). Emotional reactions to stress are generally assumed to refer to negative feelings such as anger, sadness and frustration (Aldwin, 1994; Frese,1985). Once again, however, the emotional reactions should not be viewed as being solely negative, but should rather be seen as eliciting both positive and negative reactions (Aldwin,1994).

The stimulus - based approach to stress has, however, been largely criticised on two main counts, both related to individual differences. Firstly, it fails to recognise that two people

subjected to the same stress may show very different levels of strain (Ivancevich and Matteson,1990). Secondly, it does not allow for individual differences in the evaluation or experience of events. Cues in the environment which may precipitate harmful or painful experiences may be interpreted quite differently by different people (Monat and Lazarus, 1991).

## RESPONSE - BASED APPROACH:

In the stimulus approach, stress is an external event, whereas here it is an internal response - an individual's response or reaction to the environment (Ivancevich and Matteson,1990).

This approach owes much to the pioneering work of Hans Selye (Cox and Ferguson, 1991), who is commonly referred to as the "Father of Stress" (Hendrix, Summers, Leap and Steel,1995; Quick, Nelson and Quick,1990). His work is generally considered to be the first major discussion of stress as a phenomenon, in and of itself (Ross and Altmaier, 1994). Furthermore, most writers have credited the academic emergence of the stress concept as lying partly with the work of Hans Selye (Newton, 1995). Selye was interested in the response of the body to the demands made upon it (Ross and Altmaier, 1994), and his research led him to believe that this response was "non-specific" (Singer and Davidson,1991). By this term, Selye meant that whatever the external or internal demand on the body, the person's response to stress followed a universal pattern (Ross and Altmaier,1994; Selye,1980). For example, an exam, a swimming competition or a broken leg will all produce the same systematic reaction, although their specific results may be quite different or even completely opposite (i.e. positive or negative) (Selye, 1980). Selye termed this universal or predictable pattern of responses, the "General Adaptation Syndrome" (GAS) (Newton,1995; Quick et al.,1990; Ross and Altmaier, 1994; Strumpfer,1986). Please see Appendix A for an illustration of the stages of the GAS. He identified 3 stages to the GAS - the alarm reaction, the stage of resistance and the stage of exhaustion (ibid.). Briefly, the alarm stage is the body's initial response to the stressor

(Quick et al.,1990; Ross and Altmaier,1994). This "flight or fight" response as it is often called, is the immediate and predictable response to any type of stress (Quick et al.,1990). If the stressor is prolonged, the second stage, resistance, is entered into. In this stage, the immediate responses of the alarm stage are replaced with responses that promote long-term adaptation (Ross and Altmaier,1994; Selye,1980). The organism's full adaptation to the stressor and the consequent improvement or disappearance of the symptoms, comes coupled with a concurrent decrease in resistance to most other stimuli (Selye,1980). The third stage, that of exhaustion, refers to the body's finite ability to adapt, the realisation that the body cannot go on coping with stress indefinitely (Ross and Altmaier,1994; Selye,1980). Selye realised that while the stress response can lead to positive results if channelled wisely (such as improved performance), if the alarm reaction is elicited too intensely and frequently over an extended period of time without an effective outlet, a stage of exhaustion will be reached (Quick et al.,1990). As Selye (1973) notes, "one would think that once adaptation has occurred and ample energy is available, resistance should go on indefinitely. But just as any inanimate machine gradually wears out, so does the human machine sooner or later become the victim of constant wear and tear" (cited in Quick et al., 1990, p27). It is at this stage of exhaustion, that many of the well-documented undesirable consequences of stress occur, such as depression, worsening of heart disease, lowered self-esteem and alcohol and drug abuse (Newman,1995; Quick et al.,1990; Strumpfer,1986).

Despite good theoretical and research grounding, Selye's GAS model of stress has been criticised and challenged by researchers on two grounds. Firstly, his argument (and the basis of his model), that every individual's response to stress follows this precise pattern, is rather hard to accept (Ross and Altmaier,1994). This is particularly true when one considers that recent research has indicated that the body's response to stress varies, depending on the stressor (Cox and Mackay, 1985; Ross and Altmaier,1994). Secondly, this model proposes that the same response occurs for each stressor, irrespective of

whether they are internal or external in nature (Quick et al.,1990; Ross and Altmaier, 1994). Once again, current research refutes that claim. Today we know and acknowledge that some stressors, particularly those that are complex and involve both internal and external demands, may in fact produce responses which are different from other stressors (Cox and Mackay,1985; Quick et al.,1990; Ross and Altmaier,1994).

The contribution of Selye's model should also be acknowledged, however, since it advanced the study of stress, as well as defined stress as an experience that can progress through different stages (Ross and Altmaier,1994). Furthermore, Selye also acknowledged the existence of eustress (good stress) which can be a positive motivation for change, growth and development (Ivancevich, Matteson, Freedman and Phillips,1990; Newton,1995; Ross and Altmaier,1994).

General criticisms relating to the response-approach to stress as a whole, have also been offered. These include the approach's dismissal of individual differences which play an important role in determining the stressfulness of any particular situation (Selye,1991). In addition to this, the approach has been criticised for failing to enable anyone to predict the nature of the stress response or to predict whether there will even be a stress response (Ivancevich and Matteson,1990).

Despite a certain popularity, the two approaches to stress described above have been judged to be largely inadequate in terms of their theoretical sophistication. Essentially, they fail to take cognisance of both the individual differences which are so important in relation to stress, as well as the perceptual cognitive processes which underpin such differences (Cox and Ferguson,1991).

## INTERACTION APPROACH TO STRESS:

In this approach, stress is viewed as a consequence of the interaction between an environmental stimulus and the individual's response (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1990). This approach differs from both the stimulus and response-based approaches to stress in that it attempts to take account of individual differences as well as realising their importance, something that the previous approaches fail to do (Fletcher,1991). The interactive approach acknowledges that individuals may perceive stress differently because of various individual differences. These include differences in circumstances (for example, greater or less support), differences in how they see the world (and therefore perceive the stressors), and differences in their functional systems (such as different histories and genetic factors) (Fletcher,1991). In acknowledging the many differences between people, the interactive approach realises that any comprehensive model of occupational stress must take account of how different people respond differently in the same situation (Fletcher,1991; Lazarus,1995). While the subjective factors in the experience of stress are highlighted in the interaction approaches, they do not advocate that the objective factors are not important. However, they say that they are not as important as the subjective impressions of [illegible] or events which act as powerful forces in the stress-outcome relationship [illegible],1984).

### The Person - Environment Fit

Perhaps the most comprehensive model of the interactive approach to stress, is the Person-Environment (P-E) Fit model, which in recent years has become widely accepted among organisational stress researchers (Edwards and Cooper,1990; Fletcher,1991). The P-E fit approach characterises stress as a lack of correspondence (or fit) between characteristics of the person (for example, abilities) and the environment (for example, job demands) (Edwards and Cooper,1990; Spielberger and Reheiser,1995). The workplace stress that results from an incompatible person-environment fit, produces

negative psychological, physiological and behavioural outcomes, such as psychological strain, stress related physical disorders, and job dissatisfaction (ibid.).

There are several reasons for the widespread acceptance of the P-E fit approach to stress. Firstly, this acceptance is almost through default as the two previously described approaches have such inherent faults. Secondly, the concept of the correct "fit" between the person and his/her environment, has a long history in Psychology, particularly with influential writers such as Lewin and Murray. Thirdly, viewing the person and the environment as joint determinants of stress-related outcomes, has been found to have a certain intuitive appeal (Edwards and Cooper,1990). Unfortunately, as the authors are quick to point out, these traditional and intuitive arguments seem to be far more abundant than arguments based on actual research and empirical evidence. Despite this potential shortcoming, in this review of the literature, an attempt has been made to only discuss and emphasise those findings which have some empirical basis.

French, Caplan and Van Harrison (1982) (cited in Edwards and Cooper,1990), indicate that the "person" (P) and the "environment" (E) can be described both objectively and subjectively. The objective "P" and "E" refer to the outside world, independent of the person's perceptions of them, while the subjective "P" and "E" refer to the perceptions of themselves and the environment (Edwards and Cooper,1990; Fletcher,1991). Quite obviously, if the objective person and the objective environment do not "fit", for example, if an unskilled person is required to do a skilled job, then there is a propensity for strain. This resulting strain, however, is not a function of the interaction between these two objective factors, and so will not be considered in greater detail in this section. Rather, what is of primary concern, is the degree of misfit between the person's perception of the environment and their perception of themselves (Fletcher,1991; Spielberger and Reheiser,1995). It is important to realise that the individual's perceptions may or may not be accurate assessments of the world and themselves (Lazarus,1995). It is

this misfit, per se, between the person and the environment, which is causally related to strain levels. Thus, an inadequately demanding job, as well as an over-demanding one, should both produce strain, as both result in the occurrence of misfits (Fletcher,1991).

Current research into the P-E fit approach to stress, has been plagued with serious theoretical and methodological problems (Edwards and Cooper,1990). Theoretical problems include an inadequate distinction between different versions of "fit", as well as some confusion over the different functional forms of "fit". While the methodological problems include imprecise and poor measurement of P-E fit dimensions, and inappropriate analytical techniques for assessing the fit (Edwards and Cooper,1991; Spielberger and Reheiser,1995). According to Edwards and Cooper (1991) taken together, these problems have generated empirical investigations which "overlook the distinct mechanisms associated with different versions and forms of fit, consider a limited range of fit dimensions, and employ statistical tests which do not correspond to stated hypotheses, or worse yet, clearly violate known methodological recommendations." (p304). Furthermore, critics have argued that this approach is somewhat weak because it views the concept of fit between the person and environment as static. It emphasises stable relationships between the person and workplace, rather than the flux or process in which stress constantly changes over time and varies with specific work related contexts (Lazarus,1995; Spielberger and Reheiser,1995). In addition to this, after conducting much research on this theory, Chemers et al.(1985) conclude that although it provides a useful approach to conceptualising and measuring occupational stress, the theory has not yet yielded a highly focused approach (cited in Spielberger and Reheiser, 1995).

Nevertheless, despite the criticisms (and somewhat overlooking them), the combining of the separate causal variables of environment and person into an ongoing relationship characterised by fit or misfit, has often been credited as an important advance in stress-related thinking (Lazarus,1995). One of the more vocal advocates for the beneficial and

useful aspects of this approach, has been Lazarus, whose own theory, the transactional approach, incorporates some of these fundamental issues.

Transactional Approach

In the transactional model, an event in the environment is considered to be a stressor only "if the organism's appraisals of it, and of it's own resources, suggest that it is threatening or disturbing" (Singer and Davidson, 1991, p37). Following on from the P-E theory, Lazarus says that a transaction between the person and environment is stressful only when it is evaluated by the person as a harm, threat or challenge to that person's well-being (Lazarus, 1995).

Lazarus's model begins when the person evaluates a particular event, situation or demand. This evaluation, called a primary appraisal, is concerned with whether negative outcomes may occur in the encounter (Cox and Ferguson,1991). An appraisal of harm means that damage has already occurred, while an appraisal of threat refers to a harm that will, in all likelihood, happen in the future (Ross and Altmaier,1994). Lazarus also refers to and defines an "appraisal of challenge", whereby the individual believes he/she can achieve a positive outcome, rather than only protecting against a negative one (ibid.). Secondary appraisal, which follows a primary appraisal, is the individual's attempt to define and assess what coping options are available to deal with the harm, threat or challenge (Cox and Ferguson,1991; Ross and Altmaier,1994). These available options could be internal, external, resources or responses (Ross and Altmaier,1994).
The identification of these appraisals, by their very nature, illustrates the emphasis of this approach on individual differences and perceptions (Brief and George,1995).

Followers of the transactional approach believe that a stressor is not inherently stressful (Singer and Davidson,1991). Rather, the outcomes and responses differ in the way people

perceive the stressor. So what some may consider to be extremely stressful, others may view as exciting and energising (Cox and Ferguson,1991).

According to Ross and Altmaier (1994), the difficulty as well as the attractiveness of this model, lies in its flexibility. The model helps one to understand stress in terms of the combination of the ever-changing personal issues and concerns, as well as the constantly changing resources and responses that a person can call upon when in need. These responses, in turn, affect the initial situation or stressor, and may cause the individual to re-appraise or to think differently (Lazarus,1995; Ross and Altmaier,1994; Spielberger and Reheiser,1995). Based on this explanation, the stress response can be seen as truly transactional in that the balance of demands and resources, define the stress (Spielberger and Reheiser,1995). Expanded upon, this means that if the demands are greater than the resources, then stress will occur. At the same time, however, if resources are available to meet the demand, then the secondary appraisal might be one of challenge rather than harm or threat, and the resulting situation would thus appear less stressful to the individual (Singer and Davidson,1991; Ross and Altmaier,1994).

Relating this to the workplace, Lazarus suggests, that it is not much use to try to identify conditions of work which adversely affect most workers, because stress is ultimately an individual phenomenon (Brief and George,1995). While it is true that stress occurs at an individual level, it is still useful and somewhat necessary to try to discover working conditions which are likely to adversely affect most workers exposed to them. Without attempting to operationalise and make his research concrete, Lazarus runs the risk of developing a theory on stress which offers no insight and cannot be freely applied to the working environment (Brief and George,1995; Harris,1995; Ivancevich and Matteson, 1990).

In summary then, it can be said that Lazarus' conception of occupational stress, as well as the P-E fit theory, both have their merits and limitations (Spielberger and Reheiser, 1995). So instead of being viewed as contradictory theories in providing a meaningful conceptual framework for understanding stress in the workplace, they should rather be seen as complementary, in that where one theory fails, the other succeeds (ibid ).

## Operational Definition of Stress :

In this study, the definition that has been chosen is one which views stress as one's perception of being stressed, in other words, the Transactional Approach to stress. In the present study, this stress will be referred to as felt or perceived stress (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1980). This means that stress will not simply be seen as occurring; by a person being exposed to what others have labelled as a stressor (e.g.: work overload), by experiencing stress as indicated by a stress strain (e.g.: a headache), or even by being in a situation where the job demands far outweigh the person's capabilities. Instead stress will be viewed as an individual experience, one that can be defined as an "uncomfortable cognitive state resulting from exposure to a stressor that can result in psychological and physiological strain" (Hendrix et al., 1995, p75). This definition of stress, which is consistent with that proposed by Summers, DeCotiis and DeNisi (1995), implies that one's perceived stress can vary in intensity, and that exposure to a potential stressor will not necessarily result in the perception or feeling of stress (Lazarus, 1995; Summers et al., 1995).

## Theoretical Model of Stress:

In order to thoroughly measure the felt stress, a decision was made to develop a basic theoretical model whereby stress could be defined and explained. In the process of

developing this model, many sources of information were consulted. The first model consists of 4 main sections, causes of stress (stressors), consequences of stress (felt stress or outcomes), moderators, and interveners (see Appendix B). Rather than placing all the references of these causes, consequences, moderators and interveners in the text, to reduce tediousness, it was decided to rather put the full set of references for each of the items chosen in the model in the Appendix. (To view these references, please see Appendix C).

A very short outline of the items contained in this model is presented below. Please note, however, that this broad outline is not meant to replace the self-explanatory outline given in the Appendix. Rather, it is presented to facilitate the flow and to help illustrate the natural development which took place in arriving at the final theoretical model which is soon to be presented.

Briefly then, some of the causes included in the model are role conflict, job demands, interpersonal conflict, and organisational structure and climate. Some of the "individual" somatic consequences include, coronary heart disease, high blood pressure, headaches, and muscular discomfort, whereas some of the psychological consequences include, low self-esteem, tension, worry, and impaired interpersonal relations. "Organisational" consequences include, job dissatisfaction, low motivation, high absenteeism, and poor productivity. The moderators section is divided up into two sub-sections, internal and external. Some of the internal moderators are personality, self-esteem, age, gender, and coping style, while some of the external moderators are social setting, social support, and diet. The last section of the model, the interveners, include things such as exercise, social support, and changing the work situation.

The model was further refined by choosing only those variables which, based on past research, were found to be applicable in South Africa. The following variables were found to be applicable:

stressors - role ambiguity (Cooper and Cartwright,1994; Cummins,1990; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek and Rosenthal,1964; Selye,1976; Zander and Quinn,1962), feelings of

insecurity (Cummins,1990; Fried, Rowland and Ferris,1984; Zander and Quinn,1962), lack of a career path (Cooper and Cartwright,1994; Parker and DeCotiis,1983; Summers, DeNisi and DeCotiis,1995), lack of psychological support (Cooper and Cartwright,1994; Kahn et al.,1964; Parker and DeCotiis,1983; Zander and Quinn,1962), lack of clarity (Cooper and Cartwright,1994; Hendrix, Summers, Leap, and Steel,1995; Parker and DeCotiis,1983; Summers, DeCotiis and DeNisi,1995; 1995; Zander and Quinn,1962), and the Affirmative Action policies(Charlton and van Niekerk,1994; Charoux,1990; Charoux and Moerdyk,1997; Coldwell,1995; Duke,1996; Greenblo,1992; Human,1991; Human,1993; Kobokoane, 1996; Moerdyk and Coldwell,1990; Moerdyk and Charoux, 1997).

strains - low self-esteem (Hendrix, Ovalle and Troxler,1985; Summers, DeCotiis and DeNisi,1995; Salvo, Lubbers, Rossi and Lewis,1995), tension (Salvo et al.,1995; Quick and Quick,1984), job satisfaction (Hendrix, Ivancevich and Matteson, 1982; Salvo et al.,1995), propensity to leave (Cooper and Cartwright, 1994; Corcoran, 1995; Fox, Dwyer and Ganster, 1993; Hendrix et al.,1985; Ivancevich and Matteson, 1982), burnout (Corcoran,1995; Cordes and Dougherty,1993; Dolan,1995; Salvo et al.,1995); low motivation (Cooper and Cartwright,1994; Ivancevich and Matteson,1982; Quick and Quick,1984); headaches (Corcoran, 1995; Salvo et al.,1995); and nausea (Cordes and Dougherty, 1993; Quick and Quick, 1984; Salvo et al.,1995).

moderators - personality (Frone, Russell and Cooper,1995; Ganster, Schaubroeck, Sime and Mayes,1991; Garden,1995; Havlovic and Keenan,1995; Matteson and Ivancevich, 1987; Schaubroeck and Ganster,1991), coping skills (Frone et al.,1995; Steptoe,1991) and social support (House,1983; Hurrell and Murphy,1991; Kobasa,1988; Steptoe,1991).

interveners - exercise (Folkins and Sime,1981; Jex, Spector, Gudanowski and Newman, 1995; Roskies,1991) and social support (House,1983; Hurrell and Murphy,1991; Krause, 1987).

Once again, for the reasons given below, further refinement to this model was necessary.

In trying to formulate the theoretical model used in the present study, certain subjective decisions had to be made. It was realised that to attempt to measure all the hypothesised variables (causes, consequences, moderators and interveners) which influence South African managers, would be absurd. Firstly, time constraints would make this task almost impossible. To attempt to quantify such a large number of variables in a limited time frame, is not altogether impossible, but is highly impractical. This is impractical not only for the researcher, but for the proposed sample of managers. With their personal time constraints, supplying such an invariably long questionnaire, may not test the actual variables, so much as test how stressful they find the large booklet of questionnaires! Secondly, in addition to the impracticality involved, by attempting to make the study so large, and by not being more specific and only concentrating on a few variables, the final quality of the study would in all likelihood be jeopardised. To make a study focused and specific to a particular situation, one needs to realise that a reduction in the number of variables is almost a certainty. A limitation of this, that generalisability may be threatened, was acknowledged in this reduction process, but placed aside in favour of a more focused, and practical study. The third and last reasoning behind the decision to only test a limited number of variables, is an attempt to further the current knowledge in the area. In South Africa, after the 1994 elections, many dramatic changes have taken place, all, some or none of which could have had an effect on our managerial population. It is important, therefore, to add to the possibly out-dated research in the area, and to try and determine which factors (if any) may influence the managers in South Africa. One way to achieve this aim, is to add to and extend past research on the topic and in so doing, determine which factors to include in future research studies. The present study has tackled this issue by looking at the findings from past research, taking out some of the factors which were proven to affect mangers, and adding some new ones to increase knowledge and to possibly further the research.

Based on this reasoning, it was decided to concentrate only on the overall stressors faced by managers, the strains or consequences of these stressors, and also three variables

which may moderate this relationship (the moderators), all supported by the literature. The stressors which will be researched will be looked at as an overall measure. The consequences (outcomes) which will be researched are low self-esteem, propensity to leave, job dissatisfaction, headaches and general feelings of ill health; and the moderators, are race, gender, personality, coping skills, Job Pressure and Organisational Support. Race was chosen to be included as a moderator as much research has demonstrated the "moderating" effect of racial difference.

A diagrammatic representation of the stress-outcome and moderator relationship which forms the basis for the present study, can be seen in Figure 1 below.

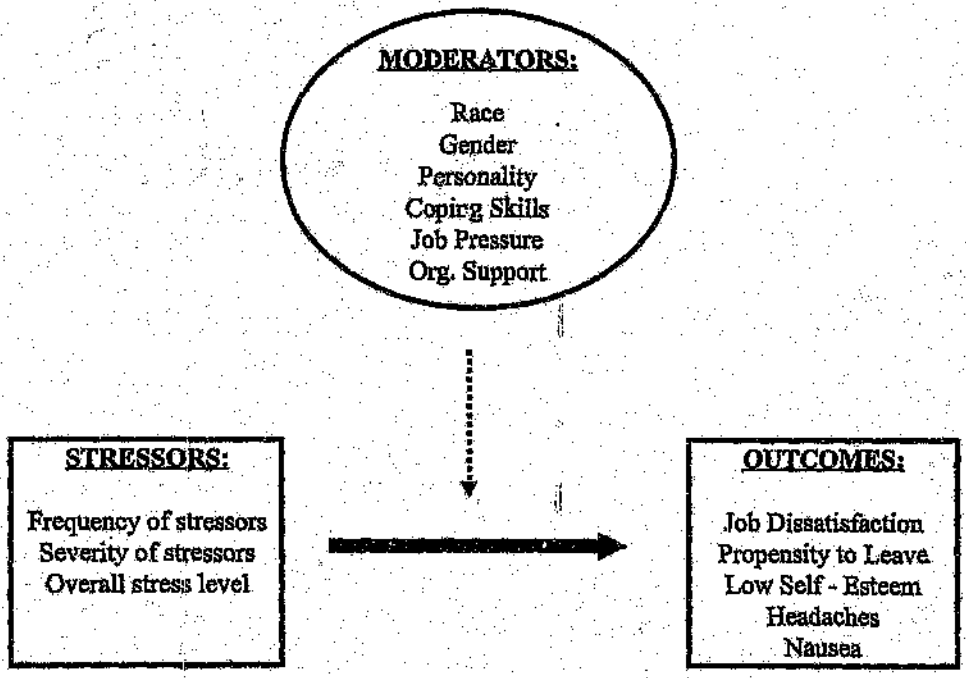



Figure 1: The stress-outcome and moderator model

The above sections on the causes, consequences, moderators and interveners of stress, explain and describe the model that was developed. This model, not only forms the basis of the current research in that it helped to determine which variables were to be tested, but it will also help to explain and categorise the stress data which will be obtained.

The relationships between the chosen variables and the moderators which are illustrated in the model on the previous page, will be shown in greater detail through the hypotheses which are presented at the end of this chapter on pages 43 - 45.

Until then, literature on the chosen moderators and consequences of stress will be presented and discussed.

# Moderators:

## PERSONALITY:

One of the most popular ways to think about and describe people and their personalities, is the Type A Behaviour Pattern developed by Friedman and Rosenman (1974) (Ivancevich and Matteson,1990; Ross and Altmaier,1994). The Type A behaviour Pattern (TABP) can be described as an "action-emotion complex that can be observed in any person who is aggressively involved in a chronic, incessant struggle to achieve more and more in less and less time, and if required to do so, against the opposing efforts of other things or other persons" (Friedman and Rosenman,1974, p67; cited in Schaubroeck and Ganster,1991, p35). Based on this definition, the TABP can be characterised by several components, the first being a sense of time urgency. Since Type A's are driven to achieve "more and more in less and less time", they are chronically impatient and always in a hurry to achieve (Strumpfer,1986). They tend to become greatly annoyed when forced to wait (for example, in traffic and in queues), as they feel this waiting is preventing them

from achieving at the rapid rate they so desire. They often do more than one thing at a time, are constantly preoccupied with deadlines, react rapidly and speak fast (Ross and Altmaier,1994; Strumpfer,1986). The second component relates to their drive to achieve despite "the opposing efforts of other things or other persons". This intense drive to achieve relates to all of their life activities, and not only to the ones in which competition is involved (Ross and Altmaier,1994). The Type A individual's hard-driving conscientiousness (Strumpfer,1986), means that they are determined to persevere, regardless of any obstacles, as they believe that any obstacle can be overcome with sufficient effort on their behalf (Dohrenwend and Dohrenwend 1984; Strumpfer,1986). They are preoccupied with their work and therefore have . . . .e left for any hobbies, and even when they do, these tend to be of an aggressive and competitive nature (Dohrenwend and Dohrenwend,1984). Also, they prefer to be remembered and respected for what they do, and equate this high standard of productivity with their self-worth (Strumpfer,1986). The third component of a Type A individual, hostility, relates to their "aggressive involvement" in whatever they do. Hostility and a lack of concern for others characterises their interpersonal relationships, and anger and aggression are always close to the surface (Strumpfer,1986). Type A individuals tend to be self-centred and resentful, and always want to do things their way. Furthermore, they tend to be easily angered and irritated by other people that they come into contact with both in their working environment and in the general context of their lives (Ross and Altmaier, 1994; Strumpfer,1986). Overall, therefore, individuals who exhibit a Type A personality, have an overwhelming need to assert control, and when this control is not theirs, they adopt an "all or nothing" approach. In this whole process, however, they tend to strain themselves needlessly and waste valuable energy (Strumpfer,1986).

Although individuals who exhibit this Type A Behaviour Pattern are called "Type A's" whereas those who do not are called "Type B's", this definition is somewhat misleading (Matthews and Glass,1984). In actuality, Type A behaviour is defined as a continuum

ranging from extreme Type A to extreme Type B responses (ibid.). At the other end of the continuum therefore, is the Type B Behaviour Pattern which has been described as the relative absence of Type A behaviours (Matthews and Glass,1984; Havlovic and Keenan, 1995). Type B individuals can be described as being less impatient, less competitive, relaxed, easy-going and more mellow. The Type B may have considerable drive, wants to accomplish things and works hard, but also has a confident style which allows him/her to work at a steady pace and not to race against the clock (Ivancevich and Matteson,1990). When they compete, it is merely for social interaction and at work they work steadily but without the constant feeling of being driven. Furthermore, they take time to enjoy pursuits other than work, and also prefer to be liked for who they are, rather than for what they do (Matthews and Glass, 1984; Havlovic and Keenan,1995; Nunns and Adamson, 1991; Strumpfer,1986).

In reality while the Type A and Type B distinction refers to the extremes of a continuum, the majority of people fall somewhere in between, rather than exhibiting only Type A or only Type B characteristics (Strumpfer,1986).

Ross and Altmaier (1994) contend that Type A persons are more likely to experience occupational stress simply by how they view the world. People who exhibit Type A behaviour tend to be bothered more by the normal stresses at work and are less likely to be able to adjust their behaviour back to normal stresses. Due to the way such a person approaches his/her job, i.e. the intense drive to succeed and impatience with interruptions and interferences, he/she is more likely to experience occupational stress and less likely to deal effectively with it (Kobasa,1988; Matteson and Ivancevich,1987; Ross and Altmaier, 1994).

Many studies (such as Fox, Dwyer and Ganster,1993; Summers, DeCotiis and DeNisi, 1995) have shown that Type A individuals have higher blood and cholesterol levels, are more frequently smokers and heavy drinkers, have less interest in exercise and are

generally less healthy than their Type B counterparts as well as having a greater tendency towards coronary heart disease (CHD) (Quick et al.,1990; Summers et al.,1995). The Multiple Risk Factor Intervention Trial (1982), however, produced contradictory results by finding no significant relationship between Type A behaviour and smoking, high cholesterol or the incidence of CHD (Quick et al.,1990). In fact many recent studies have questioned the so-called relationship between Type A behaviour and a higher risk of CHD (Ivancevich and Matteson,1990; Kobasa,1988; Schaubroeck and Ganster,1991). A possible reason for these findings could be that only specific components of the Type A behaviour pattern, such as hostility and competitiveness, relate to and contribute to the incidence of CHD (Kobasa, Maddi and Courington,1981; Quick et al.,1990).

In a study performed by Keenen and McBain (1979), they found that Type A personalities reported higher levels of quantitative workload, more responsibility for people and higher blood pressures, but also higher self esteem and greater use of their abilities (cited in Payne,1989). A possible reason for these results, is that Type A personalities seek out situations which demand a lot from them, therefore increasing their load and responsibility, while at the same time allowing them to use their abilities, which helps to increase, or at least sustain, high levels of self-esteem (Matthews and Glass, 1984).

Research examining the relationship between Type A behaviour and job satisfaction have also yielded inconsistent findings. Some research has reported a negative correlation between Type A behaviour and job satisfaction (Dearbon and Hastings,1987), while others have reported no relationship at all (Burke and Weier,1980; Greenglass,1987). The inconsistencies have once again been ascribed to the use of a global conceptualisation of Type A behaviour (Bluen et al.,1990). Looking at the various components of Type A behaviour, Bluen et al. (1990) and Burns and Bluen (1992) found that the achievement striving (AS) component was positively related to job satisfaction, while impatience

irritability (II), hostility (H), anger (A) and competitiveness (COMP) all yield negative correlations to job satisfaction.

In fact, it is not only when looking at the effects and influences of the Type A behaviour pattern (TABP) that inconsistencies are found. These inconsistencies have been carried over into the research on the moderating effect of Type A behaviour on the stress-outcome relationship. One plausible explanation offered by Burns and Bluen (1992) is that Type A behaviour was probably measured and assessed as a global construct, rather than by examining it's different components. A failure to assess the different components of Type A behaviour, results in a loss of vital information, which in turn skews and corrupts the information which results in inconsistent data and incorrect conclusions (Burns and Bluen,1992).

While inconsistent results have plagued the research on the moderating effect of Type A behaviour, Edwards et al. (1990) point out that indirect evidence is available. For example, they say that stress has consistently demonstrated a positive relationship with Type A behaviour. This evidence, together with the positive relationship found between Type A behaviour and symptoms, attempts to illustrate the moderating effect of Type A behaviour (Edwards et al.,1990).

When Type A behaviour was added to the stress-absenteeism relationship, the result was an increase in absenteeism from work (Hurrell Jr. and Murphy,1991). The reason for this increase in absenteeism could be the Type A's usage of either active or passive avoidance coping strategies to deal with the stress (Hurrell, Jr. and Murphy,1991; Matthews and Glass,1984). This reason is consistent with the results offered by Havlovic and Keenan (1995) who found that Type A individuals cope with their stress by denying it exists, avoiding the issue, and projecting their own feelings of tension and anxiety onto others.

Continuing with the potentially significant rela ionship between Type A behaviour and coping strategies, evidence has suggested that Type A individuals strive to maintain control of their environments. This need may become such that the individual will work harder, faster and longer hours in order to ensure this control. So while such coping behaviours may result in greater productivity, the probability exists that these individuals will pay the price of greater feelings of st. ss and distress (Havlovic and Keenan,1995).

Once again, the research findings have proven to be somewhat unclear and inconsistent. The moderating effect of Type A on the stress-job satisfaction relationship, for example, is unclear, specifically with regards to job pressure and job satisfaction. The general feeling from the literature however, is that contrary to what is expected, it is Type B individuals and not Type A whose satisfaction decreases as a consequence of job pressure (Robertson, Cooper and Williams,1990). Furthermore, some research fin "ngs have confounded the issue even more by reporting that Type A individuals experience less strain than Type B individuals and also report far fewer medical problems (Abramis, 1994; Matthews and Glass,1984; Robertson et al.,1990).

Despite all these inconsistent and contradictory results, Type A behaviour was still included in the theoretical model because as Ivancevich and Matteson (1990) point out, "of all the moderators that could or should be included in a stress model, TABP (Type A behaviour pattern) seems to be one of the most promising for additional consideration" (p232).

## GENDER:

Over the last few decades, an increasing amount of attention has been paid to the impact of gender differences on relationships in the workplace (Quick et al.,1990). This interest has particularly been focused on the growing number of women in the workplace, and the subsequent role change which has accompanied this (Quick et al.,1990; Ross and

Altmaier,1994). Smith (1979) spoke about the "subtle revolution" of women, which referred to the changing pattern of women's lives from one where family responsibilities and work roles were independent and not simultaneous, to one where family and work responsibilities occur at the same time (cited in Ross and Altmaier,1994). Women today are experiencing the additional stress of multiple roles which can, for example, result in role conflict such as professional women with young children (Havlovic and Keenan, 1995; Ross and Altmaier,1994).

In addition to role conflict, there are other sources of stress at work which are generally unique to women. These include going against occupational stereotypes, having to deal with sexuality issues (such as sexual harassment and avoiding creating the "wrong impression"), and experiencing greater job demands since they perceive that they have to be better than their male colleagues to get as far (Quick et al.,1990; Rosin and Korabik, 1995). Research supporting these differences have shown that women managers tend to be more ambitious, harder working and more career orientated than men, with their motive to better themselves also being higher (Rosin and Korabik,1995). Furthermore, women tend to have a greater propensity to leave as they are more likely than men to feel that their expectations have not been met, possibly because the contrast between organisational promises of equity and the reality of the barriers faced by women, is so stark (Billings and Moos,1981; Rosin and Korabik,1995).

Having said all this, one cannot ignore the fact that differences that appear to be due to gender, may in fact be a function of position, education, occupation and personal differences between men and women (Rosin and Korabik,1995). So while some researchers may have found what they claimed were differences in gender, the reality could be that these differences occurred simply because the researchers did not take account of confounding variables such as age, organisational level, education and socio-economic status (ibid.).

This could possibly explain the conflicting research of gender differences on the stress-outcome relationship. While some researchers (for example Billings and Moos,1981; Havlovic and Keenan,1995 and Russo,1985) have consistently produced gender differences on a variety of factors, others (Henderson, Byrne, Duncan-Jones, Scott and Adcock,1980; Salvo, Lubbers, Rossi and Lewis,1995; Spielberger and Reheiser,1995; Summers, DeNisi and DeCotiis,1995) have just as consistently proved that there are no differences due to gender.

Relating these findings to stress, Summers et al. (1995) concluded that despite being subjected to more stressors than their male counterparts, female managers do not appear to experience more stress, nor more negative outcomes of stress. Similarly, Salvo et al. (1995) reported that men and women perceive stressors quite similarly, while Jex, Spector, Gudanowski and Newman (1995) found that gender differences were not an important consideration in the stress-outcome relationship.

One area where gender differences have been noticed, are in relation to coping. Research by both Billings and Moos (1981) and Vingerhoets and Van Heck (1990, cited in Jenkins, 1991) found that women prefer emotion-focused solutions, such as seeking social support, self-blame, escape-avoidance and expression of emotions. Men on the other hand tend to prefer problem-focused coping strategies such as positive thinking, planned actions and personal growth. Unfortunately, the research on the influence of gender on coping, has been inconsistent (Havlovic and Keenan,1995). For example, Parasuraman and Cleek (1984) produced opposite results to the studies mentioned earlier. They found that female managers tend to engage in more adaptive coping strategies (problem-focused coping) than their male counterparts (cited in Havlovic and Keenan,1995).

Once again, therefore, a situation exists where research has yielded inconsistent findings making further research somewhat exploratory.

## COPING:

While stress and it's damaging effects have been studied extensively, less systematic attention has been devoted to the ways in which humans respond to stress positively (Monat and Lazarus,1991; Strumpfer,1986). More recently, there has been a rapid growth of interest and concern among researchers about coping and 'adaptation' (Cox and Ferguson,1991; Frone, Russell and Cooper,1995; Monat and Lazarus,1991). Coping refers to the person's cognitive and behavioural efforts to "manage (reduce, minimise, master or tolerate) the internal and external demands of the person-environment transaction that is appraised as taxing or exceeding the person's resources" (Folkman, Lazarus, Gruen and DeLongis, 1986, p572). Put quite simply, coping responses refer to what individuals do when they experience problems (Frone et al.,1995). This coping response or adaptation to perceived stress must further be distinguished between coping styles, which are relatively stable across problems or life domains, and coping behaviours, which are specific to certain problems within a given domain of life (Cox and Ferguson, 1991; Frone et al.,1995; Havlovic and Keenan,1995).

The transactional approach to occupational stress concentrates on the environment in which a stressful encounter takes place (Harris,1995). This environmental emphasis surfaces clearly in the ideas of adaptation and the P-E fit, as well as in the individual appraisals of the environment (Bhagat et al.,1995; Harris,1995). Cognitive appraisal and coping can be seen as transactional variables, by which it is meant that they do not refer to either the environment or the person alone, but rather to the integration of both in a given transaction (Folkman et al.,1986). An appraisal of threat (according to the transactional approach) is a function of "a specific set of environmental conditions that are appraised by a particular person with particular psychological characteristics" (Folkman et al.,1986, p572). Similarly, coping consists of the particular thoughts and behaviours a person is using to manage the demands of the particular person-environment

transaction that has relevance to his/her well-being (Aldwin,1994; Folkman et al.,1986; Harris,1995).

Coping can be seen as having two major functions - dealing with the problem that is causing the distress (problem-focused coping), and regulating and normalising emotion (emotion-focused coping) (Bhagat, Allie and Ford Jr.,1995; Folkman et al.,1986).
*Problem - focused coping* refers to active efforts to alter the elements in the environment in order to change and improve the person-environment relationship (Lazarus,1995). When coping actions alter this relationship for the better, the psychological grounds for harm or threat are reduced or eliminated, resulting in a changed appraisal, which in turn changes the emotional reaction (Lazarus,1995; Monat and Lazarus,1991). The notion of problem - solving directed at both objective conditions (for example, weighing costs and benefits) and subjective conditions (for example, developing new standards of behaviour) is an implicit and vital part of this problem-focused approach (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). Forms of problem-focused coping could, for example, involve aggressive interpersonal efforts to alter the situation, as well as cool, rational and deliberate efforts to problem solve (Folkman et al.,1986).
*Emotion-focused coping* consists of efforts to regulate the emotional distress caused by harm or threat, without altering the objective conditions which are problematic (Lazarus, 1995; Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). This means that emotion-focused coping does not change the objective terms of the person-environment relationship, but only how these terms are attended to, interpreted or perceived (Lazarus,1995), hence the view that it is a passive approach to coping. One basic strategy is to deploy one's attention by avoiding thoughts about sources of distress (avoidance coping), while another could consist of a variety of strategies that change the meaning of what is or will happen (Lazarus,1995; Monat and Lazarus, 1991). Forms of emotion-focused coping could include distancing, escape-avoidance, self-controlling, accepting responsibility and positive reappraisal (Folkman et al.,1986).

The above classification in no way implies that individuals use one kind of coping process to the exclusion of the other, but rather, as previous research and literature has shown, people generally use both forms of coping in virtually every type of stressful encounter (Folkman et al.,1986). Folkman and Lazarus (1980) say, however, that while these two coping strategies can complement each other and occur together, in real life situations, one strategy usually dominates the other.

According to Folkman et al (1986), the type of coping strategy used depends on the primary (what is at stake) and secondary appraisal (the options) of the individual in a stressful situation. For example, when people felt that their self-esteem was at stake, they used more confrontive coping, accepting responsibility and escape avoidance, than when their self-esteem was not at stake. When a goal was at stake, however, people used more planful problem solving strategies than they did in encounters which did not involve this stake (Folkman et al,1986).

The precise moderating effects of coping are somewhat confusing and contradictory. What most researchers agree upon, however, is the fact that coping has a moderating influence in the stress-outcome relationship (Cox and Ferguson,1991; Edwards, Baglioni Jr. and Cooper,1990; Folkman et al.,1986; Havlovic and Keenan,1995; Hurrell Jr. and Murphy,1991). Coping is often seen as being central to the stress process and its resultant outcomes (Lazarus,1995). It is found to be influential, via the appraisal process, in "immediate emotional reactions, in how the person acts, and in the person-environment relationship" (Lazarus,1995, p7). Furthermore, it has also been found to affect some long-term adaptation outcomes, such as subjective well-being, social functioning, and somatic health (ibid.).

Further research has shown that the moderating effect of coping is complex and depends on other influences, particularly the influence of individual differences such as

personality, age and gender (Cox and Ferguson,1991). So while coping may moderate the stress-outcome relationship, cognisance must be taken of the influence of individual differences.

Most studies assessing the potential moderator effects of coping, have looked at the influence of problem versus emotion-focused coping.
Some of these studies conducted, suggest that problem-focused coping buffers the effects of stress, while emotion-focused coping exacerbates it (Edwards et al.,1990). Almost refuting this, Hurrell Jr. and Murphy (1991) point out that unlike most stressors in other life areas (for example, parenting), workplace stressors are less likely to be under the control of the individual. Emphasising their point, they cite other research studies (for example, Caplan, Naidu and Tripathi,1984; Felton, Revenson and Hinrichsen,1984), which have shown that emotion-focused coping is more successful in situations where the individual has little or no control and that problem-focused coping is ineffective in such uncontrollable situations (Hurrell Jr. and Murphy,1991; Lazarus and Folkman,1984). Hurrell Jr. and Murphy also cite a further study (conducted by Howard, Rechnitzer and Cunningham,19 75) which concludes that workers who attempt to control their stressful work conditions will actually experience increases in their stress levels c. distress levels, not a decrease (Hurrell Jr. and Murphy,1991). In addition, Ogus (1995) has reported studies which show that the most efficient coping strategies for individuals in stressful work situations are those which are emotion-focused and include aspects like avoidance and distancing.

In summary, in the stressor-outcome relationship where the situation is controllable, problem-focused coping will tend to have a positive influence on the outcome, whereas emotion-focused may not. In situations which are uncontrollable, however, emotion-focused coping will be used more and result in more positive outcomes than would the use of problem-focused coping in a similar situation.

## RACE:

Before the relevant literature is discussed, it is important to point out that much of the research on this topic was done before many of the dramatic changes took place in South Africa (i.e. pre-1994). This means that a lot of what I am going to report is out-dated, and therefore may be questionable. Nonetheless, while this may be taken as a limitation of the review, it should rather be seen as merely indicative of the majority of outdated research in the area.

*Please note*: throughout this dissertation, the word "black" will be used to represent all those people who are not white, in other words, the Africans, Coloureds, and Asians.

Much research has been conducted on the differences between white and non-white managers in South Africa. The research has shown that managers in South Africa, in addition to the stress directly related to the position they hold (i.e. managerial or executive stress), also have to contend with stressors which are unique to their racial grouping.

A large number of these studies, when comparing whites and non-whites, have reported, among other things, that non-white (particularly African) managers experience far greater levels of stress, lower self-esteem, far less job satisfaction and greater incidences of medical problems (Carthew,1992; Charoux,1990; Erwee,1988; Fuhr,1994; Human,1986; Makwana,1994; Quick et al.,1990). Many of these problems have been discussed in the context of affirmative action, showing how the utilisation and the mere existence of such a policy, results in dire consequences for those involved.

In its entirety, the affirmative action programme aims to overcome the legacy of the apartheid era. It will achieve this by allowing blacks the opportunity for economic upliftment which will in turn, lead to a whole set of advantages such as a breakdown of racial and gender barriers, a more skilled and enthusiastic workforce, economic

expansion and for the majority, a higher standard of living (Asmal,1992; Barker,1992; Coldwell, 1995).

Several problems relating to the impact of advancement programmes on employee well-being have been identified. The mere existence of an affirmative action programme, may serve to reinforce any negative perceptions and feelings which the general workforce may have. Perceptions such as, that blacks are not capable of fulfilling certain positions, that blacks and women are not really qualified enough for the job, and that they would not have the position they are in, were it not for an affirmative action programme, are all possible examples (Asmal,1992; Charoux and Moerdyk,1997; Coldwell,1995; Fuhr, 1994). This is known as the problem of tokenism, where many black people, as well as whites, feel that because of affirmative action, blacks are being hired not based on their competency but on their skin colour (Dickens Jr. and Dickens,1991; Fuhr, 1994). These expectancies, or perceptions which may exist in the workplace, could have a direct effect on the recipients of such a programme. Research has shown, that low expectations can lead to performance deficits, such as low performance levels, which can in turn lead to low self esteem, a low evaluation of the job, and a low level of job satisfaction (Carthew, 1992; Coldwell,1995; Human,1986; Jussim,1986; Quick et al,1990).

Probably one of the most stressful and well-documented work stressors in relation to possible racial differences, is that of marginality. It is a "serious and motivation-sapping problem, which can lead to ... a great deal of stress." (Human,1991, p223). The black manager tends to occupy a marginal or schizophrenic (Human,1991a) position in the organisation in which he/she works. This means that he/she is torn between his/her allegiance to the organisation (thought of as white owned) and his/her allegiance to the black community (Charoux,1990; Human,1991). The "white" organisation regards the black manager as a success, as someone who has made it in the corporate world, while at

the same time, by many black people and his/her black community, he/she is regarded as a "sell-out", someone who has joined the "other side" (Charoux, 1990; Erwee,1988; Human,1991; Strumpfer,1986). To the black manager, the community plays an important role in his/her life. Many black people place a high value on "ubuntu", and it is this unique value which governs their relations with other people, and which also emphasises the importance of being part of a community (Erwee,1988). The black manager is therefore caught in the middle with his/her divided loyalties, not sure where he/she stands (Human,1991b; Strumpfer,1986). This marginal person is subjected to a very high level of both role conflict and role ambiguity (aspects of stress), which impacts negatively on, among other things, his/her level of job satisfaction, self-esteem and general health (Bernath,1978; Charoux,1986; Erwee, 1988).

Lynne Duke, in an article which appeared in the Business Report, speaks about the issue of "white fears". She says that the rapid advancement of a small (but growing) middle class and elite, have all seemed to add further fuel to the fears of the white people (Duke, 1996). These white managers are not only fearing losing their jobs, but also that their performance on the job is not good enough to avoid replacement. Everyone in the workplace has come across or at least heard of the new breed of "job-hoppers". These people, who are skilled and educated despite all the odds against them, are in great demand in the working world (ibid.). It is people like these who white managers fear the most, people who are more than capable of replacing them, as well as having the added advantage of being non-white. This constant fear of being replaced, is one of the potential stressors that white managers face.

A stressor, known as the "backlash effect", must also be considered. Basically, the backlash effect refers to the responses of people to the perception that they may have lost a structural advantage (Mason,1995). In relation to this study, the white managers may feel that they have lost their Apartheid imposed structural advantage. Furthermore, the

white managers may feel that black managers are being given an unfair advantage in the marketplace (Dickens Jr. and Dickens,1991). This, of course, is not the case, and this common misconception about affirmative action needs to be sorted out. In reality, affirmative action only exists as a way to level the playing fields, and to give previously disadvantaged people, who have the potential, a chance to enter and succeed in the workplace. With the correct education and training, this potential stressor for whites may no longer be a factor.

It should be noted once again, that much of these reported findings may be somewhat questionable. For example, the black manager may no longer suffer due to marginality, nor may he/she have to contend with the brunt of affirmative action policies. Also, white managers, now that affirmative action is an accepted policy, may experience less stress and even may start to see the benefits attached. These examples are merely possible suggestions explaining how the pre-1994 research could be out-dated. What is clear, however, is that simply surmising on the possible changes is not good enough, concrete evidence is needed. As the research situation stands at present, not only does this mean limited relevance, but it also means that current up-to-date research on the differences between white and non-white managers in South Africa (if there even are any), needs to be conducted almost immediately.

# Outcomes:

The length of this section on the possible outcomes of stress is, in quantity, shorter than the previous one on moderators. The reason for this, is not a lack of information nor a superficially covered section, but rather a situation where repetition was eliminated. Instead of repeating already covered information, and running the risk of boring the reader, only new, relevant and previously not mentioned information was included in this section.

## JOB SATISFACTION:

The term job satisfaction refers to the worker's evaluation of his/her job as a whole, or of the general quality of life at work (Sundstrom and Sundstrom,1986). Job satisfaction should, therefore, be viewed as a work attitude which reflects the degree to which a person experiences satisfaction with the intrinsic and extrinsic features of the job (Warr, Cook and Wall,1979). There are many factors which can influence the relationship between the individual and his/her evaluation of the job, i.e. the individual's level of job satisfaction. These include, the work itself, an individual's sense of responsibility, the chance for advancement, pay, the physical environment, relations with co-workers, the degree of supervision, job security and company policies (Sundstrom and Sundstrom, 1986). None, all, or some of these factors, may impact on an individual and determine, to a large extent, his/her satisfaction with the job. Furthermore, the consistency and strength with which these factors occur, will also determine job satisfaction to some extent.

Colin Mackay and Tom Cox (1978), in a chapter entitled "Stress at work", speak about a person-environment (P-E) fit, which involves two separate kinds of fit. The first kind basically refers to the extent to which a person's skills and abilities match or fit the demands and requirements of the job, as well as the environment in which the job

functions. The second fit they speak about concerns the extent to which a person's needs and values are fulfilled by the environment, and also looks at whether a person's desire to use his/her skills and abilities is being met. The underlying assumption of this theory, is that whenever a "poor fit" of either kind occurs, an increase in anxiety and depression, as well as low job satisfaction may result (cited in Gutek, Repetti and Silver,1989).

Locke (1976) states that if a person's needs are fulfilled in a way that is not in conflict with his/her values, then feelings of satisfaction will result. If, however, a person feels his/her values are being violated, or if they are not fulfilled at all, then this will lead to feelings of dissatisfaction, which in turn, will increase the feeling of stress (cited in Locke, 1983).

Much research has been conducted on job satisfaction, its affect on other variables, and it's role as a consequence (outcome) of the stress-outcome relationship. Specifically, stress has been found to be negatively related to overall job satisfaction, meaning the greater the stress the lower the level of job satisfaction (Cooper and Cartwright,1994; Fox et al.,1993; Hendrix et al.,1995; Ivancevich and Matteson,1990; Nunns and Adamson, 1991; Quick and Quick,1984; Srinivas,1993). Following on, the lower the job satisfaction (or the greater the job dissatisfaction), the less effective, productive, motivated and committed the individual tends to be (Cooper and Cartwright,1994; Hendrix et al.,1995; Ivancevich and Matteson,1990; Pinder,1984).

Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek and Rosenthal (1964) when reporting the results of their study, noted that individuals who experienced more role conflict tended to experience lowered feelings of job satisfaction.

With regards to coping strategy, research has shown that the individual's choice of a coping strategy may influence his/her ultimate level of job satisfaction (Fang and Baba,

1993; Fox et al.,1993; Hendrix et al.,1995). For example, the use of active coping strategies (problem-focused coping) has been found to result in greater feelings of job satisfaction, while the use of avoidance coping strategies (emotion-focused coping) has not been found to increase feelings of job satisfaction, and may even lower it (Koeske, Kirk and Koeske,1993; Puffer and Brakefield,1989).

The influence of coping style and the other moderators on job satisfaction, as well as how job satisfaction is affected in the stress-outcome relationship, will all be looked at in the present study.

## PROPENSITY TO LEAVE:

Propensity to leave an organisation refers to the voluntary separation of an individual from an organisation (Fang and Baba,1993; Rosin and Korabik,1995). In most of the research, stress has been found to be positively related to propensity to leave (or intention to quit) ( Summers, DeCotiis, DeNisi,1995; Hendrix, Ovalle, Troxler,1985; Hendrix, Summers, Leap and Steel,1995; Quick and Quick,1984). This relationship is consistent with Selye's (1974) 'fight or flight' reaction to stress and shows that the greater the perceived stress, the greater the chance that the individual will leave the organisation (Summers et al.,1995). More specifically, role conflict and role ambiguity, for example, could increase the stress of the individual and in turn increase their propensity to leave. Furthermore, work overload or a perceived lack of organisational support, could also increase an individual's stress level and therefore result in a greater propensity to leave.

The use of an active or problem-focused coping strategy has been found to greatly reduce the individual's intention to leave as their use helps individuals to deal effectively with the demands placed upon them (Frone et al.,1995; Puffer and Brakefield,1989; Steptoe, 1991).

With regards to personality, Type A individuals have less of a propensity to leave the organisation, while Type B individuals tend towards a greater propensity to leave (Ganster, Schaubroek, Simet, Mayes,1991).

An inverse relationship exists between job satisfaction and propensity to leave, as the greater the individuals satisfaction with his/her job, the less likely he/she is to leave (Gutek et al.,1989; Hendrix et al.,1985; 1995; Salvo, Lubbers, Rossit, Lewis,1995).

With regards to the influence of race on propensity to leave, the research is somewhat inconsistent. What has largely been found, however is that black and non-white managers have a higher propensity to leave the organisation than white managers (Ivancevich, Matteson, Freedman and Phillips,1990; Human,1986; Fuhr,1994; Quick et al.,1990).

All the relationships with propensity to leave as mentioned above, i.e. with stress, job satisfaction, coping and race, as well as others discussed throughout the literature review, will be measured in the present study.

## SELF - ESTEEM:

Self-esteem , despite its common usage by both lay and professional people, is a vague concept that has no universal definition (Rudick,1981). This is probably due to the fact that it is a subjective experience which makes it difficult to operationalise and measure (Robinson and Shaver,1973). Nevertheless, Coopersmith (1981) has formulated a definition by viewing self-esteem as "a set of attitudes and beliefs which undergird (sic) expectations of success, acceptance and personal strength" (cited in Lall, Jain and Johnson, 1996, p1136).

Tafarodi and Swann Jr.(1995) have offered two dimensions to self-esteem, which jointly constitute "global self-esteem". These two dimensions, self-liking and self-competence,

should be viewed as distinct, although highly correlated parts (ibid.). Self-liking can be described as the more social or "outer dimension" of self-esteem (Hendrix et al., 1995). An individual's self-liking is based on other people's appraisals of that individuals self-worth. These appraisals are perceived as reflected in the actions of others towards the individual (Tafarodi and Swann Jr.,1995; 1996). Self-competence, however, can be described as the more autonomous or "inner" dimension of self-esteem (Hendrix et al., 1995). It is defined as the "generalised sense of efficacy that reflects the chronic level of correspondence between personal intentions and the outcomes of actions directed at realising those intentions" (Tafarodi and Swann Jr., 1996, p53). A sense of self-competence can also be defined as being derived from a personal history of successful goal directed behaviour (Hendrix et al.,1995; Tafarodi and Swann Jr., 1996).

While self-liking and self-competence must be viewed and understood as distinct aspects of self-esteem, it is also important to expect a high degree of interdependence (Tafarodi and Swann Jr., 1996). Some reasons for this interdependence could include, that a person's self-liking corresponds to how others gauge that person's competence, and likewise, demonstrated competence tends to elicit positive appraisals from others which foster a sense of self-liking (ibid.). Furthermore, high self-liking can promote confident goal seeking in social contexts. This is because those individuals who are high in self-liking tend to feel comfortable, confident, liked and accepted in social contexts, which would, in turn, give them an advantage in meeting social goals, thereby contributing to the development of their self-competence (Coopersmith, 1967; Tafarodi and Swann Jr., 1996).

While self-esteem may be viewed as a dependent variable subject to modification by salient experiences, Ganster and Schaubroeck (1995) point out that as adults, one's global self-esteem should generally be considered to be a stable disposition. It is this stable

disposition, which is regarded as affecting an individual's perceptions and responses to the external environment (Ganster and Schaubroeck, 1995).

Research has shown that self-esteem can act as both a moderator in the stress-outcome relationship, and can also be the result or outcome of stress (i.e. a consequence). Self-esteem has been found to be related to a variety of work outcomes, including job performance, occupational choice, motivation and job satisfaction (Fox, Dwyer and Ganster,1993; Ganster and Schaubroeck,1995; Hendrix et al.,1995; Ivancevich and Matteson,1990; Schaubroeck and Ganster,1991).

Self-esteem has been regarded as a critical element in mental health (Schaubroeck and Ganster,1991). The results from Rosenberg's (1965) study, for example, show moderate to strong correlations between self-esteem and physiological outcomes, such as pressures in the head, dizziness, anxiety and trembling hands (cited in Schaubroeck and Ganster, 1991).

Self-esteem has also been found to relate to the type of coping style employed by the individual. Those individuals who are suffering from low self-esteem, are more likely to adopt a passive (or emotion-focused) coping approach to work stressors, especially those involving the social environment (Ganster and Schaubroeck,1995). By not confronting the problems, the individual with low self-esteem might attempt to resolve the stress by simply working harder to meet everyone's expectations (ibid.). This means that the individual suffering from a low self-esteem will impose greater demands on him/herself which will ultimately result in experiencing greater amounts of stress (Ganster and Schaubroeck,1995).

## HEALTH:

One of the negative outcomes of stress, that pertaining to ill health, has been referred to and discussed throughout the literature review. As a result, so as not to become repetitive, only a few new and relevant points will be added in this section.

Among the potential consequences of stress, those classified as physiological are possibly the most controversial and organisationally dysfunctional (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1990). This is because, by saying that there is a link between stress and physical health problems, one is in effect saying that an emotional response is responsible for producing a physical change in an individual. This explanation is no longer so obscure when one considers that most medical textbooks attribute between 50% and 75% of illness to stress related origins (Brenner, 1978).

One of the most well researched and documented health related outcomes of stress, is coronary heart disease (CHD) (Rime, Ucros, Bestgen and Jeanjean,1989). While recent research has produced inconsistent findings, the large majority have found a positive relationship between stress and CHD, particularly when paired with a Type A Behaviour Pattern (TABP). Once again, however, the problem of a global measure of the TABP (as opposed to looking at its separate components), has resulted in inconsistent findings with regards to health. One of the research studies which looked at the components of Type A, found that the impatience irritability component was positively related to headaches, sleep, digestion and respiratory ailments (Spence et al.,1987). Burns and Bluen (1992) added to these findings by reporting that impatience irritability, anger, hostility and competitiveness were all positively related to physical health complaints.

With regards to job satisfaction, a negative correlation exists between job satisfaction and ill health, with poor health being associated with the frustration of not having a satisfying job (Ivancevich and Matteson,1990). More specifically, some of the more traditional

consequences which are ill health related, include obesity, smoking and high blood pressure (Ivancevich and Matteson,1990). Relating ill health to the workplace, individuals suffering from stress and stress-related disorders may have reduced problem-solving capabilities, may suffer from an inability to concentrate on the work at hand, and may result in increased absenteeism. In South Africa, Dr Mark Gillman, executive director of the South African Brain Research Institute, said being promoted to an authoritative position without years of preparation, as is often the case with affirmative action policies, could result in large amounts of stress and stress-linked health problems. These health problems could include hypertension, diabetes, and ulcers (cited in The Star, 1997).

Furthermore, on a more extreme level, some of the individuals who are affected by stress can become drug dependent, alcoholics, and in the more severe cases, may even commit suicide (Ivancevich and Matteson,1990).

While only health outcomes related to work stress have been covered, it is important to realise that a person's job and job-related aspects, are most definitely not the only causes of ill health. Other aspects, such as living conditions, financial situations, personality and the home work interface, could all heavily impact on a person and result in a greater incidence of ill health. The implications of this, are that when looking to reduce the occurrence of health-related disorders in the workplace, cognisance needs to be made of the other, more indirect influences existing outside of the organisation.

Following on, the negatively related aspects of health which occur as a result of perceived stress, have the potential to negatively affect the productivity and general functioning of an organisation (Burns and Bluen,1992; Ivancevich and Matteson,1990). As such, much attention needs to be paid to this outcome of stress, and ways in which it can be alleviated.

The hypotheses which have been formulated based on the research, now follows.

# Research Question and Hypotheses:

The main aim of this research is to see if stress manifests itself differently in different managers. These manifestations, which will be tested via the above variables, will be viewed both in conjunction with, and in the absence of the moderators. Please remember that the racial groups in the present study are divided up into two groups, "whites" (who represent all the white people of South Africa), and "blacks" (who represent all those people who are not white, i.e. the Asians, Blacks and Coloureds).

In formulating these hypotheses, some problems were encountered. Firstly, the research which has been conducted on black and white managers is quite old, and because of the many changes which have recently taken place in South Africa, the results may no longer be applicable. Secondly, in the past, personality was measured as a global construct, and so the research on personality is found to be both problematic and inconsistent. Recent developments in the field have chosen to rather examine the different dimensions of this complex construct, as is also the case in the present research. Based on this, part of the current research study on race and personality will have to take on an exploratory form. The following hypotheses are derived from the literature:

**STRESS:**

1a). An inverse relationship exists between stress and job satisfaction.

1b). An inverse relationship exists between stress and anger.

1c). An inverse relationship exists between stress and health.

**JOB SATISFACTION:**

2a). There is an inverse relationship between job satisfaction and propensity to leave.

2b). The achievement striving (AS) construct is positively related to job satisfaction.

2c). Impatience Irritability (II), hostility (H), anger (A) and competitiveness (COMP) are all negatively related to job satisfaction.

**RACE:**

3a). Black managers experience more stressors than white managers.

3b). Black managers experience lower self-esteem than white managers.

3c). Black managers have a higher propensity to leave than white managers.

3d). White managers are more satisfied in their jobs than black managers.

3e). White managers contain more aspects of Type A personality constructs than black managers.

3f). Black managers experience greater feelings of competitiveness (a personality construct) than white managers.

3g). White managers have better coping skills than black managers.

**PERSONALITY:**

4a). Type A personalities tend to experience more stress than their Type B counterparts.

4b). Type A personalities experience greater feelings of self- esteem than do Type B personalities.

4c). Type A personalities tend to make greater use of emotion-focused coping and less use of problem-focused coping when compared to Type B personalities.

4d). Type A personalities have a greater propensity to stay in the organisation than Type B personalities.

4e). Impatience irritability (II) and hostility (H) are positively related to physical complaints.

**COPING:**

5a). Managers using emotion-focused coping strategies tend to experience less stress, than those using problem-focused coping skills.

5b). Managers using emotion-focused coping strategies will experience greater job satisfaction.

5c). Managers using more problem-focused coping strategies will have a lower propensity to leave.

5d). Managers who have lower self-esteems tend to make greater use of emotion-focused coping strategies.

**GENDER:**

6a). Females tend to experience more stress than males.

6b). There are no differences in the self-esteem of males and females.

6c). Females tend to experience less job satisfaction than males.

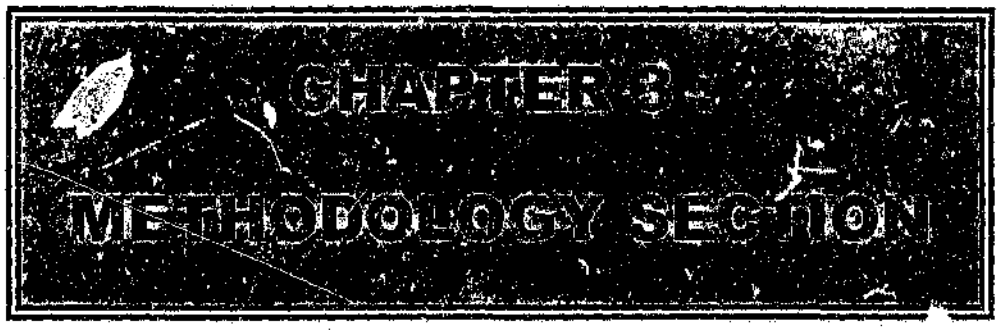
6d). Females have a greater propensity to leave than males.

6e). Males tend to have better health than females.

6f)i. Females tend to use more emotion-focused coping strategies than males.

ii. Males tend to use more problem-focused coping strategies than females.

6g). Males have more aspects of Type A personality traits than females.




*The chapter which follows starts off by discussing the research design, the setting of the research, the breakdown of the sample, and the procedure involved in the data collection. After this, it addresses and discusses the various methods which were used in the present study, by providing brief explanations on each of the quantitative measures which were used.*

*Following this, justification as well as explanations are given for the numerous statistical methods which were used in the present study.*

*A brief discussion on moderated multiple linear regressions and the content analysis which was used to analyse the qualitative data, is then presented.*

*This chapter concludes with a section on some pertinent issues relating to the methodology used in the present study.*

## Research Design:

The study adopted a non-experimental, cross-sectional, correlational design. On the one hand, a cross-sectional design only enables associations to be made, and does not allow causal inferences to be derived. On the other hand, however, correlations describe, using means such as observation and measurement, the relationship which exists between the variables (Shaughnessy and Zechmeister,1990). As a rule, correlational designs can be used as a way of describing and quantifying the degree of association between variables (Rosenthal and Rosnow,1991). An attempt will be made, therefore, to assess the relationship between the independent variable (stress) and the dependent variables (job satisfaction, propensity to leave, self-esteem and health). In addition to the quantitative research, qualitative research was obtained through the inclusion of an open-ended section. The potential influence of certain moderators (race, gender, personality, coping style, job pressure, and organisational support), was also tested in the present study.

## Research Setting and Sample:

The research was conducted in a large banking institution in and around the Gauteng region. Questionnaires were handed out to all the M - Level managers within the organisation. M - Level managers aim to achieve the best possible operational practice, and attempt to do this through the optimisation of resources. Briefly, their roles are to 1) optimise the resources and achieve the given objectives in the most productive and cost-effective way, 2) manage and convert the business systems so as to achieve best practice 3) manage the implementation and realisation of change, 4) reward behaviour that exemplifies the organisation's purpose and ethos, and 5) build close relationships with

clients and associates. For a complete description and explanation of the M - Level managers, as defined by this banking institution, please see Appendix D.

A list of all the M-Level managers within the entire organisation was generated, and personalised envelopes were then sent out to all the 946 managers via the internal mail system. A total of 292 questionnaires were returned, with two being unusable, thereby reducing the total sample to 290 managers, which represents a response rate of 30.66%. With regards to "Race", the final sample was divided up into only two groups, "Whites" or "Non-Whites". The reason for this, was that with the very small number of non-white managers in the sample (only 38 out of the total number of 946 managers), it was felt that to divide into even smaller groups consisting of only 1 or 2 people, would be rather pointless.

The final sample includes 275 (94.83%) whites, and 7 (2.41%) non-whites, of which 223 (76.90%) are male and 66 (22.76%) are female. According to the Breakwater Monitor study, considered to be the most authoritative in South Africa (Kobokoane,1996), as of the end of September 1996, management comprised of 89.64% whites and 10.36% non-whites (Kobokoane,1996). As can be seen, in the case of the present sample, non-whites only make up 2.41%, which is far below the considered norm for South Africa.
The ages of the sample range from 24 to 62, with 44 being the median, while tenure ranges from a few months to 38 years, with 14 as the median. The predominant language is Afrikaans (60%), and a matric level (54.83%) is the average highest education level amongst the managers. Most of the sample are married (84.14%), with 247 (85.17%) having children, of which 58 (20%) are less than five years of age. Full biographical details of the sample are presented in Table 1, on the following page.

TABLE 1: Biographical details of the sample

| AGE | MEAN = 43.50 yrs | SD = 8.57 yrs | RANGE = 24 - 62yrs |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | N | % |
| GENDER | Male | 223 | 76.90 |
| | Female | 66 | 22.76 |
| RACE | White | 275 | 94.83 |
| | Non-White | 7 | 2.41 |
| LANGUAGE | English | 104 | 35.86 |
| | Afrikaans | 174 | 60.00 |
| | Other | 11 | 3.79 |
| EDUCATION | Less than Matric | 9 | 3.10 |
| | Matric | 159 | 54.83 |
| | Degree | 42 | 14.48 |
| | Diploma | 49 | 16.90 |
| | Post-Graduate | 24 | 8.28 |
| | Other | 6 | 2.07 |
| MARITAL STATUS | Divorced / Separated | 23 | 7.93 |
| | Widowed | 0 | 0 |
| | Single | 21 | 7.24 |
| | Married | 244 | 84.14 |
| CHILDREN ? | Yes | 247 | 85.17 |
| | No | 42 | 14.48 |
| CHILDREN < THAN 5 | Yes | 58 | 20.00 |
| | No | 190 | 65.52 |
| TENURE | MEAN = 15.15 yrs | SD = 10.62 yrs | RANGE = A few months - 38 years |

## Procedure:

Self-report questionnaires were handed to a contact person within the organisation, who then distributed the personalised envelopes via the bank's internal mail system. Included in each envelope, was a covering letter explaining the study, a copy of the questionnaire, and a return envelope addressed with the name of the contact person. Participation was voluntary, and the managers were assured of complete confidentiality through the covering letters. The use of sealed envelopes which could be sent through internal mail, ensured respondents could remain anonymous, as well as ensuring that the entire process could be done with complete ease, and as time-efficiently as possible. The respondents were requested to return their completed questionnaires within two weeks, but as some mail arrived later than others, four weeks was chosen as the final cut-off date. See Appendix E for a copy of the questionnaire and the accompanying covering letter.

## Measuring Instruments:

The study was conducted by means of a questionnaire, which consisted of both quantitative and qualitative questions.

The covering letter which accompanied the questionnaire, detailed the aim of the study and assured respondents of both confidentiality and anonymity. The complete questionnaire pack was sub-divided into three sections, a biographical blank, a questionnaire measuring the independent and dependent variables, as well as the moderators, and one section consisting of open-ended questions. The biographical blank was included to elicit information such as the respondents age, gender, race, language, level of education, tenure, and marital status. The independent variable in this study was stress, with self-esteem, job satisfaction, propensity to leave, and ill health as the

outcomes, and race, gender, coping style, Type A personality, job pressure and organisational support as the moderators.

A brief description of these measuring instrumen[illegible] presented on the following pages.

## Independent Variable: Stress

Overall stress levels were measured using the **Job Stress Survey** (JSS). This instrument was adapted from the Police Stress Survey and the Teacher Stress Survey, and was designed to address the shortcomings that have been noted in existing measures of job stress (Spielberger,1994; Spielberger and Reheiser,1994; Turnage and Spielberger, 1991). The 30 JSS items describe a variety of potentially stressful aspects of managerial, professional and clerical jobs. Each JSS stressor is rated, on a scale of 1 to 9, in terms of the amount of stress associated with that stressor. Furthermore, the respondents are required to report the number of days, on a scale of 0 to 9+ days, that the stressor event occurred during the preceding six months (Turnage and Spielberger, 1991). The results obtained give the overall Severity and Frequency scores for the individuals, as well as an overall Job Stress Index, which is based on the sum of the cross-products of the Severity and Frequency scores. In each of these measures, the higher the score, the greater their perceived stress. For the overall stress measure, a possible range of 0 - 81 is given by the authors, whereby 40 and above falls into the higher percentile of stress, and below 40 falls in the lower percentile of stress. Similarly, with the frequency and severity of the total stress, ranges and average levels are specified by the authors. The possible range for frequency is 0 - 270, while the possible range for severity is 30 - 270. For both of these scores, the authors have specified that 150 is the average, meaning that those people whose score falls below 150 are less stressed than average, but those scores falling above 150 are considered more stressed than the standard average (Spielberger,1994; Spielberger and Reheiser,1994; Turnage and Spielberger,1991).

Included in this scale, are sub-scale measures of Job Pressure and Organisational Support. These sub-scales are to be included, in this study, as moderators of the stressor - outcome relationship. They both consist of 10 items, and were derived in factor analyses of the 30 JSS items (Spielberger and Reheiser, 1994). Once again, the higher the scores for each of these sub-scales, the greater the feelings of job pressure, and the greater the feelings of lack of organisational support.

The reported alpha coefficients for this scale with managers are all considered highly acceptable. The Severity score for male and female managers produced an alpha of 0.89 and 0.91 respectively, while the alpha for the Frequency score was 0.89 (Turnage and Spielberger, 1991). The overall Job Index score produced alphas of 0.87 and 0.88 for males and females (ibid.). While this scale has not yet been used in South Africa, an inspection of the 30 JSS items show that they are not culturally specific, and so should not pose any problems for the proposed sample. The high reliability and validity scores reported for the scale, as well as the wide range of components it measures, made this scale a necessary and valuable addition to the chosen battery of questionnaires.

## Dependent Variables:

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction was measured using the Warr, Cook and Wall(1979) **Job Satisfaction Scale**. It consists of 16 items, and measures a person's intrinsic, extrinsic and overall satisfaction level. Intrinsic satisfaction is measured using 7 items, extrinsic satisfaction using 8 items, and the one item remaining measuring overall job satisfaction (Warr et al., 1979). Respondents are required to rate their level of satisfaction (or dissatisfaction) on a 5-point scale, with higher scores representing higher job satisfaction. The reliability and validity of this scale has been established both internationally and in South Africa (Barling, Bluen and Fain, 1987; Bluen and Donald, 1991; Warr et al., 1979). Warr et al. (1979), report an alpha of 0.78, while in South Africa, Bluen and Donald (1991) report an

alpha of 0.87. Furthermore, Warr et al.(1979) report a correlation coefficient of 0.63 over a six month period, and Bluen and Jubiler-Lurie(1990) report a test-retest coefficient of 0.90 over a three month period, conducted on a South African sample. This scale was found to be worthy of inclusion in the present study, based on it's high validity and reliability scores, and it's common usage in South African situations.

Propensity to Leave

The managers' propensity to leave, was measured using the 3-item **Propensity to Leave Scale.** It was initially developed to determine the potential for turnover among nursing staff, but has since been adapted to determine such behaviour in broader organisational settings (Cook, Hepworth, Wall and Warr, 1981). The three items are measured using two different response formats. The first item "How long would you like to continue working in your present job?" is rated according to a six-point format, ranging from "one year" (1) to "more than ten years" (6), and a three-point response format, ranging from "No" (1), through "Not sure" (2) to "Yes" (3) is used to rate the remaining two items. The higher the obtained score, the lower the propensity to leave the organisation, conversely, the lower the score, the greater the propensity to leave (or quit) the organisation. These rating formats are consistent with those used by Bluen (1986). A Cronbach alpha of 0.71 was found by Rousseau (1978) when the test was applied to the organisational setting, and Bluen (1986) and Crous (1996), reported alphas of 0.72 and 0.75 respectively, when the test was applied to South African samples. This test, with its relatively high alpha coefficients, despite its limited amount of items, was found to be acceptable to be used in the present study.

Self - Esteem

Self-esteem was measured using the **Coopersmith Self-Esteem Scale.** This scale consists of 25 items, and adopts a self-rating form based on items from the Rogers and Dymond (1954) scale. The items are short statements and respondents are required to indicate, in a

"Yes" - "No" format, whether or not the statements apply to them. The responses are then marked against a scoring sheet of extreme self-esteem, and each time a match occurs, one point is given. The higher the respondents score, therefore, the higher their self-esteem. Although this scale was originally devised for use with children, it has been modified for use with all ages (Robinson and Shaver, 1973). Coopersmith(1967) reports test-retest reliability after one week to be 0.93, and after five months to be 0.88. Furthermore, after a three year period, the test-retest reliability was found to be 0.70 (Rudick,1981). The internal consistency of the scale was validated with coefficients of 0.71 and 0.73 (Wolman, 1991). The fact that this scale has been used in South Africa (Rudick, 1981; Wolman,1991), that there is evidence that this scale has been used in more than 150 studies, and that these studies show that it is valid for adults across the entire range of socio-economic and ethnic groups (Donaldson, 1974; Fullerton, 1972; Kimball,1972 and Strodtbeck,1972), provide enough evidence for this scale to be tool of choice to assess self-esteem in this study.

Ill Health

Headaches and general feelings of ill health were measured using the **Ill Health Scale,** developed by Spence, Helmreich and Pred (1987). The scale consists of 22 items which measure sleeping habits (6 items), headaches (5 items), respiratory problems (3 items), digestion problems (5 items), and general health (3 items). The scale is scored on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from "almost always" (1) to "almost never" (5). Respondents are requested to identify the extent to which they experience sleep disorders, headaches, respiratory problems, digestion problems and general health complaints by marking the appropriate number on the Likert scale. The scores are then added up for each scale. A higher score indicates better health, whereas a lower score indicates poorer health.

Barling and Charbonneau (1992) report acceptable Cronbach alphas for these sub-scales, ranging from 0.61 to 0.87, while Spence et al. (1987) report alphas of 0.82 and 0.83 for

the entire Ill Health Scale. Due to the successful application of this scale to various organisational settings in South Africa (Burns and Bluen,1992; Burns,1992; Norden,1992; Northam,1992), and it's acceptable reliability and validity, this scale was considered to be suitable for inclusion in the present study.

## Moderators:

Race and Gender

The **race** and **gender** moderators were measured by including a question in the biographical data sheet at the start of the questionnaires, which asked the respondent to specify his/her race, and his/her gender. As this is a common method which is employed, it has been included as the best possible method for these moderators.

Personality

The personality moderator was measured using the **Multidimensional Type A Behaviour Scale (MTABS).** Burns and Bluen (1992) developed an operationalised measure of components of Type A behaviour in order to address the existing inadequacies regarding such a measure. The underlying components and sub-scales of this measure include, achievement striving, impatience irritability, anger, hostility, and competitiveness. The achievement striving (AS) and impatience irritability (II) sub-scales are both measured using 5-point Likert scales, while anger and hostility are measured on 4-point scales and competitiveness on a 3-point scale. The scores for each of the sub-scales are then added together. The lower the composite score, the greater the tendency towards Type A behaviour. The opposite also applies, namely that the higher the composite score, the fewer Type A personality constructs the individual possesses and the greater the tendency towards the opposite end of the continuum (i.e. Type B behaviour).

All the sub-scales have reported acceptable alpha levels and all have been used in South Africa. AS has a test-retest reliability of 0.80, and a Cronbach alpha of 0.77 on a South

African sample, while II has a test-retest reliability of 0.83 and a Cronbach alpha of 0.81, obtained from a South African sample. The anger component of the scale has a test-retest reliability of 0.81 and a Cronbach alpha of 0.65 for South Africa (Burns and Bluen,1992; Northam,1992), and alphas of 0.81 and 0.87 when tested on university students (Spielberger et al.,1983). Burns and Bluen (1992) reported an acceptable test-retest reliability of 0.78 for the hostility component, and Malan (1989) and Burns and Bluen (1992) have successfully applied this scale to South African samples. Acceptable validity and reliability have been reported for the competitiveness scale. Cassidy and Lynn (1989) reported a Cronbach alpha of 0.71, and for South African samples, Northam (1992) reported an alpha of 0.66, and Burns and Bluen (1992) found the test-retest reliability to be 0.79. Due to the fact that this scale was developed to address previous inadequacies with measuring Type A behaviour, and also due to it being successfully applied in South Africa, this scale was deemed suitable for inclusion in this study.

Coping Style

The last moderator, coping style was measured using the revised 50-item **Ways of Coping Checklist** (Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis and Gruen, 1986). The scale was designed to assess the various cognitions and behaviours that individuals use to deal with internal and/or external demands in a stressful encounter (Folkman and Lazarus, 1985). It consists of 8 sub-scales. These include, Confrontive Coping (6 items), Distancing (6 items), Self - Control (7 items), Seeking Social Support (6 items), Accepting Responsibility (4 items), Escape - Avoidance (8 items), Planful Problem - Solving (6 items), and Positive Reappraisal (7 items). A 4-point Likert scale is used which ranges from "not used" (1) to "used a great deal" (4). This response format is appropriate as it allows the respondents to indicate the frequencies with which they use each coping strategy. The higher the score for each sub-scale, therefore, the greater the use that is made of that particular type of coping strategy.

The Cronbach alphas for these sub-scales range from 0.61 to 0.79, and are all above the suggested lowest alpha of 0,60 (Anastasi, 1988). While criticisms have been levelled at this scale for its weak alphas and test-retest reliability, one needs to realise that the authors of this scale designed it to identify the thoughts and actions an individual uses to cope with stressful encounters in everyday life (Hess,1992). Coping is defined as an evolving strategy rather than a coping disposition or style, and so the questionnaire measures "coping processes" and is not a "test" in the conventional sense. Based on this, the authors feel that traditional estimates are inappropriate, and as Conger (1992) reports, the Ways of Coping Checklist should be used as a "research measure" rather than as a "test". Despite these potential problems, this scale is still the most widely used inventory of coping responses (McCrae,1984). Furthermore, it has been used and verified for use in South Africa (Carter,1991). Based on the above, as well as the fact that it is developed by Lazarus and based on the Transactional definition of stress (which is the one which will be used in the present study), this scale was found to be suitable for inclusion.

The questionnaires which have been selected, were all chosen based on their good reliability and validity scores and the fact that all, except one, were tested and verified on South African samples.

## Content Analysis:

The last section of the questionnaire (see Appendix E) consisted of a set of open-ended questions. The first question in this section asked whether or not the respondent felt that he/she was stressed. If the answer was "Yes", the respondent was requested to answer four more questions, which enquired about the causes and consequences of their perceived stress, as well as how they think this stress affects their work, home and social lives. The actual process of the content analysis is discussed in much greater detail on pages 62 - 64.

# Statistical Analysis:

To analyse the data, Cronbach alphas, correlations, t-tests, anovas, moderated multiple linear regressions, and a content analysis were used. In the correlations, t-tests, Anovas and regressions, a value of 0.01 was used as the indicator of significance levels. The reason a cut-off point of 0.01 was chosen, was so that high significance due to sample size could be reduced. In some situations were the sample size is large, it is necessary to reduce the significance level so that practical significance, not simply high significance, is indicated. Due to the sample size of 290 in the present study, a significance level cut-off point of 0.01, was chosen as the most appropriate.

## CRONBACH'S COEFFICIENT ALPHA.

Cronbach's coefficient alpha was used to assess the internal reliability of all the measuring instruments. A Cronbach alpha of 0.60 is generally found to be an acceptable level (Anastasi,1988; Shaughnessy and Zechmeister,1990). More specifically, Robinson, Shaver and Wrightsman (1991) and Fischer and Corcoran (1994), state that coefficient alphas that fall into the range of 0.90 and above can be classified as excellent, those between 0.80 and 0.89 are good, those between 0.70 and 0.79 are fair, and alphas in the range of 0.60 - 0.69 are poor (cited in Cuellar, Arnold and Gonzalez,1995).

## KARL PEARSON'S PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATIONS.

Pearson correlations are used to quantitatively determine the magnitude and direction of a relationship between two variables (Neale and Liebert,1986). The term 'direction', merely shows us whether the correlation is positive or negative, it does not indicate any causality. The Pearson $r$ can assume values between -1.00 and +1.00. A value of 0.00 means that there is no linear relationship between the two variables being examined. A

value of +1.00 means that there is a perfect positive linear relationship between the variables, and a value of -1.00 means that there is a perfect negative linear relationship (Rosenthal and Rosnow,1991). The positive (and negative) relationship implies that as the scores on one variable increase, there are perfectly predictable increases (or decreases) in the scores on the other variable (ibid.). The higher the absolute value of r, the stronger the relation between the two variables (Neale and Liebert,1986). In this study, correlations were used in order to determine the validity of Hypotheses 1a - 1c (stress); 2a - 2c (job satisfaction); 4a - 4e (personality); and 5a - 5d (coping style). Please note, that the reason correlations and not either t-tests or anovas were conducted on personality and coping style, is that both of them are measured on a continuum. This means that the scales did not measure whether a person exhibited either a Type A or a Type B personality, but rather whether the person tended more towards the Type A or the Type B end of the continuum. The same situation applies for coping style, where a person is shown to have a greater tendency to use either a problem or an emotion focused coping style, but not one to the exclusion of the other. The fact that personality and coping style are viewed as existing on a continuum, therefore means that they were analysed through the use of correlations.

## T - TESTS.

T-tests are used to test the difference between the means of two independent groups. They allow one to determine that the observed difference between the means is not due to a sampling error (Shaughnessy and Zechmeister,1990). The t-value expresses the ratio of the observed difference between sample means, to a measure of the expected sampling variation in such differences (Neale and Liebert,1986).

As the t-test is a test of significance, it is made up two components: the size of the effect, and the size of the study. This can be written as:

Significant test = size of effect x size of study

More specifically, when the size of effect is indexed by r (the symbol for Pearson's r correlation), the general relationship above can be re-written as:

$$t = \frac{r}{1-r} \times \sqrt{df}$$ (where df = n - 2) (Rosenthal and Rosnow,1991).

T-tests were conducted on Hypotheses 3a - 3g (race) and 6a - 6g (gender), as well as on whether or not the managers had children (for the purposes of future research). In all these instances, the independent variables of race, gender, and the presence of children, were compared to Overall Stress and it's sub-scales, Self-Esteem, Job Satisfaction, Propensity to Leave, Ill Health and it's sub-scales, Problem and Emotion Focused Coping, and the MTABS and it's sub-scales.

## ANOVAS.

The t-test allows one to investigate the effect of one independent variable upon 2 samples of people, for example, the effect of stress on males and females. In many situations, however, this method is inappropriate as several independent variables or several different groups may be required to be tested. In such cases, an analysis of variance (an Anova) is required.

An Anova can essentially be regarded as an extension of the t-test (Wimmer and Dominick,1991). Basically, an Anova breaks down the total variability in a set of data into different sources of variables, and thereby explains these different variations (Murphy and Davidshofer,1994; Shaughnessy and Zechmeister,1990).

There are certain assumptions which have to be met in order to conduct Anovas. These include, 1) that each sample is normally distributed, 2) that the variances are equal for each group, 3) that the sample is randomly selected from the population, and 4) that the scores are statistically independent, i.e. that they have no relationship with any other

variable (Rosenthal and Rosnow,1991; Shaughnessy and Zechmeister,1990; Wimmer and Dominick,1991).

The F-ratio (F), the ratio of variance, is derived through using this statistical technique. The F is then compared to the value in the F-distribution table that corresponds to the appropriate degrees of freedom and the desired probability level. If the calculated value equals or exceeds the tabled value, then the Anova is considered to be statistically significant (Murphy and Davidshofer,1994; Shaughnessy and Zechmeister,1990; Wimmer and Dominick,1991).

In the present study, for the purposes of future research, an Anova comparison was conducted on those managers who had children less than 5 years of age (the dependent variable), and Overall Stress and it's sub-scales, Self-Esteem, Job Satisfaction, Propensity to Leave, Ill Health and it's sub-scales, Problem and Emotion Focused Coping, and the MTABS and it's sub-scales.

## MODERATED MULTIPLE LINEAR REGRESSIONS.

To test the theoretical model and the impact of the moderators, moderated multiple linear regressions (MMLR's) will be used. This will examine the moderator effects, as well as provide additional information about the main and interaction effects of the variables (Cohen,1978; Edwards, Baglioni and Cooper,1990).

There are three main aims of MMLR, these include, 1) to establish the contribution of the independent variable, 2) to establish the contribution of the moderator variable as an independent variable, and 3) to establish the contribution of the interaction term to the percentage of explained variance in the dependent variable (Baron and Kenny,1986).

The regression equation for the MMLR is

$$Y = B_1 x_i + B_2 z_i + B_3 x_i z_i + A ;$$

where, Y = the value of the dependent variable

B = the raw score regression coefficient (for $B_1$, $B_2$, $B_3$)

$x_i$ = the independent variable

$z_i$ = the moderator variable

$x_i z_i$ = the product of the independent variable and the moderator, which form the interaction term used to explain a percentage of variance in the dependent variable

A = the Y-intercept

(Cohen,1978).

In interpreting the results of this technique, the $R^2$ (or goodness-of-fit) is assessed. The $R^2$ represents the proportion of variation in the dependent variable, which is accounted for by the predictor variables (the IV's) (Wimmer and Dominick,1991). A change in $R^2$ therefore, shows the contribution of each predictor variable, for both the main and interaction effects (Cohen and Cohen,1975).

A review of the literature shows that much use has been made of the MMLR technique within the field of organisational stress (Abdel-Halim,1982; Baron and Kenny,1986; Edwards et al.,1990; Norden,1995; Winnubst,1982). Based on this, as well as on the proven success and reliability of this method (Baron and Kenny,1986; Edwards et al., 1990; Murphy and Davidshofer,1994), MMLR was found to be a suitable technique to use in the present study.

## CONTENT ANALYSIS.

Many definitions of content analysis have been offered in the literature. It can be viewed as a research technique "for the objective, systematic and quantitative description of the

manifest content of communication" (Holsti,1969, p3), or more generally, it can be defined as "any systematic procedure devised to examine the content of recorded information" (Walizer and Wienir,1978, cited in Wimmer and Dominick,1991, p157). Regardless of the definition used, there are certain characteristics that distinguish content analysis from the other types of research techniques available.

1) The content analysis must be systematic. This implies that the content to be analysed is selected according to consistently applied rules (Weber,1985; Wimmer and Dominick, 1991), which will prevent the analyst from partial or biased analyses in which the only elements of the content which are selected, are those which fit the analyst's aim (Berelson,1952).

2) The content analysis must be objective. The requirement of objectivity means that the personal idiosyncrasies and biases of the analyst should not enter into the findings (Wimmer and Dominick,1991). This implies that the categories of the analysis should be defined so precisely that if replicated by another researcher, the new analysis will produce the same results (Berelson,1952; Krippendorff,1980; Wimmer and Dominick,1991).

3) The content analysis must be quantitative. This is the single characteristic on which all the definitions seem to agree, and one that is probably the most distinctive feature of content analysis in that it distinguishes the procedure from ordinary reading (Berelson, 1952; Krippendorff,1980). Quantification helps the analyst to achieve his/her aim of the accurate representation of a body of messages, as well as helping him/her to achieve his/her quest for precision (Wimmer and Dominick, 1991). In addition, through the use of quantification, the analyst is better able to summarise and report the results, and is therefore aided in the interpretation and analysis (Holsti,1969; Wimmer and Dominick, 1991). Quantification is important in content analysis in that without some form of data reduction, there is too much information which will thus preclude an analysis (Weber, 1985). The key to content analysis and thus quantification, is to choose a strategy for data reduction that will yield interesting and theoretically useful generalisations, while reducing the amount of information addressed by the analyst (ibid.).

In general, a content analysis is conducted in several distinct steps. These steps, which are presented below, do not need to be followed in the given order, and some stages may even be combined. Briefly then, a content analysis should involve the following stages:

1. Formulate the research question or hypothesis
2. Define the population in question
3. Select an appropriate sample from the population
4. Select and define a unit of analysis
5. Construct the categories of content to be analysed
6. Establish a quantification system
7. Code the content according to established definitions
8. Analyse the collected data
9. Draw conclusions and search for indications (adapted from Wimmer and Dominick, 1991, p161).

In the present study, these formal stages were adapted to suit the purposes and limited means of the present study. The first step, formulating the research question or hypotheses for the content analysis, was followed. After which, the next 3 steps (stages 2, 3, and 4), were covered. From then on, the rest of the formal stages (stages 5 - 9) were followed in more or less the same order that is given above. The specific categories, as well as the definitions which were established, are covered in-depth in the Results section (Chapter 4). Following that, stages 8 and 9, which involve the analysis and conclusions drawn, will be covered in the resultant Discussion section (Chapter 5).

As the aim of the content analysis in the present study was to reduce the amount of analysable data obtained from the results of the open-ended questions, as well as to allow for conclusions and inferences to be drawn, it was considered to be an appropriate method to use.

# Points of Interest in the Methodology Section:

Having read the outline of the methodology which was used in the present study, it should be clear that one of the frequent problems of research, namely monomethod bias, was adequately addressed. The evidence for this, is that both quantitative and qualitative data was collected for use in the study. The following paragraphs should help to explain this more thoroughly.

The present study made use of qualitative data which served to add to the reliability of the findings from the quantitative data, by allowing for subjective explanations. At the end of the section containing quantitative measures, a section was added which included open-ended questions as well as a space asking for any general comments. This meant that the respondents were given a chance to explain their answers or at least provide insight into them. For example, through the comments, I was told, amongst other things, that there were major personal upheavals in many of the respondents lives, and also that the organisation appeared to adopt a largely authoritative and bureaucratic leadership style. All these comments, in addition to providing a forum for the respondents to air their opinions and provide additional information, also helped to add insight into some of the answers which were given in the quantitative section.
Monomethod bias, therefore, is when bias or skewness occurs in the results because only one method has been used. As was shown, in the present study, this monomethod bias was avoided by including a section consisting of open-ended questions.

Related to this, is the issue of methodological triangulation. This is where use is made of two or more methods of data collection procedures within a single study (Leedy,1993). In the present study, use was made of questionnaires (a quantitative method) as well as open

# CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

*The following section includes a report back of all the results obtained from the statistical analyses which were conducted. Tables and Figures are included where necessary, and these are only briefly explained - merely writing out what the results show. The full discussion and implications of all these results are contained in Chapter 5.*

*As will soon be seen, the results of the present study are largely consistent with the literature and the previous research conducted on the specific topics, and therefore, lay the groundwork for an interesting discussion section.*

# Reliability:

The internal and temporal consistency of the variables used in the present study were tested. The scales as well as their sub-scales for all the variables were tested.

The results for the stress scale are presented below in Table 2, and as can be seen, prove to be highly satisfactory. The reported alpha coefficient of the Job Stress Survey (JSS) was 0.92, and its two main sub-scales, Total Frequency and Total Severity of the stress, reported alphas of 0.91 and 0.93 respectively. Further sub-scales within the JSS, are Job Pressure and Lack of Support, which in turn, must be further divided up into the frequency and severity scores of each sub-scale. The reported alpha coefficients for the the Job Pressure scale are 0.83 for frequency and 0.86 for severity. The alpha coefficients for the Lack of Support Scale are 0.81 for frequency and 0.84 for severity.

TABLE 2: A table showing the internal consistency of the Job Stress Survey and its sub-scales.

| Measuring Instruments | No. of items | N | Mean | SD | alpha |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Overall stress** | 30 | 284 | 761.49 | 381.02 | 0.92 |
| **Total Frequency** | 30 | 287 | 136.87 | 46.04 | 0.91 |
| **Total Severity** | 30 | 285 | 130.78 | 43.11 | 0.93 |
| **Job Pressure (F)** | 10 | 2[illegible] | 50.06 | 18.05 | 0.83 |
| **Job Pressure (S)** | 10 | 286 | 47.02 | 16.56 | 0.86 |
| **Lack of Support (F)** | 10 | 289 | 42.67 | 18.20 | 0.81 |
| **Lack of Support (S)** | 10 | 288 | 45.24 | 16.995 | 0.84 |

where F = Frequency; S = Severity

The alpha coefficient of the Coopersmith Self - Esteem Scale was a satisfactory 0.75, while the alpha of the Job Satisfaction scale was found to be highly satisfactory at 0.87. The alpha coefficient of the Propensity to Leave scale was 0.55, which is slightly lower than the suggested minimum of 0.60. The low reliability of this scale, puts any analyses conducted with propensity to leave into question. This will be expanded upon in the relevant areas throughout the discussion section. These results can be seen below in Table 3.

TABLE 3: A table showing the internal consistency of the Self-Esteem, Job Satisfaction and Propensity to Leave scales.

| Measuring Instruments | No. of items | N | Mean | SD | alpha |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Self-Esteem** | 25 | 275 | 20.52 | 3.63 | 0.75 |
| **Job Satisfaction** | 16 | 287 | 56.48 | 9.09 | 0.87 |
| **Propensity to Leave** | 3 | 286 | 7.95 | 2.51 | 0.55 |

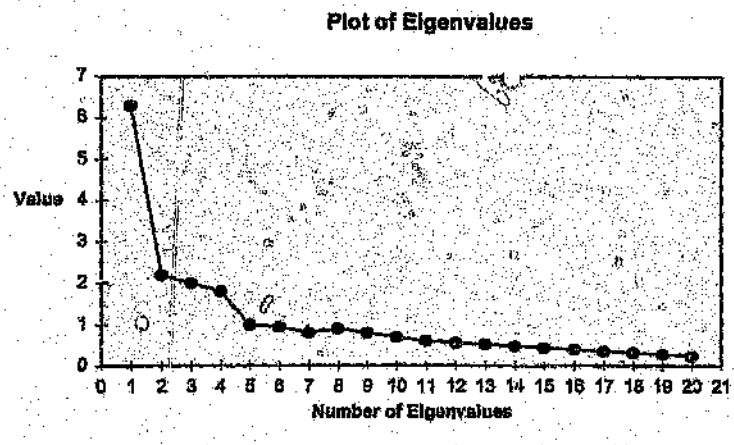
The Ill Health Scale consists of a total score as well as 5 sub-scales. Overall the alpha coefficients were satisfactory, with 2 causing concerns. The sub-scales include Sleep Habits, with a reported alpha of 0.81; Headaches, with an alpha of 0.85; Respiratory, with an alpha of 0.55; Digestion, with an alpha of 0.83; and Other, with an alpha of 0.38. The alpha coefficient for the scale as a whole was a satisfactory 0.87. These results can be seen on the following page in Table 4.

TABLE 4: A table showing the internal consistency of the Ill Health Scale and all it's sub-scales.

| Measuring Instruments | No. of items | N | Mean | SD | alpha |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Ill Health Scale** | 22 | 280 | 84.23 | 12.37 | 0.87 |
| **Sleep Habits** | 6 | 287 | 21.50 | 4.63 | 0.81 |
| **Headaches** | 5 | 289 | 18.59 | 4.76 | 0.856 |
| **Respiratory** | 3 | 286 | 10.05 | 2.67 | 0.55 |
| **Digestion** | 5 | 287 | 20.83 | 3.75 | 0.83 |
| **Other** | 3 | 289 | 13.25 | 1.86 | 0.38 |

Based on some of the poor findings from the Cronbach alphas, particularly those for "Respiratory" and "Other", a decision was made to conduct an exploratory factor analysis on the items of the Ill Health Scale. The reason for this, was so that I could check if the division of this scale into 5 sub-scales was indeed the correct one. The scree plot, see Figure 2 below, showed that 3, possibly 4 factors could explain most of the variance.

FIGURE 2: A scree plot of the Ill Health Scale



Eigenvalues were obtained from the computer on the 5 sub-scales, in order to see the total variance explained by each scale. The results, as can be seen in Table 5, show that each variable contributes satisfactorily to the overall variance explained, with the last variable ("Other"), contributing 4.69% to the total. Based on these findings, the last variable, if any, could be unnecessary, and should maybe be excluded, therefore reducing the number of sub-scales investigated in this study, to 4.

TABLE 5: Eigenvalues

| Value | Eigenvalue | % Total Variance | Cumul. Eigenvalue | Cumul. % |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 6.177390 | 28.08 | 6.17739 | 28.08 |
| 2 | 2.192273 | 9.96 | 8.36966 | 38.04 |
| 3 | 1.987497 | 9.03 | 10.35716 | 47.08 |
| 4 | 1.847634 | 8.40 | 12.20479 | 55.48 |
| 5 | 1.032125 | 4.69 | 13.23692 | 60.17 |

In order to test whether the 5th variable needed to be excluded, correlations between all 5 sub-scales were conducted. The reasoning is that if there are high correlations, then there is a lot of similarity in what is being measured (there is overlapping). Taken further, this means that the 2 variables are measuring the same or a similar thing, and that one is, therefore, unnecessary. These correlations can be seen below in Table 6.

TABLE 6: Correlations between oblique factors

| Factors | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | | | | | |
| 2 | 0.345304 | | | | |
| 3 | 0.361527 | 0.363289 | | | |
| 4 | 0.341947 | 0.249749 | 0.352406 | | |
| 5 | 0.463722 | 0.465871 | 0.316188 | 0.364445 | |

where $p < 0.05$

Based on these insignificant results, one can see that there are no high correlations, and so there is no overlapping. This means that the authors of the Ill Health Scale were correct in their division of the scale into 5 sub-scales. Having shown this, the present study will look at the 5 sub-scales of the Ill Health Scale, akin to what was proposed by the authors.

The Ways of Coping Checklist, consists of 8 sub-scales, which produced alpha coefficients of varying satisfactory degrees. The sub-scales include, Accepting Responsibility which was found to have an alpha of 0.58; Escape - Avoidance with an alpha of 0.67; Planful Problem - Solving with an alpha of 0.68; Positive Reappraisal with an alpha of 0.75; Seeking Social Support with an alpha of 0.70; Confrontive Coping with an alpha of 0.59; Distancing with an alpha of 0.55; and Self-Control with an alpha of 0.48. This scale is also further divided up into 2 sub-scales, Problem Focused Coping and Emotion Focused Coping. The alphas for these two sub-scales were far more satisfactory, with the alpha coefficient for Problem Focused Coping being 0.80, and for Emotion Focused Coping being 0.84. The alpha coefficients for the 8 and 2 sub-scales, can be seen on the following page in Table 7.

TABLE 7: A table showing the internal consistency of the Ways of Coping Checklist.

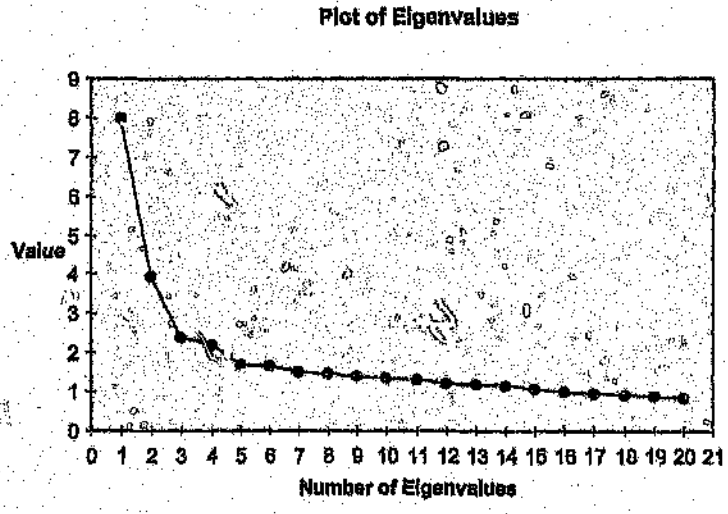
| Measuring Instruments | No. of Items | N | Mean | SD | alpha |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Accepting Responsibility** | 4 | 288 | 9.80 | 2.22 | 0.58 |
| **Escape-Avoidance** | 8 | 282 | 12.29 | 3.17 | 0.67 |
| **Planful Problem-Solving** | 6 | 287 | 17.61 | 2.85 | 0.68 |
| **Positive Reappraisal** | 7 | 282 | 18.94 | 3.80 | 0.75 |
| **Seeking Social Support** | 6 | 286 | 14.73 | 3.11 | 0.70 |
| **Confrontive Coping** | 6 | 288 | 13.10 | 2.67 | 0.59 |
| **Distancing** | 6 | 285 | 12.90 | 2.65 | 0.55 |
| **Self-Control** | 7 | 285 | 17.77 | 2.98 | 0.48 |
| **Problem-Focused Coping** | 18 | 283 | 45.44 | 6.76 | 0.80 |
| **Emotion Focused Coping** | 38 | 267 | 86.43 | 11.75 | 0.84 |

With the relatively poor coefficient alphas of the 8 sub-scales, a factor analysis was deemed in order. However, with the satisfactory alphas (both above 0.8) of the 2 sub-scales of Problem and Emotion Focused Coping, as well as consulting the scree plot of the scale (see Figure 3), a decision was made to only use the 2 sub-scales in future

analyses, and to ignore the 8 sub-scales, which only provided minimal and unacceptable internal reliabilities.

Surprisingly enough, many of the research studies which made use of the Ways of Coping Checklist used all 8 sub-scales, as well as the 2. Nevertheless, the fact that the authors of this scale acknowledged potential problems by showing factor analyses which divided the scale up into only 2 sub-scales, serves to defend the position the present author has adopted in the current study - the decision to only use the 2 sub-scales, and to ignore the 8 sub-scales which exhibited poor reliabilities.

FIGURE 3: A scree plot of the Ways of Coping Checklist




The coefficient alphas of the Multidimensional Type A Behaviour Scale (MTABS), as well as its 5 sub-scales, all proved to be satisfactory. In the sub-scales, Impatience Irritability produced an alpha of 0.71; Achievement Striving an alpha of 0.80; Hostility an alpha of 0.76; Anger an alpha of 0.71; and Competitiveness an alpha of 0.75. The alpha coefficient of the total MTABS was found to be an acceptable 0.72. All these results can be seen in Table 8.

TABLE 8: A table showing the internal consistency of the MTABS and it's sub-scales.

| Measuring Instrument | No. of items | N | Mean | SD | alpha |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Impatience Irritability** | 5 | 288 | 14.07 | 3.54 | 0.71 |
| **Achievement Striving** | 6 | 286 | 11.57 | 3.61 | 0.80 |
| **Hostility** | 5 | 289 | 14.78 | 2.67 | 0.76 |
| **Anger** | 4 | 286 | 9.44 | 2.56 | 0.71 |
| **Competitiveness** | 4 | 289 | 8.23 | 2.69 | 0.75 |
| **Type A Personality Score** | 24 | 278 | 58.08 | 7.77 | 0.72 |

# Mean Scores:

In order to place the results in their correct context, it is necessary to look at the average scores obtained for this particular sample. The biographical data is also important, but was discussed in a previous section and so will not be repeated here.

Based on the range and average scores which were presented in the methodology section, one can see, that overall, the members of this organisation are not particularly stressed, with their mean score of 25.34 falling in the lower half of the possible spread of perceived stress, where 0 is not stressed at all, and 81 is the highest possible stress score. Much the same pattern was found with both the Frequency (Mean = 136.73) and Severity (Mean = 130.60) of Total Stress - both scores falling in the lower half of the range, below the average stress score of 150. The mean scores for Frequency and Severity of Job Pressure (Mean = 55.34 and Mean = 45.73, respectively) and Frequency and Severity of Lack of Organisational Support (Mean = 42.67 and Mean = 45.27, respectively), all fall

closely around the average score of 50, with Frequency of Job Pressure falling slightly above the average. It is important to realise, that the comparisons which were made above, were made according to scores obtained from the authors of the Job Stress Survey, as well as from other researchers who used this scale.

The mean score for Self - Esteem is 20.56 which is close to the perfect score (25) of feelings of high self- esteem.

The average manager's satisfaction with his/her job is relatively high, tending towards highly satisfied. The mean for this sample is 56.47, with the score for the greatest amount of job satisfaction being 80.

The highest possible obtainable score in the Propensity to Leave scale is 12, with a higher score meaning a low intention or propensity to leave the organisation. In this sample the mean score is just below 8 (7.95 to be exact), which indicates quite a low desire to leave the organisation. Table 9 below contains all the discussed mean scores, as well as the median, minimum and maximum scores, and standard deviation.

TABLE 9: Descriptive statistics for the Stress, Self - Esteem, Job Satisfaction and Propensity to Leave scales

| Variable | N | Mean | Median | Minimum | Maximum | SD |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Overall Stress** | 284 | 25.34 | 23.95 | 1.43 | 56.67 | 12.79 |
| **Total Frequency** | 287 | 136.73 | 138.00 | 17.00 | 253.00 | 46.22 |
| **Total Severity** | 285 | 130.60 | 130.00 | 22.00 | 227.00 | 43.42 |
| **Job Pressure (F)** | 288 | 55.34 | 57.00 | 5.00 | 90.00 | 19.35 |
| **Job Pressure (S)** | 286 | 45.73 | 46.00 | 5.00 | 89.00 | 16.66 |
| **Lack of Support (F)** | 289 | 42.67 | 42.00 | 1.00 | 87.00 | 18.23 |
| **Lack of Support (S)** | 288 | 45.27 | 45.00 | 10.00 | 87.00 | 17.04 |
| **Self-Esteem** | 275 | 20.56 | 21.00 | 6.00 | 25.00 | 3.50 |
| **Job Satisfaction** | 287 | 56.47 | 58.00 | 29.00 | 80.00 | 9.13 |
| **Propensity to Leave** | 286 | 7.95 | 8.00 | 3.00 | 12.00 | 2.51 |

where F = Frequency; S = Severity

For the Ill Health Scale, the higher the score, the better the health of the respondents. Based on this, the overall health of the sample appears to be very good, with the overall mean being 84.35 (with a possible high of 110). The mean scores for he 5 sub-scales were also all above average and close to the best possible scores. The full set of means, medians, the range and standard deviations can be seen in Table 10 below.

TABLE 10: Descriptive statistics for the Ill Health Scale and it's sub-scales

| Variable | N | Mean | Median | Minimum | Maximum | SD |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Sleep Habits** | 287 | 21.55 | 22.00 | 7.00 | 30.00 | 4.62 |
| **Headaches** | 289 | 18.58 | 19.00 | 5.00 | 25.00 | 4.77 |
| **Respiratory** | 286 | 10.02 | 10.00 | 3.00 | 15.00 | 2.68 |
| **Digestion** | 287 | 20.83 | 22.00 | 7.00 | 25.00 | 3.77 |
| **Other** | 289 | 13.25 | 14.00 | 5.00 | 15.00 | 1.87 |
| **Ill Health Scale** | 280 | 84.35 | 85.00 | 48.00 | 109.00 | 12.31 |

The scores obtained from the Ways of Coping Checklist (WCC) indicate the extent to which the various coping strategies are employed. In this sample, there was a pretty even spread of usage of the different coping styles, with a slight tendency towards Self-Control and Positive Reappraisal, and Escape-Avoidance being slightly less favoured. Problem Focused Coping and Emotion Focused Coping both fared well, with Emotion Focused Coping perhaps being the slightly more favoured style. All these results can be seen in Table 11 on the following page.

TABLE 11: Descriptive Statistics for the Ways of Coping Checklist

| Variable | N | Mean | Median | Minimum | Maximum | SD |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Accepting Responsibility** | 288 | 9.7986 | 10.0000 | 4.00000 | 16.0000 | 2.22460 |
| **Escape-Avoidance** | 282 | 12.3475 | 12.0000 | 8.00000 | 24.0000 | 3.19583 |
| **Planful Problem-Solving** | 287 | 17.6202 | 18.0000 | 9.00000 | 24.0000 | 2.85525 |
| **Positive Reappraisal** | 282 | 18.9007 | 19.0000 | 9.00000 | 28.0000 | 3.81849 |
| **Seeking Social Support** | 286 | 14.7343 | 15.0000 | 7.00000 | 24.0000 | 3.13431 |
| **Confrontive Coping** | 288 | 13.1111 | 13.0000 | 7.00000 | 23.0000 | 2.67421 |
| **Distancing** | 285 | 12.8982 | 13.0000 | 6.00000 | 21.0000 | 2.66435 |
| **Self-Control** | 285 | 17.7439 | 17.0000 | 11.00000 | 28.0000 | 2.99313 |
| **Problem Focused Coping** | 283 | 45.47 | 46.00 | 27.00 | 66.00 | 6.79 |
| **Emotion Focused Coping** | 267 | 94.34 | 94.00 | 66.00 | 132.00 | 10.80 |

The results from the Multidimensional Type A Behaviour Scale (MTABS) and it's sub-scales, show that except for the Achievement Striving (AS) construct, this sample of managers have a tendency away from Type A behaviour and more towards those behaviours which exist at the opposite end of the continuum. Their score for the AS

construct was only slightly lower than the middle point on the continuum, where the lower the score, the greater the tendency towards Type A behaviour. The full set of means, medians, and the like can be seen in Table 12.

TABLE 12: Descriptive statistics for the MTABS and it's sub-scales

| Variable | N | Mean | Median | Minimum | Maximum | SD |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Impatience Irritability** | 288 | 14.07 | 14.00 | 6.00 | 25.00 | 3.55 |
| **Achievement Striving** | 286 | 11.55 | 11.00 | 6.00 | 25.00 | 3.60 |
| **Hostility** | 289 | 14.78 | 15.00 | 6.00 | 20.00 | 2.67 |
| **Anger** | 286 | 9.42 | 10.00 | 4.00 | 15.00 | 2.57 |
| **Competitiveness** | 289 | 8.23 | 8.00 | 4.00 | 12.00 | 2.69 |
| **Type A Personality Score** | 278 | 58.05 | 58.00 | 34.00 | 76.00 | 7.81 |

## Correlational Analysis:

Correlations were performed in order to assess the relationships between some of the variables, and in so doing, answer some of the hypotheses.

*Hypothesis 1a:*

The results show that a significant inverse relationship exists between Job Satisfaction and the overall Stress score ($r = -0.45$, $p < 0.01$). The sub-scales of the Job Stress Survey are all, except for Job Pressure (frequency), found to be inversely significant with Job Satisfaction (Total Frequency, $r = -0.34$; Total Severity, $r = -0.44$; Job Pressure (severity), $r = -0.26$; Lack of Support (frequency), $r = -0.53$; Lack of Support (severity), $r = -0.54$).

These results, largely prove the hypothesis that an inverse relationship exists between Job Satisfaction and Stress. See Table 13 for all the scale and sub-scale correlations.

TABLE 13: Pearson Correlations between Stress, it's sub-scales and Job Satisfaction

| Variable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Overall Stress | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Total Frequency | 0.87* | | | | | | | |
| 3. Total Severity | 0.91* | 0.71* | | | | | | |
| 4. Job Pressure (F) | 0.68* | 0.82* | 0.50* | | | | | |
| 5. Job Pressure (S) | 0.82* | 0.60* | 0.88* | 0.56* | | | | |
| 6. Lack of Support (F) | 0.77* | 0.84* | 0.67* | 0.44* | 0.45* | | | |
| 7. Lack of Support (S) | 0.78* | 0.62* | 0.88* | 0.33* | 0.60* | 0.75* | | |
| 8. Job Satisfaction | -0.45* | -0.34* | -0.44* | -0.08 | -0.26* | -0.53* | -0.54* | |

* $p < 0.01$

where F = Frequency; S = Severity

*Hypothesis 1b:*

A correlation was conducted to see whether an inverse relationship exists between Stress and Anger (a construct of Type A personality). The results, as can be seen in Table 14,

show that in the present st. this was indeed the case, with Overall Stress and all it's sub-scales, except for Frequency of Job Pressure, producing significant negative correlations with Anger. (Overall Stress, $r = -0.34$, Total Frequency, $r = -0.26$; Total Severity, $r = -0.32$; Job Pressure (S), $r = -0.25$; Lack of Support (F), $r = -0.30$; Lack of Support (S), $r = -0.32$, where $p < 0.01$).

TABLE 14: Pearson Correlations between Stress, it's sub-scales, and Anger

| Variable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Anger | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Overall Stress | **-0.34*** | | | | | | | |
| 3. Total Frequency | **-0.26*** | 0.87* | | | | | | |
| 4. Total Severity | **-0.32*** | 0.91* | 0.71* | | | | | |
| 5. Job Pressure (F) | **-0.14** | 0.68* | 0.82* | 0.50* | | | | |
| 6. Job Pressure (S) | **-0.25*** | 0.82* | 0.60* | 0.88* | 0.56* | | | |
| 7. Lack of Support (F) | **-0.30*** | 0.77* | 0.84* | 0.67* | 0.44* | 0.45* | | |
| 8. Lack of Support (S) | **-0.32*** | 0.78* | 0.62* | 0.88* | 0.33* | 0.60* | 0.75* | |

* $p < 0.01$

where F = Frequency; S = Severity

*Hypothesis 1c:*

In order to test whether an individual's health decreased as his/her stress increased, a correlation was conducted between Overall Stress, Overall Health, and their sub-scales. Significant results were found for Overall Stress, Total Frequency, Total Severity, Frequency and Severity of Job Pressure, and Frequency and Severity of Lack of Organisational Support with all of the Health measures except for the Respiratory and Other sub-scales. The full list of results can be seen below in Table 15.

TABLE 15: Pearson Correlations between Stress, Health and their sub-scales.

| Variable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Overall Stress | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Total Frequency | 0.87* | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Total Severity | 0.91* | 0.71* | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Job Pressure (F) | 0.68* | 0.82* | 0.50* | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. Job Pressure (S) | 0.82* | 0.60* | 0.88* | 0.56* | | | | | | | | |
| 6. Lack of Support (F) | 0.77* | 0.84* | 0.67* | 0.44* | 0.45* | | | | | | | |
| 7. Lack of Support (S) | 0.78* | 0.62* | 0.88* | 0.33* | 0.60* | 0.75* | | | | | | |
| 8. Sleep Habits | -0.42* | -0.32* | -0.41* | -0.27* | -0.39* | -0.28* | -0.33* | | | | | |
| 9. Headaches | -0.35* | -0.28* | -0.34* | -0.26* | -0.36* | -0.21* | -0.21* | 0.37* | | | | |
| 10. Respiratory | -0.14 | -0.10 | -0.13 | -0.9 | -0.11 | -0.8 | -0.7 | 0.23* | 0.40* | | | |
| 11. Digestion | -0.32* | -0.28* | -0.31* | -0.20* | -0.30* | -0.26* | -0.24* | 0.36* | 0.39* | 0.30* | | |
| 12. Other | -0.06 | -0.05 | -0.04 | 0.04 | -0.01 | -0.09 | -0.01 | 0.32* | 0.27* | 0.44* | 0.31* | |
| 13. Ill Health Scale | -0.41* | -0.34* | -0.40* | -0.28* | -0.39* | -0.29* | -0.27* | 0.72* | 0.77* | 0.62* | 0.70* | 0.58* |

* $p < 0.01$

where F = Frequency; S = Severity

*Hypothesis 2a:*

A correlation was conducted to see whether an inverse relationship existed between job satisfaction and propensity to leave. The results showed that this was indeed the case, with a significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and propensity to leave ($r = -0.48$, $p < 0.01$), thus proving the hypothesis. See Table 16 below.

TABLE 16: Pearson Correlations between Job Satisfaction and Propensity to Leave.

| Variable | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Job Satisfaction | | |
| 2. Propensity to Leave | -0.48* | |

* $p < 0.01$

*Hypotheses 2b - 2c:*

To test the relationship between Type A behaviour and Job Satisfaction, a correlation was conducted between Job Satisfaction and the Type A components, namely Impatience Irritability (II), Achievement Striving (AS), Hostility (H), Anger (A), and Competitiveness (COMP). The results show that while H and COMP produced negative correlations as expected, and II, AS, A produced contradictory negative correlations, none of these relationships were significant. These results can be seen in Table 17 on the following page.

TABLE 17: Pearson Correlations between Job Satisfaction, Impatience Irritability, Achievement Striving, Hostility, Anger and Competitiveness.

| Variable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Job Satisfaction | | | | | | |
| 2. Impatience Irritability | **0.09** | | | | | |
| 3. Achievement Striving | **-0.11** | 0.38* | | | | |
| 4. Hostility | **-0.01** | 0.46* | 0.32* | | | |
| 5. Anger | **0.15** | 0.24* | 0.13 | 0.18* | | |
| 6. Competitiveness | **-0.07** | -0.30* | -0.33* | -0.19* | -0.35* | |

* $p < 0.01$

*Hypotheses 4a - 4e:*

Type A personality type was tested with various variables. The aim was to see if Type A personalities, measured by the MTABS, experienced things differently from their Type B counterparts.

*Hypothesis 4a:*

As can be seen from Table 18, Type A personality was correlated with overall stress, total frequency and total severity of the stress, job pressure (frequency (F) and severity (S)) and lack of support (frequency (F) and severity (S)). The results show that the overall measure of Type A behaviour correlates significantly with all the aspects of stress mentioned above. More specifically, with $p < 0.01$, for overall stress, $r = -0.38$; for total frequency, $r = -0.30$; for total severity, $r = -0.32$; for job pressure (F), $r = -0.32$; for job pressure (S), $r = -0.36$; for lack of support (F), $r = -0.22$; and for lack of support (S), $r = -0.23$. Most of the sub-scales of the MTABS, also produced a significant inverse

relationship with the various aspects of stress. Notably, Anger produced a significant relationship with overall stress (r = -0.34), with total severity (r = -0.32), with a lack of support (F) (r = -0.30), and with a lack of support (S) (r = -0.32). Also, Impatience Irritability and Job Pressure (S), showed a significant relationship of r = -0.31; and Achievement Striving and Job Pressure (F) a significant relationship of r = -0.33. These results show that Type A behaviour and stress have an inverse relationship, in other words, the more aspects of Type A personality an individual has, the less the amount of stress he/she experiences. The full list of results can be seen in the table below.

TABLE 18: Pearson Correlations between the MTABS, Stress, and their sub-scales.

| Variable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Overall Stress | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Total Frequency | 0.87* | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Total Severity | 0.91* | 0.71* | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Job Pressure (F) | 0.68* | 0.82* | 0.50* | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. Job Pressure (S) | 0.62* | 0.60* | 0.88* | 0.56* | | | | | | | | |
| 6. Lack of Support (F) | 0.77* | 0.84* | 0.67* | 0.44* | 0.45* | | | | | | | |
| 7. Lack of Support (S) | 0.78* | 0.62* | 0.88* | 0.33* | 0.66* | 0.75* | | | | | | |
| 8. Impatience Irritability | -0.30* | -0.23* | -0.26* | -0.25* | -0.31* | -0.16* | -0.15 | | | | | |
| 9. Achievement Striving | -0.30* | -0.26* | -0.26* | -0.33* | -0.31* | -0.13 | -0.15 | 0.38* | | | | |
| 10. Hostility | -0.17* | -0.14 | -0.12 | -0.33 | -0.16* | -0.10 | -0.08 | 0.46* | 0.32* | | | |
| 11. Anger | -0.34* | -0.26* | -0.32* | -0.14 | -0.25* | -0.30* | -0.32* | 0.34* | 0.15 | 0.18* | | |
| 12. Competitiveness | 0.25* | 0.20* | 0.22* | 0.12 | 0.19* | 0.19* | 0.18* | -0.30* | -0.33* | -0.19* | -0.35* | |
| 13. Type A Personality Score | -0.38* | -0.30* | -0.32* | -0.32* | -0.36* | -0.22* | -0.23* | 0.76* | 0.68* | 0.69* | 0.45* | -0.13 |

* $p < 0.01$

where F = Frequency; S = Severity

*Hypothesis 4b:*

The MTABS was correlated with the measure of self-esteem. The results show that while self-esteem and the overall MTABS correlated significantly ($r = 0.24$, $p < 0.01$), the correlations with self-esteem and the sub-scales were generally quite poor. Of the sub-scales, only Impatience Irritability ($r = 0.36$) and Anger ($r = 0.20$) produced any significant correlations. Please see Table 19 below.

TABLE 19: Pearson Correlations between the MTABS, it's sub-scales, and Self-Esteem.

| Variable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Self-Esteem | | | | | | |
| 2. Impatience Irritability | **0.36*** | | | | | |
| 3. Achievement Striving | **-0.06** | 0.38* | | | | |
| 4. Hostility | **0.12** | 0.46* | 0.32* | | | |
| 5. Anger | **0.20*** | 0.24* | 0.13 | 0.18* | | |
| 6. Competitiveness | **-0.01** | -0.30* | -0.33* | -0.19* | -0.35* | |
| 7. Type A Personality Score | **0.24*** | 0.76* | 0.68* | 0.69* | 0.45* | -0.13 |

* $p < 0.01$

*Hypothesis 4c:*

For this hypothesis, the MTABS and it's sub-scales were correlated with the two scales of coping, problem focused coping (PF) and emotion focused coping (EF). The results, as can be seen from Table 20, show that while both PF and EF correlate significantly with the overall Type A measure (MTABS) ($r = -0.31$ and $r = -0.19$, respectively, $p < 0.01$),

the only other sub-scales which produce significant correlations are Achievement Striving and Hostility. The significant inverse relationship with PF and Achievement Striving is $r = -0.35$, and with Hostility is $r = -0.36$. The inverse relationships for EF are $r = -0.18$ with Achievement Striving, and $r = -0.19$ with Hostility. See Table 20 below for a complete table of the results.

TABLE 20: Pearson Correlations between the MTABS, it's sub-scales, and Problem and Emotion focused coping styles.

| Variable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Problem Focused Coping | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Emotion Focused Coping | 0.72* | | | | | | | |
| 3. Impatience Irritability | **-0.05** | **-0.03** | | | | | | |
| 4. Achievement Striving | **-0.35*** | **-0.18*** | 0.38* | | | | | |
| 5. Hostility | **-0.36*** | **-0.19*** | 0.46* | 0.32* | | | | |
| 6. Anger | **-0.04** | **-0.16** | 0.24* | 0.13 | 0.18* | | | |
| 7. Competitiveness | **0.09** | **0.10** | -0.30* | -0.33* | -0.19* | -0.35* | | |
| 8. Type A Personality Score | **-0.31*** | **-0.19*** | 0.76* | 0.68* | 0.69* | 0.45* | -0.13 | |

* $p < 0.01$

*Hypothesis 4d:*

An individual's propensity to leave was correlated with the Type A measure and it's sub-scales. The results show that there are no significant relationships with Propensity to leave and either the overall measure of Type A personality ($r = 0.08$, $p < 0.01$), or it's

numerous sub-scales ($r = 0.11$ for II; -0.05 for AS; 0.08 for H; 0.12 for A; and -0.01 for COMP). Please see Table 21 below for a copy of these results.

TABLE 21: Pearson Correlations between the MTABS, it's sub-scales and Propensity to Leave.

| Variable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Propensity to Leave | | | | | | | |
| 2. Impatience Irritability | 0.11 | | | | | | |
| 3. Achievement Striving | -0.05 | 0.38* | | | | | |
| 4. Hostility | 0.08 | 0.46* | 0.32* | | | | |
| 5. Anger | 0.12 | 0.24* | 0.13 | 0.18* | | | |
| 6. Competitiveness | -0.01 | -0.30* | -0.33* | -0.19* | -0.35* | | |
| 7. Type A-Personality | 0.08 | 0.76* | 0.68* | 0.69* | 0.45* | -0.13 | |

* $p < 0.01$

*Hypothesis 4e:*

Impatience Irritability and Hostility, sub-scales of the Type A measure, were correlated with the Ill Health Scale and all it's sub-scales. The results show that II correlates significantly with the Ill Health Scale ($r = 0.34$, $p < 0.01$) and all it's sub-scales except for Respiratory and Other ($r = 0.36$ for Sleep Habits; $r = 0.29$ for Headaches; and $r = 0.20$ for Digestion, where $p < 0.01$). Hostility, however, only produced significant correlations

with Sleep Habits (SH) and Headaches (HD), $r = 0.17$ for SH and $r = 0.15$ for HD, $p < 0.01$. The full list of results can be seen in Table 22 below.

TABLE 22: Pearson Correlations between Impatience Irritability, Hostility, the Ill Health Scale, and it's sub-scales

| Variable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Impatience Irritability | | | | | | | |
| 2. Hostility | 0.46* | | | | | | |
| 3. Sleep Habits | **0.36*** | **0.17*** | | | | | |
| 4. Headaches | **0.29*** | **0.15*** | 0.37* | | | | |
| 5. Respiratory | **0.12** | **0.05** | 0.23* | 0.40* | | | |
| 6. Digestion | **0.20*** | **0.05** | 0.36* | 0.39* | 0.30* | | |
| 7. Other | **0.06** | **-0.02** | 0.32* | 0.27* | 0.44* | 0.31* | |
| 8. Ill Health Scale | **0.34*** | **0.15** | 0.72* | 0.77* | 0.62* | 0.70* | 0.58* |

* $p < 0.01$

*Hypotheses 5a - 5d:*

For this set of hypotheses, the two coping constructs, Problem Focused Coping and Emotion Focused Coping, were correlated with Overall Stress, it's sub-scales, Job Satisfaction, Propensity to Leave and Self-Esteem,

*Hypothesis 5a:*

Overall Stress, as well as it's sub-scales, was correlated with both Problem Focused Coping (PF) and Emotion Focused Coping (EF). The results show that neither Problem nor Emotion Focused Coping correlate significantly with Overall Stress or any of it's constructs. Specifically, the non-significant correlations with Overall Stress and both PF and EF, are $r = 0.13$ and $r = 0.05$ respectively, with $p < 0.01$. For a complete table of results, please see Table 23.

TABLE 23: Pearson Correlations between Problem Focused Coping, Emotion Focused Coping, Overall Stress, and it's sub-scales.

| Variable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Problem Focused Coping | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Emotion Focused Coping | 0.72* | | | | | | | |
| 3. Overall Stress | 0.13 | 0.05 | | | | | | |
| 4. Total Frequency | 0.13 | 0.09 | 0.87* | | | | | |
| 5. Total Severity | 0.10 | 0.03 | 0.91* | 0.71* | | | | |
| 6. Job Pressure (F) | 0.14 | 0.07 | 0.68* | 0.82* | 0.50* | | | |
| 7. Job Pressure (S) | 0.14 | 0.04 | 0.82* | 0.60* | 0.88* | 0.56* | | |
| 8. Lack of Support (F) | 0.06 | 0.04 | 0.77* | 0.84* | 0.67* | 0.44* | 0.45* | |
| 9. Lack of Support (S) | 0.06 | 0.02 | 0.78* | 0.62* | 0.88* | 0.33* | 0.60* | 0.75* |

* $p < 0.01$
where F = Frequency; S = Severity

*Hypothesis 5b:*

Problem and Emotion Focused Coping styles were correlated with Job Satisfaction. Significant positive correlations were found between Job Satisfaction and Problem Focused Coping, ($r = 0.23$ $p < 0.01$) and Job Satisfaction and Emotion Focused Coping ($r = 0.24$, $p < 0.01$). See Table 24 below for the results.

TABLE 24: Pearson Correlations between Job Satisfaction, Problem Focused Coping and Emotion Focused Coping.

| Variable | 1 | 2 | 3 |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Job Satisfaction | | | |
| 2. Problem Focused Coping | **0.23*** | | |
| 3. Emotion Focused Coping | **0.24*** | 0.72* | |

* $p < 0.01$

*Hypothesis 5c:*

For this hypothesis, Problem Focused Coping and Emotion Focused Coping were correlated with an individual's Propensity to Leave. As can be seen from Table 25 on the following page, no significant relationships were found. Problem Focused Coping and Propensity to Leave produced a correlation of $r = 0.02$, $p < 0.01$; while Emotion Focused Coping and Propensity to Leave produced a correlation of $r = 0.10$, $p < 0.01$.

TABLE 25: Pearson Correlations between Problem Focused Coping, Emotion Focused Coping and Propensity to Leave.

| Variable | 1 | 2 | 3 |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Propensity to Leave | | | |
| 2. Problem Focused Coping | 0.02 | | |
| 3. Emotion Focused Coping | 0.10 | 0.72* | |

* $p < 0.01$

*Hypothesis 5d:*

Both Problem Focused Coping (PF) and Emotion Focused Coping (EF) were correlated with Self-Esteem. The results show a positive significant correlation between PF and Self-Esteem ($r = 0.20$, $p < 0.01$), but no significant relationship was found between EF and Self-Esteem. See Table 26 below for a copy of these results.

TABLE 26: Pearson Correlations betweer elf-Esteem, Problem Focused Coping and Emotion Focused Coping

| Variable | 1 | 2 | 3 |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Self-Esteem | | | |
| 2. Problem Focused Coping | 0.20* | | |
| 3. Emotion Focused Coping | 0.04 | 0.72* | |

* $p < 0.01$

# T - Tests and Anovas:

To ascertain whether some of the hypotheses were valid, t-tests and Anovas were conducted. These were used to verify whether or not a significant difference existed among white and non-white managers on a variety of variables, and likewise, whether a significant difference existed between male and female managers. For purposes of future research, t-tests were conducted on managers who have and do not have children, and a variety of variables. In addition to this, an Anova was conducted on those managers who have children less than the age of 5 years old, and a range of variables which include, stress, self-esteem, job satisfaction, propensity to leave, health, coping style, and Type A behaviour.

*Hypotheses 3a - 3g:*

In order to test all these hypotheses, t-tests were conducted. This involved comparing the white and non-white managers on a variety of variables. These variables include, Overall Stress, Total Frequency, Total Severity, the Frequency and Severity of both Job Pressure and Lack of Support, Self-Esteem, Job Satisfaction, Propensity to Leave, the Ill Health Scale and it's sub-scales, Problem and Emotion Focused Coping, and the Type A measure and it's sub-scales. Of all the t-tests, the only significant differences were found with Impatience Irritability (II) (t-value = -3.83274, where $p < 0.001$) and the MTABS (t-value = -2.44293, where $p < 0.015$). The results show that white managers tend to possess significantly more of the Impatience Irritability construct, as well as have a greater tendency towards the Type A personality type, than their non-white managerial counterparts. For ease of reading, these results, both significant and non-significant, were divided up into 3 tables, and can be seen in Tables 27 - 29 on the following pages.

TABLE 27: T - Test comparisons of Race with Overall Stress, Total Frequency, Total Severity, the Frequency and Severity of both Job Pressure and Lack of Support, Self-Esteem, Job Satisfaction, and Propensity to Leave.

| | RACE | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | WHITES | | | NON-WHITES | | | | |
| Variable | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | t | |
| Overall Stress | 269 | 25.27 | 12.74 | 7 | 28.01 | 18.92 | -0.55520 | |
| Total Frequency | 272 | 136.71 | 46.09 | 7 | 124.29 | 63.44 | 0.69765 | 0.485980 |
| Total Severity | 270 | 130.06 | 43.48 | 7 | 155.43 | 50.15 | -1.51850 | 0.130037 |
| Job Pressure (F) | 273 | 55.56 | 19.38 | 7 | 43.43 | 22.11 | 1.63044 | 0.104141 |
| Job Pressure (S) | 271 | 45.66 | 16.73 | 7 | 51.57 | 18.86 | -0.92083 | 0.357944 |
| Lack of Support (F) | 274 | 42.44 | 18.19 | 7 | 43.71 | 24.14 | -0.18131 | 0.856252 |
| Lack of Support (S) | 273 | 44.90 | 17.14 | 7 | 56.86 | 16.36 | -1.82404 | 0.069220 |
| Self-Esteem | 262 | 20.47 | 3.55 | 6 | 22.50 | 1.52 | -1.39954 | 0.162815 |
| Job Satisfaction | 272 | 56.64 | 9.07 | 7 | 51.57 | 9.48 | 1.45827 | 0.145900 |
| Propensity to Leave | 271 | 7.94 | 2.56 | 7 | 7.57 | 1.51 | 0.37939 | 0.704692 |

* $p < 0.01$
where F = Frequency; S = Severity

TABLE 28: T - Test comparisons of Race with the Ill Health Scale and it's sub-scales, and Problem and Emotion Focused Coping.

| RACE | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | WHITES | | | NON-WHITES | | | | |
| Variable | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | t | p-value |
| Sleep Habits | 272 | 21.52 | 4.59 | 7 | 21.57 | 5.68 | -0.02791 | 0.977752 |
| Headaches | 274 | 18.55 | 4.72 | 7 | 19.14 | 6.79 | -0.31756 | 0.751054 |
| Respiratory | 271 | 9.99 | 2.68 | 7 | 9.86 | 2.48 | 0.13566 | 0.892185 |
| Digestion | 272 | 20.83 | 3.78 | 7 | 20.29 | 4.86 | 0.37177 | 0.710348 |
| Other | 274 | 13.26 | 1.88 | 7 | 13.14 | 1.35 | 0.16212 | 0.871329 |
| Ill Health Scale | 265 | 84.29 | 12.21 | 7 | 84.00 | 17.89 | 0.06139 | 0.961094 |
| Problem Focused Coping | 268 | 45.44 | 6.73 | 7 | 49.29 | 9.52 | -1.47608 | 0.141075 |
| Emotion Focused Coping | 253 | 94.53 | 10.85 | 6 | 92.17 | 13.48 | 0.52535 | 0.599793 |

* $p < 0.01$

TABLE 29: T - Test comparisons of Race with the Type A measure (the MTABS) and it's sub-scales.

| RACE | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | WHITES | | | NON-WHITES | | | | |
| Variable | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | t | p-value |
| Impatience Irritability | 274 | 13.94 | 3.46 | 7 | 19.00 | 2.83 | -3.83274 | 0.000157* |
| Achievement Striving | 271 | 11.51 | 3.54 | 7 | 13.00 | 5.94 | -1.08098 | 0.280652 |
| Hostility | 274 | 14.74 | 2.66 | 7 | 14.86 | 2.34 | -0.11790 | 0.906229 |
| Anger | 271 | 9.38 | 2.58 | 7 | 11.14 | 1.21 | -1.79780 | 0.073302 |
| Competitiveness | 274 | 8.27 | 2.71 | 7 | 7.14 | 2.54 | 1.09173 | 0.275894 |
| Type A Personality Score | 264 | 57.88 | 7.77 | 7 | 65.14 | 7.31 | -2.44293 | 0.015212* |

* $p < 0.01$

*Hypotheses 6a -6g:*

In order to test these hypotheses, t-tests were conducted on gender. Males and females were compared on a number of variables. These variables include, Overall Stress, Total Frequency, Total Severity, the Frequency and Severity of both Job Pressure and Lack of Support, Self-Esteem, Job Satisfaction, Propensity to Leave, the Ill Health Scale and it's sub-scales, Problem and Emotion Focused Coping, and the Type A measure and it's sub-scales. These t-tests, perhaps due to the groups being more comparable, showed many more significant results than those which were conducted with race. Frequency of Job Pressure, Headaches, Respiratory factors, Other, Overall Ill Health, Achievement Striving

and the overall measure of Type A behaviour, all produced significant results. Males, on the one hand, were found to experience significantly fewer Headaches ($p = 0.000045$), Respiratory problems ($p = 0.038965$), Other health problems ($p = 0.023715$), and better overall health ($p = 0.008315$) than their female counterparts. Females, on the other hand, experienced Job Pressure more frequently than males ($p = 0.002406$), exhibited greater amounts of the Achievement Striving construct ($p = 0.025384$) and also showed a greater propensity for Type A behaviour ($p = 0.001812$). All these results, as well as the non-significant ones, can be seen in Tables 30 - 32. Once again, the results were split up into 3 separate tables for ease of reading.

TABLE 30: T - Test comparisons of Gender with Overall Stress, Total Frequency, Total Severity, the Frequency and Severity of both Job Pressure and Lack of Support, Self-Esteem, Job Satisfaction, and Propensity to Leave.

| GENDER | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | MALES | | | FEMALES | | | | |
| Variable | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | t | p-value |
| Overall Stress | 218 | 24.68 | 12.57 | 65 | 27.47 | 13.48 | -1.54338 | 0.123865 |
| Total Frequency | 220 | 133.85 | 47.01 | 66 | 146.29 | 42.81 | -1.92378 | 0.055382 |
| Total Severity | 219 | 129.68 | 43.73 | 65 | 133.05 | 42.59 | -0.54881 | 0.583570 |
| Job Pressure (F) | 221 | 53.44 | 19.31 | 66 | 61.65 | 18.42 | -3.06235 | 0.002406* |
| Job Pressure (S) | 220 | 48.15 | 16.20 | 65 | 47.55 | 18.22 | -1.01882 | 0.309160 |
| Lack of Support (F) | 222 | 42.67 | 18.79 | 66 | 42.67 | 16.46 | 0.00176 | 0.998600 |
| Lack of Support (S) | 222 | 45.48 | 17.37 | 65 | 44.26 | 15.93 | 0.50737 | 0.612289 |
| Self-Esteem | 212 | 20.65 | 3.58 | 62 | 20.19 | 3.25 | 0.90272 | 0.367475 |
| Job Satisfaction | 220 | 55.92 | 9.27 | 66 | 58.20 | 8.51 | -1.78455 | 0.075402 |
| Propensity to Leave | 220 | 7.91 | 2.55 | 65 | 8.09 | 2.43 | -0.50172 | 0.616255 |

* $p < 0.01$ where F = Frequency; S = Severity

TABLE 31: T - Test comparisons of Gender with the Ill Health Scale and it's sub-scales, and Problem and Emotion Focused Coping.

| | GENDER | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | MALES | | | FEMALES | | | | |
| Variable | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | t | p-value |
| Sleep Habits | 222 | 21.66 | 4.72 | 64 | 21.09 | 4.25 | 0.86018 | 0.390413 |
| Headaches | 222 | 19.21 | 4.46 | 66 | 16.52 | 5.20 | 4.14315 | 0.000045* |
| Respiratory | 220 | 10.20 | 2.63 | 65 | 9.42 | 2.78 | 2.07419 | 0.038965* |
| Digestion | 222 | 20.97 | 3.70 | 64 | 20.28 | 3.97 | 1.29607 | 0.196004 |
| Other | 222 | 13.38 | 1.78 | 66 | 12.79 | 2.07 | 2.27387 | 0.023715* |
| Ill Health Scale | 218 | 85.35 | 11.93 | 61 | 80.66 | 13.07 | 2.65808 | 0.008315* |
| Problem Focused Coping | 218 | 45.59 | 6.69 | 64 | 45.06 | 7.18 | 0.54213 | 0.588163 |
| Emotion Focused Coping | 206 | 94.37 | 11.03 | 60 | 94.28 | 10.16 | 0.05688 | 0.954684 |

* $p < 0.01$

TABLE 32: T - Test comparisons of Gender with the Type A measure and it's sub-scales.

| GENDER | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | MALES | | | FEMALES | | | | |
| Variable | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | t | p-value |
| Impatience Irritability | 222 | 14.28 | 3.65 | 65 | 13.42 | 3.07 | 1.74398 | 0.082240 |
| Achievement Striving | 219 | 11.83 | 3.71 | 66 | 10.70 | 3.11 | 2.24741 | 0.025384* |
| Hostility | 222 | 14.86 | 2.65 | 66 | 14.48 | 2.76 | 1.00063 | 0.317854 |
| Anger | 221 | 9.55 | 2.47 | 64 | 9.02 | 2.88 | 1.47177 | 0.142193 |
| Competitiveness | 222 | 8.38 | 2.68 | 66 | 7.70 | 2.69 | 1.82187 | 0.069518 |
| Type A Personality Score | 214 | 58.88 | 7.85 | 63 | 55.41 | 7.07 | 3.15013 | 0.001812* |

* $p < 0.01$

*Future Research - "Children?":*

For the purposes of future research, t-tests were conducted on those managers who had children and those who did not. Children or no children were compared on the following variables: Overall Stress, Total Frequency, Total Severity, the Frequency and Severity of both Job Pressure and Lack of Support, Self-Esteem, Job Satisfaction, Propensity to Leave, the Ill Health Scale and it's sub-scales, Problem and Emotion Focused Coping, and the MTABS and it's sub-scales. The results show that managers with and without children differ significantly on the Frequency and Severity of Job Pressures ($p = 0.004449$ and $p = 0.006051$), as well as on the occurrence of Headaches ($p = 0.012802$). Those managers who have no children, were found to experience job pressures more frequently and severely than those managers with children, while managers who have

children, experience significantly fewer headaches than those managers without children. For the full set of results, please see Tables 33 - 35 on the following pages. Consistent with the previous presentation of the t-test results, these results have been split up into 3 tables.

TABLE 33: T - Test comparisons of Children or No Children with Overall Stress, Total Frequency, Total Severity, the Frequency and Severity of both Job Pressure and Lack of Support, Self-Esteem, Job Satisfaction, and Propensity to Leave.

| CHILDREN | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | YES | | | NO | | | | |
| Variable | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | t | p-value |
| Overall Stress | 244 | 24.84 | 12.96 | 39 | 28.32 | 11.53 | -1.57722 | 0.115871 |
| Total Frequency | 245 | 135.29 | 47.99 | 41 | 145.24 | 33.76 | -1.27548 | 0.203182 |
| Total Severity | 245 | 128.69 | 43.17 | 39 | 141.49 | 43.93 | -1.71525 | 0.087399 |
| Job Pressure (F) | 246 | 54.01 | 19.52 | 41 | 63.27 | 16.70 | -2.86727 | 0.004449* |
| Job Pressure (S) | 246 | 44.63 | 16.38 | 39 | 52.49 | 17.18 | -2.76584 | 0.006051* |
| Lack of Support (F) | 246 | 42.82 | 18.78 | 42 | 41.79 | 15.03 | 0.33908 | 0.734798 |
| Lack of Support (S) | 246 | 44.91 | 17.04 | 41 | 46.95 | 17.12 | -0.70814 | 0.479436 |
| Self-Esteem | 293 | 20.46 | 3.59 | 41 | 21.05 | 3.02 | -0.99226 | 0.321954 |
| Job Satisfaction | 244 | 56.06 | 9.18 | 42 | 58.67 | 8.64 | -1.71321 | 0.087765 |
| Propensity to Leave | 243 | 7.95 | 2.55 | 42 | 8.00 | 2.36 | -0.12686 | 0.899142 |

* $p < 0.01$; where F = Frequency; S = Severity

TABLE 34: T - Test comparisons of Children or No Children w. . the Ill Health Scale and it's sub-scales, and Problem and Emotion Focused Coping.

| CHILDREN | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | YES | | | NO | | | | |
| Variable | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | t | p-value |
| Sleep Habits | 244 | 21.63 | 4.65 | 42 | 20.95 | 4.44 | 0.87939 | 0.379932 |
| Headaches | 246 | 18.88 | 4.76 | 42 | 16.90 | 4.51 | 2.50498 | 0.012802* |
| Respiratory | 243 | 10.11 | 2.71 | 42 | 9. | 2.49 | 1.35767 | 0.175649 |
| Digestion | 244 | 20.81 | 3.88 | 42 | 20.88 | 3.05 | -0.11674 | 0.907150 |
| Other | 246 | 13.28 | 1.87 | 42 | 13.05 | 1.86 | 0.73396 | 0.463576 |
| Ill Health Scale | 237 | 84.86 | 12.55 | 42 | 81.29 | 10.54 | 1.73942 | 0.083071 |
| Problem Focused Coping | 242 | 45.42 | 6.72 | 40 | 45.75 | 7.35 | -0.28264 | 0.777663 |
| Emotion Focused Coping | 229 | 94.28 | 10.75 | 37 | 94.84 | 11.39 | -0.29303 | 0.769731 |

* $p < 0.01$

TABLE 35: T - Test comparisons of Children or No Children with the Type A measure (the MTABS) and it's sub-scales.

| CHILDREN | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | YES | | | NO | | | | |
| Variable | N | Mean | SD | N | Mean | SD | t | p-value |
| Impatience Irritability | 246 | 14.167 | 3.59 | 41 | 13.61 | 3.23 | 0.93151 | 0.352376 |
| Achievement Striving | 243 | 11.63 | 3.65 | 42 | 11.19 | 3.33 | 0.72846 | 0.466935 |
| Hostility | 246 | 14.74 | 2.56 | 42 | 14.95 | 3.33 | -0.46586 | 0.641668 |
| Anger | 244 | 9.45 | 2.58 | 41 | 9.34 | 2.56 | 0.24198 | 0.808967 |
| Competitiveness | 246 | 8.28 | 2.72 | 42 | 7.88 | 2.59 | 0.89629 | 0.370852 |
| Type A Personality Score | 237 | 58.27 | 7.95 | 40 | 57.08 | 6.92 | 0.89175 | 0.373307 |

* $p < 0.01$

*Future Research - "Children less than 5 years":*

An Anova was conducted in order to measure whether there are any significant differences between managers who have children less than the age of 5 years, older than 5 years, and those who have no children. The reason 5 years of age was chosen as the "cut-off point", was because, from the age of 5, most children are off to their first year of primary school, or at least are in the biggest group at their play school. By the time they reach this stage, they generally require and demand less direct time from their parents. This required time then tends to decrease as the children get older and become more mature. As this section is for the purposes of future research, perhaps the exact age for the cut-off point could be explored in greater depth in future studies.

The results show that the only significant difference is the Frequency and Severity of Job Pressure. With Job Pressure, those managers who do not have any children (Mean = 64.21), were found to experience Job Pressures more frequently then either those managers whose children are older than 5 (Mean = 55.29) or those whose children are below the age of 5 (Mean = 48.93). The same pattern was found with the Severity of Job Pressure, with those managers who have no children experiencing Job Pressure more severely (Mean = 52.89), than both of the other categories. This time, however, the difference between those managers whose children are older than 5 (Mean = 44.56) and those whose are younger (Mean = 44.42), is minimal. For a full set of results, see Tables 36 and 37 below.

TABLE 36: An Anova comparison, where DV = children less than 5, and IV = Overall Stress, Total Frequency, Total Severity, the Frequency and Severity of both Job Pressure and Lack of Support, Self-Esteem, and Job Satisfaction.

| DEPENDENT VARIABLE : CHILDREN LESS THAN 5 YEARS | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Mean for "No Children" | Mean for "Children < 5" | Mean for "Children > 5" | d.f. | F | p-level |
| Overall Stress | 28.97 | 23.15 | 25.11 | 2 | 2.369527 | 0.095405 |
| Total Frequency | 147.03 | 124.68 | 137.87 | 2 | 2.998763 | 0.051441 |
| Total Severity | 143.46 | 130.57 | 127.52 | 2 | 2.117718 | 0.122229 |
| Job Pressure (F) | 64.21 | 48.93 | 55.29 | 2 | 7.544768 | 0.000642* |
| Job Pressure (S) | 52.89 | 44.42 | 44.56 | 2 | 4.154168 | 0.016673* |
| Lack of Support (F) | 42.20 | 40.29 | 43.40 | 2 | 0.653108 | 0.521206 |
| Lack of Support (S) | 47.77 | 46.42 | 44.21 | 2 | 0.909152 | 0.404039 |
| Self-Esteem | 21.21 | 20.55 | 20.46 | 2 | 0.740481 | 0.477850 |
| Job Satisfaction | 58.60 | 55.02 | 56.53 | 2 | 1.845444 | 0.159858 |

* $p < 0.01$
where F = Frequency; S = Severity

TABLE 37: An Anova comparison, where DV = children less than 5, and IV = Propensity to Leave, the Ill Health Scale and it's sub-scales, Problem and Emotion Focused Coping, and the Type A measure (the MTABS) and it's sub-scales.

| DEPENDENT VARIABLE : CHILDREN LESS THAN 5 YEARS | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Mean for "No Children" | Mean for "Children < 5" | Mean for "Children > 5" | d.f. | F | p-level |
| Propensity to Leave | 7.90 | 7.69 | 8.06 | 2 | 0.503774 | 0.604791 |
| Sleep Habits | 20.88 | 22.52 | 21.42 | 2 | 1.805954 | 0.166213 |
| Headaches | 16.98 | 19.02 | 18.86 | 2 | 2.879259 | 0.057818 |
| Respiratory | 9.40 | 9.77 | 10.24 | 2 | 1.963010 | 0.142356 |
| Digestion | 20.90 | 20.78 | 20.87 | 2 | 0.016674 | 0.983465 |
| Other | 13.05 | 13.55 | 13.19 | 2 | 1.096113 | 0.335577 |
| Ill Health Scale | 81.20 | 85.61 | 84.78 | 2 | 1.754316 | 0.174956 |
| Problem Focused Coping | 45.97 | 45.84 | 45.27 | 2 | 0.267563 | 0.765439 |
| Emotion Focused Coping | 94.78 | 92.93 | 94.72 | 2 | 0.603497 | 0.547654 |
| Impatience Irritability | 13.64 | 14.04 | 14.22 | 2 | 0.447289 | 0.639811 |
| Achievement Striving | 11.10 | 11.91 | 11.59 | 2 | 0.592117 | 0.553844 |
| Hostility | 15.05 | 14.45 | 14.84 | 2 | 0.699902 | 0.497488 |
| Anger | 9.21 | 9.86 | 9.37 | 2 | 0.991502 | 0.372313 |
| Competitiveness | 8.05 | 8.62 | 8.14 | 2 | 0.792627 | 0.453653 |
| Type A Personality Score | 57.16 | 58.72 | 58.21 | 2 | 0.464547 | 0.628916 |

# Moderated Multiple Linear Regressions:

In order to test the theoretical model of the stressor - strain and moderator relationship, moderated multiple linear regressions (MMLR) were used. While "race" was included in the original model, due to the small numbers of "Non-Whites" who returned the questionnaires, it was decided that it would not be useful to conduct any regressions involving Race.

In order to test the model, new interaction variables were created between each of the Independent Variables (IV) and each of the Moderators (M), which were then tested separately with each of the Dependent Variables (DV). Where necessary, the moderators, consistent with previous analyses, were divided up into their sub-scales; namely Coping Style which was divided up into Problem Focused and Emotion Focused Coping; and Job Pressure and Organisational Support which were both measured according to their Frequency and their Severity.

Overall Stress was the first Independent Variable to be tested. Every possible IV, M and DV relationship was tested, in order to determine if the moderators chosen had any effect. The results show that the Frequency (F) and Severity (S) of Lack of Organisational Support were the only two factors which were found to be moderators. They both moderated the Overall Stress and Job Satisfaction relationship ($p = 0.028591$ for Frequency; and $p = 0.005326$ for Severity), as well as Overall Stress and Ill Health ($p = 0.009836$ for Frequency; and $p = 0.039583$ for Severity). The full set of results can be seen in Tables 38 - 42 on the following pages.

TABLE 38: MMLR, with IV = Overall Stress; M = Gender; DV = Job Satisfaction, Propensity to Leave, Self-Esteem, and Ill Health.

| IV = Overall Stress<br>M = Gender | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | **F** | **$R^2$** | **p-value** |
| **Job Satisfaction** | 26.71795 | 0.218907593 | 0.272380 |
| **Propensity to Leave** | 6.723395 | 0.065879002 | 0.140405 |
| **Self - Esteem** | 8.272164 | 0.079842913 | 0.968676 |
| **Ill Health** | 19.55780 | 0.170228981 | 0.927068 |

TABLE 39: MMLR, with IV = Overall Stress; M = Personality; DV = Job Satisfaction, Propensity to Leave, Self-Esteem, and Ill Health.

| IV = Overall Stress<br>M = Personality | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | **F** | **$R^2$** | **p-value** |
| **Job Satisfaction** | 28.01052 | 0.227092919 | 0.081729 |
| **Propensity to Leave** | 5.701630 | 0.56432246 | 0.784049 |
| **Self - Esteem** | 10.07504 | 0.095581010 | 0.687612 |
| **Ill Health** | 21.91784 | 0.185930634 | 0.131112 |

TABLE 40: MMLR, with IV = Overall Stress; M = Coping Style; DV = Job Satisfaction, Propensity to Leave, Self-Esteem, and Ill Health.

| IV = Overall Stress | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M = Problem Focused Coping | | | M = Emotion Focused Coping | | |
| | F | $R^2$ | p-value | F | $R^2$ | p-value |
| Job Satisfaction | 36.25833 | 0.275536688 | 0.712580 | 33.81783 | 0.261846886 | 0.241205 |
| Propensity to Leave | 6.065246 | 0.59815884 | 0.490636 | 7.060819 | 0.068957247 | 0.504108 |
| Self-Esteem | 14.66971 | 0.133357345 | 0.750175 | 8.497063 | 0.081835986 | 0.792176 |
| Ill Health | 20.56230 | 0.177420805 | 0.067149 | 20.59684 | 0.177665924 | 0.977559 |

TABLE 41: MMLR, with IV = Overall Stress; M = Job Pressure; DV = Job Satisfaction, Propensity to Leave, Self-Esteem, and Ill Health.

| IV = Overall Stress | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M = Frequency of Job Pressure | | | M = Severity of Job Pressure | | |
| | F | $R^2$ | p-value | F | $R^2$ | p-value |
| Job Satisfaction | 38.45501 | 0.287431676 | 0.661182 | 27.62462 | 0.224667204 | 0.670031 |
| Propensity to Leave | 7.735949 | 0.075055812 | 0.756760 | 8.018466 | 0.077584191 | 0.568128 |
| Self-Esteem | 9.124325 | 0.087349503 | 0.581402 | 10.23631 | 0.096962664 | 0.518034 |
| Ill Health | 17.76375 | 0.157066352 | 0.681943 | 18.80342 | 0.164744666 | 0.938782 |

TABLE 42: MMLR, with IV = Overall Stress; M = Lack of Organisational Support; DV = Job Satisfaction, Propensity to Leave, Self-Esteem, and Ill Health.

| | IV = Overall Stress | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M = Frequency of Lack of Organisational Support | | | M = Severity of Lack of Organisational Support | | |
| | F | $R^2$ | p-value | F | $R^2$ | p-value |
| **Job Satisfaction** | 39.47167 | 0.29280570 | 0.028591* | 40.77281 | 0.29956626 | 0.005326* |
| **Propensity to Leave** | 6.779379 | 0.066391138 | 0.557164 | 7.969285 | 0.77145041 | 0.527259 |
| **Self-Esteem** | 8.647899 | 0.83167878 | 0.589913 | 8.258830 | 0.079724465 | 0.774105 |
| **Ill Health** | 20.48118 | 0.17684466 | 0.009836* | 19.96089 | 0.17312998 | 0.039583* |

The next Independent Variable which was tested, was the Frequency of Total Stress. Once again, not many significant results were obtained, but those which were, all had Job Satisfaction as a common Dependent Variable. Personality ($p = 0.002010$), Severity of Job Pressure ($p = 0.027893$), and Severity of Lack of Organisational Support ($p = 0.011803$), were found to be moderators in the Frequency of Total Stress and Job Satisfaction relationship. The full set of results can be seen in Tables 43 - 47 on the following pages.

TABLE 43: MMLR, with IV = Frequency of Total Stress; M = Gender; DV = Job Satisfaction, Propensity to Leave, Self-Esteem, and Ill Health.

| IV = Frequency of Total Stress<br>M = Gender | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | **F** | **$R^2$** | **p-value** |
| **Job Satisfaction** | 14.85839 | 0.134841247 | 0.943991 |
| **Propensity to Leave** | 3.469581 | 0.035116176 | 0.262368 |
| **Self-Esteem** | 3.659669 | 0.036968963 | 0.844858 |
| **Ill Health** | 13.11567 | 0.120938631 | 0.993628 |

TABLE 44: MMLR, with IV = Frequency of Total Stress; M = Personality; DV = Job Satisfaction, Propensity to Leave, Self-Esteem, and Ill Health.

| IV = Frequency of Total Stress<br>M = Personality | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | **F** | **R** | **p-value** |
| **Job Satisfaction** | 16.92803 | 0.15079125 | 0.002010* |
| **Propensity to Leave** | 3.344772 | 0.032895783 | 0.245757 |
| **Self-Esteem** | 6.664887 | 0.065343169 | 0.994826 |
| **Ill Health** | 16.98037 | 0.151186963 | 0.268996 |

| | M = Problem-Focused Coping | | | M = Emotion-Focused Coping | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | F | $R^2$ | p-value | F | $R^2$ | p-value |
| Job Satisfaction | 21.97881 | 0.187353203 | 0.886799 | 21.08613 | 0.181122015 | 0.912869 |
| Propensity to Leave | 3.069550 | 0.031193700 | 0.530872 | 4.006776 | 0.040333923 | 0.944045 |
| Self-Esteem | 8.859369 | 0.085028693 | 0.656425 | 3.824497 | 0.038569793 | 0.895441 |
| Ill Health | 16615 | 0.121347623 | 0.225425 | 14.46826 | 0.131767269 | 0.578848 |

TABLE 46: MMLR, with IV = Frequency of Total Stress; M = Job Pressure; DV = Job Satisfaction, Propensity to Leave, Self-Esteem, and Ill Health.

| | IV = Frequency of Total Stress | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M = Frequency of Job Pressure | | | M = Severity of Job Pressure | | |
| | F | $R^2$ | p-value | F | $R^2$ | p-value |
| Job Satisfaction | 29.80970 | 0.238205015 | 0.713032 | 14.82352 | 0.13456737 | 0.027893* |
| Propensity to Leave | 4.811000 | 0.048040664 | 0.568627 | 3.254471 | 0.033010885 | 0.257758 |
| Self-Esteem | 3.932642 | 0.039617215 | 0.493417 | 9.793822 | 0.093161681 | 0.672003 |
| Ill Health | 11.62654 | 0.108700061 | 0.541045 | 17.97807 | 0.158660743 | 0.664785 |

TABLE 47: MMLR, with IV = Frequency of Total Stress; M = Lack of Organisational Support; DV = Job Satisfaction, Propensity to Leave, Self-Esteem, and Ill Health.

| | IV = Frequency of Total Stress | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M = Frequency of Lack of Organisational Support | | | M = Severity of Lack of Organisational Support | | |
| | F | $R^2$ | p-value | F | $R^2$ | p-value |
| **Job Satisfaction** | 43.93032 | 0.31544713 | 0.343996 | 39.71468 | 0.294078233 | 0.011803* |
| **Propensity to Leave** | 6.802265 | 0.06660033 | 0.281284 | 7.792082 | 0.07555928 | 0.545406 |
| **Self-Esteem** | 3.956780 | 0.03985069 | 0.361382 | 5.797401 | 0.05732581 | 0.766146 |
| **Ill Health** | 12.37678 | 0.11490822 | 0.126990 | 12.44296 | 0.11545177 | 0.539184 |

The last Independent Variable (IV) to be looked at in the theoretical model, is Severity of Total Stress. Once again, Severity of Total Stress was tested with it's various Dependent Variables (DV), as well as the chosen moderators. The results show that of all the different relationships, the only moderated one was between Severity of Total Stress (the IV) and Job Satisfaction (the DV), with Frequency of Lack of Organisational Support being the Moderator. Frequency of Lack of Organisational Support significantly moderated the Severity of Total Stress and Job Satisfaction relationship with a p-value of 0.035796. The full set of results can be seen on the following pages in Tables 48 - 52.

TABLE 48: MMLR, with IV = Severity of Total Stress; M = Gender; DV = Job Satisfaction, Propensity to Leave, Self-Esteem, and Ill Health.

| IV = Severity of Total Stress<br>M = Gender | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | **F** | **$R^2$** | **p-value** |
| **Job Satisfaction** | 24.62123 | 0.20525461 | 0.344732 |
| **Propensity to Leave** | 5.298102 | 0.05264858 | 0.163153 |
| **Self -Esteem** | 10.24743 | 0.09705777 | 0.658157 |
| **Ill Health** | 19.09251 | 0.16685490 | 0.650455 |

TABLE 49: MMLR, with IV = Severity of Total Stress; M = Personality; DV = Job Satisfaction, Propensity to Leave, Self-Esteem, and Ill Health.

| IV = Severity of Total Stress<br>M = Personality | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | **F** | **$R^2$** | **p-value** |
| **Job Satisfaction** | 25.11626 | 0.20852092 | 0.239917 |
| **Propensity to Leave** | 4.702501 | 0.04700817 | 0.438329 |
| **Self - Esteem** | 12.09038 | 0.11254854 | 0.605869 |
| **Ill Health** | 21.14121 | 0.18150930 | 0.276758 |

TABLE 50: MMLR, with IV = Severity of Total Stress; M = Coping Style; DV = Job Satisfaction, Propensity to Leave, Self-Esteem, and Ill Health.

| | IV = Severity of Total Stress | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M = Problem Focused Coping | | | M = Emotion Focused Coping | | |
| | F | $R^2$ | p-value | F | $R^2$ | p-value |
| Job Satisfaction | 33.80225 | 0.26175783 | 0.995431 | 31.43659 | 0.24798147 | 0.598440 |
| Propensity to Leave | 5.0[illegible]0979 | 0.05069469 | 0.246745 | 5.571450 | 0.05521493 | 0.771647 |
| Self-Esteem | 16.55184 | 0.14793597 | 0.401765 | 10.36561 | 0.09806728 | 0.491938 |
| Ill Health | 18.43640 | 0.16205012 | 0.130570 | 18.85064 | 0.16509004 | 0.924011 |

TABLE 51: MMLR, with IV = Severity of Total Stress; M = Job Pressure; D' = Job Satisfaction, Propensity to Leave, Self-Esteem, and Ill Health.

| | IV = Severity of Total Stress | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M = Frequency of Job Pressure | | | M = Severity of Job Pressure | | |
| | F | $R^2$ | p-value | F | $R^2$ | p-value |
| Job Satisfaction | 26.78632 | 0.21934490 | 0.218327 | 33.30338 | 0.25889485 | 0.308843 |
| Propensity to Leave | 5.480696 | 0.05442350 | 0.151295 | 7.280879 | 0.07095391 | 0.758691 |
| Self-Esteem | 10.15660 | 0.09628027 | 0.613265 | 10.52575 | 0.09943172 | 0.890647 |
| Ill Health | 18.24190 | 0.16061510 | 0.184799 | 17.29964 | 0.15359305 | 0.672245 |

TABLE 52: MMLR, with IV = Severity of Total Stress; M = Lack of Organisational Support; DV = Job Satisfaction, Propensity to Leave, Self-Esteem, and Ill Health.

| | IV = Severity of Total Stress | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M = Frequency of Lack of Organisational Support | | | M = Severity of Lack of Organisational Support | | |
| | **F** | **$R^2$** | **p-value** | **F** | **$R^2$** | **p-value** |
| **Job Satisfaction** | 40.93105 | 0.30037964 | 0.035796* | 38.70428 | 0.28875684 | 0.080225 |
| **Propensity to Leave** | 6.446318 | 0.06333602 | 0.897247 | 7.998144 | 0.07740278 | 0.968090 |
| **Self-Esteem** | 10.19887 | 0.09664223 | 0.635724 | 10.69955 | 0.10090785 | 0.712500 |
| **Ill Health** | 17.54672 | 0.15544572 | 0.111850 | 19.17130 | 0.16742815 | 0.422243 |

Implications and possible explanations for the results obtained from all these moderated multiple linear regressions (Tables 38-52), will be addressed in the following chapter.

# Content Analysis:

The open-ended questions which formed the last page of the questionnaire booklet, will now be analysed. For the full range of answers which were obtained, please see Appendix E.

Out of the total sample of 290 respondents (of which all answered these questions in one way or another), 180 (62.07%, or well over half) said that they regarded themselves as

being "stressed". Adding this to the results obtained from the JSS (the stress measure that was used), this means that on average the stress experienced by the sample is of a moderate to low degree (existing in the bottom third of the stress continuum).
When assessing the number and percentage breakdown of the content analysis, it is important to realise that the percentages given for each category are in relation to the total number of responses for that question, and not the number of respondents involved. As there was often more than one response given by each person with regard to the causes, consequences and effects of stress (questions 2, 3 and 4), the percentages are of the total number of responses given, and are not related to the actual numbers of respondents.

The second question, that relating to the perceived causes of this stress, resulted in numerous responses which related to both the work content (i.e. the demands that the job places on the worker, which usually requires him/her to change or adapt in order to perform), and the work context (i.e. the physical and social context in which the work is performed, but does not directly affect the actual job performance). These two broad areas were eventually divided up into 8 smaller categories. These categories include, "Staff and Fellow Workers", "Family", "Personality / Personal", "Supervisors / Superiors / Management", "Job Specific", "General Context or Environment", "Working Environment", and "Other". Looking at the breakdown of responses, "Staff and Fellow Workers" and "Job Specific" obtained the greatest number of responses, 17.5% and 30.1% respectively, with "Personality / Personal" (15.2%) and "Supervisors / Superiors / Management" (11.6%) following closely behind. Please see Table 53 on the following page for the full list of categories and their subsequent number of responses.

TABLE 53: Causes of Stress

| Category | No. of responses | % of responses |
|---|---|---|
| **Staff and Fellow Workers** - the work performance and social relations with work colleagues, as well as subordinates. For example, unreliable subordinates, and low skilled staff | 54 | 17.5% |
| **Family** - the added stress related to being part of a family. For example, expectations of family, and marital problems | 11 | 3.5% |
| **Personality / Personal** - one's own personality, behaviours or personal issues, a focus on oneself. For example, low self-image, and perfectionist | 47 | 15.2% |
| **Supervisors / Superiors / Management** - the relationships with superiors. For example, insufficient guidance, and poor support from superiors | 36 | 11.6% |
| **Job Specific** - deals with the demands that the job itself imposes on the worker. For example, workload, pressure of work, and too much clerical work | 93 | 30.1% |
| **General Context or Environment** - deals with the external pressures of the outside environment in which one works. For example, crime situation in South Africa, and poor economy | 22 | 7.1% |
| **Working Environment** - deals with the specific or actual working environment in which the work is performed. For example, changing business environment, and poor banking systems | 27 | 8.7% |
| **Other** - deals with numerous issues which were too obscure, rare or ambiguous to be categorised. For example, continuously having to re-apply for a position and poor service everywhere | 19 | 6.1% |

The responses given for the consequences of stress (the third question), were equally varied. The final list of categories, however, includes, "Emotions", "Health", "Interpersonal Contact", "Family", Work Related", and "Other". For this question, the majority of people felt that "Emotions" (37.5%), "Health" (27%), and "Work Related" (18%) typified the consequences of their stress. See Table 54 below for the entire set of numbers and percentages for each category.

TABLE 54: Consequences of Stress

| Category | No. of responses | % of responses |
|---|---|---|
| **Emotions** - deals with the person's emotional reactions to the stress. For example, become moody, aggressive, and depressive | 75 | 37.5% |
| **Health** - deals with the health related consequences of the stress. For example, high blood pressure, and headaches | 54 | 27% |
| **Interpersonal Contact** - relates to how stress effects relations with others. For example, retract from involvement, and reclusive | 13 | 6.5% |
| **Family** - deals with how the stress impairs family relations. For example, too little time with family, and neglect of family | 11 | 5.5% |
| **Work Related** - deals with the consequences of stress which manifest themselves directly in the job. For example, lack of focus, and poor performance at work | 36 | 18% |
| **Other** - deals with numerous issues which were too obscure, rare or ambiguous to be categorised. For example, looking for other job, and poor quality of life | 12 | 6% |

The fourth question, that relating to the effects of stress on work, produced answers which were categorised into 5 sections, "Positive Effects", "Behavioural Reactions", "Work Related", "Health", and "Other". The overwhelming majority of responses were for "Behavioural Reactions" (42.5%), followed by "Work Related" (29%) and "Positive Effects" (17.7%), with the remaining two categories receiving minimal responses. The full list can be seen in Table 55 below.

TABLE 55: The Effects of Stress on Work

| Category | No. of responses | % of responses |
|---|---|---|
| **Positive Effects** - deals with the positive effects that stress has on one's work. For example, works quicker, and improves determination to succeed | 20 | 17.7% |
| **Behavioural Reactions** - deals with how the stress results in changed behaviours at the workplace. For example, intolerant, lack of motivation, and aggressive approach | 48 | 42.5% |
| **Work Related** - deals with how stress affects specific work related aspects. For example, lowers performance, and take longer to complete tasks | 34 | 29% |
| **Health** - deals with the health related consequences of the stress. For example, high blood pressure, and back spasms | 4 | 3.5% |
| **Other** - deals with numerous issues which were too obscure, rare or ambiguous to be categorised. For example, "covering my back", and love job but want to make a change | 8 | 7% |

The fifth and sixth questions were not categorised, as they were only included to further my discussion and for the purposes of future research. The fifth question enquired about how stress effects the respondent's home and social lives, while the sixth was a general question asking for any further comments. Both questions produced some very informative responses which allowed me to place the quantitative results into context. Some of the responses for question 5 include, "do not participate in home / family activities"; "impatient with family"; "think about work all the time"; "withdraw"; "difficult to communicate with"; and "release anger on family". These responses add to existing knowledge by confirming the literature which says that people tend to bring their work stress home with them, tend to take out their frustrations on those people that matter the most, and also allow their working lives to overshadow most other aspects of their lives.

Examples of some of the responses for question 6 include, "top management must be more caring"; "demanding and stressful job"; banking is a stressful occupation"; "too few staff"; and "(the name of the bank)'s policy of bringing in outsiders will lead to a loss of staff". These responses help in that they tell me, amongst other things, that the managerial positions at the bank are inherently stressful, that much dissatisfaction exists with the top management and how they run the organisation, and that managers are fearing the loss of their jobs, as well as becoming demotivated, due to the hiring of outside people as opposed to using current employees to fill the positions.

## Summary of Results:

All the results which have been reported in the current chapter, will form the basis for the discussion which follows (Chapter 5). The results obtained from the content analysis will be used to add further insight, help explain the quantitative data, and add to the general discussion of the results.

# CHAPTER 5 : DISCUSSION

*Now that all the results have been presented, as well as all the methodology and other groundwork which was laid down for this research, it is necessary to piece them all together. This final piece of the puzzle will draw on all the aspects and chapters encountered thus far. At the end of this section, the reader should be able to see the value derived from the present study, and as with all worthy research, find ways upon which it can be improved.*

# Introduction to Discussion:

The purpose of the present study was to look at the stressor-outcome and moderator relationship amongst South African managers. This was achieved by testing the various stressor and outcome relationships amongst the managers, as well as by testing the hypothesised moderating effects of certain chosen variables.

In the discussion which follows, the results of the study will be discussed in the context of both the literature and the results obtained from the content analysis. In addition, theoretical and practical implications will be presented, which will be followed by the limitations of the study and suggestions for future research.

In order to facilitate the easy, logical and coherent reading of this section, it was decided to follow the natural order of the results. This means that the general findings of all the hypotheses will be discussed separately, after which there will be a separate section discussing the implications of all those findings.

# Overview of Content Analysis:

Having said this, however, it was felt that in order to place the results of the present study into it's correct context, it was necessary to first discuss the general findings of the content analysis. Overall, the qualitative section of the research provided extra evidence that the variables which were chosen to be measured, were indeed the correct ones. The only variables which were not supported, were race, gender and coping style. If one thinks about it, neither race nor gender is ever likely to come up in an open-ended section unless specifically phrased, and the particular coping style which an individual uses is

usually unknown to him/her and so once again is not likely to be volunteered in an open-ended section.

More specifically, the first place to start is the amount of people who answered "yes" to the question of being stressed. Out of a sample of 290, 180 (62.07%) people considered themselves to be stressed. This information should be viewed in conjunction with the findings from the stress measure which shows the sample to be below average in terms of the strength of their stress. So, while over half of the sample felt stressed, the quantitative measure tells us that this stress is largely moderate (it exists in the bottom third of the stress continuum).

The list of causes of stress which was generated through the second of the open-ended questions, provides support for most of the hypothesised causes and moderators in the stressor-outcome relationship.
The category which proved most popular, was the "Job Specific" causes of stress, with 30.1% of the sample citing this as the main cause of their stress. Within this category, answers such as "demands of job", "pressure of work", "lack of time to get things done", and "deadlines", provide direct support for the influence that job pressures have on an individual's perception of stress. The "Supervisors / Superiors / Management" category, which garnered the support of 11.6% of the sample, relates to potential causes of stress which include feelings of a lack of organisational support. Evidence includes, "poor support from superiors", "insufficient guidance", "top heavy administration", and "top-down decisions". Comments such as "perfectionist", "scared of failure", "trying to do more than capable of", and "responsibility" are just some of the aspects of the "Personality / Personal" category which received 15.2% of the support, and which provides evidence for the influence of personality type on the stressor-outcome relationship.

Although no evidence was found for race, gender and coping style, as was mentioned earlier, this is not surprising and should not be viewed as a lack of evidence for their inclusion.

The outcomes which were measured in the present study include job dissatisfaction, propensity to leave, self-esteem, and ill health. Support for all of these variables was given in the open-ended section, particularly from the third question which inquired about the perceived consequences of stress. The second most popular category, "Health" (27%), served to directly support the inclusion of ill health as a possible consequence of stress in the current sample of managers. Some of the replies under this category include, "health suffers", "headaches", "high blood pressure", "lack of sleep", and "over-eat", many of which were directly measured in the quantitative section. Evidence for the other variables which were included as possible consequences in the present study, job dissatisfaction, self-esteem and propensity to leave, is scattered around the rest of the categories. Some of the supporting evidence for job dissatisfaction includes "negative feelings", "upset over higher management", "bad relationship with colleagues and bank", "demotivated", "boss autocratic and uncaring", and "feel time is wasted". While this evidence for an apparent dissatisfaction with their jobs is inconsistent with what was found through the quantitative measure (high job satisfaction), it should be noted that problems, such as self-serving bias, could have significantly influenced the results from the job satisfaction questionnaire. Problems such as these are covered in greater detail further on in the discussion.

The evidence for propensity to leave is somewhat scarce, but should also be seen as over-lapping with the job dissatisfaction evidence. Some evidence includes "looking for other job", "lack of focus", and "unable to get best results". The relatively weak evidence given for propensity to leave in the open-ended section is consistent with the findings of the propensity to leave measure which showed that on average, this sample of managers has a low intention to leave the organisation. Evidence for self-esteem was indirectly given through many of the categories. Once again, as the self-esteem measure used in the

present study indicated a high self-esteem of the sample, the scattered and indirect evidence is indicative of the present situation. Some of the evidence for low self-esteem includes "hopelessness", "introvert", "retract from involvement", "expectations of others" and "scared of failure".

The large amount of overall support which was fot or job pressure, lack of organisational support, personality type, job dissatisfaction, propensity to leave, self-esteem, and ill health, serves to add weight to the results of the present study, by showing that the variables which were measured are applicable ones. An important consideration in any study, is that the variables which have been chosen are applicable to the sample being tested. By having the open-ended section included as part of the quantitative study, not only has monomethod bias been avoided (this will be elaborated on towards the end of the discussion study), but the usefulness of the study has been ensured before any discussion was entered into. The fact that direct evidence exists which supports the appropriateness of the chosen variables for the present sample, serves to ensure that the results and subsequent discussion and explanation of these results, holds relevance to South Africa and to future studies.

These few paragraphs presented above, were added to give the reader an overall impression of the results of the content analysis. Where necessary in the discussion section which follows, reference will be made to the more specific aspects of the qualitative data.

# Hypotheses:

Hypotheses 1a - 1c:

The first set of hypotheses involved testing the stress levels against job satisfaction, anger and health. Generally, the tests produced significant findings.

Hypothesis 1a states that an inverse relationship exists between stress and job satisfaction. The results of this study (see Table 13, page 80) generally confirm this, with frequency of Job Pressure producing the only non-significant finding. As expected, the correlations between stress and job satisfaction were all generally high, with the lowest being between severity of Job Pressure and job satisfaction. This finding is consistent with all the studies which have been conducted on stress and job satisfaction. Specifically, Cooper and Cartwright (1994) and Hendrix et al. (1995) state that the greater the stress levels of managers, the lower their levels of job satisfaction. They continue by pointing out that this inverse relationship is not peculiar to managers, but to any person who perceives their stress level as being high.

Consistent with these authors, the present study defines stress as an individual's perception of his/her environment (Lazarus,1995). Stress was viewed as an "uncomfortable cognitive state resulting from exposure to a stressor ... (which may) result in psychological and physiological strain" (Hendrix et al.,1995, p75). The measure used to assess stress in the present study, therefore, was chosen based on its ability to tap the individual's perception or subjective experience of stress. As the necessity of individual perceptions (Cooper and Cartwright,1994; Hendrix et al.,1995) was adhered to, the resultant finding, an inverse relationship between stress and job satisfaction, can be seen to be a true and consistent finding.

Taking the previous paragraph into consideration, the non-significant finding of the frequency of job pressure is somewhat surprising. Research has consistently shown (Abramis,1994; Matthews and Glass,1984; Robertson et al.,1990) that the greater the pressures of the job, the more likely the individual is to experience lowered job satisfaction. One explanation for this finding, could be that while the job pressures may occur frequently, they may not be considered to be severe enough to warrant an effect in perceived job satisfaction. As the results in Table 13 show, severity of job pressure, unlike frequency, produced a significant negative correlation with job satisfaction. This implies therefore, that the explanation given above could indeed be plausible.

Research has often spoken about the moderating effect of personality on the stress-job satisfaction relationship (Havlovic and Keenan,1995; Matthews and Glass,1984). Of interest to the present study, is the finding that the job satisfaction of Type B individuals decreases as a consequence of job pressure (Robertson et al.,1990). Based on the score obtained from the personality measure used in the present study (the MTABS), one can see that the personality of this sample of managers tends more towards Type B behaviour. One could assume, therefore, that based on the findings of Robertson et al.(1990), the job satisfaction of this sample would decrease as job pressure increased. Even though no significant relationship was found between job satisfaction and frequency of job pressure, a significant relationship was found with severity of job pressure (see page 79). It is this negative relationship with severity of job pressure, which serves to confirm the research of Robertson et al. As hypothesised, the job satisfaction of the sample decreased as the severity of job pressure increased. Once again, the explanation that the job pressures did not occur frequently enough to cause an effect, could similarly apply here. This complex relationship between stress, job satisfaction and personality, will be looked at in much greater detail further on in the discussion section.

Hypothesis 1b reported the existence of an inverse relationship between stress and anger, one of the components of Type A personality. The results of the present study (as can be seen in Table 14 on page 81), support this hypothesis and produced significant negative correlations between anger and all the measures of the aspects of stress, except for frequency of job pressure. Once again, an explanation for the non-significant finding of job pressure, could be that the job pressures were perceived to be frequent but not frequent or severe enough to effect the anger component of the Type A individual.

Looked at closely, the statement of this hypothesis is somewhat surprising and almost puzzling, as common sense would make one expect a positive, not a negative, relationship between stress and anger. In other words, it seems more likely that the more of the anger component an individual possesses, the greater his/her stress will be. One explanation that has been offered to support the hypothesis, is that people who are high in the "anger" component, tend to express rather than internalise their feelings of stress (Matthews and Glass,1984). Through this catharsis, individuals release the pressures which often result in stress, and are then able to continue with their lives, relatively stress-free, until new stressors arise. Those people who are unable to express their anger and forcefully suppress it, internalise these feelings of anger and thus serve to exacerbate their feelings of stress. Having said this, it becomes clear that a negative relationship, and not a positive one as was suggested above, should indeed exist between stress and anger. Those people who cannot express their anger (who are low in the anger component), may internalise their feelings and increase their perceptions of stress.

Hypothesis 1c, the last one in this section, stated that an inverse relationship exists between stress and health, i.e. the greater the stress, the poorer the individual's health. The findings of this study generally support this hypothesis with significant negative correlations found between stress and all of the above components of health, except for "respiratory" and "other". For these two components, no significant findings were

reported for any of the measures of stress, which is not particularly surprising considering their reliabilities were below the accepted level. For the "other" component, the internal reliability was found to be extremely low (0.38), while that for "respiratory" was not much better at 0.55. (All these results can be found in Table 15 on page 82).

Many studies have looked at the impact stress has on an individual's health. Among these, is the prestigious South African Brain Research Institute, which has shown that increases in stress can result in an increase in the incidence of headaches, poor sleep habits, and a general decline in overall health (The Star,1997). Furthermore, both Ivancevich and Matteson (1990) and Spence et al. (1987) have reported that poor health, including headaches, eating disorders, digestive problems, and disruptive sleep habits, can all result from perceived feelings of stress.

The findings of these studies can be backed up by those of the present study. In the open-ended section, when asked about what they considered the consequences of their stress to be, the managers reported that they were generally not very stressed. Most of the respondents (37.5%) said that should they encounter any stress, however, they react through a change in their emotions, such as becoming moody, aggressive, impatient, and unreasonable. A further 27% of the managers, said that their stress manifests itself in their health - akin to much of the research reported above (such as Ivancevich and Matteson, 1990; Spence et al.,1987; and the research conducted by the South African Brain Research Institute). Similar to all these studies, the present sample of managers largely reported health consequences such as disruptive sleep habits ("lack of sleep", "sleeplessness"), over-eating, high blood pressure, headaches, and a general decline in health ("health suffers").

As shown above, as well as in Appendix E, no respiratory problems or problems that fall into the "other" category were reported by the present sample of managers in the open-ended section of questions. Based on this, while the internal reliability of the

"respiratory" and "other" measures is poor, the non-significant findings may not in fact be due to these poor measures, but may rather be an indication of true findings, that respiratory and "other" health problems are not a consideration in the present sample.

Once again, the value of open-ended questions should be clear. In this case, information obtained from the open-ended section served to support previous research, as well as to provide a possible explanation to some of the inconsistent findings of the present study.

Hypotheses 2a - 2c

This set of hypotheses looked at how job satisfaction was effected by Type A personalities, and also the relationship between job satisfaction and propensity to leave.

Hypothesis 2a states that an inverse relationship exists between job satisfaction and an individual's propensity to leave. The results (see Table 16, page 83) support this finding by producing a significant relationship. This shows that the more the individual is satisfied in his/her jo[illegible] or his/her propensity to leave (or quit) the organisation will be. This finding is [illegible]t with those of Salvo et al.(1995) and Hendrix et al.(1985; 1995), who found [illegible]e greater the individual's satisfaction with his/her job, the less likely he/she is [illegible].

This finding is rather obvious when one considers that the more satisfied and happy an individual is in his/her job, the fewer the reasons that exist for him/her to leave it. If one looks at the average propensity to leave score obtained for this sample (7.95 out of a maximum of 12), one can see that this group of managers have a low intention to leave. Taken further, based on the significant inverse relationship found between job satisfaction and propensity to leave, this implies that they are also highly satisfied in their jobs. This high job satisfaction (and therefore the finding), is proven by looking at the average job

satisfaction of the sample (56.47 out of a maximum of 80), thus showing that this sample is highly satisfied in their jobs.

An important consideration when discussing propensity to leave, are the other possible reasons, both internal and external, which may cause an individual to leave his/her job. These reasons could increase an individual's propensity to leave, irrespective of his/her job satisfaction. For example, relocation, family matters, financial situations and retirement.As the present study only looks at and measures the stressors and outcomes which are internal or intrinsic to the job, these other possible external causes are not considered in detail here. This is not a limitation of the present study, as attempting to look at all the external causes and outcomes of the chosen variables, in addition to the internal factors, would make the study virtually infinite and immeasurable. Rather the reader should be made aware of possible external reasons which may increase an individual's propensity to leave.

Hypotheses 2b - 2c involved looking at the impact that Type A behaviour has on job satisfaction. The achievement striving (AS) construct was said to be positively related to job satisfaction, while impatience irritability (II), hostility (H), anger (A) and competitiveness (COMP), were all said to be negatively related to job satisfaction. Inconsistent with much of the research that has been conducted, but consistent with Burke and Weier (1980) and Greenglass (1987), none of the Type A components had any significant relationship with job satisfaction.(see table 17, page 84)

Burns and Bluen (1992) ascribe much of the inconsistent findings of the research to the way in which Type A behaviour is often measured. They criticise the definition of Type A as a global construct and rather prefer to view and examine it's different components separately (ibid.). The present study, akin to Burns and Bluen (1992), compared job satisfaction to the different components of Type A behaviour, rather than only looking at

an overall or global measure. This could possibly explain why the results from the present study are contradictory to many of the studies (such as Dearbon and Hastings,1987) who found a significant relationship between job satisfaction and a global measure of Type A behaviour. Having said that, the findings from the present study were still contradictory to the findings of Bluen et al. (1990) and Burns and Bluen (1992) who both produced a significant relationship between job satisfaction and the different components of Type A behaviour.

The study conducted by Burns and Bluen (1992) is similar to the present study in many respects. Firstly, it was conducted in South Africa, secondly, the sample from their study was also derived from the banking sector, and thirdly, the samples are of a similar size (363 compared to 290). Based on this, the fact that the findings of the present study were contradictory to the findings of Burns and Bluen, amongst others, means that further research in this area is indeed necessary. These inconsistencies will be looked at again when Hypotheses 4a - 4e are discussed, and also under the "Directions for Future Research" section on page 170.

A possible explanation for the present finding could be that Type A behaviour and job satisfaction are really not related and this finding is a true reflection of this. Perhaps the type of personality an individual has only moderates the relationship, for example, the relationship between job satisfaction and stress. The effect may, therefore, be more a result of a linear moderated relationship, where personality acts as the moderator, rather than a direct linear relationship between personality and job satisfaction. This point about the possible moderating effect of personality, will receive more attention at a later stage in the discussion section.

An interesting finding is that in South Africa, an unusual situation exists in that there is a high preponderance of Type A behaviour among white South African males (Strumpfer, 1986). Considering the fact that the sample in the present study consists of 94.83% whites

and 76.90% males, one can deduce that assuming this finding is correct, there will be a high proportion of Type A behaviour in the sample. Looking at the breakdown from the Type A behaviour scale (see Table 12), however, the results show that except for the achievement striving construct, this sample has a tendency away from Type A behaviour and more towards Type B behaviour. This tendency towards Type B behaviour refutes Strumpfer's claim that we have a high preponderance of Type A behaviour amongst South African management. This tendency of the sample towards Type B behaviour will be expanded upon throughout the discussion section.

Hypotheses 3a - 3g

The third set of hypotheses relate to race. The races were compared with regards to stress, self-esteem, propensity to leave, job satisfaction, Type A behaviour and coping skills. (see Tables 27 - 29). Unfortunately, due to the small number of non-whites in the sample (7 out of 290), there is not much statistical significance, nor are the results particularly useful.

The only significant results relate to Type A behaviour. A significant relationship was found between whites and non-whites in the impatience irritability (II) construct of Type A behaviour, as well as in the overall measure. Consistent with the hypothesis, the white managers were found to exhibit more of the II construct of Type A behaviour, as well as have a greater tendency towards overall Type A behaviour than the non-white managers. This finding is somewhat supported by the statement made by Strumpfer (1986) that in South Africa there exists a large amount of Type A behaviour amongst white South African males. The possibility exists of course, that this statement is out-dated and that should new research be conducted, it would in all likelihood produce very different results - results which may contradict the findings of the present study.

A further expansion of this statement, implies that Type A behaviour is far more prevalent among white managers than among non-white managers worldwide (Payne, 1989). Again, the results of the present study are consistent with previous findings. The implications of this are twofold. Firstly, it could imply that the white managers in South Africa truly have a greater tendency towards Type A behaviour than the non-white South African managers, or alternatively, it could imply that the findings need to be questioned. A strong possibility exists, that the sample make-up of the present study (where a group consisting of 7 managers was compared to one consisting of 283 managers) could have skewed the results and caused them to be misrepresentative. This sample make-up, as well as the out-dated research in the area, make the results of the present study almost useless. What they do succeed in doing, however, is reinforcing the fact that current up-to-date research on the possible differences between white and non-white managers must be conducted. Until this happens, meaningful comparisons and explanations cannot be offered. This problem of out-dated research is covered again in the "Future Research" section which starts on page 170.

Hypotheses 4a - 4e

In this set of hypotheses, Type A behaviour was tested with regards to stress, self-esteem, coping style, propensity to leave and physical health.

Hypothesis 4a stated that those people who exhibit Type A behaviour, experience greater stress than those who do not. The findings from the present study contradict this hypothesis (see Table 18, page 85). All of the significant findings were negative, thus showing an inverse relationship between stress and Type A behaviour. In the present study, the more aspects of Type A personality an individual has, the less amount of stress he/she will experience. This finding is completely opposite to those of many researchers, such as Ross and Altmaier (1994), Kobasa (1988), and Matteson and Ivancevich (1987), who all state that Type A individuals experience more stress than Type B individuals.

Aspects of a Type A personality, such as impatience with others, an intense drive to succeed, and hostility, all add to and increase an individual's stress level. As Ross and Altmaier (1994) say, Type A individuals are more likely to experience occupational stress simply by how they view the world.

This contradictory and puzzling result requires some further discussion. One explanation for the results could be that the studies referred to above were conducted on a global measure of Type A behaviour, without taking regard of its specific components, and therefore are not a true reflection of Type A behaviour. This is consistent with the view adopted by Burns and Bluen (1992), among others, who differentiate between a global measure of Type A behaviour and a measure which assesses the numerous components of Type A behaviour. According to Burns and Bluen, a failure to assess the different components of Type A behaviour results in a loss of information, which in turn skews the information and leads to inconsistent data and incorrect conclusions (Burns and Bluen, 1992). This explanation may go a long way to explaining the inconsistent findings from the components of Type A behaviour, but most definitely does not explain the opposite findings of the overall measure.

Another possible explanation for the results takes the working environment into account. In the banking sector, those people who exhibit Type A behaviours may thrive and be the type of person who succeeds in such a competitive environment. A need to release anger, have a drive to succeed, be competitive and do as much as possible in as short a time as possible (Dohrenwend and Dohrenwend,1984; Strumpfer,1986), may all equal success in the upper echelons of the banking sector, particularly this institution. It is large, one of the biggest in South Africa, and so in general, hard working, competitive and productivity-focused people (Type A individuals) would seem to be more likely than easy-going, less competitive and relaxed people (Type B individuals), to succeed.

While the explanation offered above may initially seem to suffice for this hypothesis, it fails when one takes the sample breakdown into account. This is because the breakdown shows that this group of managers consists of predominantly Type B managers, not the Type A individuals who were assumed to be required in the upper levels of the hierarchy of a large organisation.

This now throws this section into some sort of disarray, and thus requires some further insight. In such a case, a look at the content analysis is in order. These results show that the personal descriptions given by the sample, which include such things as "low self-image", "lack of motivation", "trying to do more than capable of", and "problems can't cope well with", all serve to confirm a greater tendency towards Type B behaviour, and away from Type A. Type A individuals have huge motivation, drive, and confidence, and believe that they are capable of achieving anything they set their mind to (Dohrenwend and Dohrenwend,1984; Strumpfer,1986). These typical characteristics of Type A individuals were not found in the content analysis. Looking at some of the answers obtained in the open-ended set of questions, the characteristics of the managers which shone through, showed them to be less competitive, less fearless and more easy-going than described above, for example, "avoid conflict situations", "improves determination to succeed", "more relaxed approach", "unnecessary worrying", "trying out new ideas and taking risks", "stay out of the way", and "works well under pressure". In fact, the characteristics and general feeling garnered from the content analysis shows the sample to be closer in personality type to the characteristics of Type B individuals. These characteristics, in addition to the ones mentioned earlier, all serve to confirm the result from the study which shows that this sample of managers, on a continuum of Type A and Type B behaviour, falls much closer to the "Type B" end.

This finding of a greater tendency towards Type B behaviour in the sample, contradicts with the explanation offered by the present author that more competitive, driven and aggressive people (i.e. Type A individuals) may be required for the banking industry. It

nevertheless, is consistent with the overall stress levels of the sample, which fall into the lower quartile of stress. Stress research, as shown earlier, illustrates that Type A behaviour results in greater feelings of stress, while Type B behaviour results in less of a perception of stress - consistent with the largely Type B sample and low feelings of stress.

Having said this, perhaps then it is the explanation offered by the author above which is questionable, and not the finding itself. This could mean that in a large, hectic and competitive environment, perhaps it is rather those people who work steadily, are not hostile and competitive with others, and who re-direct any stress onto their extra-mural activities, who succeed and move ahead of Type A individuals. This being the case, the results from the present study would be supported.

Unfortunately, this situation of contradictory findings does not seem to be easily resolved. Perhaps one of the measures was inconsistent and unreliable (although both produced extremely high Cronbach alphas), or perhaps the measures used were not specific enough. One, both or any other explanation could possibly help to account for and explain the strange findings of this hypothesis.

Hypothesis 4b looked at whether a positive relationship exists between Type A behaviour and self esteem. Not all of the results, the achievement striving, hostility and competitiveness constructs, produced significant findings. Those that did, the overall Type A measure, impatience irritability and anger, however, all produced positive relationships, consistent with the hypothesis. (see Table 19 on page 86 for the full set of results). This finding of a positive relationship between self-esteem and overall Type A is consistent with the findings of a study by Keenan and McBain (1979), who found that Type A individuals experience high levels of self-esteem.

Looking at the average score for self-esteem for this sample, a contradictory finding similar to the one found for Hypothesis 4a, is visible. In the present study, the self-esteem score for the sample is high, thus showing feelings of high self-esteem. This being the case, and based on the fact that Type A individual's tend to have high self-esteem, one can surmise that this group of managers are predominantly Type A individuals. This, as was shown earlier, is not the case. This could possibly imply that either the self-esteem or the Type A scales are unreliable, even though the Cronbach alphas for both the scales and the sub-scales are all above 0.70

One of the problems with using self-report questionnaires, is the problem of subjective bias (Rosenthal and Rosnow, 1991). The person filling in the questionnaire may misrepresent him/herself for any number of reasons. For example, in the present study, some of the managers may fear that the results or actual questionnaires could be leaked to their superiors. As a result, they may exaggerate or falsify information, as they may feel that if they are honest and their superiors view the results, then they may suffer some unpleasant repercussions. Of course, this feared leak would not occur, but many people would rather not take any chances. The self-esteem of an individual is an important aspect of his/her personality, and could effect how the individual performs his/her job. The respondent, realising this, may mark those answers he/she thinks will result in a high self-esteem score, rather than marking the honest answers to the questions. This limitation, which is not unique to the present study, is a general problem with using survey research methods. In the present study, cognisance was made of this potential problem of self-serving answers, and so more than one method was used. The open-ended questions served to clarify many of the answers which were obtained quantitatively, included in which is the self-esteem of the sample in question. It is important to realise, however, that the answers obtained from the qualitative section should only add to and help the reader surmise possible scenarios, rather than being seen as the final answer. If one looks at the results obtained, many of the negative consequences of stress seemed to

effect (either directly or indirectly), the self-esteem of the managers. Overall, the sample, contradictory to the findings obtained from the self-esteem measure, seemed to be experiencing feelings of low self-esteem. Some of the supporting answers include, becoming reclusive, unable to get the best results, low morale, become quieter and withdrawn, do not feel appreciated, mood changes, and lack of recognition of past results. As said previously, these answers should be seen in their context and not assumed to be the final and correct answers. What they should do, however, is to cast some doubt on the answers obtained from the quantitative measure, and help the reader to question and to think about other possible explanations for the results. Placing this in context, the qualitative data helped to support the finding that the sample consists of predominantly Type B individuals (as was shown previously), as well as question the finding of high feelings of self-esteem. If the qualitative data was correct, and the sample actually consists of managers with a relatively low self-esteem, then the findings of this hypothesis (Hypothesis 4b), as well as related hypotheses, should no longer be viewed as contradictory to the past research on the subject.

Hypothesis 4c looked at the relationship between Type A behaviour and coping style, stating that Type A personalities tend to make greater use of emotion-focused coping and less use of problem-focused coping when compared to Type B personalities. The results in the present study serve to both confirm and disprove this hypothesis. A significant negative correlation was found between problem-focused coping and overall Type A behaviour, thus showing that the more Type A an individual is, the less use he/she will make of problem focused coping, therefore supporting the hypothesis. With regard to emotion- focused coping, a significant relationship was found with overall Type A behaviour, but this was negative, and not positive as was hypothesised. Having said this, if one looks at the results (see Table 20), one can see that the negative correlation between problem-focused coping and overall Type A is quite high, while the relationship with emotion-focused coping is small and almost insignificant. Perhaps this can help

explain the somewhat contradictory finding with regards to emotion-focused coping. Problem and emotion-focused coping did not correlate significantly with all of the components of Type A - in fact only achievement striving and hostility produced a significant relationship, and all were negative. As for the rest of the components, impatience irritability and anger showed a negative although not significant relationship, while competitiveness, produced a positive non-significant result.

These general findings of emotion focused coping are inconsistent with much of the literature on this topic. For example, Havlovic and Keenan (1995) found that Type A individuals cope with stressful situations by avoiding issues and using emotion-focused coping skills, while Hurrell Jr. and Murphy (1991) and Matthews and Glass (1984) produced similar findings.

If the aspect of control is added into the Type A and coping relationship, the findings are no longer so contradictory. Type A individuals strive to maintain control of their environments. This drive may result in a greater use of problem-focused coping and less use of emotion-focused coping, thus supplying evidence for the negative relationship between Type A and emotion-focused coping. This does not, however, explain the negative relationship found between Type A behaviour and problem-focused coping. Perhaps then, a better way to explain the results is that in normal situations, where control is not much of an issue, Type A individuals use problem-focused coping skills. But, where control is involved, problem-focused coping is no longer an appropriate coping style for the Type A individual, who rather chooses to adopt an emotion-focused coping style.

Hypothesis 4d states that Type A individuals have a greater propensity to stay in the organisation than Type B individuals. The results from the present study (see Table 21), refute this by showing that no significant relationship exists. This result also contradicts

the findings of Ganster et al.(1991) who reported a significant relationship between propensity to leave and Type A behaviour.

This finding is somewhat explained when the average propensity to leave score for the entire sample is looked at. This shows a high mean score for propensity to leave, thus indicating a low propensity (or intention) to leave the organisation. The content analysis supports this low intention to leave score, as only one person wrote "looking for other job" when asked about the consequences of [illegible] while no-one else mentioned anything about leaving or intentions to leave. Of course, the sample may not have been completely truthful and some may have a desire to leave, but felt it would be wrong to say so as it may jeopardise their jobs. Even though anonymity and confidentiality were assured, people may still be concerned that the results or actual questionnaires may be leaked and as a result, may not be completely honest when answering them.

Furthermore, as the sample tended more towards Type B behaviour than Type A, and as the hypothesis almost assumed the existence of Type A behaviour, the non-significant finding is a fairly accurate representation of the results. In addition to this explanation, it must be remembered that the internal reliability of the propensity to leave scale that was used, was very low. This means that the comparisons made with the findings from this measure, are questionable and should not hold too much weight.

Hypothesis 4e looked at the positive relationship between the impatience irritability and hostility constructs of Type A behaviour, and physical complaints. The results obtained from the present study are mixed (see Table 22, page 89). Impatience irritability correlated significantly with the overall health measure, and some of its sub-scales, namely sleep habits, headaches and digestion. No significant correlations were found, however, between impatience irritability and the "Respiratory" and "Other" sub-scales. This finding is not particularly surprising when one considers that the internal reliabilities

for both of these sub-scales was low, below the lowest acceptable level of 0.60. The hostility construct of Type A behaviour did not produce many significant findings, in fact only with sleep habits and headaches, both of which were low correlations.

While these findings may somewhat contradict the results from previous studies (such as Fox et al.,1993; Quick et al.,1990; and Summers et al.,1995) they also add to them. Researchers have consistently spoken about the general relationship between Type A behaviour and ill health (Fox et al.,1993; Ivancevich and Matteson,1990; Kobasa,1988). Many, however, have failed to specify the particulars of the relationship, such as which aspects of Type A behaviour relate to which outcomes. Kobasa et al. (1981) were one of the few research groups who acknowledged that certain specific components of Type A behaviour may be associated with ill health, but unfortunately they did not specify which aspects of ill health. Much of the research on Type A behaviour and ill health has focused on coronary heart disease (CHD), and how Type A behaviour exacerbates or decreases it, or how it may have no effect at all (Kobasa et al.,1981; Quick et al.,1990; Schaubroeck and Ganster,1991; Summers et al.,1995). The measure used for ill health in the present study did not look at or attempt to measure the incidence of CHD, and instead looked at more general aspects of stress-related ill health. Expanding on this, due to the non-specific nature of research in this area, the variables that the present study chose to measure were obviously not ones which produce significant differences. Had other variables been chosen, such as smoking, CHD and exercise, then perhaps more significant findings would have resulted. The present study adds to knowledge in the area, therefore, by showing which aspects of ill health are *not* related to Type A behaviour in South Africa. For purposes of future research, perhaps different aspects of ill health in South Africa should be measured, aspects akin to those measured by the South African Brain Research Institute, such as blood pressure, smoking and drinking, diabetes and ulcers (The Star,1997).

Due to the findings of the hypotheses in this section, one can assume that as the Type A behaviour scale is the common element, it must in some way be responsible for the results. Perhaps it is a poor measure, or perhaps, and more likely, there is no simple relationship between Type A behaviour and stress, self-esteem, coping, propensity to leave and ill health. These results force one to consider the fact that other factors may influence these relationships. Perhaps these relationships with Type A behaviour are in fact non-linear, and Type A behaviour should rather be viewed as a moderator as opposed to as an independent or dependent variable. This view of Type A behaviour as a moderator is consistent with the theoretical model created and then formulated on page 18 in Chapter 2, as well as with much of the research on the topic. For example, Edwards et al.(1990), Havlovic and Keenan (1995) and Robertson et al. (1990), speak about the moderating effect of Type A behaviour on the stress-outcome relationship. Furthermore, Hurrell Jr. and Murphy (1991) and Matthews and Glass (1984), provide further evidence for the moderating effect of Type A behaviour on the stress-outcome relationship, particularly when the outcome is absenteeism.

The possible moderating relationship of Type A behaviour will be looked at and discussed in a later section, where moderated multiple linear regressions were conducted on Type A behaviour, amongst others. This complete section begins on page 151.

Hypotheses 5a - 5d

This fifth set of hypotheses addresses coping styles and how they relate to and are effected by stress, job satisfaction, propensity to leave and self-esteem.

Hypothesis 5a looks at the impact that coping skills have on stress. It states that managers who use emotion-focused coping strategies experience less stress than those managers who opt for problem-focused strategies. The results from the present study disprove this

hypothesis, as neither problem nor emotion-focused coping correlated significantly with overall stress or any of its constructs (see Table 23, page 90).
This finding contradicts some of the previous research on the topic. Some authors, such as Edwards et al.(1990), report findings which suggest that problem-focused coping buffers and reduces the effects of stress, while emotion-focused coping only exacerbates it. Others, however, have found that an emotion-focused coping style, not a problem-focused one, is more effective in stressful situations (Hurrell Jr. and Murphy, 1991; Lazarus and Folkman,1984; Ogus,1995). Even though the results may have been inconsistent, most researchers seem to agree that a significant relationship exists between stress and coping style, although which coping style leads to greater stress is often disputed (Bhagat et al.,1995; Lazarus,1995; Lazarus and Folkman,1984; Monat and Lazarus,1991).

Coping was generally agreed upon as being central to the stress process and its resultant outcomes (Lazarus,1995). It was found to influence how a person acts, reacts and performs in a stressful situation (ibid.). While it was agreed upon that coping influences the stress-outcome relationship, and that the use of a particular coping style may affect the resultant perceptions of stress, agreement was not reached on how coping influences this relationship and on which coping style affects the perceptions and outcomes of stress.

Folkman et al.(1986) explain that even though coping can largely be differentiated into two distinct groups, in reality, people generally use both forms of coping in every stressful encounter. Viewing coping from this angle, the non-significant finding of the present study no longer seems to contradict the research. If both types of coping are used in every stressful situation, then it is difficult to separate them and to say that one coping style leads to greater stress than the other. So, even though one strategy usually dominates the other (Folkman and Lazarus,1980), because these two strategies co-exist

and therefore influence each other, one cannot ascribe the effect on stress to one or the other, which is akin to what the present study found.

Hypothesis 5b states that managers who use emotion-focused coping strategies experience greater feelings of job satisfaction. The results from the present study both confirm and add to this hypothesis (see Table 24, page 91). Emotion-focused coping produced a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction, while the same significant positive relationship was found with problem-focused coping. This shows that not only people who use emotion-focused coping will experience greater job satisfaction, but also those who use problem-focused coping. This finding is fairly consistent with previous research as Fang and Baba (1993); Fox et al.(1993) and Hendrix et al.(1994), amongst others, have shown that the individual's choice of a coping strategy will influence his/her ultimate level of job satisfaction. A possible reason for the significant relationship found with job satisfaction and both problem and emotion-focused coping, could be that in the present study the managers opted to use both coping strategies to combat any stressful situations they encountered and thereby increase their job satisfaction. The research has consistently found that it is important to use a coping strategy (irrespective of which one), to deal with stressful situations. The use of either of these strategies should ultimately help to increase an individual's feelings of satisfaction with his/her job (Fang and Baba,1993; Fox et al., 1993; Koeske et al.,1993; Puffer and Brakefield,1989).

Hypothesis 5c states that managers who use more problem-focused coping strategies, will have a lower propensity to leave the organisation. The results of the present study did not produce any significant relationships with propensity to leave and either problem or emotion-focused coping (see page 92). This finding is inconsistent with similar research on the topic, where the use of a problem-focused coping strategy, in particular, was found to greatly reduce an individual's intention to leave (Frone et al.,1995; Puffer and

Brakefield,1989; Steptoe,1991). Research shows that through the use of coping strategies, the individual is better able to effectively deal with the demands placed upon him/her, thus reducing stress and thereby his/her propensity to leave the organisation (ibid.).

This finding could be explained by the non-significant result of Hypothesis 5a, where no relationship was found between the different types of coping and stress. As stress and propensity to leave tend to be related, perhaps the non-significant finding of coping with propensity to leave could have something to do with the non-significant relationship found between stress and coping.

The inconsistency of the finding from the present research could once again possibly be explained by the poor internal reliability of the propensity to leave scale. A completely unreliable measurement measures nothing at all (Wimmer and Dominick,1991), and this scale, with a Cronbach alpha of only 0.55, can therefore be rendered useless. Continuing, this means that the results obtained from using such a measure are worthless and at best questionable. Nevertheless, until further research is conducted on coping styles and propensity to leave to determine if the measure was at fault or if in fact no significant relationship exists as was shown, the findings will have to hold.

Hypothesis 5d states that managers who have lower self-esteems tend to make greater use of emotion-focused coping. The results of the present study (see Table 26, page 92), neither confirm nor disprove this hypothesis. Problem-focused coping produced a significant positive correlation with self-esteem, while no significant relationship was found between emotion-focused coping and self-esteem. The positive correlation between problem-focused coping and self-esteem could imply that managers with higher self-esteems make greater use of problem-focused coping strategies. It must be noted, however, that this does not necessarily make the hypothesis true.

Ganster and Schaubroeck (1995) found that those individuals with low self-esteem are more likely to adopt an emotion-focused approach to coping, while the opposite (i.e. high self-esteem individuals use problem-focused coping), is also true. This latter finding is consistent with the results of the present study which produced a significant positive correlation between self-esteem and problem-focused coping style.

A possible explanation for the findings of the present study can be found in the writings of Folkman et al.(1986). They state that the type of coping strategy which is used depends on two things, what is at stake, and the various options available to the individual. When something as personal and central as self-esteem is at stake, individuals tend to use emotion-focused coping. When, however, something external to them, such as a work goal is at stake, individuals choose to rather adopt a problem-focused coping style. This helps to understand the present study a little better. In this sample of managers, where problem-focused coping and self-esteem produced a positive relationship, one can therefore assume that the work goals of the managers, as opposed to their actual self-esteem, was at stake. If their self-esteem was being threatened, then in all likelihood, an emotion-focused coping strategy, and not a problem-focused one, would have been employed.

This explanation is plausible when one considers the concept of "global self-esteem" as offered by Ganster and Schaubroeck (1995). They say that in most cases, an adult's global self-esteem remains a stable disposition and acts to influence an individual's perceptions of, and responses to their external environment. The sample in the present study consists of a group of managers who are generally quite mature in age (the average age is 43.5 years), furthermore, the self-esteem scale shows that the average self-esteem for the sample is high (the average is 20.56 out of a maximum score of 25). Based on this, as well as on the findings of Ganster and Schaubroeck, one can surmise that the self-

esteem of this group of managers is not only high, but should also be stable and settled, and so the chances of them being concerned about it being threatened, is quite minimal. Taking all the above factors into consideration, it seems obvious why problem-focused coping strategies and not emotion-focused coping strategies were us by the managers.

Looking at all the results of this set of hypotheses, one can see that they are generally quite inconsistent with previous research on this subject. Cox and Ferguson (1991) have emphasised that coping is a complex phenomenon that takes into account many other influences such as personality, age and gender. As a result, they say that inconsistent findings are "part-and-parcel" of the studies which are conducted on coping strategies. Having said this, the generally inconsistent findings of the present study regarding coping, no longer seem so unusual and contradictory, as inconsistency is in fact to be expected, (as was suggested by authors such as Cox and Ferguson, 1991).

Hypotheses 6a - 6g

The last set of hypotheses relates to gender. In order to see if gender is an influencing variable, males and females were compared with regard to stress, self-esteem, job satisfaction, propensity to leave, health, coping style, and Type A behaviour. The results show (see Tables 30 - 32 on pages 97 - 99), that the only significant differences between males and females, can be found in stress, health, and Type A personality.

Females were found to experience job pressures more frequently than males. This finding is consistent with a study conducted by Spielberger and Reheiser (1995) who found that female managers experience stress more frequently than male managers. Female managers often have to deal with role conflict, i.e. conflict between two or more roles they have to fulfill (Quick et al.,1990). This role conflict has resulted from the dual roles of professional mothers - their work roles which occur simultaneously with their family

responsibilities (Havlovic and Keenan,1995; Ross and Altmaier,1994), and which in turn can easily result in feelings of increased stress in the female managers. This stress which they experience, which occurs while they have to juggle their time between work and family pressures will, in all likelihood increase the frequency (or perceived frequency) of job pressures.

Another explanation for this finding, is that due to the gender stereotypes which exist in the workplace today, female managers tend to experience greater job demands since they perceive (and probably rightly so), that they have to work harder and better than their male colleagues to get equal recognition (Quick et al.,1990; Rosin and Korabik, 1995). These perceptions could easily result in increased job pressures.

One of the other differences which was found between male and female managers, was with regard to health. On the whole, consistent with the hypothesis (see Hypothesis 6e on page 45), male managers were found to be much healthier than their female counterparts. Specifically, males were found to experience fewer headaches, have fewer respiratory problems, be less susceptible to asthmatic and breathing problems, and were found to be much healthier overall.

Much of the research has shown that a relationship exists between role conflict and job demands, and increased stress (Havlovic and Keenan,1995; Quick et al.,1990; Rosin and Korabik,1995; Ross and Altmaier,1994). Furthermore, the role conflict and the stress which usually accompanies these multiple roles, has been shown in the present study to impact on the perceived frequency of job pressures. This increased stress can result in poorer health. Many studies have demonstrated the inverse relationship between stress and health (Ivancevich and Matteson,1990; Rime et al.,1989), citing consequences such as coronary heart disease, migraines, headaches, ulcers and poor memory skills (Burns and Bluen, 1992; Ivancevich and Matteson,1990; Spence et al.,1987).

Having said all this, it is not surprising that male managers who generally do not experience role conflict to the same extent as female managers (Quick et al.,1990; Robin and Korabik,1995; Smith,1979, cited in Ross and Altmaier,1994), tend to be healthier on average than female managers.

The last significant difference between male and female managers, is with regards to Type A behaviour. Males were found to have less of the achievement striving construct (AS), and less overall Type A behaviour than females. Once again, the fact that female managers were found to possess more of the AS construct than males, is not particularly surprising. Females, as shown above, tend to feel a greater need to push themselves to achieve more than expected. This desire to achieve, could enhance the AS construct in female managers, thus explaining, to some extent, the predominance of the AS construct of Type A behaviour in females.

The fact that female managers tend more towards overall Type A behaviour than male managers, is also not particularly surprising. Much of the research on this topic has shown that male managers have a greater propensity towards Type A behaviour than female managers (Billings and Moos,1981; Henderson et al.,1980; Rosin and Korabik, 1995). However, the research also speaks about the female managers' need and subsequent desire to succeed in a "man's world". In order to do this, females have had to become more forceful, aggressive, hostile, impatient and possess an intense drive to succeed, all of which constitute Type A behaviour. This finding is consistent with the results of the present study which show a positive relationship between Type A behaviour and female managers.

Following on, numerous authors (including Jex et al.,1995; Salvo et al.,1995 and Summers et al.,1995), have shown that female managers, despite being subjected to many more stressors than male managers, do not appear to experience significantly greater

amounts of overall stress. This finding is supported by the results of the present study (see Table 30 on page 97), which show no significant differences in the amount of perceived stress between males and females.

Having already offered explanations for the resultant differences between the male and female managers in the sample, there are a few other aspects which also need to be considered. Rosin and Korabik (1995) amongst others, have said that the found differences in gender may also be a result of position, education, occupation and personal differences between men and women. They say that one needs to also consider the possible effects of other variables which may act to confound and complicate the findings. These other differences, which are more a function of social context than of gender, may also help to explain some of the conflicting research on gender. Some researchers show significant differences between males and females on numerous factors (Billings and Moos,1981; Havlovic and Keenan,1995; Russo,1985), while others have found no differences at all (Henderson et al.,1980; Salvo et al.,1995; Spielberger and Reheiser, 1995; Summers et al.,1995). The results of the present study seem to have followed this inconsistent trend by producing significant differences between males and females in some areas, while showing no differences in others.

# Moderated Multiple Linear Regressions (MMLR):

The second objective of the present study was to test the moderating effect of the chosen variables. These moderators, which were derived from the theoretical model which was formulated on pages 14 - 19, were tested to determine whether they moderated the chosen stressor-outcome relationships. Quite contrary to what was expected, not many of the so-called moderator variables turned out to be that. Possible reasons and explanations will be discussed slightly later, after all the significant and non-significant findings have been presented.

First the relationship between overall stress (the independent variable) and job satisfaction, propensity to leave, self-esteem and ill health (the dependent variables) were assessed. In all of these relationships, all of the hypothesised moderators, namely gender, personality, coping style, frequency and severity of job pressure, and frequency and severity of lack of organisational support were tested. The same dependent variables and moderators were then applied with the independent variable being frequency of total stress, and followed by an independent variable of severity of total stress. (Please note: race was included as a moderator, but due to the extremely unequal breakdown of whites and non-whites, it was decided not to include it in the MMLR's).

Overall, the findings show (please see pages 105 to 114) that gender, coping style and frequency of job pressure did not act as moderators in any of the relationships. (Possible reasons will be discussed later).
Both frequency and severity of lack of organisational support were found to be moderators in both the overall stress and job satisfaction relationship and also in the overall stress and ill health relationship. Where total frequency was the input (or

independent variable), personality moderated the relationship with job satisfaction; while severity of job pressure and severity of lack of organisational support also moderated the job satisfaction relationships.
In the 'severity of total stress' set of relationships, frequency of lack of organisational support was found to be the only moderating variable, and only when job satisfaction was the outcome.

In order to put all these results into perspective, the non-significant findings will first be looked at in detail, and then followed by a discussion on the moderators.

Many authors (Billings and Moos,1981; Havlovic and Keenan,1995; Russo,1985; amongst others) have spoken about the moderating effect of gender. Their studies show that gender acts as a moderator in the stress-outcome relationship. At the same time, however, many other authors (such as Henderson et al.,1980; Jex et al.,1995; Salvo et al.,1995; Spielberger and Reheiser,1995; and Summers et al.,1995), have shown that gender does not in fact moderate the stress-outcome relationship.

Some of the reasons which have been offered to explain the inconsistent findings of the moderating effects of gender, point to the various complexities involved in the relationship. For example, some of the skeptics of the moderating effect of gender have ascribed many of the found differences to differences in the position, age, education and occupation of men and women, as well as to the personal differences or characteristics that are peculiar to each sex (Rosin and Korabik,1995). The author feels that this explanation holds much weight, especially in light of the findings of the present study. So, perhaps a more accurate way to describe the moderating effect of gender, could be to say that gender may moderate the stress-outcome relationship, but that other factors may in turn serve to moderate this moderator relationship. In other words, gender may be a moderator in certain stress-outcome relationships, but in order to ensure the accuracy of

this finding, acknowledgment must be made of some of the other, less obvious facts which may confound the relationship even more. These other factors may serve to confound the relationship to such an extent, that they may counteract the initial finding and neutralise it. This could possibly account for the non-significant finding of gender as a moderator.

The finding that coping is not a moderator in the present study, was somewhat more surprising. While the research on the precise effects of coping was inconsistent, a general agreement seemed to be reached, that to whatever extent, coping style acts as a moderator in the stress-outcome relationship (Cox and Ferguson,1991; Edwards et al.,1990; Folkman et al,1986; Havlovic and Keenan,1995; Hurrell Jr. and Murphy,1991). Coping was found to be particularly influential in how a person acts and reacts in the stress-outcome relationship (Lazarus,1995).

Once again, however, the research recognised the complex nature of the moderating effect of coping. It was acknowledged that the precise effect of coping depends on numerous other factors, particularly the influence of individual differences, such as personality, age and gender (Cox and Ferguson,1991). It is the existence of these other factors which could possibly explain the non-significant findings in the present study. Perhaps the other variables which may moderate the coping moderator, may have eliminated or reduced the effect of coping styles on all the stress-outcome relationships which were measured. There are, of course other possibilities, some of which will be covered further on in the discussion.

The last non-significant finding relates to frequency of job pressures. The research on job pressure has largely illustrated the moderating effect on the stress-outcome relationship (Canster and Schaubroeck,1991; Kobasa et al.,1981; Spielberger and Reheiser,1994; Turnage and Spielberger,1991). It has shown how the addition of job pressures serve to

worsen the impact and ultimate consequences of stress (Turnage and Spielberger,1991). Although no moderating effect was found with frequency of job pressure, severity proved to be a moderator in the 'total frequency of stress' and job satisfaction relationship. This could mean, therefore, that the frequency of the added job pressures for the present sample of managers was not frequent enough to cause an effect and act as a moderator in any of the relationships. The severity of the job pressures, however, were obviously great in that they affected the 'total frequency of stress' and job satisfaction relationship, by acting as a moderator. In this case, it means that the existence of total frequency of stress does not simply imply that job satisfaction will be affected (either positively or negatively), but that this relationship will be moderated by the perceived severity of job pressures. A significant inverse relationship was found between stress and job satisfaction for the present sample. The proven moderating effect of severity of job pressure, therefore implies that the stress-job satisfaction relationship was not linear, but was rather non-linear and moderated by another variable (severity of job pressure in this case). Put another way, this means that not only did job satisfaction decrease as stress increased, but severity of job pressure moderated this relationship, and increased the negative effect of stress on job satisfaction.

Personality was found to be a moderator in the 'total frequency of stress' and job satisfaction relationship. This finding is consistent with some of the research which illustrated the moderating effect of personality (Edwards et al.,1990; Hurrell Jr. and Murphy,1991; Matthews and Glass,1984), while inconsistent with other research which showed no relationship (Abramis,1994; Burns and Bluen,1992; Edwards et al.,1990). Quite clearly, the research on the moderating effect of personality on the stress-outcome relationship is both inconsistent and contradictory.

Unfortunately one of the main areas where inconsistency can be found, is over the moderating effect Type A behaviour has on the stress-job satisfaction relationship

(Robertson et al.,1990). This problem of inconsistency applies to the present study as well, because personality was found to be a moderator in only the 'total frequency of stress and job satisfaction' relationship, and not in any of the other stress relationships where job satisfaction was the outcome (i.e. with overall stress and total severity of stress). A possible explanation for the finding could reside in the fact that due to the contrasts between Type A and Type B personalities and behaviour, the way that they perceive the frequency of stress may differ. Type A individuals, due to the demanding, fast and restless lifestyles they may follow, could view extra stressors as either being "the last straw" or as one of many challenges and therefore may not make any difference. Type B individuals, who tend more towards a relaxed, easy-going lifestyle, may find extra stressors too much to bear or they may take them in their stride, as they do with most other aspects of their lives. In such cases, therefore, frequency of stress and job satisfaction could not be a simple linear relationship, but would be complex and moderated by the individual's personality type.

Frequency and severity of organisational support were both found to moderate the overall stress and job satisfaction, and overall stress and ill health relationships. Frequency of organisational support was shown to moderate the total severity of stress and job satisfaction relationship, while severity of organisational support, was found to moderate the total frequency of stress and job satisfaction relationship. This moderating effect of organisational support is consistent with most of the research (Frone et al., 1995; House, 1983; Hurrell Jr. and Murphy,1991; Kirkmeyer and Dougherty,1989; Kobasa,1988; Steptoe,1991). These studies showed that feelings of support (from the organisation or from external sources) moderated the stress-outcome relationship by buffering or reducing the effect. A high perception of support was shown to alleviate the magnitude of the stressor-distress relationships (Frone et al.,1995). Other researchers, however, have produced contradictory findings by failing to provide support for either the "buffering hypothesis", or for counter-buffering (House,1983; Steptoe,1991).

House (1983) speaks about the negative consequences of perceptions of lack of organisational support. These consequences could include pressure headaches, absenteeism, a high propensity to leave, lack of motivation, and low job satisfaction (House,1983; Hurrell Jr. and Murphy,1991; Kirkmeyer and Dougherty,1989; Steptoe,1991). The low job satisfaction and the presence of pressure headaches is of interest to the present research. These consequences are akin to the findings that low job satisfaction and ill health result when perceptions of lack of organisational support are added to these stress-outcome relationships.

Based on the findings of the present study, therefore, one can find evidence for the moderating effect of organisational support in the stress-job satisfaction and stress-ill health relationships.

## Implications and Explanations for the MMLR's:

In an ideal situation, the moderators and independent variables are not related. This assumption of independence means that when moderated multiple linear regressions are conducted, the results are a true reflection of the situation. In the present study, however, the moderators and independent variables produced mostly significant correlations (see the Results section, pages 79 - 92). Correlation coefficients range in absolute value from 0 to 1 (Murphy and Davidshofer,1994). A correlation of 0 indicates that the two variables are unrelated, while a correlation of 1 indicates that the two variables are perfectly correlated (ibid.) As can be seen from the results of the correlations which were presented in the previous chapter (Chapter 4), many of the correlations are significant, and therefore closer to 1 - the situation of perfect relations. In the context of the correlations which were conducted, these significant findings were the desired effect, unfortunately, however, this does not suit all of the statistical analyses which were conducted in the present study. This means, therefore, that a situation of multi-collinearity exists - there are high correlations among the predictor variables (Rosenthal and Rosnow, 1991). Unfortunately, multi-collinearity means that the power of the test becomes weak, which

in turn makes it difficult to interpret the full meaning of the regression coefficients (i.e. to spot the differences) (Rosenthal and Rosnow,1991). One of the consequences of multi-collinearity is that there may be a large $R^2$ and yet none of the regressors are significant (Moses,1986, cited in Rosenthal and Rosnow,1991). The incidence of large $R^2$'s occurred in the present study (for example, 0.83; 0.77; 0.56; and 0.30), but as can be seen in the results, these nevertheless did not produce significant findings.

The implication of this, is that if an hypothesised moderator produces a non-significant result, this does not necessarily mean that it is not a moderator. Rather, this could still mean that a moderating relationship exists, but because the power of the test is weak, this may not have been picked up. An analogy used to explain this problem of oversight is offered by Moses (1986). He tells of 10 people carrying a load which could easily be carried by 8. The group is doing it's job, but any 1 or 2 people could be omitted and would never be missed (cited in Rosenthal and Rosnow,1991).

In summary then, the non-significant findings of the moderated multiple linear regressions in the present study, does not mean that the hypothesised variables are not moderators, but rather that they could be and so further, more accurate and specific tests are required. Possibilities for these further tests are discussed in the "Future Research" section which starts on page 169.

Another explanation for the results could be that the boundaries are too specific and rigid. Rather than looking at the different variables under the different headings they should perhaps be viewed less statically. A strong likelihood exists, that these boundaries and categories overlap. More specifically, self-esteem may act as an outcome in some situations, or as a moderator in others, in fact, it may even be an independent variable in certain instances. If the concept of "global self-esteem" is adhered to, then self-esteem can fall into both the moderator and independent categories as well. If a person's self-

esteem is stable, then in a stress-outcome relationship it could act as a moderator and influence how the stress is perceived and therefore effect the outcome. For example, in the stress-job satisfaction relationship, a person who has a low self-esteem may regard the stressors as much more intrusive than someone with a high self-esteem would. These feelings of intrusiveness may in turn cause the job satisfaction of the low self-esteem individual to decrease, whereas if a high self-esteem exists, stress may not be regarded as serious and may not effect or at least reduce the job satisfaction.
Looking at self-esteem as an independent variable, a person's self-esteem may directly influence the outcome. For example, a high or low self-esteem could result in high or low job satisfaction, a high or low propensity to leave, and better or worse health.

The generally stable disposition of global self-esteem is interesting when applied to the present sample of managers. One would assume that an individual's self-esteem would remain relatively unchanged for the first few years in a job and therefore may act as both a moderator and an independent variable. As the tenure increases, so the global self-esteem may become more susceptible to change. While being put down and not having anyone pay attention to one's ideas may be unsettling and even incidental in the beginning, after a while, this may cause one's self-esteem to lower. The opposite, where an individual's self-esteem increases through much praise, attention and job promotion, also holds true. In the present sample, the average tenure of the managers is 15.5 years. This high tenure may have caused a change in the self-esteem of the sample, although it is still high at 20.56 (out of a maximum of 25). (At this point, it is important to remember the possible problem with self-report questionnaires, particularly those which inquire about personal issues, as was discussed in an earlier section.). In situations where tenure is long, as is the case in the present study, then self-esteem, in addition to acting as both a moderator and an outcome, could also be regarded as an independent variable.

The last possible explanation for the non-significant findings, could be that the wrong relationships were measured. In other words, gender, personality, coping skills, job pressure and organisational support (the hypothesised moderators) could all in fact be moderators, but not for the chosen relationships (i.e. stress as the independent variable, and job satisfaction, propensity to leave, self-esteem and ill health as all the outcomes or dependent variables). Perhaps gender, for example, could be a moderator in organisational commitment and work motivation relationships, even though it was shown not to moderate any of the stress-outcome relationships in the present study.

The exact reasons for the findings of the moderated multiple linear regressions, can never be fully ascertained from the present study. Rather, cogniscance must be taken of the possible explanations and the confounding variables which may be involved. Then, if further research is conducted, perhaps more insight will be garnered which should serve to further explain and understand the results of the present study.

# Theoretical Implications:

In order to advance knowledge in the chosen area of research, it is necessary to both replicate and add to past research. The present study has done just that. Aspects of past research were replicated (such as measuring Type A behaviour according to it's components), while at the same time adding new variables (for example, race), and placing it in a different context (in the Gauteng region in South Africa).

Most of the literature on stress research and managers, has shown how managers, as a result of their positions within the organisations, are subjected to a large amount of stress. The various consequences and manifestations of this stress are not, however, as easy to generalise. The research is thoroughly inconsistent in reporting any consequences, and even more so when possible moderators are added into the equation. For example, whether stress alone is responsible for causing things like job dissatisfaction, low self-esteem, a greater propensity to leave, and ill health, cannot be agreed upon. Some researchers feel stress alone is powerful enough, while others believe that ignoring some factors which may moderate these relationships, factors such as personality, gender, coping style, race, job pressure, and organisational support, is very short-sighted.

The present research has attempted to address both of these arguments by first looking at the linear relationships between the chosen variables, and then including possible moderators and looking at these new relationships. As expected, the results were both contradictory and supportive of the literature. "As expected" is used because the research in this area has been characterised and marred by inconsistent findings. This is a problem because by consistently producing inconsistent findings, the research has reached some sort of stale-mate - it is not advancing and progressing as it should. Many reasons, most of which appear valid, have been offered to explain (or at least account for) this

inconsistency. The way stress as a concept is defined and then measured, for example, is one of the more common explanations given. If stress is defined as something that is personal and subjective (as is the case in the present study), then the results obtained would be very different from other studies where stress was viewed as being objective, affecting all who come into contact with it, irrespective of personal differences. Another common explanation for the inconsistent findings, is the way Type A behaviour is measured - either as a global construct or as an aspect consisting of different components, all of which need to be measured. The list of possible explanations could go on virtually forever, with the same point still being made. The point, that due to the very nature of the concepts being measured - the fact that they can be viewed and measured from totally different angles - the research is, in all likelihood, going to continue to remain inconsistent and contradictory.

Having said that, however, there are ways to overcome some of this inconsistency, ways which could cement some of the findings, or at the very least, make the attempt. After all, it is all very well conducting research, but if the findings cannot be put to good use, then it almost seems to detract from the eventual findings. I am not saying that all research conducted must have usefulness as its ultimate aim, but rather that one of the aims should be to further knowledge. Without the creation of some sort of generalisations, certain aspects of knowledge cannot be furthered and added to. After all, much of the excitement of research revolves around the fact that it is a discovery process - the discovery or confirmation of new information.

Based on the above paragraphs, and looking once again at the theoretical model which was created for the purposes of the present study (see Figure 1 on page 18), one can see that slight modifications are necessary. Based on the poor findings from the moderated multiple linear regressions, adjustments relating to the chosen moderators, are indeed in order. Personality, Job Pressure and Organisational Support were the only variables

which were shown to moderate any of the stressor-outcome relationships. As a result, only these 3 variables should remain as the moderators in the new model, with space left for some new moderators to be added. If more current research on race is conducted, then race may also be included as a possible moderator.

With regards to the outcomes, the only one which needs modification, is health. In the present study, the health aspects which were chosen to be measured, were not found to be outcomes, and it was surmised that different aspects of ill health should be measured in future studies. In the new model, therefore, the words "ill health" should be used, thus allowing future researchers to choose those specific aspects they deem deserve to be included. The last aspect to the model, the "stressors" section, was found to be appropriate in the new model and was included as it stands.

Adding all these different aspects together, a new theoretical model has been created. This new theoretical model, which was adjusted based on the findings of the present study, can be seen in Appendix G.

Other more general modifications such as either removing all of the moderators or all of the outcomes, and then leaving spaces for new ones to be included in future research, are both plausible options, and are discussed in the "Future Research" section, on page 169.

In summary then, the present research has, I believe, added to the current research in the area by both confirming and disproving certain hypotheses (particularly those revolving around coping style, gender and personality), replicating some aspects of past research (including findings related to job satisfaction, self-esteem and personality), and considering new aspects (such as those relating to health, job pressures and race). Hopefully, by replicating some aspects of past research, this study has moved a small step forward towards creating some sort of generalisable rules by adding support and disproving certain of the research findings from the past. In addition, by considering some new variables, it has also laid the groundwork for future researchers to prove or disprove the findings - hence the ever-increasing spiral of research is set in motion.

# Practical Implications:

With all the major changes currently taking place within the workplace, South African managers may soon find themselves bombarded by a large amount of stressors. The Basic Conditions of Employment Act, for example, requires organisations to re-consider some of their deep-rooted policies, and change them if necessary. An exercise of this magnitude could quite easily add to the already well documented "executive / managerial stress". Similarly, the Employment Equity Bill, when it is passed into law (presumed to be by June of this year), will also involve a major restructuring of organisations. This Bill, which is a positive step forward for South Africa as it addresses the affirmative action problems and racial breakdown of our workforces, calls for major changes to take place in most, if not all, of our organisations.

The financial organisation which constituted the sample for the present study, will most probably not escape these mammoth changes. In addition to their everyday stresses, stressors relating to their position as well as to their external environment (for example, the crime situation in South Africa was often mentioned in the open-ended section), will be heaped upon by new and probably large stressors related to the new Acts and Bills. Looking at the results obtained from the study, this organisation seems to have a slight advantage in that the managers' perceptions of their overall stress was relatively low. Adding to this, the majority of the managers appeared to be highly satisfied in their jobs, and tended towards a low propensity to leave. They were generally in good health, and had a high self-esteem. All of these positive aspects bode well for the organisation and should help to buffer the effects and make the changes that much smoother. At least if the stressors facing the managers do increase with the changes, they are added to a perception of low stress rather than one where stress is deemed to be unbearable.

Overall, the findings of this study have implications for all managers in South Africa, not just the ones who were included in the sample. Managers need to be aware of the possible negative consequences which may accompany the new Acts and Bills and the related restructuring process. By simply being aware, they are already halfway to minimising the possible effects of stress, some of which may include job dissatisfaction, a propensity to leave, and ill health. Managers need to be aware of and in touch with their feelings of stress, so that with the restructuring of the workplace, (which may accompany the new Acts and Bills), they are able to identify what stressors existed before, and what stressors have been exacerbated by the restructuring. This is not to say that this restructuring process will be the cause, but it is likely that if not totally, this process will attribute to some of the perceived stressors. This important point, which possibly underlies much of the research on stress, is that many of the organisational consequences are in fact manifestations of stress. By attempting to deal with the actual causes of stress, for example through stress management or intervention programmes, a healthier, more satisfied and more committed workforce should ensue. After all, this all adds up to an increase in productivity and profits, which ultimately serves to benefit all the members of the organisation.

# Limitations of the Study:

As with all good studies, it is important to take note of any limitations which may have effected the final results. These must not be seen as weaknesses, but rather as a sign that they were acknowledged and considered when discussing the results of the present study.

For a start, it must be borne in mind that the sample used in the study was a pre-selected group. Firstly, if the managers were very stressed, then they would not have taken the time off to answer the questionnaire, or would be on leave. Secondly, the problem of self-serving bias or social desirability (Rosenthal and Rosnow,1991) is also applicable here. For example, if the managers were so dissatisfied with their jobs, then chances are they would not have filled in the questionnaire, because they may have felt it was a nuisance, or because they may have feared that the organisation would have found out their true feelings about their jobs. Social desirability, therefore, is a tendency of the respondent to present themselves in a more favourable light, through the answers from the questionnaires. So, perhaps if the respondents were thoroughly honest, we may have had a slightly more dissatisfied group of managers. Similar situations may have occurred with self-esteem, propensity to leave and ill health. Even though confidentiality was assured, some of the managers may have feared that if they were completely honest in answering the questionnaires, then if their superiors found out their true feelings, then their jobs may be in jeopardy.

A possible explanation for some of the inconsistent results found, could be a result of the particular scales used, namely the Propensity to Leave scale, and the Respiratory and Other sub-scales of the Ill Health measure. When these two scales were tested for internal reliability, the results were somewhat disappointing. The Propensity scale only produced a Cronbach alpha of 0.55, while the alphas for the Respiratory and Other sub-scales were

0.55 and 0.38 respectively. These poor reliability scores casts a serious shadow of doubt over the results which were obtained from using these measures. So, while inferences were made in the discussion section, based on their poor reliability, one needs to question the usefulness of such an exercise. In order to rectify this situation, future research should try and replicate these findings using reliable measures, in order to determine whether the findings were due to the poor measures, or whether the findings were true reflections of the situations.

Something that must not be ignored, is the way the chosen variables, namely the causes, outcomes, and moderators of stress, were measured. All were measured using self-evaluations. This means they were very subjective, and may have been skewed by the halo effect, or by an individual's personality (Abramis,1994). However as Abramis (1994) points out, these problems with self-evaluated measures may be inevitable and theoretically useful. Perceived stressors and job satisfaction are intrinsically intrapersonal and very subjective, so much so, that it makes independent measurement quite meaningless, because it "obviates relational, cognitive theories of psychological stress" (Lazarus, DeLangis, Folkman and Gruen,1985, cited in Abramis,1994, p1426).

Another possible limitation of the present study is the problem of the Hawthorne effect. Hawthorne effects refer to the distortions in behaviour which occur when people know that they are the subjects of the study (Leedy,1993). Methods to control for subject reactivity, such as using unobtrusive observation methods, using a control group, and allowing for an adaptation period where no observations are made, do exist, but they are not, however, applicable to the present study. Such methods would be useful in studies which are true or quasi - experimental in nature, or studies which make use of field research methods, none of which are the case in the present study.

Another possible problem relates to the generalisability of the findings. The questionnaires were only administered to managers within one organisation. This may be a problem in that aspects which are indigenous to that particular organisation, may have influenced the results. For example, things like organisational culture, a major restructuring, and leadership style, amongst others, may all influence things like, how stressful a person perceives the situation to be, how satisfied he/she is in his/her job, how organisational support is perceived, and how his/her self-esteem is enhanced or battered. This problem of generalisability was somewhat stifled by the type of organisation that was used. Instead of concentrating on only one office-block, the questionnaires in the present study were sent out to all of the branches of this organisation throughout the Gauteng region. The chances that problems specific to this entire organisation may have affected the findings from all the different branches, is somewhat lessened. What does not change, however, is the fact that only one type of organisation, the banking sector, was used. Issues specific to all organisations within the banking sector may have skewed the findings of this study, but, where applicable, cognisance was taken of this possibility when discussing the results.

The sample design, a cross-sectional study, may serve as a limitation of the present study. The results from this study are indicative of the sample used at only one time within their working lives. Perhaps if a longitudinal design had been employed, and measures were taken at more than one time, a more accurate representation may have been garnered. There may be certain instances effecting a person at one particular time that are peculiar to that time, and should a study be taken at a later stage, the results obtained might be quite different. The general limitation with cross-sectional studies, therefore, is that one can never be certain what other events may have influenced the degree of association found between the variables studied (Rosenthal and Rosnow,1991). One way to prevent this, is to have measures taken at periodic intervals, after which these individual results are then compared. Of course, longitudinal research studies bring their own set of

problems, such as the problems of maturation, instrument decay, instrument reactivity, and history. Each research design has it's own inherent problems, problems which can often not be rectified. It is important, therefore, having chosen the most appropriate design, to acknowledge these problems and accept them as limitations of the study.

One needs to realise, that the more items that are presented to the respondent in the questionnaire booklet, the more likely it is that fatigue and boredom can result in attenuation in the consistency of accurate responding (Rosenthal and Rosnow,1991). In the present study, considering the relatively large amount of variables which were measured, the resultant number of items in the questionnaire booklet, was large. While every attempt was made to reduce the number of items, it was decided that it was more important to use measures which were appropriate to the study, irrespective of their size. Considering this, the fact that the number of variables measured and tested in the present study was dramatically reduced, is retrospectively even a greater strength of the present study than was previously thought.

Once again, mention needs to be made of the issue of multi-collinearity which may have influenced the findings of the moderated multiple linear regressions. As was explained in the earlier relevant section, if the variables being tested correlate highly with one another, then the results of the regressions may be difficult to interpret. As a result, some of the variables which are not shown to be moderators, may in fact be so.

The open-ended section which was placed at the end of the quantitative measures, definitely increased the strength of the present study, but unfortunately, at the same time, may have added a further limitation of subjectiveness. The entire process of coding and re-defining the qualitative data (i.e. the content analysis), is a very subjective process, and may, inadvertently, result in rater bias. It is up to the coder to determine the final categories, as well as what each will consist of. This process is subjective in that not only

may different coders come up with different categories and definitions, but the coder may unconsciously be swayed into making categories which suit the aims of the study. Where time and finances permit, a way to resolve such a problem is to hire a group of independent people to conduct their own content analyses on the data in question. By so doing, the content analyses can be compared, and an objective set of categories and definitions can result.

Other general limitations, such as the possibility of volunteer bias (for example, that the people who volunteer to answer questionnaires tend to be, amongst other things, more intelligent, more sociable, more arousal seeking, and tend to have a need for social approval), problems associated with randomly picking the sample, people not answering honestly, and ambiguous questions in the scales, may all help to account for some of the discrepancies and inconsistencies found in the results (Bluen et al.,1990; Charlton and van Niekerk,1994; Leedy,1993; Rosenthal and Rosnow,1991; Shaughnessy and Zechmeister,1990).

# Directions for Future Research:

From what has been garnered from reading the relevant literature, as well from the results and findings of this study, a few suggestions and possibilities for future research are offered.

While conducting the research for the present study, it was decided to conduct a few extra t-tests and Anovas for the purposes of future research (please see Tables 33 - 37). Firstly, the existence or non-existence of children was tested to see whether this had any effect on the results. As shown in Tables 33 - 35, the results illustrate that the presence of children has a significant effect with regards to both the frequency and severity of job pressure, as well as the existence of headaches. Those managers who do not have any children, were found to experience more job pressures (both more frequently and more severely) than those managers who have children. Furthermore, and most surprisingly, those managers who have children, were found to experience fewer headaches than the managers with no children. The first result, the one relating to job pressures, could possibly be explained by a better time management plan by those people with children. The mere existence of children, means that many changes have to take place, one of which is the better management of limited time. With children, the added responsibilities which occur mean that those responsible have to work out a way to fit more into their days. This better time management, which may have developed with the onset of children, could possibly also directly affect the working lives of parents, as they may be more aware of and better able to able to fit more into their days, and hence may be less likely to suffer from feelings of job pressures. This is only one theory, and one, with further research, could either be substantiated or rejected. Whatever the case, the need for more in-depth research, should definitely be evident.

The second bit of research which was conducted solely for the purposes of future research, involved children once again, but this time looked at their age - below the age of 5 years, older than 5 years, or no children at all. The results, which can be seen in Tables 36 and 37, show that the only significant difference which was found relates to the perceived frequency and severity of job pressure. Those managers who have no children were found to experience a greater amount of job pressure (both more frequently and severely) than either managers whose children are older than 5, or those whose children are below the age of 5. The reason given above, that managers without children may not be as effective in time management as those who have children, may also apply here. The frequency and severity of job pressures were found to be greater for managers whose children are older than 5 than for those whose children are less than 5. Using the possible reason of time management, this could still apply here as once one's children attend school, and require slightly less time, one's time management skills may not stay so refined. With regards to pressures at work, therefore, they may still have better time management skills than those who have never had children, but these may not be as finely tuned as those managers who have children below the age of 5. Once again, this possible explanation is merely an idea and so further research is required to try and ascertain the exact reasons for these somewhat strange findings.

The last two questions of the open-ended section, asked how stress effects the managers' home and social lives, and also asked for any general comments. The comments which surfaced showed that stress can have serious consequences on both a person's home and social lives. The present study looked at how stress may effect the working lives of the sample, but it did not look at how stress may effect aspects of a person's life outside of the workplace. Some of the comments given in this section proved that stress most definitely impacts on a person's home and social lives, sometimes with detrimental results ("neglect family", "do not participate in home or family activities", "always feel sick", "release anger on family", and "drink too much"). This proven need to look at

ways that stress may manifest itself in areas outside of a manager's immediate working life, is offered as a suggestion for future research.
The last question of the open-ended section, which asked for any general comments, applies only to this specific organisation. For purposes of future research, therefore, should this organisation wish to expand on any of the findings of the present study, the comments derived from the "General Comments" section would be a good place to start.

Unfortunately, the research on stress with regards to any racial differences is somewhat out-dated. Most of the research found on the potential stressors facing black managers, were all done on or before the year of the first free elections. Obviously research done before 1994 may not be as applicable now as it would have been then, although some factors do still apply. Any research that was done in 1994, or even towards the beginning of 1995, may not be completely relevant to this study. The reason for this, is that South Africans, black or white, may still be "settling in" to our new country, or may still be suffering from the euphoria of the 1994 elections, a type of "honeymoon effect". Research needs to be done in 1997, and beyond, so that when all the dust has settled, the true potential stressors affecting black and white managers can be ascertained, and studied.

Related to this issue of race and research, it must be noted that the author of the present study had every intention of including race as one of the variables to be tested. Unfortunately, however, in the final sample of 290 managers, only 7 were non-white, while all the rest were white. This poor racial breakdown had very little to do with a willingness to respond and much to do with a disproportionate number of non-whites in managerial positions. When the mailing list was received, out of all the 946 people who fell into the category of managers which were to be tested, only 38 were non-whites. This is not meant to be a direct reflection on the organisation used, but rather indicative of most of the organisations around South Africa. This racial make-up of the workforce,

particularly management levels and above, makes it extremely difficult to try and rectify the out-of-date research from the past. Hopefully, with the implementation of the new Acts and Bills (particularly the Employment Equity Bill), this poor state of affairs should soon be rectified, after which the job of formulating new and relevant findings, can be undertaken in earnest.

Also, once the racial breakdown of the workforce is more representative, along with looking at differences in the causes and consequences of stress among the different races, multiple moderated linear regressions (MMLR's) can be conducted. These MMLR's will help to determine whether race acts as a moderator in any of the stress-outcome relationships. This was attempted in the present study, but due to the small number of non-whites, the potential moderating effect of race could not be tested.

The moderated multiple linear regressions did not produce many significant findings. Some of the possible reasons for this, such as multi-collinearity, were discussed previously. For purposes of future research, however, variations of these MMLR's can be conducted, by changing the design or through the use of statistical means. For example, it can be tested whether different moderators produce significant relationships (i.e. prove to be moderators) with the same cause - outcome relationships used in the present study. Furthermore, it can be determined whether the moderators used in this study (race, gender, coping style, personality, job pressure, and organisational support) prove to moderate other cause - outcome relationships, different ones to those which were tested in the present study. Of course, another option for future research with regards to the multiple moderated linear regressions section, is to attempt to replicate the study precisely, but the difference being that the variables must not correlate significantly (i.e. eliminate the problem of multi-collinearity). This can be done by either changing the design slightly, by excluding those people who caused the high correlations, or through the use of statistical means which incorporates an element of the correlations into the

analyses. While it is all very well to make these changes, it must be noted, however, that by doing so, the data set is being changed to suit the purposes of the study, rather than testing the relationships as they really exist. So, if some of these statistical or methodological suggestions are incorporated into future research, the changing of the data set to suit the purposes of the study, would, in all likelihood, be viewed as a weakness of the study. Perhaps then, the problem of multi-collinearity which exists in the present study, should rather be seen as one of those inescapable limitations whereby the individual conducting the study has to weigh up the costs and benefits, and then make the final decision. All this implies that moderated multiple linear regressions must be employed with a certain degree of caution.

In the present study, to test the effect of stress on health, the aspects of ill health which were chosen, did not show any marked differences. The reasons for this could be twofold - either health is not affected, or the aspects of health which are effected, were not measured in the present study. For purposes of future research, therefore, when testing the effect of stress on health, aspects other than those measured here (for example, coronary heart disease, blood pressure and diet), should be tested.

Perhaps the present study could be replicated for future research, but with a change in the design. The present study adopted a cross - sectional research design, while for future research, perhaps a longitudinal one could be used. This would mean that comparisons could be made between the stress levels and its consequences at two different times. By doing this, the study would take consideration of other factors which may have influenced and biased the results of the study.

Another type of future research that could be done, is to look at the moderating effect that age may have on the stress-outcome relationship. It has been hypothesised that age may act as a moderator in many stress-outcome relationships, but further exploratory research

in this field could be done so that more specific relationships could be determined (for example, that age moderates the stress-job satisfaction relationship). Furthermore, age as a potential cause of stress levels among managers, could also be looked at.

In the section on "Theoretical Implications", the huge inconsistencies which plague stress research, were discussed. The suggestion for future research, therefore, is to attempt to reduce the constant inconsistencies, and to start to formulate some more generalisable facts. This could possibly be done by replicating some of the old studies, and generating some new ones, all in the name of sorting out the inconsistencies. Research in the field of Type A behaviour, in particular, has not been able to advance as it should, mainly because of the inconsistency in the way it is measured - either as a global measure, or as a construct made up of many different components. A decision should be made to look at Type A behaviour in terms of its separate components, and by doing so, should result in somewhat more consistent findings.

This need to reduce the inconsistencies in stress research should be seen as paramount, and attempts should be made almost immediately to try and sort this out.

# CHAPTER 6 : CONCLUSION

This concluding paragraph should not be seen as a formal conclusion, but rather as an interim one. This study has only tackled the "tip of the iceberg" with regards to stress in managers in South Africa. There are so many aspects and considerations unique to the managers in our country, and as such, much research still needs to be conducted.

The field of stress has so many facets, all of which contribute to making it a rather complex and often misunderstood phenomenon. Nevertheless, by conducting research on an ongoing basis, looking at different aspects or different combinations of the same aspects, the complexity surrounding stress can slowly be unravelled. The present study has hopefully added to the past research in the area and contributed, in some small way, towards this unravelling process.

Furthermore, by starting to identify the causes, outcomes and possible moderators which apply in South African workplaces (as was the case in the present study), then management, together with the Industrial Psychologists, can go a long way towards preventing the often detrimental consequences of stress. After all, as the old adage goes, "Prevention is better than cure".

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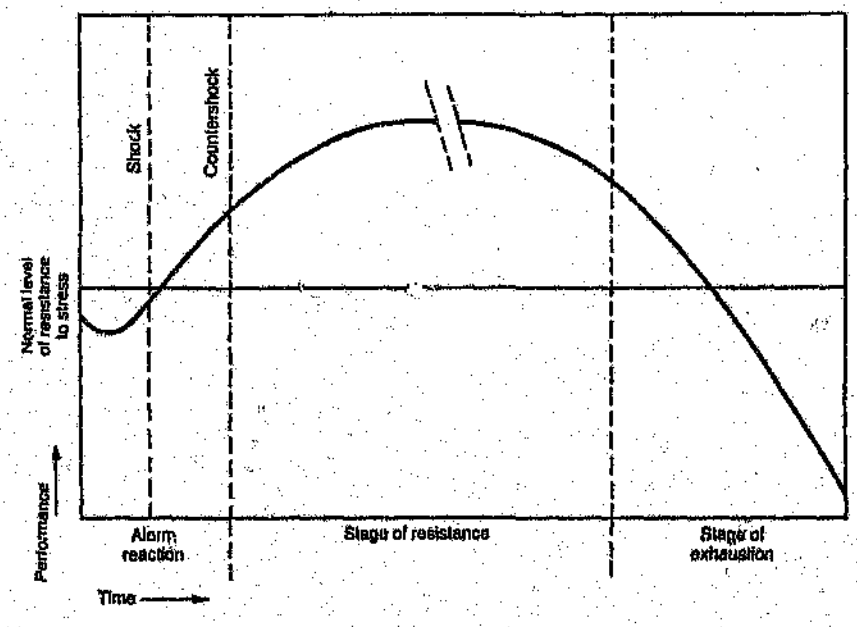
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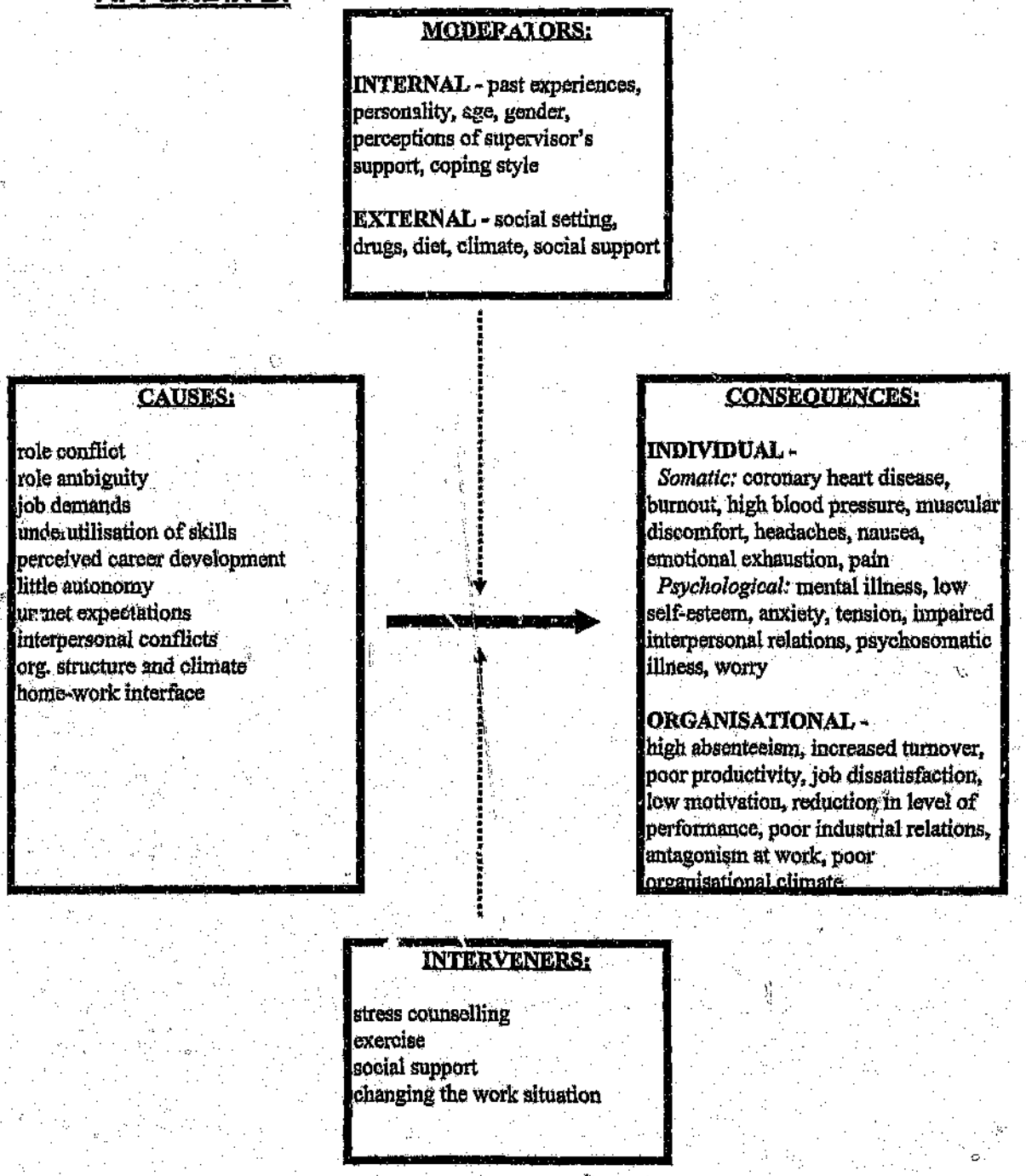
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## APPENDIX A : Selye's General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS) model




**Source:** Strumpfer, 1986, p543

## APPENDIX B:


MODERATORS:
INTERNAL - past experiences, personality, age, gender, perceptions of supervisor's support, coping style
EXTERNAL - social setting, drugs, diet, climate, social support
CAUSES:
role conflict
role ambiguity
job demands
underutilisation of skills
perceived career development
little autonomy
unmet expectations
interpersonal conflicts
org. structure and climate
home-work interface
CONSEQUENCES:
INDIVIDUAL -
Somatic: coronary heart disease, burnout, high blood pressure, muscular discomfort, headaches, nausea, emotional exhaustion, pain
Psychological: mental illness, low self-esteem, anxiety, tension, impaired interpersonal relations, psychosomatic illness, worry
ORGANISATIONAL -
high absenteeism, increased turnover, poor productivity, job dissatisfaction, low motivation, reduction in level of performance, poor industrial relations, antagonism at work, poor organisational climate
INTERVENERS:
stress counselling
exercise
social support
changing the work situation

## APPENDIX C: References for the First Version of the Theoretical Model

The references which were used to create the first theoretical model, now follows.

The causes of stress (or stressors) in the model were largely based on the work of Beehr and Schuler,1980; Cooper and Cartwright,1994; Cummins,1990; Fried, Rowland and Ferris,1984; Hendrix et al.,1994; Kahn et al.,1964; Parker and DeCotiis,1983; Selye,1976; Summers et al.,1994; and Zander and Quinn,1962.

The final list of causes which are incorporated in the model, include, role conflict (Cooper and Cartwright,1994; Cummins,1990; Kahn et al.,1964; Selye, 1976), role ambiguity (Cooper and Cartwright,1994; Cummins,1990; Kahn et al.,1964; Selye,1976; Zander and Quinn,1962), job demands (Cooper and Cartwright,1994; Hendrix et al.,1994; Parker and DeCotiis,1983; Summers et al.,1994; Zander and Quinn,1962), underutilization of skills(Beehr and Schuler,1980; Cummins,1990), perceived career development (Cooper and Cartwright,1994; Parker and DeCotiis,1983; Summers et al.,1994), little autonomy (Cummins,1990; Fried et al.,1984; Zander and Quinn,1962), unmet expectations (Beehr and Schuler,1980; Kahn et al.,1964), interpersonal conflict (Cooper and Cartwright,1994; Kahn et al.,1964; Parker and DeCotiis,1983; Zander and Quinn,1962), organisational structure and climate (Hendrix et al.,1994; Parker and DeCotiis,1983; Summers et al.,1994), and home-work interface (Cooper and Cartwright, 1994; Fried et al.,1984; Parker and DeCotiis,1983).

The list of consequences of stress or felt stress were made up in the same manner. This time, the work of the researchers or groups of researchers who were used as the basis of the felt stress, include, Cooper and Cartwright, 1994; Corcoran, 1995; Cordes and Dougherty, 1993; Dolan, 1995; Fox, Dwyer and Ganster, 1993; Hendrix, Ovalle and Troxler, 1985; Hendrix et al., 1994; Ivancevich and Matteson, 1982; Quick and Quick, 1984; Salvo, Lubbers, Rossi and Lewis, 1995; Summers, DeCotiis and DeNisi, 1995).

The final list of felt stress (outcomes) is divided into *individual* and *organisational consequences*, with the individual group being sub-divided further into somatic and psychological consequences. The *individual consequences* will be looked at first. Somatic - Coronary heart disease (Cooper and Cartwright,1994; Fox et al.,1993; Summers at al.,1995), burnout (Corcoran,1995; Cordes and Dougherty,1993; Dolan,1995; Salvo et al.,1995), high blood pressure (Cooper and Cartwright,1994; Summers et al.,1995), muscular discomfort (Salvo et al.,1995), headaches (Corcoran,1995; Salvo et al.,1995), nausea (Cordes and Dougherty,1993; Quick and Quick,1984; Salvo et al.,1995), emotional exhaustion (Dolan,1995; Salvo et al.,1995) and pain (Corcoran,1995; Salvo et al.,1995). Psychological - mental illness (Cooper and Cartwright,1994; Salvo et al.,1995), low self-esteem (Hendrix et al.,1985; Summers et al.,1995; Salvo et al.,1995), anxiety (Corcoran, 1995; Hendrix et al.,1985; Salvo et al.,1995), tension (Salvo et al.,1995; Quick and Quick,1984), impaired interpersonal relationships (Dolan,1995; Cooper and Cartwright, 1994; Salvo et al.,1995), psychosomatic illness (Cordes and Dougherty,1993; Cooper and Cartwright,1994) and worry (Dolan,1995; Salvo et al.,1995).
The *organisational consequences* are: high absenteeism (Cooper and Cartwright,1994; Salvo et al,1995; Summers et al.,1995; Quick and Quick,1984), increased turnover (Cooper and Cartwright,1994; Hendrix et al.,1985; Hendrix et al.,1994; Summers et al.,1995), poor productivity (Salvo et al.,1995; Summers et al.,1995), job dissatisfaction (Hendrix et al.,1994; Ivancevich and Matteson, 1982; Salvo et al.,1995), low motivation (Cooper and Cartwright,1994; Ivancevich and Matteson,1982; Quick and Quick,1984), reduction in level of performance (Fox et al.,1993; Quick and Quick,1984; Salvo et al.,1995), poor industrial relations (Cooper and Cartwright,1994; Corcoran,1995; Salvo et al.,1995), antagonism at work (Hendrix et al.,1985; Hendrix et al.,1994; Salvo et al.,1995) and poor organisational climate (Hendrix et al.,1985; Ivancevich and Matteson,1982; Salvo et al.,1995).

Once again the list for the moderators of stress was based on the research of others. This time, however, 22 researchers or groups of researchers were used. The final list of the moderators were sub-divided into internal and external moderators, the internal list will

be looked at first. *Internal moderators* - past experiences (Billings and Moos,1981; Frone, Russell and Cooper,1995; Garden,1995), personality (Frone et al.,1995; Ganster, Schaubroeck, Sime and Mayes,1991; Garden,1995; Havlovic and Keenan,1995; Matteson and Ivancevich,1987; Schaubroeck and Ganster,1991), viz., hardiness (Cox and Ferguson,1991; Kobasa,1988; Kobasa, Maddi and Courington,1981; Kobasa, Maddi and Zola,1983; Schaubroeck and Ganster,1991), locus of control (Hurrell and Murphy,1991; Rotter,1966; Schaubroeck and Ganster,1991), and self-esteem (Havloc and Keenan,1995; Rosenberg,1965; Schaubroeck and Ganster,1991), age (Frone et al.,1995; Nelson and Sutton,1990; Schaubroeck and Ganster,1991), gender (Billings and Moos,1981; Dekker and Webb,1974; Frone et al.,1995; Henderson, Byrne, Duncan-Jones, Scott and Adcock,1980; Jex, Spector, Gudanowski and Newman,1995; Nelson and Sutton,1990; Parasuraman and Cleek,1984; Russo,1985), perceptions of supervisors support (Hurrell and Murphy,1991; Kirmeyer and Dougherty,1989), type of coping (Frone et al.,1995; Steptoe,1991) and task control (Perrewe and Ganster,1989).
The *external moderators* are - social setting (Frone et al.,1995; Matteson and Ivancevich,1987; Rosenberg,1965), drugs (Frone et al.,1995; Kirmeyer and Dougherty,1989), diet (Cooper and Cartwright,1994; Frone et al.,1995; Ganster et al.,1991), climate (Dekker and Webb,1974; Frone et al.,1995; Perrewe and Ganster,1989; Schaubroeck and Ganster,1991) and social support (House,1983; Hurrell and Murphy,1991; Kobasa,1988; Steptoe,1991).

The last section of the model, interventions, was constructed with the help of 9 different sources. The list of interventions consists of stress counselling (Cooper and Sadri,1995), exercise (Folkins and Sime,1981; Jex et al.,1995; Roskies,1991), changing the work situation (Cooper and Cartwright,1994; House,1983) and social support (House,1983; Hurrell and Murphy,1991; Krause,1987), viz., emotional support, appraisal support, informational support and instrumental support.

## APPENDIX D : Description of the M - Level Manager

**M - Level Manager**

The **focus** is: Best operational practice through optimisation of resources.

The **roles** are to:

* Optimise resources by planning and organising the required resources, namely money, manpower, materials, equipment, information and technology to achieve given objectives in the most productive and cost-effective way.
* Manage and convert business systems and processes in such a way as to achieve best practice.
* Manage the implementation and realisation of change.
* Serve the organisation as a whole by rewarding behaviour that will exemplify its purpose and ethos.
* Build close relationships with clients and associates.

**The responsibilities/tasks in relation to stakeholders**

**1) Capital growth for shareholders**

i) To create capital growth for shareholders by managing the designated business area by means of best practices, thereby obtaining **high income, low costs and optimum risk.**

**2) Add value/provide service quality for the client**

i) To design and manage the best operating practices within existing parameters of the systems devised to serve client needs, for example, best pricing, service quality and problem-solving practices (optimise the value chain).

**3) Create quality of life for employees**

i) To create quality of life for employees by designing and managing the best practices to allow employees to optimise their people capacity by providing optimal competence for results, developing competence and maintaining required competence.

**4) Increase the capacity of and opportunities for the community**

i) To serve the community's interest as a legitimate organisation by designing, implementing and utilising the best practices.

## APPENDIX E : Covering Letter, Biographical Blank, and Questionnaire

*Department of Psychology*

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURG

Private Bag 3, WITS 2050, South Africa • Telegrams 'Uniwits' • Fax (011) 716-2476 • Telephone (011) 716-2407

**Dear Sir / Madam**

**I am conducting research as a requirement towards a Masters degree in Industrial Psychology at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. The purpose of this research is to assess the stressor-strain relationship amongst South African managers. Overall stress levels will be determined, after which consequences and possible moderators will be looked at.**

**Your participation in this research is voluntary, yet I would be very grateful if you could assist in my research by completing the attached questionnaire. It should take approximately 30 minutes to complete. Confidentiality is guaranteed as you will notice the questionnaire is anonymous, and no-one other than the researchers will have access to the completed questionnaires. There are no right or wrong answers, please complete the questionnaire as honestly as possible. I would be grateful if you could complete the questionnaire within the next two weeks.**

**If you would like further information on this study, or the results obtained from this questionnaire, please contact me at (011) 640-3781.**

**Thank you for your co-operation. Your help is greatly appreciated.**

**Sincerely yours,**

Chanoch

**Debbi Chanoch**

The University of the Witwatersrand rejects racism and racial segregation. It is committed to non-discrimination particularly in the constitution of its student body, in the selection and promotion of its staff, and in its administration.

## BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION :

Please answer all the questions, it is very important that you do.
Place a cross in the relevant boxes.

1. Date of birth ☐☐☐☐☐☐ (Y Y M M D D)

2. Sex ☐ Male ☐ Female

3. Race ☐

4. Home language ☐

5. Highest education obtained ☐

6. Approximate date you joined the company ☐☐☐☐☐☐ (Y Y M M D D)

7. Marital status ☐ Divorced/Separated ☐ Widowed ☐ Single ☐ Married

8. Do you have any children? ☐ Y ☐ N

9. If answer to 8 is "Yes", are any of them below the age of 5? ☐ Y ☐ N

10. What is your present job title? ☐

SECTION A :

The following section assesses your overall levels of stress. Please indicate how frequently each of these stressor events have been encountered in the preceding 6 months. This can be marked on a scale from 0 to 9+ days. Please also rate the relative amount (or severity) of stress that you associate with each of the 30 items.

**1 = Not stressful at all**
**5 = Average**
**9 = Extremely stressful**

| | *Frequency* | | | | | | | | | | *Severity* | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **1. Assignment of disagreeable duties** | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9+ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| **2. Working overtime** | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9+ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| **3. Lack of opportunity for advancement** | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9+ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| **4. Assignment of new or unfamiliar duties** | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9+ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| **5. Fellow workers not doing their job** | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9+ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| **6. Inadequate support by superior** | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9+ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| **7. Dealing with crisis situations** | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9+ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| **8. Lack of recognition for good work** | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9+ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| **9. Performing tasks not in job description** | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9+ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| **10. Inadequate or poor quality equipment** | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9+ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| **11. Assignment of increased responsibility** | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9+ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| **12. Periods of inactivity** | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9+ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| **13. Difficulty getting along with superior** | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9+ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |

| | *Frequency* | | | | | | | | | | *Severity* | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **14. Experience negative attitude toward organisation** | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9+ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| **15. Insufficient personnel to handle assignment** | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9+ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| **16. Critical on-the-spot decisions** | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9+ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| **17. Personal insult from customer / colleague** | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9+ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| **18. Lack of participation in policy decisions** | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9+ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| **19. Inadequate salary** | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9+ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| **20. Competition for advancement** | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9+ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| **21. Poor or inadequate supervision** | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9+ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| **22. Noisy work area** | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9+ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| **23. Frequent interruptions** | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9+ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| **24. Frequent changes boring / demanding activities** | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9+ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| **25. Excessive paperwork** | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9+ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| **26. Meeting deadlines** | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9+ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| **27. Insufficient personal time** | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9+ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| **28. Covering work for another employee** | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9+ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| **29. Poorly motivated co-workers** | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9+ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| **30. Conflict with other departments** | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9+ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |

**1 = Not stressful at all**
**5 = Average**
**9 = Extremely stressful**

## SECTION B:

Please respond to the following statements. If a statement describes how you usually feel, then mark the "YES" box. If a statement does not describe how you usually feel, then mark the "NO" box. There are no right or wrong answers.

| | *YES* | *NO* |
|---|---|---|
| 1. I often wish I were someone else | Y | N |
| 2. I find it very hard to talk in front of a group | Y | N |
| 3. There are lots of things about myself I would change if I could | Y | N |
| 4. I can make up my mind without too much trouble | Y | N |
| 5. I am alot of fun to be with | Y | N |
| 6. I get upset easily at home | Y | N |
| 7. It takes me a long time to get used to anything new | Y | N |
| 8. I am popular with people my own age | Y | N |
| 9. My family expects too much of me | Y | N |
| 10. My family usually considers my feelings | Y | N |
| 11. I give in very easily | Y | N |
| 12. It is pretty tough to be me | Y | N |
| 13. Things are all mixed up in my life | Y | N |
| 14. Other people usually follow my ideas | Y | N |
| 15. I have a low opinion of myself | Y | N |
| 16. There are many times when I would like to leave home | Y | N |
| 17. I often feel upset about the work that I do | Y | N |
| 18. I am not as nice looking as most people | Y | N |
| 19. If I have something to say, I usually say it | Y | N |
| 20. My family understands me | Y | N |
| 21. Most people are better liked than I am | Y | N |
| 22. I usually feel as if my family is pushing me | Y | N |
| 23. I often get discouraged with what I am doing | Y | N |
| 24. Things often bother me | Y | N |
| 25. I can be depended on | Y | N |

## SECTION C:

This set of items deal with various aspects of your job. Please show me how satisfied or dissatisfied you feel with each of these features of your job by placing a cross in the appropriate block accompanying each item.

1 = Very Dissatisfied
2 = Dissatisfied
3 = Neutral / Unsure
4 = Satisfied
5 = Very Satisfied

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **1. The physical working conditions** | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **2. The freedom to choose your own method of working** | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **3. Your fellow workers** | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **4. The recognition you get for good work** | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **5. Your immediate boss** | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **6. The amount of responsibility you are given** | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **7. Your rate of pay** | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **8. Your opportunity to use your abilities** | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **9. Industrial relations between management and workers in your company** | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **10. Your chance of promotion** | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **11. The way your company is managed** | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **12. The attention paid to suggestions you make** | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **13. Your hours of work** | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **14. The amount of variety in your job** | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **15. Your job security** | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **16. Taking everything into consideration, how do you feel about your job as a whole?** | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

## SECTION D:

The next set of items deals with the overall satisfaction you feel regarding your job. Please place a cross in the appropriate box for each item.

| 1. How long would you like to continue working in your present job? | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 year | 2 years | 3 years | 5 years | 10 years | More than 10 years |

| | *NO* | *NOT SURE* | *YES* |
|---|---|---|---|
| **2. If you were completely free to choose, would you prefer to continue working in your present job or would you prefer not to?** | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| **3. If you had to leave work for a while (for example, because of pregnancy or an illness), would you return to your present job?** | 1 | 2 | 3 |

# SECTION E:

Please answer the following questions based on your health in the last year. Please mark the response that best describes you.

***SLEEP HABITS***

| | A | B | C | D | E |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **1. How frequently do you have difficulty getting to sleep at night?** | Almost always | Often | Sometimes | Seldom | Almost never |
| | **A** | **B** | **C** | **D** | **E** |
| **2. How often do you typically wake up during the night?** | Never | Once | Twice | Three times | 4 or more |
| | **A** | **B** | **C** | **D** | **E** |
| **3. How often do you have nightmares or disturbing dreams?** | Almost always | Often | Sometimes | Seldom | Almost never |
| | **A** | **B** | **C** | **D** | **E** |
| **4. How rested do you usually feel when you wake up in the morning?** | Fully rested | | Fairly rested | | As tired as when I went to bed |
| | **A** | **B** | **C** | **D** | **E** |
| **5. How often is your sleep peaceful and undisturbed?** | Almost always | Often | Sometimes | Seldom | Almost never |
| | **A** | **B** | **C** | **D** | **E** |
| **6. Overall, what kind of a sleeper are you?** | Very good | Good | Neutral | Poor | Very poor |

***HEADACHES***

| | A | B | C | D | E |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **1. How often have you experienced headaches?** | Several times a week | About once a week | Several times a month | Several times a year | Almost never |
| | **A** | **B** | **C** | **D** | **E** |
| **2. How often have you experienced migraines or other severe headaches?** | Several times a week | About once a week | Several times a month | Several times a year | Almost never |
| | **A** | **B** | **C** | **D** | **E** |
| **3. During the winter, did you seem to be fighting some sort of cold symptom, such as congestion, sneezing or coughing?** | Almost always | Often | Sometimes | Seldom | Almost never |
| | **A** | **B** | **C** | **D** | **E** |
| **4. Do you frequently get a headache when there is a lot of pressure on you to get things done?** | Almost always | Often | Sometimes | Seldom | Almost never |
| | **A** | **B** | **C** | **D** | **E** |
| **5. Do you frequently get a headache when you are annoyed at someone or frustrated because things are not going the way they should?** | Almost always | Often | Sometimes | Seldom | Almost never |

*RESPIRATORY*

| | A | B | C | D | E |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **1. How many times have you caught minor "colds" (that is, made you uncomfortable but didn't keep you sick in bed or make you miss work)?** | Never | Once | Twice | Three times | 4 or more |
| | **A** | **B** | **C** | **D** | **E** |
| **2. How many times have you had respiratory infections more severe than minor colds that "lay you low" (such as bronchitis, sinusitis, etc.)?** | Never | Once | Twice | Three times | 4 or more |
| | **A** | **B** | **C** | **D** | **E** |
| **3. When you have a bad cold or flu, how long does it typically last?** | 24 hours | 1-3 days | 3-5 days | 5-7 days | Over one week |

*DIGESTION*

| | A | B | C | D | E |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **1. How frequently do you suffer from an upset stomach?** | Almost always | Often | Sometimes | Seldom | Almost never |
| | **A** | **B** | **C** | **D** | **E** |
| **2. How frequently do you have to watch pretty carefully what you eat in order to avoid stomach upsets?** | Almost always | Often | Sometimes | Seldom | Almost never |
| | **A** | **B** | **C** | **D** | **E** |
| **3. Are you often constipated or suffering from diarrhoea?** | Almost always | Often | Sometimes | Seldom | Almost never |
| | **A** | **B** | **C** | **D** | **E** |
| **4. Do you frequently feel nauseous?** | Almost always | Often | Sometimes | Seldom | Almost never |
| | **A** | **B** | **C** | **D** | **E** |
| **5. Do you seem to have stomach flu more often than your friends?** | Strongly agree | Agree | Neutral | Disagree | Strongly disagree |

*OTHER*

| | A | B | C | D | E |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **1. Do you seem to be allergic to just about everything that is in the air?** | Almost always | Often | Sometimes | Seldom | Almost never |
| | **A** | **B** | **C** | **D** | **E** |
| **2. Do you develop asthma, or asthma-like symptoms (sneezing, shortness of breath) when you are really under pressure or stressed?** | Almost always | Often | Sometimes | Seldom | Almost never |
| | **A** | **B** | **C** | **D** | **E** |
| **3. In the last year, how many days were you "sick in bed", and unable to attend work because of ill health?** | 0 days | 1 - 2 days | 3 - 4 days | 5 - 6 days | 7 or more days |

## SECTION F:

The following section gives an idea of how you cope with various stressful encounters. Each item represents a possible coping strategy. Please read each item carefully and mark the appropriate box with a cross. There are no right or wrong answers.

| | Not used | Used somewhat | Used quite a bit | Used a great deal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I just concentrate on what I have to do next - the next step | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2. I do something which I don't think will work, but at least I am doing something | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3. I try to get the person responsible to change his/her mind | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4. I talk to someone to find out more about the situation | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 5. I criticise or lecture myself | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 6. I try not to burn my bridges, but leave things open somewhat | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 7. I hope a miracle will happen | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 8. I go along with fate; sometimes I just have bad luck | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 9. I go on as if nothing has happened | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 10. I try to keep my feelings to myself | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 11. I look for the silver lining, so to speak. I try to look on the bright side of things | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 12. I sleep more than usual | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 13. I express my anger to the person(s) who cause(s) the problem | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 14. I accept sympathy and understanding from someone | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 15. I am inspired to do something creative | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 16. I try to forget the whole thing | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 17. I get professional help | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 18. I change or grow as a person in a good way | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

| | Not used | Used somewhat | Used quite a bit | Used a great deal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 19. I apologise or do something to make up | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 20. I make a plan of action and follow it | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 21. I let my feelings out somehow | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 22. I realise I brought the problem on myself | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 23. I come out of the experience better than when I went in | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 24. I talk to someone who can do something concrete about the problem | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 25. I try to make myself feel better by eating, smoking, using drugs, or medication, etc. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 26. I take a big chance or do something very risky | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 27. I try not to act hastily or follow my first hunch | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 28. I find new faith | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 29. I rediscover what is important in life | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 30. I change something so things will turn out all right | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 31. I avoid being with people in general | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 32. I don't let it get to me, I refuse to think too much about it | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 33. I ask a relative or friend I respect for advice | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 34. I keep others from knowing how bad things are | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 35. I make light of the situation, I refuse to think too much about it | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 36. I talk to someone about how I am feeling | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 37. I stand my ground and fight for what I want | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 38. I take it out on other people | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 39. I draw out of my past experiences if I was in a similar situation before | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

| | Not used | Used somewhat | Used quite a bit | Used a great deal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 40. I know what has to be done, so I double my efforts to make things work | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 41. I refuse to believe it has happened | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 42. I make a promise to myself that things will be different next time | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 43. I come up with a couple of different solutions to the problem | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 44. I try to keep my feelings from interfering with other things too much | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 45. I change something about myself | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 46. I wish that the situation would go away or somehow be over with | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 47. I have fantasies or wishes about how things may turn out | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 48. I pray | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 49. I go over in my mind what I will say or do | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 50. I think about how a person I admire would handle this situation, and use that as a model | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

## SECTION G:

Please read each statement and choose the answer that best applies to you by placing a cross in the appropriate box.

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **1. Would people who know you well agree that you tend to get irritated easily?** | Strongly Agree | Agree | Undecided | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **2. How is your temper nowadays?** | Very hard to control | Fairly hard to control | Occasionally get angry | Seldom get angry | Almost never get angry |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **3. Would people who know you well agree that you tend to do most things in a hurry?** | Strongly Agree | Agree | Undecided | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **4. When you listen to someone talking and this person takes too long to come to the point, do you feel like hurrying him / her along?** | Very often | Fairly often | Occasionally | Seldom | Almost never |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **5. Do you find yourself hurrying to places when there is plenty of time?** | Definitely true | Moderately true | Occasionally true | Seldom true | Not at all true |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **6. Do you ever set deadlines or quotas for yourself at work or at home?** | Very often | Fairly often | Occasionally | Seldom | Almost never |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **7. Nowadays, do you consider yourself to be hard-driving and competitive?** | Very hard-driving and competitive | Fairly hard-driving and competitive | Neutral | Comparatively relaxed and easy going | Very relaxed and easy going |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **8. Would people who know you well agree that you take your work too seriously?** | Strongly Agree | Agree | Undecided | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **9. In amount of effort put forth, I give:** | Much more than others | A little more than others | About the same as others | A little less than others | Much less than others |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **10. Does your job stir you into action?** | Much more than others | A little more than others | About the same as others | A little less than others | Much less than others |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **11. How would your spouse (or closest friend) rate your general level of activity?** | Too slow, should become more active | Fairly slow, should become a little more active | Neither too slow nor too active | Fairly active, should slow down a little | Very active, sho[illegible] slow d[illegible] |

Below are a number of statements which people have used to describe themselves. Please read each statement carefully, and place a cross in the box which is true for you.

| | Almost always | Often | Sometimes | Almost never |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I express my anger | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2. I tell someone how I feel if they annoy me | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3. I lose my temper | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4. I argue with others | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 5. I strike out at whatever infuriates me | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 6. I feel infuriated when I do a good job and get a poor evaluation | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 7. I feel annoyed when I am not given recognition for good work | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 8. I get angry when slowed down by other's mistakes | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 9. It makes me furious when I am criticised in front of others | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

The following statements concern how you interact with your peers. Please answer by placing a cross in the box that represents your answer. Use the "unsure" option only if you are very unsure.

| | No | Unsure | Yes |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. To be a real success I feel I have to do better than everyone I come up against | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 2. It is important to me to perform better than others on a task | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 3. I judge my performance on whether I do better than others rather than on getting a good result | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4. It annoys me when other people perform better than I do | 1 | 2 | 3 |

## SECTION H:

1. Overall, do you consider yourself to be stressed? _____

***If so please answer questions 2 to 5:***

2. What would you say are the causes of your stress?

_____

_____

_____

3. What would you say are the consequences of your stress? (i.e. how does the stress manifest itself?).

_____

_____

_____

4. Do your feelings of stress affect your work? In what way?

_____

_____

_____

5. Do your feelings of stress affect your home and social lives? In what way?

_____

_____

_____

6. Are there any further comments you wish to make?

_____

_____

_____

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME,
IT IS MUCH APPRECIATED.

## APPENDIX F : The Range of Answers from the Content Analysis

### CAUSES:

| Staff and Fellow Workers | |
|---|---|
| not committed | fellow workers |
| shortage | uncomfortable relationship with colleagues |
| unreliable subordinates | peer pressure |
| staff problems - inefficient | lack of communication |
| low skilled staff | rectify mistakes of others |
| no pride in work | incompetence and inefficiency |
| staff turnover | insufficient training |
| incompetence | |

| Family | |
|---|---|
| expectations of family | marital |
| children | wife ill |

| Personality / Personal | |
|---|---|
| self-created | poor memory |
| hereditary | trying to do more than capable of |
| low self-image | unnecessary worrying |
| impatience | frustration |
| problems unable to cope with | lack of motivation |
| perfectionist | tries to keep up appearances |
| personality | expectations of others |
| keep problems to self | responsibility |
| lack of job satisfaction | problems can't cope well with |
| took poor choice in giving credit | impatience |

| | |
|---|---|
| scared of failure | new in job |

| Supervisors /Superiors / Management | |
|---|---|
| top management expectations too high | lack of people skills by managers |
| too many decision makers | lack of vision by superiors |
| double standards | disorganised head office support |
| change goal posts too often | bank doesn't care about relationships with clients |
| insufficient guidance | unfulfilled commitments by the bank |
| poor support from superiors | top - down decisions |
| job responsibility without authority | red tape |
| undemocratic management | top heavy administration |

| Job Specific | |
|---|---|
| too much clerical work | poor pay |
| volume of work | lack of promotion opportunities |
| lack of job security | in wrong job position |
| demands of job | unpaid overtime |
| workload | no free time |
| pressure of work | no recognition |
| client's demands | lack of time to get things done |
| unnecessary work | deadlines |
| too much paperwork | deadlines not met |
| insufficient leave | non-achievement of results |
| lack of recognition | responsibility |
| grading and salary | lack of productivity |

| General Context / Environment | |
|---|---|
| security situation | poor economy |
| crime situation in South Africa | locality of workplace |
| traffic | uncertain future - job<br>-country |

| Working Environment | |
|---|---|
| competition | systems change rapidly |
| changing business environment | work environment |
| high budget | working conditions |
| costly errors | new systems |
| things go wrong | outdated equipment |
| confliot | poor banking system |
| poor computer systems | bad audit report due to new systems |

| Other | |
|---|---|
| bad service | continuously having to re-apply for a position |
| lack of planning | poor service everywhere |
| trying out new ideas and taking risks | exams coming up |
| dishonesty | personal finance problems |
| juggling other people's finances | interruptions |

## CONSEQUENCES:

| Emotions | |
|---|---|
| moody | feel wasted time |
| angry | anxiety |
| introvert | negative feelings |
| swear | indecision |
| forgetful | procrastination |
| forceful | drive hard to achieve |
| impatient | demotivated |
| aggressive | paranoid |
| unreasonable | hopelessness |
| depression | confusion |
| abrupt | become more assertive |
| irritation | inability to concentrate |
| bad tempered | don't trust others |
| over-react | think others are stupid |
| sulk | stressed |
| let things get to him | |

| Health | |
|---|---|
| health suffers | lack of exercise |
| smoke too much | physical activity and work to relieve stress |
| cholesterol level | lots of energy |
| headaches | lack of sleep |
| high blood pressure | sleeplessness |
| over-eat | |

| Interpersonal Contact | |
|---|---|
| stay out of the way | reclusive |
| retract from involvement | lack of real interest |

| Family | |
|---|---|
| affects family life | neglect family |
| too little time with family | think about work all the time |
| fear for safety of family | |

| Work Related | |
|---|---|
| too serious about job | try harder to achieve |
| unsure of management's feelings | not being able to make decisions |
| upset over higher management | boss autocratic and uncaring |
| lack of focus | plan to improve matters |
| poor performance at work | try and keep up with changes |
| quicken decision making (a positive consequence) | unable to get best results |
| bad relationship with colleagues and bank | |

| Other | |
|---|---|
| no personal time | require perfection |
| poor quality of life | try to be the best at everything |
| looking for other job | |

# HOW STRESS AFFECTS ... ORK:

| Positive Effects | |
|---|---|
| works quicker | positive influence |
| likes stress | avoid conflict situations |
| works well under pressure | try to speed up |
| helps to maintain standards | improves ... ination to succeed |
| works harder | |

| Behavioural Reactions | |
|---|---|
| bad tempered | more relaxed approach |
| aggressive approach | lack of concentration |
| slows down | easily frustrated |
| moody | lack of interest |
| intolerant | nervous |
| affects concentration and efficiency | disorganised |
| grumpy | less patient with subordinates |
| tired (affects performance) | confusion |
| demotivated - lack of motivation | expect too much |
| despondent | undecided |
| low morale | react too quickly |
| argumentative | poor attention span |
| over-react | lose focus |
| no enthusiasm | quieter / withdrawn |
| not coping | |

| Work Related | |
|---|---|
| expect better performance from subordinates | distrust clients |
| feel wrongly placed | lack of respect for senior management |
| have to spend time assisting staff | lowers performance |
| work late | poor performance |
| take work home | makes hasty decisions |
| take longer to complete tasks | incorrect decisions |
| negative attitude to the organisation | hard to get going |
| staff shortage | never finish anything |
| deadlines | makes mistakes due to pressure |
| feel like resigning | |

| Health | |
|---|---|
| high blood pressure | affects health |
| back spasm | |

| Other | |
|---|---|
| slow down for a few days | can't do all I want to do |
| takes long breaks | do not feel appreciated |
| resort to crisis management | concentrate more on self control |
| "covering my back" | love job but want to make a change |
| problems appear bigger than they really are | |

## HOW STRESS EFFECTS HOME AND SOCIAL LIVES:

| |
|---|
| Too little time with family |
| Too tired for social activities |
| Sulk |
| Get annoyed |
| Withdraw |
| Mood changes |
| Difficult to communicate with |
| Unreasonable |
| Short tempered |
| Wife and family are disappointed as I should have achieved more after so much time and effort |
| Arrive home late |
| "Take it out" on my wife |
| Not enough family or own time |
| Upset family |
| Aggressive |
| Do not participate in home or family activities |
| Impatient with family |
| Take home work |
| Go to bed early |
| Lethargic |
| Cannot switch off from work aspects |
| Grumpy |
| Almost divorced |
| Assist wife all the time (have a new baby) |
| Talk about problems at home |
| Always feel sick |
| Personality change |

| |
|---|
| Want everything done quickly |
| Pressure builds up into a conflict situation |
| Irritable |
| Scared of crime situation |
| Affects health |
| Unreasonable arguments |
| Share fears with family |
| Family not interested in work problems |
| Poor salary so cannot afford holidays or entertainment |
| Want to be left alone |
| Demand too much from family |
| Shout at children |
| Neglect family |
| Drink too much |
| Release anger on family |
| Make small problems into major problems |
| Affects reactions to situations |
| Ineffective sex life |
| Am away from home when should be there |

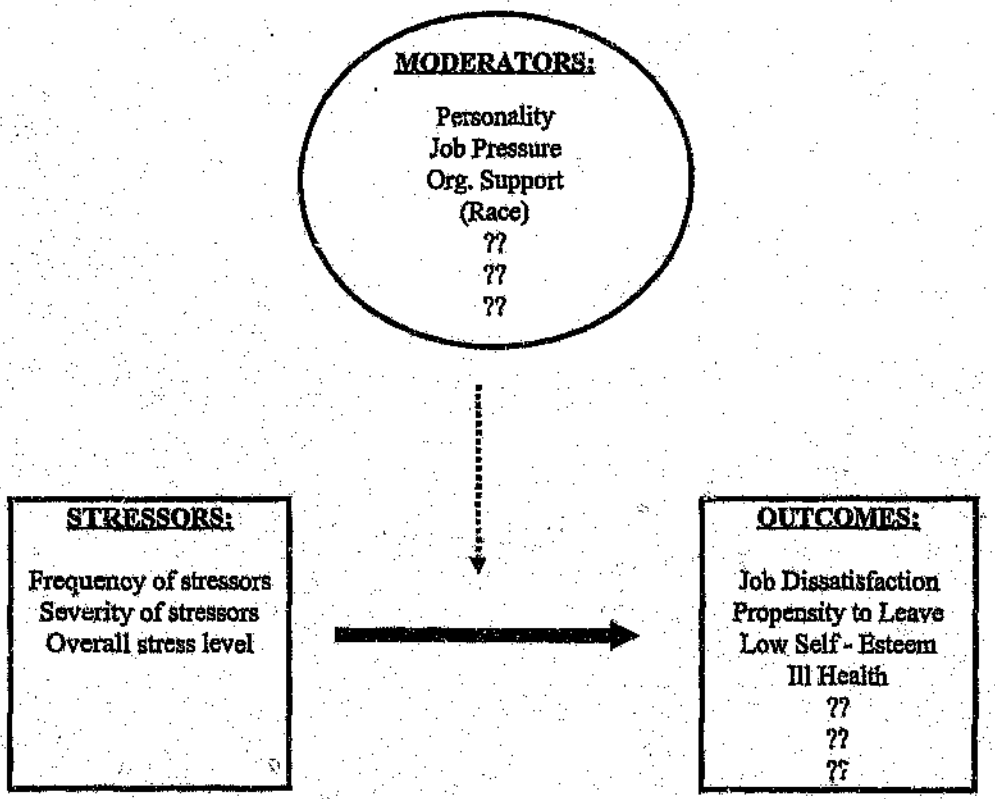
## GENERAL COMMENTS:

| |
|---|
| Job is stressful, but I cope well |
| Tired at night |
| Demanding job |
| Love my family, work and life |
| Stress is part of our lives, so we must deal with it in a mature controlled manner |
| (name of bank)'s policy of bringing in "outsiders", will lead to a loss of staff, and will therefore prevent them from accomplishing their goals |
| Wrongly placed - could do job better in another job or department |
| Top management must be more caring with respect to the health of staff |
| I am happier after my divorce |
| If I do not perform, I will lose my job |
| Certain jobs in bigger cities have greater stress levels |
| I put my stress on others, and therefore control it |
| Most people are depressed due to uncertain political climate in South Africa |
| Autocratic top management who do not listen to ideas from subordinates |
| Top management is entrenched and the subordinates cannot question this policy as they are scared of losing their jobs |
| I deal with situations which arise and learn from the results |
| Stress is self created |
| Poor decision making by management - they do not focus on the correct procedures which are needed to grow a company |
| Stress is not a constant, and it has little impact at present |
| The Human Resources policy on management development theory should be looked into, and this should be compared to the actions taken in practice. These variables have an influence on stress |
| Less stressed now because I am taking early retirement |
| Lack of co-ordinated planning |

| |
|---|
| Too few staff |
| Decisions are made at the last moment |
| Supportive family and so can relax at home |
| We need stress in our lives |
| Banking is a stressful occupation |
| Head office is unaware of what is happening at grass-roots level |
| Limited stress is good and improves performance |
| Stress comes with the job and responsibility |
| Still learning and enjoying challenge, and also get support when asked for |
| I try to cope as best that I can |
| I do not mind accepting valid criticism, but I get stressed when I am criticised for things beyond my control |
| I have taken constructive steps to change my current circumstances. A career move should also improve my personal life |
| Lack of recognition and remuneration |
| High staff turnover is an indication of the problems |
| Poorly paid |
| Sport and religion relieve stress |
| It should be a company programme to teach staff to handle stress |
| Managed stress is not a bad thing |
| Unpleasant superiors spoil job enjoyment |
| Happy in job but do not get recognition and promotion |
| Management decisions are not always based on what is best, but sometimes on personal prejudices |
| I go away for weekends to overcome stress |
| I go away for weekends to "get away from it all" |
| Stress is due to the political situation and crime in this country |
| Healthy exercise avoids stress |
| I have a positive attitude to stress, but I want to retire |

| |
|---|
| I cope only because of religion |
| Exercise reduces stress |
| You need discipline and self-control |
| People cause their own stress levels, and so they can also learn to cope |
| Things are often unfair, but I am still trying hard to achieve |
| Some stress makes you give your best |
| Lack of recognition of past results |
| There are transfers, but no salary increases |
| I thrive on stress |

## APPENDIX G: The Updated and Modified Version of the Theoretical Model





the past. Moreover, it is unrelated to the frequency of moderate or severe physical abuse experienced.

**Andrews and Brewin (1990)** conducted a study with a sample of 70 women on attributional blame for marital violence. They assessed the degree of blame women place on themselves and on partners for violence. They found that changes in self-blame and partner-blame took place according to different marital circumstances. Self-blame was lower in those no longer in the violent relationship, as opposed to those who were still in the relationship. Sixty-one percent of participants who were no longer in the abusive relationship at the time of the study blamed themselves while in the relationship, but blamed their partners when the relationship ended. However, a total of 40% of women participating in this study reported self-blame attributions. However, the majority of these participants blamed their behaviour rather than their character. Of those who attributed blame to their partners, they attributed characterological blame rather than holding situational factors responsible. The least common attribution for women abuse whilst in the relationship was one's own character (13%), followed by situational responses for the partner (20%) and one's own behaviour (27%).

Andrews and Brewin also found a significant relationship between a history of early repeated abuse and types of attributions while in the violent relationship. There was no difference in the incidence of self-blame in women with early abuse histories as compared to those without early abuse. However, when self-blame took place, those with early abuse made characterological attributions whereas those with no such history blamed their behaviour.

Nearly 80% of women who experienced very severe violence attributed blame to their own or their partner's characters, as compared to thirty-nine percent of those who experienced less severe violence. This is one of the clearest pieces of evidence that severity of abuse appears related to attributions.

Andrews and Brewin's study confirms that women retrospectively report a change in attributions once they have left an abusive relationship. A substantial proportion of women blame themselves for the violence whilst in the relationship. However, when out of the relationship, they generally no longer see themselves to blame. The women reported that their

own understanding of the abuse changed once they had left the relationship. Such findings tend to support Herbert *et al's* (1991) suggestion that attributions may reflect cognitive strategies to justify one's position as regards remaining in (as well as leaving) abusive relationships.

While the notion of female masochism was not generally supported in Andrews and Brewin's study, childhood experiences of repeated physical or sexual abuse were related to characterological self-blame when the women was still in the violent relationship. This finding is consistent with theories of learned helplessness and vulnerability to depression. However, these early experiences did not appear to be predictive of the duration of the abusive relationship, which would contradict an aspect of the theory of learned helplessness. The responses of members of social support systems and observers was also found to have influenced self-blame attributions. Women with characterological self-blame were less likely to get support from others. A correlation between characterological self-blame and depression was not found in this study, although depression originated with the onset of the abuse. However, Andrews and Brewin found that other types of self-blame, such as self-blame for not being able to modify the violence, may be associated with depression. Andrews and Brewin's study provides some clarity as to why certain women have a tendency for self-blame in violent relationships, suggesting that past history and lack of social support are key contributing factors.

Having looked at research findings related to self-and partner-blame as well as locus of causality and internal/external attributions, it is also important to look at the issues affecting locus of stability and globality.

### 5.2 Research Findings Surrounding Locus of Stability and Globality

As already mentioned, Frieze (1979) found a general tendency for self-blame in her study of abused women. The large majority of such attributions were to unstable factors in themselves. Frieze also found a trend for women who had experienced severe violence and had been seriously injured, to see their partners as the cause of violence and to see the cause as more stable.

The stability of the causal attribution was also important when making a decision about leaving the relationship. Even women who blame themselves may leave abusive relationships out of fear and desperation for their lives if the severity of the violence appears to warrant this. This desperation is greater when stable attributions are made, as they produce expectations that the future will not bring change (Frieze, 1979). Thus, stable attributions may affect both leaving and staying behaviour patterns. Women who feel helpless to change their situation may passively accept the abuse as normal in their relationship and fail to seek to effect any change. However, women who perceive abuse as clearly life-threatening and liable to continue may be motivated to leave by a fear of survival.

Frieze also found that the stability dimension of attribution was more important than perceived locus of control in relation to how long such relationships continue, and that much attribution research is concentrated on the wrong dimensions. It seems that even if a woman views herself as responsible, the understanding that abuse will continue may be sufficient to galvanise her to escape the relationship.

Dutton *et al* (1994) in their research on Cognitive Schemata and Post Traumatic Stress, examined battered women's cognitive schemata in relation to their cognitions about the violence. The meaning of the violence, that is, the expectation of the violence reoccurring and the appraisal of severe/lethal violence, was found to explain variance in cognitive schemata about personal safety, self and partner.

Chronic abuse appears to result in injury to the victim's inner world as well as altering her identity. All the structures of the self are invaded and systematically broken down (Herman, 1992, p.222, cited in Dutton, 1994). Expectation of violence, in the future, regardless of severity, is one of the most important variables for explaining the abused women's cognitive schemata of self-trust, in that her physical safety is continuously threatened. Self-blame for prior violence also results in the woman's difficulty in trusting herself, especially when coupled with the expectation that the violence will recur.

Dutton *et al* (1994) found that the meaning attached to the traumatic experience by the abused woman influences negative cognitive schemata. Furthermore, the subjective meaning attached

to the above is important for understanding cognitive schemata. Dutton found that global attributions, that is, expectation of some form of violence in the future , are one of the most important variables in explaining abused women's negative cognitive schemata. Her findings suggest that there is a detrimental impact on core beliefs concerning the self and others, as well as core beliefs which are associated with living in a "state of siege where continued violence is expected and ongoing, a pattern characteristic of domestic violence" (Dutton, 1994, p.249). Stable attributions therefore appear to be related to psychological damage resulting from living in an environment of chronic abuse and impact more generally on trust schemata, both interpersonal and self-related.

There appears to be little research on the effects of global attributional dimensions of abuse. Most research on this dimension has been conducted and applied to the phenomenon of learned helplessness and depression. However, global attributions are seen as more generalisable and encompassing. **Petersen and Seligman (1989)** suggest that repeated victimisation of the same person seems likely to produce global attributions. However, the literature holds that abused women who see the abuse as global, stable and external to themselves (i.e. partner-related) will be more likely to leave the abusive relationship, whereas such women may feel more helpless if the abuse is attributed to internal, global and stable factors (of the self). However, globality is a dimension which has remained generally under-researched in the area of wife battery. It seems that stability may sometimes be equated or conflated with globality, despite evident differences between the two constructs. The present study thus aimed to separate out and investigate dimensions of stability and globality. In addition, as previously mentioned, the study was also designed to distinguish between the relative roles of frequency and severity of violence, since these constructs can also be viewed as pertaining to different dimensions. For example, it is possible to describe abuse as less injurious but frequently occurring, as opposed to infrequent but highly damaging or life-threatening. Such concerns are elaborated further in the method chapter.

Some of the differences in the research findings pertaining to attribution and battery may be attributed to conceptual disparities and others to methodological difficulties. The present study aims to make a further contribution to research in the area by systematically investigating the relationship between global attributions and the dimensions of frequency,

duration, and severity of the abuse experienced in the relationship, as well as investigating the other dimensions previously discussed.

# CHAPTER SIX

# THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHOD

In this chapter aspects of the research design and the aims and hypotheses of the study will be outlined. Furthermore, the characteristics of the participants, as well as the instruments, procedure and method of data analysis will be explained.

## 6.1 Research Design

### 6.1.1 Rationale for the Study

Research findings on the attributions of abused women are contradictory and tend to focus on locus of causality (internal - the self, or external - the other) and locus of stability. Little research has been conducted on global attributions of blame. This study explores all three factors and further expands locus of causality to include self or other as well as internal (characterological) and external (situational) factors. The study also focuses upon the dimensions of duration, frequency and severity of abuse and the relationship between these features and attributional aspects. Although research exists in this area, it is scanty and requires greater verification and exploration. Furthermore, research on abused women in South Africa has generally been based on small sample sizes. This study further aims to expand the knowledge base on the nature and characteristics of abuse experienced in the Gauteng Province of South Africa and to contribute to the understanding of categories of abused women seeking help at NGO's in the province.

### 6.1.2 Aims of the Study

The primary aim of the study was to investigate variations in causal attributions (partner/ self, internal/external, stable/unstable and global/specific attributions) of abused women in relation to reported severity, frequency and duration of the abuse. The study thus aimed to investigate whether women's attributions of blame in violent relationships differed depending on the severity of the injuries inflicted, how often the abuse occurred and the length of time they had experienced the abuse.

The secondary exploratory aim of the study was to investigate the nature and characteristics of abuse in women seeking assistance at Gauteng based service organisations. Participants perceptions of their abusive situation in terms of their expectations of the reoccurrence of their abuse as well as their ability to improve their situation were also investigated. Thus the study carried the secondary aim of providing a descriptive picture of wife abuse in the region and of some subjective dimensions pertaining to this abuse.

### 6.1.3 Experimental Design

The present research, conducted as a field study, was a non-experimental scientific inquiry aimed at discovering the relations and interactions among variables in real- life settings. No manipulation of the independent variable took place by the researcher since the study was conducted with reference to naturalistic experience. Field studies are strong in significance, realism, theory orientation, strength of variables and heuristic qualities. However, statements of relations between the variables are weaker than in experimental research due to the non experimental nature of the field study (Kerlinger, 1986).

### 6.1.4 Hypotheses

**Hypothesis 1:**

Abused women's attributions will focus more on the partner, than on the self, with increased:

a) severity of violence
b) frequency of violence
c) duration of violence

**Hypothesis 2:**

Abused women will attribute their partner's abusive behaviour more to internal than external factors within the partner, with increased:

a) severity of violence
b) frequency of violence
c) duration of violence

Internal factors refer to factors based on the dispositional qualities of the actor/partner (for example, his temperament) as opposed to external factors, that is, aspects of the situation or context surrounding the abusive behaviour (for example, unemployment).

**Hypothesis 3:**

Abused women will attribute their partner's abusive behaviour more to stable than to unstable factors, with increased:

a) severity of violence
b) frequency of violence
c) duration of violence

Stable factors refer to the temporal nature of the cause, varying from invariant or permanent factors (for example, his childhood) to changing variant factors (for example, employment status). Stable attributions indicate that the women "believes that the cause of the violence will (versus will not) continue to be present in the future" (Dutton, 1994 cited in Dutton, Burghardt, Perrin, Chrestman & Halle, 1994, p.242).

**Hypothesis 4:**

Abused women will attribute their partner's abusive behaviour more to global than to specific factors, with increased:

a) severity of violence
b) frequency of violence
c) duration of violence

Global factors encompass far-reaching versus specific implications and are reflected by the degree to which a person believes "that aspects of one's life other than the violence are also influenced (versus are not influenced) by that which causes the violence" (Dutton *et al*, 1994, p.242).

### 6.1.5 Independent and Dependent Variables

The independent variables in this study are the constructs of severity, frequency and duration of abuse. The dependent variables in this study are the causal attributions of blame (partner/self; internal/external; stable/unstable and global/specific).

## 6.2 Participants

The data for this study were gathered from 102 abused women drawn from the caseloads of five prominent organisations providing services to abused women in Gauteng. These women were either resident, or had been resident in shelters in Gauteng, or were women who had sought counselling services but were not in need of shelter. The study took place over an 18 month period between March 1995 and August 1996. In most cases, the research instrument was used as a standard part of the intake procedure. The women were informed of the research study and of their right to choose to participate or to refuse participation in the study. They were assured that the service they received would not be jeopardised if they chose not to participate in the study. All respondents agreed to participate and thus voluntarily consented to be part of the study.

**6.2.1 Demographic Characteristics of Participants** (illustrated in Table 6.1 over the page)

The ages of the women ranged from 19 to 58 years. Almost half (48%) of the women were aged between 31 and 40 years. A further 18% were aged between 26 and 30 years. Almost half (47%) of the participants were Black, 27% were Coloured, 21% were White and 5% Asian. All but 9 of the women had off-spring. One-third of the women had two children, and 23% had three children. Fifteen percent of the women had 1 child, whilst the remaining 18% had 4 to 6 children.

More than half (54%) of participants were still in the abusive relationship whilst the others were not in the relationship at the time of the study. Sixty-one percent of the women were employed. The majority (58%) of women held a level of education below matric; 30% had matriculated and the others (12%) had a tertiary qualification. These data are summarised in Table 6.1.

*TABLE 6.1 : Demographic characteristics of participants* (n=102)

| Biographical Variable | Categories | n | % |
|---|---|---|---|
| Age | 19 | 1 | 1 |
| | 20-25 | 9 | 9 |
| | 26-30 | 18 | 18 |
| | 31-35 | 26 | 26 |
| | 36-40 | 22 | 22 |
| | 41-45 | 15 | 15 |
| | 46-50 | 5 | 4 |
| | 51-55 | 4 | 4 |
| | 56-60 | 2 | 2 |
| Race | Asian | 5 | 5 |
| | Black | 48 | 47 |
| | Coloured | 28 | 27 |
| | White | 21 | 21 |
| Number of children (n=99) | 0 | 9 | 9 |
| | 1 | 15 | 15 |
| | 2 | 34 | 33 |
| | 3 | 23 | 23 |
| | 4 | 11 | 11 |
| | 5 | 3 | 3 |
| | 6 | 4 | 4 |
| Educational Standard | Below matric | 59 | 58 |
| | Matric | 31 | 30 |
| | Degree/Diploma | 10 | 10 |
| | Post graduate | 2 | 2 |
| Employment Status | Unemployed | 40 | 39 |
| | Employed | 62 | 61 |
| Marital Status | Single | 12 | 12 |
| | In relationship/married | 55 | 54 |
| | Divorced | 13 | 13 |
| | Separated | 21 | 21 |
| | Other (widow) | 1 | 1 |

Note: rounding error occurs in all tables where percentages do not add to 100%.
(Since the number of subjects (N=102) corresponded so closely to the figure of 100, percentage figures tend to closely replicate real numbers of subjects in each category).

## 6.3 Data Collection

A measure used in a previous research study by Dutton (1994 cited in Dutton *et al*, 1994) on abused women was utilised as the primary tool in gathering the data.

### 6.3.1 The Interview Schedule (See Appendix A)

The interview schedule comprised four sections.

#### i) Demographic/Biological Data

This section included a demographic/biographical section on the characteristics of the respondents and the abuse they experienced. It was a structured component of the questionnaire designed to elicit demographic information and information specifically on the severity, frequency and duration of abuse.

#### ii) The Attributions of Blame

This section was designed by the researcher, *to* elicit the participants' attributions of blame during the experience of abuse. Based upon a parallel methodology used by Walker (1979, 1984) in her study of abused women, open-ended questions were used to explore a typical incident of abuse and the reasons given for its occurrences. This section facilitated the gathering of both self-versus-other attributions and internal-versus-external attributions (see Appendix A).

#### iii) The Attribution of Violence Questionnaire (ATB)

The Attribution of Violence (ATB) Questionnaire was used to measure cognitions concerning the violence. This measure was devised by Dutton (1994 cited in Dutton *et al*, 1994) for use in her study of Battered Women's Cognitive Schemata. The ATB measures the abused women's attributions about the cause of violence. A seven-point Likert-type scale is used, with higher scores reflecting greater partner (rather than self), stable (rather than unstable) and global (rather than specific) attributions (Dutton, 1994 cited in Dutton *et al* 1994) (see Appendix A). Dutton defined internal attribution as the belief that the violence is caused by something about the women as opposed to her partner. The researcher has defined this attribution as self versus partner. Stable attributions indicate that the woman believes that the

cause of the violence will (versus will not) continue to be present in the future. Global attributions are reflected by the degree to which a person believes that other aspects of one's life, and not only the violence, are influenced by the same causes of the violence. The ATB also measures the abused woman's expectations of the reoccurrence of the abuse (Dutton, 1994) as well as her ability to improve her situation. This instrument formed the main body of the questionnaire.

iv) **The Appraisal of Violence Questionnaire (APV)**

The APV questionnaire (Dutton, 1994 cited in Dutton *et al*, 1994) uses a three-point Likert-type scale to measure the participant's appraisal of the severity of the abuse experienced. The questionnaire also measures the woman's expectations of severe or lethal violence towards her (see Appendix A).

## 6.4 Administration of Research Instruments

The project was originally discussed with the director and staff of the organisation, People Opposing Woman Abuse (POWA), who agreed upon its relevance. These personnel agreed to administer the questionnaire to the women in their shelter and to women seeking face-to-face counselling. Prior to the commencement of the study, the researcher trained all the staff and counsellors in the administration of the research instrument. After a year, however, the organisation was able to provide only a limited number of completed questionnaires. It was subsequently decided to approach other organisations who offered services to abused women. Five other organisations were approached, four of which agreed to administer the questionnaire. These organisations conducted the research over a further six- month period. Prior to commencement of the study in these organisations, the researcher trained all staff and counsellors in the administration of the research instrument.

## 6.5 Data Analysis

A combination of qualitative and quantitative data provided detailed descriptions of typical incidents of violence, the frequency of violence, its severity and related causal attributions. Two approaches were adopted in the analysis of the data: statistical analysis for the quantitative data and content analysis for the qualitative data. The content analysis also provided a means of categorising the data in order to render it accessible to statistical analysis.

### 6.5.1 Content Analysis

Content analysis involves identifying, coding and categorising primary patterns in the data (Patton, 1990). A content analysis of the structured in-depth interviews involving extrapolation of thematic material and frequency counts was conducted in order to facilitate quantitative analysis of the data. The content analysis was necessary in order to identify and code the dependent variables, namely the causal attributions of blame, specifically self versus other and internal-versus-external attributions. A reliable trained co-rater was used to check the coding and categorising of the data and a 90% reliability score was obtained. The nature of the coding and categorising is now more specifically elaborated.

#### *6.5.1.1 Coding and Categorising the Data*

To identify themes in the data, words or phrases indicative of the type of abuse were isolated (such as "hitting", "he tied me up"). Ten categories of abuse were hereby identified and used in coding (see Table 7.2).

The causal attributions for the violent incident were also isolated. Most women would give one or two reasons such as alcohol, bad temper or insecurity. These reasons were then categorised as internal (her fault/self) as opposed to external (his fault/partner) (or self-versus-other in terms of the terminology of choice for this study), based upon Frieze's (1979) study, depicted in Table 2.1. Fifteen causes of abuse were isolated ranging from substance abuse to personality factors (see Table 7.5). These attributions were then coded into internal/external attributions of abuse. Internal factors were based on the dispositional qualities of the person as opposed to external factors, namely aspects of the situation or environment/context surrounding the person and his behaviour (action). The category of internal or external was based upon the abused woman's full description of her partner and all the causal attributions suggested for his abusive behaviour. Thus internality was based upon the entire picture of the abusive situation and all the attributions made by one participant. If a participant's attributions were contradictory, the majority position was categorised.

The data were then isolated into the dependent variables of self-versus-other and internal-versus-external attributions, the typical incident of violence and the severity thereof. The

results of the analysis of these data are described in the following chapter. The other dimensions of duration and frequency and stability and globality were extracted directly from the questionnaire components designed to measure these aspects.

### 6.5.2 Statistical Analysis

Descriptive statistics (frequencies and percentages) were calculated for all categorical variables and means and standard deviations were calculated for the variables measured on the Likert-type scales. Intergroup comparisons on these continuous variables were conducted via t-tests and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA).

The nature of the relationships established are elaborated in the following chapter summarising the results of the study.

# CHAPTER SEVEN

# PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

In this chapter, the results of the statistical analyses are presented in six sections:

- The first section (7.1) comprises descriptive statistics on the nature and characteristics of abuse experienced.
- The second section (7.2) comprises descriptive statistics on abuse in terms of severity (7.2.1), frequency (7.2.2), and duration (7.2.3). The duration of the marital relationship is also presented (7.2.4).
- The third section (7.3) comprises descriptive statistics from the qualitative data on the perceived causes of abuse.
- The fourth section comprises descriptive statistics on the participants' perceptions of their abusive situation in terms of their expectations of the reoccurrence of their abuse (7.4.1) as well as their ability to improve their situation (7.4.2). The findings in relation to the participants' perceived feelings of helplessness and the likelihood of preventing future violence are also explored (7.4.3). These four sections address the secondary exploratory aims of the study. The fifth and sixth sections address the primary aim of the study.
- The fifth section (7.5) comprises descriptive statistics on causal attributions of blame in terms of partner versus self, internal versus external, stable versus unstable and global versus specific attributions (7.5.1).
- The sixth (7.6) section comprises inferential statistics on the relation between section 7.2 viz. severity, frequency and duration of abuse and the various attributions as outlined in the hypotheses (7.6.1; 7.6.2; 7.6.3; 7.6.4).

## 7.1 An Overview of the Nature and Type of Abuse Experienced in the Study

In this section respondents' description of the nature and type of abuse experienced are described and categorised (Section 7.1.1, Tables 7.1 and 7.2 respectively).

### 7.1.1 The Nature and Type of Abuse Experienced

The nature of the abuse experienced is categorised in Table 7.1. The majority (90%) of the respondents indicated that they had experienced physical abuse in combination with emotional and/or sexual abuse. The kinds of physical abuse women experienced ranged from hitting and slapping to attempted drowning (see Table 7.2).

*TABLE 7.1 : Nature of abuse* (n = 102)

| Nature of Abuse Experienced | n | % |
|---|---|---|
| Physical only | 11 | 11 |
| Emotional only | 10 | 10 |
| Physical & Sexual | 4 | 4 |
| Physical & Emotional | 50 | 49 |
| Physical, Emotional & Sexual | 25 | 25 |
| Sexual & Emotional | 2 | 2 |

Note: rounding error occurs in all tables where percentages do not add up to 100%.

*TABLE 7.2 : Types of abuse*

| Types of Abuse | % |
|---|---|
| Punching, kicking, hitting, slapping, beating | 95 |
| Arguing, shouting & swearing | 51 |
| Forced sex | 21 |
| Stabbing | 18 |
| Death Threats | 13 |
| Throwing of objects | 7 |
| Strangling | 4 |
| Throwing out of window | 3 |
| Held hostage | 3 |
| Attempted drowning | 1 |

## 7.2 Abuse - Severity, Frequency and Duration

In this section respondents' description of their abusive situations are described and categorised in Tables 7.3 and 7.4.

### 7.2.1 Severity of Abuse

In terms of severity of abuse, a large majority of respondents (81%) rated the severity of their abuse as severe. Furthermore, most respondents (70%) perceived the abuse they had experienced as life-threatening, with potential consequences of physical harm or death (see Table 7.3).

### 7.2.2 Frequency of Abuse

In terms of frequency of abuse, approximately 22% of subjects were abused at most once a month. Fifty-one percent were abused more than once a week. Thus, 79% of participants were abused more than once a month (see Table 7.3). Twenty-four women indicated that they were abused daily.

### 7.2.3 Duration of Abuse

The duration of the abuse was investigated with reference to the length of the relationship. The time periods were categorised within the time frames: 5 years or less, 6-10 years and more than 10 years. The cross tabulation of the length and duration of abuse is presented in Table 7.4. Of the 29 women who had been in the relationship for 6-10 years, 12 (30%) had experienced abuse for 5 years or less; of the 34 women with a relationship of more than 10 years, 19 (45%) had experienced violence for less than 10 years. Thus the onset of abuse does not necessarily correspond with the beginning of the relationship (see Table 7.4).

*TABLE 7.3 : Frequency of responses for each level of the independent variables* (n=102)

| Construct | Category | n | % |
|---|---|---|---|
| Severity of abuse | Mild | 2 | 2 |
| | Moderate | 17 | 17 |
| | Severe | 83 | 81 |
| Appraisal of risk of death | Mild | 9 | 9 |
| | Moderate | 22 | 22 |
| | Severe | 71 | 70 |
| Frequency of abuse | Daily | 24 | 24 |
| | Every 2-3 days | 28 | 27 |
| | Once a week | 19 | 19 |
| | Every 2 weeks | 9 | 9 |
| | Once a month | 14 | 14 |
| | < once a month | 8 | 8 |
| Duration of abuse | 0-5 years | 52 | 51 |
| | 6-10 years | 22 | 22 |
| | > 10 years | 28 | 27 |

*TABLE 7.4 : Duration of marital relationship and abusive relationship: A cross tabulation*

| | Length of Marital Type Relationship | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Duration of Abuse | 5yrs or less | 6-10yrs | > 10yrs | Total % |
| 5yrs or less | 22 | 12 | 7 | 51 |
| 6-10yrs | 0 | 17 | 12 | 22 |
| > 10yrs | 3 | 0 | 34 | 27 |
| Total | 22 | 29 | 53 | |
| Total Percentages | 26% | 30% | 45% | |

## 7.3 Causal Attributions of Abuse

The majority (84%) of respondents indicated partner attributions of blame. With regard to these attributions, respondents indicated both internal (characterological) and external (situational) causal attributions of blame. With regard to external causes, more than half of the respondents (57%) attributed alcohol and drugs as the primary cause for their abuse. With regard to internal causes, thirty-three percent of respondents attributed jealousy as a causative factor of abuse, followed by low frustration tolerance (25%) and inferiority complex (20%) (see Table 7.5). These causal attributions have been categorised into internal and external factors.

*TABLE 7.5: Causal attributions of abuse (%)*

| Internal | % | External | % |
|---|---|---|---|
| Jealousy | 33 | Alcohol & Drugs | 57 |
| Low Frustration Tolerance | 25 | Outside relationship (the other woman) | 24 |
| Inferiority Complex | 20 | Children | 6 |
| Personality | 16 | In laws | 4 |
| Childhood Factors | 4 | Stress | 3 |
| Mental illness | 2 | Friends | 2 |
| | | Unemployment | 1 |
| | | Communication | 1 |
| | | Power | 1 |

## 7.4 Participants Perceptions of their Abusive Situation

In this section respondents' perceptions of their abusive situation in terms of their expectations of the reoccurrence of the abuse and their ability to improve the situation are discussed (7.4.1 and 7.4.2 respectively).

### 7.4.1 Reoccurrence of Abuse

In Table 7.6 respondents' expectations of the reoccurrence of the abuse are categorised. Twenty-two percent of respondents indicated that the violence was unlikely to reoccur, 13% were not sure, whilst the majority of respondents (68%), indicated that the violence was likely to reoccur (see Attribution Questionnaire, Question 7, Appendix A).

*TABLE 7.6 : Reoccurrence of abuse*

| Item | Category | n=102 | % |
|---|---|---|---|
| Reoccurrence of abuse | Not at all likely | 22 | 22 |
| | Not sure | 13 | 13 |
| | Very likely | 69 | 68 |
| Ability to take control over their lives | Not at all able | 17 | 17 |
| | Not sure | 18 | 18 |
| | Able | 67 | 66 |
| How to improve the situation (multiple responses given) | Divorce/Separation | 67 | 55 |
| | Therapy | 18 | 15 |
| | Employment | 9 | 7 |
| | Self Development | 9 | 7 |
| | Religion | 8 | 7 |
| | Nothing | 5 | 4 |
| | Break isolation | 5 | 4 |

### 7.4.2 "Ability to Take Control of Their Lives" and Improve Their Situation

In Table 7.6 the respondents' perceptions of their perceived ability to "take control of their lives" and improve their situation are categorised. About two-thirds (66%) of the respondents indicated they were able to take control of their lives and "make themselves happy" (see Attribution Questionnaire, Question 8, Appendix A). Fifty-five percent of respondents indicated they would "take control" by leaving the relationship (divorce) (see Attribution Questionnaire, Question 9, Appendix A). Therapy, economic independence, self development, religion and breaking social isolation were other factors participants indicated as potentially useful to help improve their situation. These results suggest that respondents, despite indicating that they are able to "take control over their lives", are still searching for ways in which they can empower themselves and change their situation, either in assisting them to leave the relationship or to cope within it.

### 7.4.3 Likelihood of Preventing Future Violence

Fifty-eight percent of respondents indicated that they believed that their behaviour would not be effective in stopping future violence, whilst 21% believed that they could stop the violence (see Table 7.7) (Attribution Questionnaire, Question 7, Appendix A).

*TABLE 7.7 : Likelihood of preventing future violence* (n=102)

| Category | n | % |
|---|---|---|
| Not likely | 59 | 58 |
| Not sure | 20 | 20 |
| Likely | 21 | 21 |

## 7.5 Descriptive Statistics on the Causal Attributions of Blame

In section 7.5.1, the findings on the participants' causal attributions of blame are described. The 7-point Likert-type scale has been categorised into three sub-categories for interpretive descriptive purposes as 1-3, 4 and 5-7 (see Table 7.8). In the following section (7.6) which investigated the relations between the causal attributions as outlined in the hypotheses and severity, frequency and duration of abuse, the causal attributions were measured as continuous variables on the Likert-type scale in order to avoid the possible problem of miscategorisation. The particular splits considered are not necessarily ideal but were defined to enable statistical processing.

### 7.5.1 Causal Attributions of Blame

Most respondents:

- attributed locus of causality to their partner (84%)
- attributed their abuse to external/situational factors (62%)
- attributed their abuse to stable factors (70%)
- attributed their abuse to global factors (79%)

Table 7.8 categorises this data.

*TABLE 7.8 : Summary table of frequencies for each level of the dependent variables* (n=102)

| Construct | Category | % |
|---|---|---|
| Locus of causality | Partner<br>Joint<br>Self | 84<br>11<br>5 |
| Locus of causality: Characterological/ situational | Internal<br>External | 38<br>62 |
| Stability of causality | Unstable<br>Unsure<br>Stable | 19<br>12<br>70 |
| Globality of causality | Specific<br>Unsure<br>Global | 12<br>10<br>79 |

## 7.6 Inferential Statistics : The Relation between the Causal Attributions of Blame as outlined in the Hypotheses and Severity, Frequency and Duration of Abuse

The relations between the causal attributions of blame, namely, locus of causality, stability, and globality (see Table 7.8) and severity, frequency and duration of abuse as proposed in the hypotheses, are presented and discussed in Tables 7.9 - 7.12 for hypotheses 1-4 respectively. A summary of these results is presented in Table 7.13. For intergroup comparisons of severity levels (mild/moderate versus severe) and frequency levels (weekly versus less than once a week), the results of t-tests are presented on the four attributions. For the intergroup comparisons of duration, involving three levels (1-5, 6-10 and >10 years) the results of 1-way ANOVA's are presented on the four attributions.

### 7.6.1 Hypothesis 1:

Abused women focus their attributions more on the partner than on the self, with increased:

a) severity of violence

b) frequency of violence

c) duration of violence

Table 7.9 presents a summary of the t and F test results on partner-self attributions.

*TABLE 7.9 : Hypothesis 1 : Partner versus self-attributions of blame and severity, frequency and duration of abuse*

| Independent variable (IV) | IV Categories | mean attribution | t-value |
|---|---|---|---|
| Severity | Mild/moderate<br>Severe | 2,37<br>1,54 | 2,19* |
| Frequency | Weekly<br>< once a week | 1,75<br>1,58 | 0,5 |
| Duration | 1-5 years<br>6-10 years<br>> 10 years | 1,65<br>1,77<br>1,71 | F-value<br><br>0,05 |

*p< 0,05

From the findings of table 7.9 and 7.13 it can be inferred that in terms of:

- **Severity of Abuse**

  Respondents with more severe abuse expressed attributions with a **significantly** higher degree of partner located responsibility than did respondents with less severe abuse. This finding **supports** the hypothesis of increasing partner-blame with increasing severity of abuse.

- **Frequency of Abuse**

  There is **insufficient evidence** to conclude a relation between frequency of abuse and partner-blame. There is thus **no support** for the hypothesis of increasing partner-blame with increasing frequency of abuse.

- **Duration of Abuse**

  There is **insufficient evidence** to conclude a relation between duration of abuse and partner-blame. There is thus **no support** for the hypothesis of increasing partner-blame with increased duration of violence.

### 7.6.2 Hypothesis 2:

Abused women will attribute their partner's abusive behaviour more to internal than to external factors within the partner, with increased:

a) severity of violence
b) frequency of violence
c) duration of violence

Table 7.10 presents summary results on internal-external attributions.

*TABLE 7.10 :* ***Hypothesis 2 : Internal versus external attributions of blame and severity, frequency and duration of abuse***

| Independent variable | IV Categories | mean attribution | t-value |
|---|---|---|---|
| Severity | Mild/moderate<br>Severe | 1,47<br>1,65 | -1,43 |
| Frequency | Weekly<br>< once a week | 1,59<br>1,68 | -0,81 |
| Duration | 1-5 years<br>6-10 years<br>> 10 years | 1,61<br>1,73<br>1,53 | F-value<br><br>0,95 |

*p< 0,05

From the findings of tables 7.10 and 7.13 it can be inferred that in terms of:

- **Severity of Abuse:**

  There is **insufficient evidence** to conclude a relation between severity and internality or externality. Therefore, there is **no support** for the hypothesis of increasing internality with increasing severity of abuse.

- **Frequency of abuse:**

  There is **insufficient evidence** to conclude a relation between frequency of abuse and increasing internality or externality. Therefore, there is **no support** for the hypothesis of increasing internality with increasing frequency of abuse.

- **Duration of abuse:**

  There is **insufficient evidence** to conclude a relation between duration of abuse and increasing internality or externality. Thus there is **no support** for the hypothesis of increasing internality with increasing duration of abuse.

### 7.6.3 Hypothesis 3:

Abused women will attribute their partner's abusive behaviour more to stable than to unstable factors, with increased:

a) severity of violence
b) frequency of violence
c) duration of violence

Table 7.11 presents summary results on stable/unstable attributions.

*TABLE 7.11 : Hypothesis 3 : Stable versus unstable attributions of blame and severity, frequency and duration of abuse*

| Independent variable | IV Categories | mean attribution | t-value |
|---|---|---|---|
| Severity | Mild/moderate<br>Severe | 4,84<br>5,64 | -1,34 |
| Frequency | Weekly<br>< once a week | 5,31<br>5,90 | -1,17 |
| Duration | 1-5 years<br>6-10 years<br>> 10 years | 5,33<br>5,68<br>5,64 | **F-value**<br><br>0,25 |

*p < 0,05

From the findings of tables 7.11 and 7.13 it can be inferred that in terms of:

- **Severity of Abuse:**
  There is **insufficient evidence** to conclude a relation between severity of abuse and stability. Thus there is no support for the hypotheses of increasing stability with increasing severity of abuse.

- **Frequency of Abuse:**
  There is **insufficient evidence** to conclude a relation between frequency of abuse and increasing stability. Therefore, there is **no support** for the hypothesis of increasing stability with increasing frequency of abuse.

- **Duration of Abuse:**
  There is **insufficient evidence** to conclude a relation between duration of abuse and increasing stability. Thus there is **no support** for the hypothesis of increasing stability with increasing duration of abuse.

### 7.6.4 Hypothesis 4:

Abused women will attribute their partner's abusive behaviour more to global than to specific factors, with increased:

a) severity of violence
b) frequency of violence
c) duration of violence

Table 7.12 presents summary results on global/specific attributions.

*TABLE 7.12 : Hypothesis 4 : Global versus specific attributions of blame and severity, frequency and duration of abuse*

| Independent variable | IV Categories | mean attribution | t-statistics |
|---|---|---|---|
| Severity | Mild/moderate<br>Severe | 4,89<br>6,16 | -2,55* |
| Frequency | Weekly<br>< once a week | 5,80<br>6,19 | -0,91 |
| Duration | 1-5 years<br>6-10 years<br>> 10 years | 5,69<br>6,27<br>6,07 | F-value<br><br>0,76 |

*p< 0,05

From the findings of tables 7.12 and 7.13 it can be inferred that:

- **Severity of Abuse:**

  Respondents with more severe abuse express **significantly more** global attributions than do respondents with less severe abuse. This finding therefore **supports** the hypothesis of increasing global attributions with increased severity of violence.

- **Frequency of Abuse:**

  There is **insufficient evidence** to conclude a relation between frequency of abuse and increasing globality. Therefore there is **no support** for the hypothesis of increasing globality with increasing frequency of abuse.

- **Duration of Abuse:**

  There is **insufficient evidence** to conclude a relation between frequency of abuse and increasing globality. Thus there is **no support** for the hypothesis of increasing globality with increasing frequency of abuse.

The results of Tables 7.9 - 7.12 are summarised in Table 7.13 together with the direction of the relation. An asterisk indicates the two significant results. Bracketed arrows (↑) indicate direction of relations in the case of non-significant results.

*TABLE 7.13 : Summary table of relation between causal attributions of blame and severity, frequency, duration of abuse*

| Category of Abuse | Severity | Frequency | Duration |
|---|---|---|---|
| Partner | ↑* | (↑) | (↑) |
| Internal | (↓) | (↑) | (↑) |
| Stable | (↑) | (↓) | (↑) |
| Global | ↑* | (↓) | (↑) |

* $p < 0,05$

**Conclusion**

The findings of this study indicate that there is a **significant** relation between **partner attributions** of blame in relation to **severity** of abuse, with increasing partner-blame. Abused women evidence **significantly more global attributions** with increased **severity** of abuse. There was no evidence to conclude a relation between causal attributions of stability/instability, and of internality/externality, with severity of abuse. Furthermore, there was no evidence to conclude a relation between causal attributions of partner/self, internality/externality, stable/unstable and global/specific with increased **duration** and **frequency** of abuse, although some trends can be noted from the above table.

# CHAPTER EIGHT

# DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

In this chapter the findings of the study are discussed in relation to the literature pertaining to the causal attributions of abused women. Qualitative material and excerpts from the questionnaire are used to highlight participants' experience of abuse. The discussion is divided into five sections, initially providing a contextualisation and description of the characteristics of the women and the nature of abuse they suffered in terms of the secondary aims of the study, and thereafter addressing the findings pertaining to the formal hypotheses of the research.

The first section provides a profile of the abused women. The second section discusses the nature of abuse as well as the types of abuse experienced, that is the severity, duration and frequency of abuse experienced. The third section discusses the perceived causes of abuse as identified within the study. The fourth section explores the findings on the relationship between the nature of abuse (severity, frequency and duration) and the various attributions of partner-and self-blame, internal and external, stable and unstable and global and specific attributions of blame.

## 8.1 A Profile of the Abused Women Participating in the Study

This section will explore the profile of women who are abused in the Gauteng Province of South Africa arising out of the demographic findings of the study (see Table 6.1). This will be followed by a discussion on the nature or characteristics of the abuse experienced (see Tables 7.4 and 7.5).

### 8.1.1 Demographic Characteristics of Participants : Age, Race, Education and Employment

Contrary to the researcher's expectation that abused women are likely to be in their early twenties, two-thirds (66%) of women seeking help for abuse were between the ages of 30 and 40 years (see Table 6.1). Furthermore, these women were likely to have two or three children

whose welfare they needed to take into account when considering the advantages and disadvantages of leaving the relationship. On the basis of these results it would appear that young women, between the ages of 15 years and 25 years are not seeking he' at these kinds of organisations, since this age group is vastly under-represented in this sample.

The respondents in the study represented a cross-section of the population of abused women seeking help at NGO's in Gauteng. Almost 80% of the respondents were black or coloured and came from township communities (see Table 6.1). They thus reflect the portion of the population who most suffered under the apartheid regime. These communities have been characterised by high incidences of gangsterism, violence, poverty, unemployment and substance abuse. Twenty-one percent of the women in the sample were white which meant they possibly came from less impover communities and had access to greater resources than the other racial groups.

It is evident that women abuse cuts across racial boundaries. However, the high proportion of the sample representing township communities suggests that apartheid has impacted on the levels of violence in these communities and supports arguments that a breakdown in family life has resulted (Patel, 1992; Segel & Labe, 1990). Furthermore, it has been suggested that working class men and especially black men feel oppressed and impotent (Patel, 1992; Segel & Labe, 1990). Their frustration is likely to lead to domination of women which may be further expressed in women abuse (Patel, 1992; Segel & Labe, 1990).

Forty percent of the women indicated that they were unemployed. This resembles the national figure for unemployment in South Africa (CEDAW, 1997; White Paper for Social Welfare, 1995). South African women earn only 30.8% of all national income, a figure below the world average of 33.3% and the Sub-Saharan African average of 35.3% (POWA Newsletter, 1987). Furthermore, 58% of the women had an educational level below standard 10 (matric). Low education affects a woman's chances of finding employment in urban areas and of becoming economically independent. Her lack of qualifications limits her to earning little more than a living wage. Thus, abused women seeking help at NGO's tend to be economically dependent on their partners which may result in feelings of entrapment, helplessness and depression. The relationship status of participants will now be discussed.

### 8.1.2 Relationship Status of Participants

Almost half of the respondents (46%) were separated from their spouses. However, these women were still seeking assistance at organisations, suggesting they were still experiencing abuse and had not resolved their difficulties with their partners. Fifty-four percent of respondents were still in the abusive relationship despite enduring severe abuse for an extended period of time. As mentioned in the review of the literature, there is a considerable body of literature pertaining to why abused women remain in such relationships. It is generally agreed that a range of interacting factors including material, social and personal concerns all play some part. However, it may be that the population of women in this study remaining married (just over half) was attached to some degree to their marital status. However, the basis for this remains speculative. It is interesting to note, however, that the clients of the service organisations surveyed in the study comprise about half married and half separated women.

In South Africa, women's powerlessness in the home is entrenched by laws and rituals surrounding marriage (Segel & Labe, 1990; Patel, 1982). In customary marriages, men pay lobola (a bride price in cattle or cash) for their wives, thereby entrenching a sense of ownership. When interviewing the women, the author found it interesting to note that the women also felt that their husbands were accountable to them, since their families had been paid lobola. The purpose of lobola was to provide security for the woman should the marriage fail through no fault of her own (Human Rights Watch, 1995). Thus the practice of lobola may represent a dual meaning within such marriages offering both partners a different sense of entitlement.

Other factors that may contribute to women remaining in the marriage despite their abuse, include ideologies which hold that a woman's duty is to preserve the family at all costs, and stay together with her partner for the sake of the children. The married women in the study may accept the ideology of marriage and the status attached to marriage and family. The belief that violence should be hidden from other people may also prevent abused women from leaving the relationship. "The web of ideologies and practices which render women powerless in relation to men make them vulnerable to abuse. The violence they suffer entrenches and reinforces their vulnerability, thus women are maintained in a vicious cycle of entrapment"

(Segel & Labe, 1990, p.262). The possibility that such conceptualisations of abuse are applicable to the women in the study is extrapolated largely from the fact that 54% of the respondents were still living in severely abusive relationships at the time the interviews took place. The nature and characteristics of the violence experienced will now be discussed.

## 8.2 The Characteristics of Abuse

The participants in this study experienced several forms of abuse as outlined in Chapter 7 (Tables 7.1 and 7.2). Men tend to use diverse forms of violence against their wives (Barnett, 1993). The nature of abuse in the present study ranged from slapping, kicking and beating to attempted drowning and throwing of objects. The findings of the study indicate that the majority of participants experienced physical abuse only, or physical abuse in combination with emotional and/or sexual abuse. Thus physical abuse was present in all cases assessed in the study. An example of the kinds of abuse described are illustrated in the following excerpts:

> *"He hit and kicked me and then my son. I tried to stop the fight and he took out a gun and swore at me and my son". (A.M. age 48 years, unemployed).*

> *"He hit me with a fist and chain... He tied my hands and legs then he beat me with a stick". (C. age 38 years, employed).*

> *"He breaks things in the house. When I cook he takes the pot and throws it on the floor. He kicks us out of the house at night. He's always fighting with the children and told them to go and look for their fathers and he is the father of these children (sic). He beats me up with dangerous things....I see death in our relationship". (K.L. age 36 years, employed).*

> *"Verbal abuse, held hostage by gunpoint. On three different occasions he tried to kill me". (K.O. age 42 years, employed).*

> *"He hit me with a sjambok while I was pregnant". (S.S. age 19 years, unemployed).*

*"He promises to shoot me dead and burn the house and after that he will run away and nobody can do anything to him. If I don't run far from this man I see that my future is underground dead". (F.M. age 38 years, employed).*

*"He once hit me to an extent that I got unconscious. Then a neighbour came to my rescue. She found me unconscious and called an ambulance which took me to Baragwanath. He was kicking me in the stomach. He also punched me continuously". (G.N. age 24 years, unemployed).*

Motsei (1993), in a study undertaken in Alexandra, found that physical injury had been inflicted on women by a variety of means including fists, knives, bottles and traditional weapons (Human Rights Watch, 1995). The findings of the present study seem to support Motsei's findings as illustrated in the above quotations. Ninety-five percent of women in this study experienced punching, kicking, hitting, slapping and beating. Stabbing, death threats, throwing of objects and strangling were also experienced.

Research holds that women abuse tends to increase in intensity over time, having far reaching physical and psychological effects (Barnett, 1993; Dobash & Dobash, 1977, 1979; Walker, 1983, 1984). Physical injuries can include serious wounds, fractured bones, concussion, miscarriage and severe internal injuries, resulting in permanent scars and disfigurement (Dobash & Dobash, 1977; Barnett, 1993). Women who survive battery are also often hospitalised with broken bones, burns and other severe injuries (POWA, 1997 cited in The Citizen, 30 October, 1997). The findings of the study support POWA's contention that physical abuse also entails expanded forms of abuse such as punching, kicking, pulling hair, throwing things at her, pushing hard and shoving (The Citizen, 30 October, 1997).

The kinds of abuse women in this study experienced therefore appear to conform to general Western and African trends (see Tables 7.1 and 7.2). In exploring the kinds of abuse experienced by participants, it appeared that women initially described a predominance of physical and emotional abuse. The researcher was surprised at the lack of overt reporting or confirmation of sexual abuse, since most literature as well as the researcher's previous clinical experience have identified a tendency for abusive relationships to include sexual abuse.

However, in examining the actual kinds of abuse the women experienced, described in their responses to the open-ended question concerning a typical incident of abuse, the category of forced sex was the third highest category of abuse (21%) mentioned. Thus it seems that women may not categorise or are not conscious of sexual abuse as a specific category. This may be due to the taboo nature of sexual abuse, or to the fact that sex is seen in the context of the patriarchal conjugal relationship rights and consequently not consciously experienced as abuse. Sex may also be seen as part of "making up" (he often wants sex after fighting with her), or as a means of placating him, or the woman's submission as acknowledgement of his power (POWA, Verbal Communication, 1997). However, this form of abuse does appear to be fairly commonly present as evidenced in the spontaneously generated descriptions of abuse.

This lack of awareness of sexual abuse concurs with Labe's (1990) finding that although respondents in her study did not define or classify themselves as sexually abused, they reported forced intercourse and other forms sexual abuse as a regular feature of their marriage. Labe suggests that there is extreme confusion in defining oneself as sexually abused "as if women did not know how to locate their experiences" (Labe, 1990, p.21). Her respondents found it easier to discuss physical and emotional abuse, than sexual abuse, perhaps as a result of the shame and humiliation accompanying sexual abuse. Labe noted a curious paradox: while emotional abuse is harder to pinpoint, the experience of it is easier to rationalise. Thus the lack of immediate or overt identification of sexual abuse by the subjects of this study may reflect a range of concerns or causes. Since the study used a questionnaire as opposed to interview approach it was impossible to explore this further.

Labe suggests that there may be a qualitative difference in the patterns of abuse: physical, emotional and/or sexual. As such, these may give rise to different causal attributions. The present study may therefore be limited by its failure to distinguish between the types of abuse experienced. However, this will be discussed further in commentary on the study.

### 8.3 The Nature of Abuse

This section will now discuss the nature of abuse experienced in terms of the severity, frequency and duration of abuse identified within the study.

### 8.3.1 Severity of Abuse

Eighty-one percent of respondents claimed they had experienced severe abuse, whilst 70% of the respondents perceived the abuse they experienced as life threatening with potential consequences of physical harm or death (see Table 7.3). These sentiments were illustrated in some of the quotations previously cited. Vetton (1995) in her study of Intimate Femicide highlights the prevalence of women being killed by their partners. She suggested that a woman was killed by her partner every six days in South Africa over a 2-year period from 1993 to 1994. As such the reality of the potential for abuse to lead to death is serious cause for concern.

Gell.. (1976) found that the more severe the abuse, the more likely women would be to seek some form of assistance. This trend appeared to be evident in this study given that the participants were accessed through counselling service points. The preponderance of severe abuse in this study suggests that there was a lack of variation in the sample with few participants reporting mild forms of abuse (see Table 7.3).

Based on this fairly large sample, the study suggests that women approaching NGO's for assistance in the Gauteng region are typically experiencing severe forms of abuse. This description of abuse appears to be more generally typical of abuse reports at South African NGO's (POWA, 1997, Personal Communication). Service providers therefore have to deal with a client population experiencing quite extreme abuse and possibly associated fear and helplessness. Women may also be seeking help at these organisations after having tried alternative methods of resolving the conflict and increasing severity of abuse. Most abused women do not seek help outside their informal network of family and friends (Human Rights Watch, 1995). Therefore the fact that these women had sought organisational intervention may have been some indication of the severity of their distress and the degree to which they felt unable to alter the course of events without assistance.

### 8.3.2 Frequency of Abuse

Seventy percent of the respondents in this study experienced abuse at least once a week and approximately one quarter experienced abuse more than once a month. The data could therefore only be categorised in terms of frequently occurring incidences of abuse. This

resulted in a lack of variation in the sample with few participants reporting infrequent abuse (see Table 7.3).

Based upon this fairly large sample the study suggests that women approaching NGO's for assistance in the Gauteng region are not only experiencing severe abuse, but also frequent abuse. However, although abuse may be frequent, every incident of abuse may not necessarily be severe.

Gelles (1976) found a correlation between frequency of abuse and marital status. More specifically, women who were frequently abused (once a week) tended to take immediate action such as calling the police, as opposed to leaving the relationship. Thus Gelles found a relationship between severity and frequency of abuse that distinguished women who left the relationship from those who stayed. Ironically, those who were frequently abused tended to take immediate action and stay in the relationship.

The findings of this study are in contrast to this view in that almost half (46%) of respondents were separated from their partners. Thus, despite reporting frequency of abuse, approximately half of the respondents had left the relationship. Thus, frequency of abuse may not be an uncomplicated predictor of whether women are likely to stay or leave the abusive relationship. It seems that on the basis of the findings of this study, women who experience frequent and severe abuse may be as likely to leave the relationship as they are to stay. This supports Snyder and Scheer's (1981 cited in Strube, 1988) finding that severity or frequency of abuse is not related to relationship status.

The findings of this study also contradicts Gelles' finding that certain types of abuse victims are more likely to seek help, namely those experiencing less frequent, but severe abuse. However, women who experience severe abuse less frequently may not seek help immediately, as they experience their partner's "being nice" to them for longer periods than when he is abusive (POWA, Personal Communication, 1997). This may also account for the fact that infrequent abuse is under-represented in the present study. In general what emerged from the study was a pattern of severe, frequent and enduring abuse.

### 8.3.3 Duration of Abuse

Almost half of the participants had been in the abusive relationship for over 10 years, whilst one-third had cohabited for between 6-10 years. However, it would appear that women remain in the relationship and experience severe violence for a considerable period of time before seeking help at NGO's. This may be due to the fact that women may try alternative methods of resolving the conflict. A 1993 survey of 111 women conducted by Nina and Stavrous (1994) found that 50% sought assistance from their extended families, 22% from neighbours and friends, 12% from their church, 8% from street councils and 2% from social workers (Human Rights Watch, 1995).

The fragmentation of social services and the inadequacy of the legal system in dealing with women abuse further prevent women from seeking help. POWA (cited in The Citizen, 30 October 1997), also suggests that women keep silent about their abuse because they believe that no one, not even the authorities, will believe or support them if they speak about it. Dangor and Seedat (1992) interviewed 100 women on their perceptions of violence. They found that women did not seek help as they feared further abuse from their partners. They also cited shame, humiliation, ostracism and that abuse is a private matter as factors preventing them from seeking help.

Gayford (1975) found a trend in her study where women endured severe violence for a considerable time before seeking help. She attributed this to the women believing the violence to be their fault and seeing their situation as unique. This trend may also be attributed to the fact that women initially attempt to see their relationship in a positive light (Frieze, 1978; Shields & Hanneke, 1983; Porter & Miller, 1985; Walker, 1988; Barnett, 1993). Abused women may initially hold themselves to blame, exacerbating feelings of humiliation and guilt and further preventing them from seeking help. Once they realise they are no longer to blame, women begin to perceive their partners as being responsible for the abuse. It is at this point that they are more likely to seek help. They may also feel more helpless and hopeless that the abuse is not changing, despite their efforts, and that they are at risk of severe physical harm or death the longer they remain in the relationship. Post traumatic stress disorder and resulting distortions in cognitive schemata and dependence on the perpetrator may also result in enduring abusive relationships. Walker's (1979) cycle of violence and the concept of

traumatic bonding also explain why women remain in abusive relationships. It appears that factors contributing to help seeking and lack of help seeking are complex and multifaceted. Since this area was not the subject of enquiry in the present study, patterns of behaviour can only be inferred from demographic indicators and remain tentative.

The fact that abuse is tolerated for such considerable periods lends weight to the argument put forward by Vogelman and Eagle (1991) that violence is endemic and tolerated. Violence may initially be perceived as normative and to a large extent accepted rather than challenged. The author concurs with this perspective and believes that the considerable duration of abuse endured by women is endemic and can lead to serious physical harm or death. Thus service providers need to develop more preventive and promotive strategies encouraging women to seek help earlier.

### 8.4 Perceived Causes of Abuse

This section will explore some of the major themes arising out of the qualitative material of the study in terms of the perceived causes of women abuse. These will be discussed under the central content category themes identified within the data, namely: alcohol, jealousy, low frustration tolerance and extra marital relationships. The participants of the study were asked what they thought caused the abuse in their relationship (see Appendix A, Attribution Questionnaire, Question 1). These answers were then thematically coded into the above categories by the author.

#### 8.4.1 Alcohol and Women Abuse

As found in most studies of women abuse (Barnett, 1993; Carlson, 1984; Dangor & Seedat, 1992; Gayford, 1975; Hotaling & Sugarman, 1986; Rounsaville, 1978; Segel & Labe, 1990; Stahly, 1978) alcohol has been frequently identified as a major cause of or contributing factor to abuse. Fifty-seven percent of women in the study cited alcohol and drugs as a causative factor in their abuse. The emphasis on substance abuse as a causative factor was thus borne out in the present study, as illustrated in the following verbatim quotations:

> *"The abuse almost always took place when he was drunk. He would get upset with something e.g. his food was not ready or he did not like me talking back to him. The*

*major cause (for violence) is alcoholism and substance abuse, as it almost always took place after he had been drinking or smoking dagga". (J.H. age 31 years, English, unemployed).*

*"He was abusive whenever he had taken alcohol and he abused everyone in this state, but when sober he was sweet and innocent". (G. age 39 years, unemployed).*

*"He would be drunk - I would do something wrong (in his eyes/maybe not at all), and he would shout, then hit me, and sexually degrade me". (J.L. age 34 years, employed).*

*"The major cause of violence in my marriage was that my husband was drinking on weekends and that's where it started from Friday nights till Sunday afternoons". (C. age 53 years, employed).*

*"He drinks and then he becomes abusive". (R. age 42 years, employed).*

Alcohol seems to be widely used by society in general as a tranquilliser in emotionally upsetting situations (Bard, 1974 cited in Stahly, 1978). Thus it has become acceptable to families in crisis, or experiencing severe stress, to use alcohol more frequently. However, the relationship between alcohol and violence, would depend on the amount of alcohol consumed since alcohol affects people differently, and does not necessarily lead to violence (Ibid.).

Bard (1974 cited in Stahly, 1978) suggests that the relationship between alcohol and violence may be a curvilinear one in that violent activity may initially increase with the intake of alcohol but then decrease as the person reaches a point of stupor. Gayford (1975) found a correlation between sexual abuse and alcohol. An argument would commonly start with the man beginning to drink in an aggressive state of mind. The man would become intoxicated and in a drunken state, demand sexual relations. Refusal would lead to further violence, which would be seen as having sexual connotations. This kind of pattern may be manifest in the present study in which women viewed alcohol as a cause of abuse and experienced a high rate of coerced sex.

Links have also been made between alcohol abuse and personality factors (Bard, 1974 cited in Stahly, 1978; Hotaling & Sugarman, 1986; Rounsaville, 1975). Alcohol abuse has been seen as part of a personality style where men are viewed as impulsive, unassertive and violent as well as manifesting unmet dependency needs leading to frustration and possible violence.

Women also use the defences of splitting and idealisation to keep the abusive and affectionate aspects of their relationship separate. A woman needs to see her partner in a positive light in order to meet her healthy need to be loved (Painter cited in Caplan, 1985). Attributing the cause of abuse to alcohol may be part of the defence of splitting. By attributing the violence to his behaviour when he is drunk, she is able to retain her view of the positive aspects of her partner. However, therapeutically it is essential in fact for her to be able to integrate the split, and to see that the alcoholic abuser and the man who is good to her are one and the same person. A battered spouse may also spend her energy trying to get her partner to stop drinking rather than to stop the violent behaviour. Alcohol may be seen as a disinhibitor, allowing the actor to disown responsibility for his own negative acts.

Segel and Labe (1990) emphasise the importance of distinguishing between the problem of alcohol abuse and the problem of women abuse. Alcoholism may, however, be a predictor of battering (Tolman & Bennett, 1990 cited in Barnett, 1993). It further appears that abusive men with severe alcohol problems are violent more frequently and inflict more serious injuries on their partners than men who do not abuse alcohol and other substances (Browne, 1987 cited in Barnett, 1993). The following section will explore jealousy as a causative factor of women abuse.

### 9.4.2 Jealousy as a Causative Factor in Women Abuse

With regard to internal causal attributions, jealousy constituted thirty three percent of the factors which were viewed as contributing to abuse in the study. Typical statements in this regard are illustrated as follows:

> *"My husband feels very insecure and is very possessive and jealous over me. Whenever we go somewhere he accuses me of being unfaithful. He doesn't want me to*

*dress nice or to use any make-up because other men will look at me". (E.L. age 41 years, unemployed).*

*"He was very jealous, accusing me of having affairs" (J.M. age 28 years, employed).*

*"He is a very jealous person and if I go anywhere he gets very violent and wants to hit me" (L.C. age 28 years, unemployed).*

Jealousy, cited as a cause of women abuse, confirms feminist views of sexism and patriarchy prevailing in our society. Women are seen as property belonging to men. Many abusive men report that they are provoked to violent behaviour by their wives' actual or perceived infidelity resulting in jealousy (Segel & Labe, 1990), dependency, loss, and fear which are central in the aetiology and maintenance of the abusive relationship. This threat of infidelity implies loss of intimacy which is ego-threatening (Segel & Labe, 1990). Men who batter also uphold rigid sex role stereotypes, and have very rigid and traditional expectations of marriage (Walker, 1979; Elbow, 1977), resulting in easily provoked feelings of jealousy and possessiveness (Segel & Labe, 1990).

Women participating in the study also perceived actual infidelity and extra-marital relationships as contributing factors in their abuse. This will now be discussed in the following section.

### 8.4.3 Extra-Marital Relationships

Of the external causal attributions cited, extra-marital relationships constituted 24% of the factors. However, such attributions were made in terms of general causation and partner behaviour, rather than self-referred. Thus ironically the jealousy may belong with male rather than female infidelity.

*"The major cause of the abuse and control in my relationship is extra marital affairs. He does not maintain us properly i.e. 100% (sic). Most of the time he has not got money and yet he is doing everything for his girlfriend and her children".*
*(R.M. age 42 years, employed).*

*"The cause of the abuse was when I found out that he had an affair with a girl". (S.J. age 25 years, unemployed).*

*"The man had another woman. I found out. Abuse started". (L.B. age 27 years, employed).*

Gayford (1975) in her study of battered wives found that just under half the perpetrators in her study, were accused of having extra-marital affairs. In the present study, most women tended to feel that if their husbands engaged in extra-marital affairs, they then denied her financially by giving money to their new partners. They also felt powerless to stop him from having the relationship and spending their money. Sexual jealousy was thus coupled with financial loss and hardship, possibly reflecting a different set of concerns amongst more deprived, working class women.

Elbow (1982 cited in Bograd, 1984) postulates a psychodynamic formulation of a pattern of externalisation and internalisation characteristic of violent relationships. This theory explains why men abuse their wives if they themselves are having an extra-marital relationship. Elbow argues that abuse involves projection on the part of the batterer. The batterer displaces blame and pain which he experiences by having an extra-marital relationship onto the wife, who symbolically represents a significant other, such as a parent. The parent, as critical of the affair, is projected onto the wife, whom he then subsequently defensively abuses (Bograd, 1984; Segel & Labe, 1990). Once again it was impossible to explore this dynamic formulation within the context of the data of the present study. However, it was clear that affairs were seen as a contributory factor in abuse.

### 8.4.4 Low Frustration Tolerance and Inferiority Complex

With regard to internal causal attributions, low frustration tolerance constituted 25% of the factors and inferiority complex 20% of the factors cited as causative. This concurs with Dangor and Seedat's (1992) finding that women viewed insecurity and poor self-image as causative factors in abuse. Adams (1980) suggests that abusers lose self-esteem and experience a sense of shame, low self-worth and self-hatred. However, it is unclear whether

these feelings precede or follow upon abuse. Batterers may also feel their lifestyle is out of control and that they have poor impulse control and a low frustration tolerance resulting in violence against partners (Segel & Labe, 1990).

*"He was never drunk and this (the abuse) was because he couldn't control his temper" (E. age 27 years, unemployed).*

*"Unable to handle anger and no forgiveness" (J. age 33 years, employed).*

*"He feels insecure because he is unemployed and I am qualified and getting a job" (S. age 28 years, final year student).*

*"He has an inferiority complex...he never shares any problems with me instead takes it out with anger by beating me for something minor" (P.V. age 30 years, unemployed).*

*"He has an inferiority complex. He's too bossy (sic). He wants to control everything in his way" (O.H. age 43 years, unemployed).*

Elbow's (1977) psychodynamic formulation of abuse, explains why men who have an inferiority complex, abuse their wives. Elbow asserts that violence is the way in which men master the basic anxiety they feel. As discussed in section 8.3.3, the male defends against his anxiety, by projecting the internalised parent onto his wife. The anxiety due to loss of self-esteem and to feelings of inferiority and poor self-worth are therefore projected onto the wife who symbolically functions as an object to reinforce his sense of self-worth. Furthermore, the abuser may experience profound ego disintegration where he is unable to differentiate himself from his partner. In this instance the wife functions symbolically as part of the abuser's self, reinforcing his low self-worth. This kind of abuse is most likely to produce lethal violence resulting in homicide or suicide (Segel & Labe, 1990).

**Conclusion**

Women abuse in South Africa is a pervasive and serious problem. The women participating in this study reported similarities in their experiences of abuse. Emerging clearly out of this

study is that women abuse is rife and a social problem of such magnitude that it reflects more than individual pathology. Women are experiencing severe and frequent violence for a considerable period of time prior to seeking help. Women's organisations are seeing severe cases while less severe cases may be dealt with in other ways. Women attribute the cause of the violence predominantly to external factors, thus rendering them powerless and serving to maintain their subservient role in the home. The author considers patriarchy to be an overriding factor in contributing to women's beliefs about violence, in that patriarchal men see women as objects and/or property which they have the right to violate and abuse. Women appear to feel that this violence is normative or at least common, and inaccessible to external intervention. There appears to be some resignation to a sense of lack of social censorship or punishment contributing to a perception that others will not intervene to stop the violence.

## 8.5 The Relationship between the Causal Attributions of Blame as outlined in the Hypotheses and Severity, Frequency and Duration of Abuse

This study, located in the field of social psychology and attribution theory, tested the hypotheses that with increased severity, frequency and duration of abuse, abused women attributions would shift from:

- self to partner-blame
- external to internal factor attributions
- unstable to stable attributions
- specific to global attributions

The study found evidence to conclude a relationship between extreme severity of violence and partner-blame. The study also found evidence to conclude a relationship between severity of violence and global attributions of blame. There was also a trend identified for stable attributions of blame to predominate with increased severity of violence, which needs to be further researched. However, there was insufficient evidence to conclude a relationship between severity of violence and self-blame or characterological blame. Furthermore, there was no relation between frequency and duration of violence and self or partner-blame, internality/externality, stability or globality. However, there was a tendency for external,

stable and global attributions of blame to predominate apparently irrespective of severity, duration or frequency of abuse. The findings will now be further explored and discussed according to the constructs of severity of violence (8.5.1), frequency of violence (8.5.2) and duration of violence (8.5.3) and their relationship to the four attributions of blame identified as of interest.

### 8.5.1 The Relationship between the Causal Attributions of Blame and Severity of Abuse

This section will discuss the findings in relation to severity of violence and the four causal attributions of partner versus self, internal versus external, stable versus specific and global versus specific attributions of blame.

#### *8.5.1.1 Partner/Self-Blame and Severity of Abuse*

Eighty-four percent of respondents ascribed the cause of abuse to their partners (see table 7.8). There was thus a lack of variation in the sample in terms of partner and self-blame attributions, which manifested in a predominance of partner-blame. There was also a lack of variation in the sample in terms of the categorisation of severity of abuse, since the majority of respondents experienced what they defined as severe abuse as opposed to mild abuse. While gradations of response could not be established there did appear to be a statistically significant tendency for severity of abuse and partner-blame to be associated in this sample.

The results of this study suggest that women experiencing severe forms of abuse tend to not hold themselves to blame for the abuse, but clearly hold their partners to blame (Tables 7.8 and 7.9). Porter (1980) found that the more negatively an abused women evaluated her victimisation, that is, the more severe she experienced it to be, the less blame she assigned to herself. Thus severity of the violence experienced appears to become a means of exonerating the woman from blame for the violence (Miller & Porter, 1983). The findings of the present study appear to be in accord with this hypothesis put forward by Miller and Porter (1983). Miller and Porter (1983) suggest that repeated, that is, frequent acts of victimisation, result in both behavioural and characterological blame changing over time. In cases of severe violence, attributions have to be inferred from multiple observations repeated over time, thus influencing the kinds of attributions which result.

It seems then that severity of violence tends to be associated with decreasing self-, and increasing partner-blame. It appears that the degree of intentional, and possibly even sadistic, violence inflicted on women in severe attacks compels them to acknowledge the role their partner plays in the enactment of abuse. It may also be that the degree of risk to herself experienced in severe abuse allows the woman to put survival needs ahead of needs to conform to social expectations which involve victim blaming.

The findings of this study tend to contradict those research studies which have found a general tendency to self-blame among victims of violence (Andrews & Brewin, 1991; Frieze, 1979; Gilbert & Webster, 1982; Herbert, Silver & Ellard, 1991; Janoff-Bulman, 1983; Porter & Miller, 1983; Shields & Hanneke, 1983; Walker, 1988), suggesting that greater refinement of the relationship between victimisation and self-blame is required.

The findings of this study also appear to contradict research findings that abused women hold Just World Attributions. According to the Just World View, observers tend to blame victims for their fate (Coats, Wortman & Abbey, 1979; Lerner & Miller, 1978; Lerner, Miller & Holmes, 1976; Lerner & Simmons, 1966; Shaver, 1970, 1975; Walster, 1966 cited in Shields & Hanneke, 1983). This tendency is mirrored in victims (Chodoff, Friedman & Hamberg, 1964; Ross & Ditecco, 1975; Wortman, 1976 cited in Shields & Hanneke, 1983) who also seek to maintain Just World Views. The implication of holding a Just World perspective would be that the more severely a woman is abused the more strongly she would perceive herself to be to blame. In addition, a greater tendency for self-blame has also been found among women (as opposed to men) in general (Deaux, 1976; Icke & Layden, 1978 cited in Shields & Hanneke, 1983). However, the very small percentage (16%) of women in this study who evidenced self-blame suggests that this is a minority position and that the need to maintain Just World Views may be over-ridden by other considerations in victims of severe and extended abuse. Once again the complexity of attributions needs to be recognised. It may be that the excesses associated with severe abuse are sufficient for women to refute or challenge Just World perspectives since it is impossible to reconcile this level of 'punishment' with their own actions.

Defensive Attribution Theory suggests that the abuse may be seen as a personal failure (on the

part of the pe[illegible] enacting abuse) and would tend to result in partner-blame. The implication of Heider's theory that abused women would be more likely to hold their partners to blame for abuse is borne out in the present study. The emphasis on partner-blame evident in this study supports Defensive Attribution Theory as opposed to Just World attributional tendencies. However, such partner attributions may reflect a reality based perception of location of primary responsibility rather than a defensive manoeuvre.

The research findings of the present study provide strong evidence in support of the trend found in Frieze's (1979) study that women who had been more seriously injured tended to see their partner as the cause of violence. Bearing in mind that the present study took place 17 years after Frieze's, one can perhaps hypothesise that society's awareness of women abuse has changed over time. One of the basic tenets of the feminist movement is that women abuse is part of a patriarchal society and it therefore holds men responsible for abuse. Perhaps this has impacted on women who are more aware of their rights and have questioned society's condolence of violence in the home. Research has shown a general increase in social awareness of women abuse (Barnett & La Violette, 1993).

The findings of this study concur with Barnett's (1993) South African study, which found that in general women did not hold themselves responsible for their abuse. Barnett found that after the first abusive incident, women tried to make sense of the violence and avoided further provocation. However, as the violence increased, the woman realised that she could not do anything to reduce the level of violence, and the cause of violence was then attributed to her partner.

Generally from this study it would appear that as the severity of violence increases, so too does partner-blame. Thus severity of violence is an important situational cue in affecting women's attributions of blame in relation to locus of causality.

*8.5.1.2 Internality/Externality and Severity of Abuse*

Based upon the mean scores and the non significant relationship between internal versus external attributions and severity of violence, no support was found for the hypothesis relating increasing internality to increasing severity of violence. The respondents of the study

generally held external attributions of blame (62%) (see Tables 7.8 and 7.10).

These findings contradict Andrew and Brewin's (1990) study where 46% of women attributed blame to their partners' characterological factors rather than citing situational factors as being responsible for the abuse. The least common attributions for abuse in this study were situational factors.

Andrews and Brewin (1990) found that of the women in their study who experienced very severe violence nearly 80% attributed blame to either their own or their partners' characters, compared with 39% of those women who experienced severe or less severe violence. According to Andrews and Brewin, severity is a situational factor related to characterological blame of self or partner. When violence is extreme, one's own behaviour or other situational causes are seen as insufficient causes when compared with either one's own or one's partner's character.

Links have been drawn between severity of violence and attributions which suggest that the abusive behaviour is caused by internal factors (Frieze, 1979). Frieze (1979) suggests that personality factors of the partner are seen as primary explanations for severe abuse. Shields and Hanneke (1983) found that women generally attributed their husbands' violence to internal causes such as anger or personality. However, this tendency to make partner internal attributions was not evident in the present research study.

The findings in the present research study that abused women tend to produce external attributions in relation to their partners' severe abusive behaviour, concurs with Heider's (1958) notion of impersonal causality, which holds that external causal effects are more easily entertained because they are seen as unintentional. This would imply that women who perceive their partners' behaviour as due to external factors tend not to hold him personally responsible for his behaviour but rather the situation he is in. This tendency was evident in Herbert, Silver and Ellard's (1991) study, which found that women attempt to see their partners' abusive behaviour in a positive light and to exonerate him from blame. They may also hold these external attributions as a result of feelings of helplessness linked to global attributions which will be further discussed later. External attributions may also reflect a need

to feel more in control of the situation. These external attributions may also be related to working class women seeing themselves and their partners as victims. Holding factors external to him responsible for the abuse (rather than internal factors) may exonerate an abusive partner of direct responsibility for his behaviour and locate responsibility in circumstances related to working class pressures. Thus it may be that working class women find it more comprehensible that socio-economic factors are responsible for abusive behaviour than characterological features of their partner.

In relation to the Correspondent Inference Model which states that what a person does is perceived as corresponding with a long-lasting trait or dispositional quality that the person possesses, the findings of this study suggest that abused women may see the behaviour of their partners as socially rather than personally typical and normal, and therefore will not make dispositional attributions. They may also be influenced by target-and role-based expectancies where such behaviour in a particular society is seen as normative. The present study contradicts the Correspondent Inference Model in that the violent behaviour is not attributed to the internal disposition of the actor but to external factors.

Locus of causality has also been linked to controllability of the cause. It seems that in attributing causation to external factors, women may well perceive that they and their partners have more control over the situation since these factors can change. However, this is not borne out in the present study where the majority (70%) of women attributes the violence not only to external but also, in addition to stable causes, implying that they believe the origin of behaviour leading to violence will not change. This is further discussed in the following section.

*8.5.1.3 Stability/Instability and Severity of Abuse*

Based upon the mean scores and the non-significant relation between stable versus non-stable factors with increased severity of violence, there was no support for the hypothesis that women will perceive their partners' abusive behaviour to be due to stable rather than unstable factors with increased severity of violence. However, there was a trend suggesting that more stable attributions are expressed in the case of abused women who experience more severe violence (see Tables 7.8 and 7.11).

Stability of causality is important in relation to changes in the expectancy of success or failure in the future (Weiner 1976, cited in Hewstone, 1989). Attributions pertaining to stable factors produce little expectancy for change (Frieze, 1979). The abused woman who attributes blame to stable factors may feel hopeless or depressed. This may result in passivity. On the other hand, a woman may realise that her partner's behaviour will not change and decide that she will have to leave the relationship or seek alternative help. Unstable causal attributions lead to the expectancy of change. For example, if the abuse is seen as being due to alcoholism, it will remain as long as the alcoholism remains prevalent, and will change if/when the drinking changes.

Little research has been done on the stability of causal attributions (Frieze, 1979). However, several writers suggest that many women see the cause of the violence they experience as being due to stable and unchangeable factors in their partners (Walker, 1979 cited in Frieze, 1979). Sears, Freeman and Merrill (1988) suggest that the combination of external and stable attributions are the most difficult to negotiate and protect oneself against. These kinds of attributions implicate society, fate and the environment as causes of violence, resulting in feelings of helplessness and depression, linked to global and stable attributions of blame.

Helplessness may result when stable attributions predominate as outlined in Seligman's (1975) theory of learned helplessness. Individuals conditioned into learned helplessness accept further negative situations and lose motivation to change the situation or leave. Anxiety and depression normally occur alongside this general apathy. The following excerpts illustrate the helplessness which participants of this study expressed associated in many cases with stable attributions of blame.

> *"I can't think of anything I can do to stop him" (B.A. age 31 years, unemployed).*

> *"The abuse was very bad because it can disturb your mind - you can't think and it takes a long time to start thinking again" (N.V. age 21 years, unemployed).*

> *"I think I cannot stop him because he is more powerful than I am (G.N. age 24,*

*unemployed).*

*"It (the violence) is rooted from his childhood, he is a very insecure individual" (stable attribution) (S.C. age 32, employed).*

The preponderance of stable attributions in the study may reflect the fact that these women had already made a decision to seek help based on an evaluation that their situation was unlikely to change. Almost half of the respondents indicated that they were separated from their partners (see Table 6.1). Fifty-five percent indicated that they saw divorce or leaving the relationship as the only way to improve their situation (see Table 7.6). O'Brien and Murdock (1993) suggest that women who feel the violent situation cannot change be more likely to want to leave the relationship.

Frieze (1979) established a link between unstable attributions and self-blame. Many women in her study held self-blame attributions apparently due to the existence of unstable factors in themselves; in other words, they did not do what their partners wanted them to do (Frieze, 1979). However, Frieze found a **trend** for women who experienced severe violence to hold more partner and stable attributions of blame. The findings of the present study confirm this trend. As previously discussed, stable attributions have also been linked to global attributions of blame and feelings of helplessness. Frieze suggests that these kinds of attributions result in an acceptance of the abuse as normal. The following section explores global attributions of abuse evident in this study.

*8.5.1.4 Globality and Severity of Abuse*

Respondents with more severe abuse expressed **significantly** more global attributions than did respondents with less severe abuse. This supports the hypothesis linking increased global attributions with increased severity of violence (see Tables 7.8 and 7.12). This was one of the few **significant** findings of the study.

Seligman's theory of learned helplessness has been extended by social psychologists and attribution theorists from its original form to include global attributions of blame (Baker & Peterson, 1997; Peterson, Schwartz & Seligman, 1983 cited in Peterson & Seligman, 1983).

Feelings of helplessness are more strongly generated when a person attributes a particular failure or negative event to global rather than to specific causes. Global causes are seen as more encompassing and generalisable. Thus future expectancies for success or failure are linked to having global attributions. For example, a global attribution implies that any relationship the women may enter into may result in abuse. Helplessness and hopelessness are stronger if women hold stable and global attributions of blame. External, stable and global attributions may create stronger feelings of helplessness and create the feeling that all men are violent towards their wives no matter what their wives do (Frieze, 1979).

Stability of causal beliefs affects the chronicity of helplessness and depression following negative events (Peterson & Seligman, 1989). Globality of causal beliefs determines the pervasiveness of deficits following the event. In the case of the present study, global attributions seem to indicate that the causes of violence are seen to affect all areas of the victim's life (and not just the violence) and that these causes extend beyond her own or her current situation. The following excerpts illustrate these global and stable attributions of blame.

*"The violence in my life will never stop" (E.C.L. age 41 years, unemployed) (stable and global).*

*"The violence effects all situations - there is nowhere where I can give him credit" (P.V.B. age 30 years, unemployed) (global).*

*"I wish there was some way these men could be stopped" (M. age 40 years, housewife) (global).*

*"He will never change his ways. Does as he wants in life. Does not believe in laws, God, anybody or anything but himself" (E.S. age 42, unemployed) (stable and global).*

*"I thought for a long time he would change and I finally said men are the same" (N.T. age 33 years, employed) (global).*

Repeated victimisation of the same person seems likely to produce internal (self) stable and global attributions of blame (Baker & Petersen, 1977; Petersen, Schwartz & Seligman (1981) cited in Petersen & Seligman, 1989). The majority of the present sample hold stable (70%) and global (79%) attributions of blame suggesting that they believe that the violence affects all areas of their lives and is unlikely to change (see Table 7.8). However, in this sample the third aspect of the triad differs, that is, other blame predominates.

The finding of a high incidence of globality suggests that these women do not see the violent behaviour as specific to themselves, or their situation, but view the violence as all encompassing and generalisable. This would suggest that such women feel hopeless and that nothing is likely to change, or that they realise that their entire life has been effected by the violence and this too will not change, leading to the question of whether these women might not also be depressed (a factor not investigated in this study). These findings are supported by the fact that respondents felt helpless about their situation and felt the violence was likely to recur in the future and affected all areas of their life (see Tables 7.6, 7.7 and 7.8).

Labe (1990) postulates that abused women are normally perceived to be helpless and passive. However, the findings of her study suggest that respondents feel immobilised and this should not be confused with passivity. Labe suggests that abused women are actually very active and work hard in deploying a number of strategies to improve their relationships and retain self respect in a situation which systematically destroys this. These kinds of strategies however, keep such women in the relationship and lead them to endure the violence for a considerable period. These strategies may also result in different causal attributions. This may not necessarily mean that hopelessness results in passivity, but rather in strategies to renegotiate the relationship, perhaps in the form of seeking help. In response to the question on how to improve their situation ("make themselves happy"), 7% of women in the present study indicated that they needed to seek employment, whilst 15% indicated they needed therapy, 7% indicated self-development and 4% that breaking social isolation was necessary in order to "make themselves happy", whilst more than half (55%) felt leaving the relationship was the only way they could "make themselves happy" (see Table 7.6).

The profile emerging from this study is therefore that of the abused women holding their

partners, external factors and global factors responsible for the abuse. Thus the majority of women who experienced severe abuse attributed the abuse to external and societal factors. One can therefore infer that socio-cultural and economic explanations of abuse are important in influencing abused women's causal attributions of blame (see Table 7.5).

It therefore seems that feminist explanations for abuse may be impacting on the broader population. Women in this study appear to be suggesting that the responsibility for abuse lie with men in general, supporting the feminist view that historical cultural traditions and current social institutions maintain abuse and violence.

The following section discusses the findings in relation to frequency and duration of abuse. Since these findings were generally less significant they are discussed in less detail.

### 8.5.2 The Relationship between the Causal Attributions of Blame and Frequency of Abuse

There was insufficient evidence to conclude a relationship between frequency of abuse and self-versus partner-blame; internal versus external factors; stable versus unstable factors and global versus specific factors (see Tables 7.9, 7.10, 7.11, 7.12 and 7.13).

There has been extensive research emphasising the importance of frequency of abuse in relation to women's attributions (Andrews & Brewin, 1990; Herbert, Silver & Ellard, 1991; Porter & Miller, 1983; Shields & Hanneke, 1983). The findings of this study, however, do not indicate a relationship between frequency of abuse and causal attributions. This could be due to the fact that most of the women experienced frequent, as opposed to less frequent, incidences of abuse leading once again to a lack of variability in the data pool. Approximately half (51%) the respondents in this study experienced abuse more than once a week, and the large majority (79%) experienced abuse more than once a month (Table 7.3). Frequency of abuse may need to be more finely distinguished, that is, in terms of comparing daily to bi-annual abuse, in order for any significant differences to be established. The effect of duration of abuse on abused women's causal attributions will now be briefly discussed.

### 8.5.3 The Relationship between the Causal Attributions of Blame and Duration of Abuse

The present study found there was insufficient evidence to support a relationship between duration of abuse and self-versus partner-blame; internal versus external factors; stable versus unstable factors and global versus specific factors (see Tables 7.9, 7.10, 7.11, 7.12 and 7.13).

Duration of abuse plays an important role in the type of attributions abused women hold (Andrews & Brewin, 1990; Herbert, Silver & Ellard, 1991; Porter & Miller, 1983). If the abuse is perceived as an isolated incident, a woman may believe that it will not happen again. This may result in a particular attribution being made.

Theory holds that the longer the abuse continues, the more attempts the woman is likely to make in order to change or avoid the abuse. However, it can be further argued that as the duration of abuse increases beyond a certain point, the less responsibility an abused woman may assume for the violence (Miller & Porter, 1983). Miller and Porter argue that the duration of violence affects the type of attributions women make. Paradoxically with increasing violence women may blame themselves for tolerating the violence and therefore may not question the cause of the violence to the same extent as at an earlier period in the abusive relationship. Thus two opposing forms of attributions are plausible with increased duration of abuse.

Frieze (1979) and Shields and Fox (1980) found that self-blame might be evident when victimisation initially occurs, shifting to husband-blame with subsequent violence over time. Thus their findings seem to pertain to duration rather than severity of violence as a predictor. The present study, however, did not explore the first violent episode, but looked at the woman's experience of her abusive relationship retrospectively and a description of a typical incident of abuse. The assessment of duration in this study fell into far broader categories (that is, differentiation by number of years) than those which Frieze and Shields and Fox's studies covered. Between these broader categories of duration no significant differences in self/partner-blame were observed. Thus it appears that the crucial shift from self/partner-blame, if it indeed does occur, takes place very early in the occurrence of abuse. The lack of evidence concerning this very early phase amongst the subjects in the study may well account

for the lack of self-blame attributions evident in the study.

Shields and Hanneke further hypothesised that focusing on early victimisation would produce external (to him) attributions of blame whilst research focusing on later victimisation would produce internal (to him) attributions of blame. This tendency is also not evident in this study in which both late and early victimisation, determined by the duration of abuse categories in the study, produced external partner-related attributions of blame. However, this may be in large part due to the previously mentioned much more gross categorisation of duration in the present study. In addition, the bias towards severity of violence evident in this study may also have influenced this finding as there appears to be some relationship between duration and severity.

The findings of the present study suggest that while there is insufficient evidence to support the view that increased duration and frequency of violence result in different attributional stances in abused women, severity of violence may be the key factor which alters attributions. This may be due to the fact that sufferers of chronic victimisation are less likely to produce causal analyses, as opposed to those experiencing a once off traumatic event who question the cause of the incident (Miller & Porter, 1983). Furthermore, negative life events can suggest a variety of different causal analyses for the victims, with the consequence that both the meaning and degree of self or partner-blame can vary considerably. This might not have been fully explored in the present study. Respondents may ascribe blame for causing the violence, or for not being able to stop, or for tolerating, the violence. They may also view violence as a result of socio-economic and/or patriarchal structures legitimising violence. In addition, there may be complex interactions between these factors. The sampling of attributions at a particular point in time cannot do justice to more complex interactional or varying attributions. Furthermore, the findings of this study may be prone to methodological difficulties as the study surveyed abusive behaviour in general and did not specify the kind of abuse or exactly when it took place within the course of the relationship.

In researching and understanding the attribution processes of abused women, it is clear that severity of abuse and social influences are important situational cues in influencing attributions. Women abuse clearly takes place in a patriarchal society in which abusers may