

https://dspace.org/

Threatened & hidden: perceived job insecurity, facades of conformity and burnout

Tumelo, Tshepo Naomi

2022

https://hdl.handle.net/10539/34212

Downloaded from a DSpace repository. https://dspace.org/



Tshepo Naomi Tumelo

2253664

Supervisor: Fiona Donald

Department of Organisational Psychology

University of the Witwatersrand

Threatened & Hidden: Perceived Job Insecurity, Facades of Conformity and Burnout During the COVID-19 Pandemic

Perceived Job Insecurity, Facades of Conformity (FOC) and Burnout

"A research project submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of MA by coursework and Research Report in the field of Organisational Psychology in the Faculty of Humanities, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, 08/02/2022."

"I declare that this research is my own, unaided work. It has not been submitted before for any other degree or examination at this or any other university."

Signature:  Date: 08/02/2022

Word count = 22733

MA (Organisational Psychology) research dissertation plagiarism declaration form

Surname: Tumelo

First name/s: Tshepo Naomi

Student no: 2253664

Ethics clearance number: MAORG/20/010

Supervisor: Fiona Donald

Submission Date: 8th February 2022

Total Word Count: 22733

(Excl. Reference List)

ONE COPY of the research dissertation must be submitted

DECLARATION

1. I Tshepo Naomi Tumelo know and accept that plagiarism (i.e. to use another's work and to pretend that is one's own) is wrong. Consequently, I declare that
2. The following research is my own work.
3. I have correctly acknowledged all direct quotations and paraphrased ideas/content. In addition, I have provided a complete, alphabetized reference list, as required by the APA method of referencing .
4. I have allowed, and will not allow, anyone to copy my work with the intention of passing it off as his or her own work.
5. I understand that the University of the Witwatersrand may take disciplinary action against me if there is a belief that this is not my own unaided work, or that I failed to acknowledge the source of ideas or words in my writing.
6. The word count (Excluding the reference list) given above is correct

Signed: 

Date: 08/02/2022

Abstract

Background: The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between perceived job insecurity and burnout (emotional exhaustion and disengagement) and facades of conformity (FOC) as a mediating variable.

Methods: The study used a cross-sectional design. The sample comprised of 139 majority Southern African participants. This included 94 females (67.6%) and 45 males (45%) with a mean age of 31 years. In addition, the most represented age was 27 years (19.4%). Perceived job insecurity was measured using the Job Insecurity Inventory (JII); burnout was measured using the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI) and facades of conformity was measured using the facades of conformity scale. In addition, all three instruments are self-report measures.

Results: The sample presented with moderate levels of perceived job insecurity and FOC; and presented with moderate to high levels of burnout, emotional exhaustion, and disengagement. A positive moderate relationship was found between all the variables in the study therefore, the main effects were confirmed. It was found that FOC mediates the relationship between perceived job insecurity and burnout (estimate = .21, 95% CI [.12, .32]); the relationship between perceived job insecurity and emotional exhaustion (estimate = .08, 95% CI [.04, .14]); and the relationship between perceived job insecurity and disengagement (estimate = .13, 95% CI [.07, .19]). In addition, it was found that the mediating effect of FOC is robust and remained significant after controlling for the effects of gender and age. Furthermore, it was found that disruption experienced because of the COVID-19 pandemic correlated positively with perceived job insecurity, FOC, burnout, emotional exhaustion, and disengagement. Additionally, types of COVID-19 pandemic disruptors predicted the experience of perceived

job insecurity, burnout, and disengagement. In contrast, types of COVID-19 disruptors did not predict the experience of facades of conformity and emotional exhaustion.

Conclusion: Organisational leaders are encouraged to facilitate an organisational culture that encourages authentic expression and celebrates individuality consequently, increasing organisation effectiveness. In addition, organisations are encouraged to focus on developing interventions that aim to reduce the experience of burnout. Furthermore, future research is encouraged to examine further, ideas around authentic expression and supressed identities at work.

Keywords: Perceived job insecurity; facades of conformity (FOC); burnout; emotional exhaustion, disengagement, COVID-19 pandemic, Southern Africa

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank my research supervisor, Prof. Fiona Donald, for her guidance, support, feedback, patience, and empathy.

I would like to extend the same gratitude to my family, friends, and colleagues for their unwavering support.

Finally, I would like to dedicate this research project to my mother, Onneile Edith Tumelo, who has been an example of resilience and a silent source of inspiration while suffering from dementia.

Table of Contents

Abstract 4

Acknowledgements 6

List of Tables and Figures 10

Chapter 1: Introduction 12

Statement of the Problem 12

Rationale 13

Research Aim 14

Overview of Research Design and Methods 14

Organisation of the Report 15

Chapter 2: Literature Review Chapter 15

Introduction 15

Facades of Conformity (FOC) 16

Perceived Job Insecurity 28

Burnout (Emotional Exhaustion and Disengagement) 34

Facades of Conformity (FOC) and demographic characteristics 43

Research Hypotheses 44

Conclusion 45

Chapter 3: Methods Chapter 46

Introduction 46

Research design 46

Sampling Strategy 46
Sample 47
Data Collection and Procedure 49
Data Analysis 52
Chapter 4: Results Chapter 55
Introduction 55
Data cleaning 55
Descriptive statistics and tests for normality 56
Hypotheses 1 to 3b: tests of association 58
Testing assumptions for regression analysis 60
Hypotheses 4 to 4b: mediation regression 62
Chapter 5: Discussion 70
Introduction 70
COVID-19 pandemic conditions 70
Hypotheses 73
Implications 79
Limitations 83
Recommendations for future research 85
Conclusion 89
References 92
Appendices 104

Appendix A (Instrument) 104

Appendix B (Request for Access) 111

Appendix C (Participation Information Sheet) 113

Appendix D (Consent Form) 115

Appendix E (Cover E-mail) 117

Appendix F (Ethics Clearance certificate) 119

Appendix G (Histogram with Bell curve and Q-Q plot) 121

Appendix H (Assumptions for mediated regression) 126

List of Tables and Figures

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework 43

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics (N=139).....56

Table 2: Pearson's Correlations and Cronbach alpha among study variables (N=139) 58

Figure 2: Standardized regression coefficients (Burnout) 62

Table 3: Regression analysis with predictor variables (Burnout)**Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Figure 3: Standardized regression coefficients (Emotional Exhaustion).....64

Table 4: Regression analysis with predictor variables (Emotional Exhaustion) .....**Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Figure 4: Standardized regression coefficients (Disengagement) 66

Table 5: Regression analysis with predictor variables (Disengagement)**Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Figure 5: Histogram with Bell curve (Perceived Job Insecurity) 121

Figure 6: Q-Q Plot (Perceived Job Insecurity) 121

Figure 7: Histogram with Bell curve (FOC).....122

Figure 8: Q-Q Plot (FOC).....122

Figure 9: Histogram and Bell curve (Burnout).....123

Figure 10: Q-Q Plot (Burnout).....123

Figure 11: Histogram with Bell curve (Emotional Exhaustion).....124

Figure 12: Q-Q Plot (Emotional Exhaustion).....124

Figure 13: Histogram with Bell curve (Disengagement).....125

Figure 14: Q-Q Plot (Disengagement).....125

Figure 15: Burnout and predictor variables 126

Figure 16: Emotional Exhaustion and predictor variables.....126

Figure 17: Disengagement and predictor variables 126

Figure 18: Scatter Plot (Burnout) 127

Figure 19: Scatter Plot (Emotional Exhaustion) 127

Figure 20: Scatter Plot (Disengagement) 127

Figure 21: Histogram of standardized residuals (Burnout) 128

Figure 22: Histogram of standardized residuals (Emotional Exhaustion) 128

Figure 23: Histogram of standardized residuals (Disengagement) 128

Figure 24: P-P Plot of Std. Residuals (Burnout) 129

Figure 25: P-P Plot of Std. Residuals (Emotional Exhaustion) 129

Figure 26: P-P Plot of Std. Residuals (Disengagement) 129

Table 6: Cook's Distance and Std. Residual statistics 130

Chapter 1: Introduction

Statement of the Problem

The world economy is in the grips of the COVID-19 pandemic (Acemoglu & Restrepo, 2020; Lone & Ahmad, 2020); and the Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR) (Ayentimi & Burgess, 2019) characterized by increasing automation and digitization of the manufacturing and services industries (Ślusarczyk, 2018). In order to remain competitive in this business environment organisations have embraced disruptive technological change (Pereira & Romero, 2017) and cost reduction strategies that have had both desirable and undesirable consequences. The high frequency of jobs at risk of automation and increased levels of retrenchment are arguably the most detrimental of these consequences. For instance, it is estimated that nearly 6 million jobs in South Africa are at risk of total automation within the next decade (Shook & Knickrehm, 2016) and that 21% of current jobs will be redundant by 2022 (World Economic Forum, 2018). Volatile working conditions, such as those observed in 4IR and the pandemic (Acemoglu & Restrepo, 2020), are a potential source of several stressors for the employee. One such workplace stressor, that has known antecedents such as; unpredictable economic situation, global competitiveness, unemployment and technological change (van Wyk & Pienaar, 2008) is perceived job insecurity. Notably, the current Covid-19 pandemic has disrupted the world of work, amplified unpredictable working conditions and hastened the uptake of 4IR practices (Acemoglu & Restrepo, 2020). For instance, organisations have had to adopt several unprecedented activities to survive the disruption, particularly the global lockdown. These activities include, but are not limited to, engaging in online platforms for employees to work from home (Mhlanga & Moloi, 2020; Motala & Menon, 2020) and retrenching to mitigate the negative financial impact of the pandemic (Adam et al., 2020).

Rationale

Previous research has found that perceived job insecurity is related to Facades of Conformity (FOC) and that the relationship between FOC and perceived job insecurity could explain known associations between perceived job insecurity and relevant employee outcomes (Hewlin et al., 2016), such as burnout. This is worth investigating because FOC represent a psychological process that explains the relationship between a stressor (job insecurity) and a strain reaction (burnout), therefore enabling the development of practical interventions that can improve the experience of employees at work. Notably, research investigating FOC has been conducted abroad, and at the time of writing this report, none could be found in Southern Africa even though significant cultural, demographic, and geographical differences exist between Southern Africa and other contexts.

In addition, research conducted abroad has found that younger job insecure employees are more likely to engage in FOC. While, older job insecure employees are less likely to engage in FOC (Hewlin et al., 2016). Furthermore, research findings suggest that minority status increases the likelihood that an employee will use FOC (Phillips et al., 2016). Therefore, since literature in the field of minorities, specifically feminist literature (McCall, 2005), has established women as minority group (Krook & O'Brien, 2010; Thomas, 2002) it is anticipated that gender may influence the mediating effect of FOC. The current research examines if employees in Southern Africa behave in a similar or different manner, in situations with job insecurity such as the current COVID-19 pandemic where many people have lost their jobs.

The current global transition towards 4IR, the observed initial effects of this transition in Southern Africa and the pandemic make this an opportune time to gain more insight into the experience of job insecure employees. In addition, this study is the first known study to investigate FOC in Southern Africa. enabling insights into differences and similarities that may be present between employees abroad and employees in Southern Africa. This contributes to addressing the criticism that psychology often investigates variables on Western, Educated, Industrialized, Rich and Democratic (WEIRD) samples (Laher, 2016), that are not representative of other contexts. Furthermore, this study identifies stressors in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic.

Research Aim

The primary aim of the current research is to investigate the relationship between perceived job insecurity and burnout, with facades of conformity (FOC) as a potential mediating variable. FOC refers to the behavior of suppressing personal values and pretending to embrace organizational values (Hewlin et al., 2016). Notably, the relationship between perceived job insecurity and burnout has received attention from several researchers within the local context. However, the explanatory processes influencing this relationship have not received much attention. Thus, this research provides further insight into the behaviours of job insecure employees functioning in a context (4IR and, most recently, the pandemic) known to increase job insecurity. In addition, the secondary aim of the current research is to investigate the relationship between disruptions experienced because of the COVID-19 pandemic and the main study variables; namely, perceived job insecurity, facades of conformity and burnout.

Overview of Research Design and Methods

The proposed research follows the cross-sectional quantitative design. It assumes that the world is characterized by objective truths that can be obtained through carefully selected unbiased objective methods and that such knowledge can be generalized to the general public with reasonable confidence (Bahari, 2010).

In examining the primary objective of the current study, self-report measures were administered electronically to a sample of majority Southern African employees. Data was collected through social media platforms, stored on a password protected laptop and analysed using the IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 25. Permission to conduct the research was obtained from the University of the Witwatersrand Human Research Ethics Committee. In addition, participants were briefed on the purpose of the study and made aware of their right to confidentiality, anonymity and to withdraw from the study at any point.

Furthermore, participants were provided with contacts to the Wits Emthonjeni Centre and were encouraged to seek help if participating in the study had any adverse effects.

Organisation of the Report

The research report is organized in the following way: literature review, methods, results, discussion and conclusion. The post content of the report includes references and appendices.

Chapter 2: Literature Review Chapter

Introduction

The structure of the literature review aims to establish temporal precedence amongst the variables in the study. Thus, contribute to the argument for mediation.

Facades of Conformity (FOC) is discussed first since it is considered the mediating variable and serves as the primary construct of interest. Subsequent sections will discuss perceived job insecurity and burnout as distinct variables then demonstrate the conceptual links between each variable with FOC. In addition, the chapter will demonstrate the conceptual link between job insecurity and burnout. Notably, burnout will be discussed along two constructs: emotional exhaustion and disengagement.

The hypotheses for the study will be presented as a logical conclusion based on the relationships described amongst the variables in the study. In addition, a conceptual framework is presented to provide a visual representation of the proposed relationships between the variables in the study.

In the following section Facades of Conformity (FOC) are discussed.

Facades of Conformity (FOC)

FOC made their debut into academic literature less than twenty years ago in Hewlin's (2003) dramatically titled paper " and the award for best actor goes to…: facades of conformity in organisational settings". In this seminal work FOC are described as "false representations created by employees to appear as if they embrace organisational values (Hewlin, 2003, p.634)" , thus hide their true identities. Notably, Hewlin (2003) extends on the conformity literature thus, joins the broader conversation of conformity in organisations. Conformity literature suggests that employees surrender to external pressure in the pursuit of social acceptance (Hewlin, 2003). Therefore, the use of FOC is motivated by theories of acceptance and belonging.

Notably, although FOC is related to impression management strategies and emotional regulation, it remains a distinct concept. Impression management is concerned with ensuring favourable outcomes such as positive performance appraisals by displaying valued characteristics and skills in dyadic relationships, such as supervisor/subordinate interactions (Hewlin et al., 2017). While emotional regulation involves strategically displaying acceptable emotions in specific work contexts (Hewlin et al., 2017) , such as faking a smile when relating to customers to get along. In contrast, Hewlin (2003) argues that FOC is focused on the internal conflict that arises when employees pretend to embrace organisational values in daily work interactions.

As aforementioned, employees are motivated to conform to secure social acceptance and engage several strategies to meet this goal. Since FOC are considered a form of conformity it is reasonable to assume that they share similar motives to the broader construct of conformity. The following section will briefly describe a theory of acceptance and belonging to illuminate these motives.

Motives for engaging in FOC

Theories describing the fundamental need for human beings to belong provide a motive for conformity, and by association for the use of FOC. Theories of social identity indicate that humans desire social inclusion and acceptance. In addition, although humans desire distinctiveness, they pursue social groups that enhance acceptance (Hewlin et al., 2017).

The desire to be perceived in a favourable manner (Baumeister, 1982) that is at the root of facades creation serves as the link between FOC and the need to belong. Maslow (1943) asserts that belonginess is a fundamental human need. The need to belong can be met through successful group membership. Therefore, humans are likely to engage in behaviour that will enhance their opportunities for social acceptance (Maslow, 1943). Research that investigates FOC support this claim as it was found that employees are likely to create facades to establish their social legitimacy in an organisation (Hewlin, 2003, 2009; Stormer & Devine, 2008). The self- presentation theory (Baumeister, 1982) aligns with literature on belonging and provides a concise and compelling argument for engaging FOC.

Self -presentation theory

Self-presentation refers to the use of behaviour to either please an audience or to construct an ideal self (Baumeister, 1982). The motive most aligned with the use of FOC is the former whereby individuals, in this case employees, conform to the opinions of others in the organisation in order to be perceived favourably (Hewlin et al., 2016). Therefore, self-presentation serves as a primary motivator for engaging FOC.

Baumeister (1982) found that individuals who are concerned with being negatively evaluated as deviant and non-conformist are likely to conform under conditions of group pressure. Researchers have expanded on the utility of this theory and have applied it to the understanding of organisational relevant constructs, such impression management and

conformity. In addition, employees avoid negative evaluation and lean towards conformity because conformity involves embracing organisational culture, including values and behaviours, that portray person-organisation fit. Consequently, contributing to acceptance and social capital that, in turn, contributes to career progression (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

When developing the term FOC, Hewlin (2003) theorised the construct using the self-presentation theory. Since the seminal publication (Hewlin, 2003), contemporary researchers have shown growing interest in understanding the construct and its implications on organisations (Anjum & Shah, 2017; Chou et al., 2019; Doblhofer et al., 2019; Hewlin, 2009; Hewlin et al., 2016; Phillips et al., 2016; Stormer & Devine, 2008) The following section tracks the evolution of FOC in the literature.

Birth of FOC

As aforementioned, "facades of conformity are false representations created by employees to appear as if they embrace organisational values (Hewlin, 2003, p.634)." Employees make a conscious decision to create a façade when faced with discrepancies between personal and organisational values (Hewlin, 2003). Personal values refer to core stable values, such as those linked to one's identity and rooted in one's upbringing, socio-economic status and cultural background, that are likely to persist even in the presence of strong socialisation (Hewlin, 2003). Therefore, employees use facades to hide their true identities.

Based on the theory of self -presentation employees desire social acceptance therefore learn to hide their true identities during the process of socialisation. During the process of socialisation new employees learn acceptable forms of behaviour by observing the behaviour of old employees. It is during this process that employees notice the discrepancy between their personal values and that of the organisation. Notably, often employees that remain in an organisation are those who conform to organisational norms (Hewlin, 2003).

Hewlin (2003) claims that FOC are engaged when this discrepancy becomes apparent, and that this discrepancy causes several concerns. A plethora of research supports this claim. Contemporary researchers (Chou et al., 2019; Doblhofer et al., 2019; Phillips et al., 2016) have validated this line of thinking linking FOC to psychological distress and adverse employee outcomes. While that is so, it is unclear whether the discrepancy between personal values and organisational values always causes internal tension, subsequently causing emotional distress. This subtle confusion has been addressed by Stormer and Devine (2008) but has not been the key focus of research endeavour. That said, a fundamental assumption of FOC is that the act of falsely representing oneself results in internal tension. In fact, Hewlin (2003) argues that the consideration of internal tension is a significant contributor of FOC literature to the broader conformity literature.

FOC as a coping strategy

FOC is linked to adverse employee and organisational outcomes such as emotional exhaustion (Hewlin, 2003; Phillips et al., 2016), reduction of employee voice (Chou et al., 2019), intention to leave (Hewlin et al., 2016), reduced affective commitment (Doblhofer et al., 2019; Hewlin et al., 2016), anxiety, depression and absenteeism (Doblhofer et al., 2019). Since the use of FOC is harmful then using FOC seems irrational. The idea that employees use FOC as a coping strategy is cited as plausible explanations for this seemingly irrational behaviour (Hewlin et al., 2016).

Hewlin et al. (2016) reveal the paradoxical nature of FOC. Their research findings indicate that employees voluntarily use FOC as a strategy to cope when it is perceived that the social aspects of the job are threatened, such as the feelings of belonginess and being valued at work.(Hewlin et al., 2016). While that is so, the internal tension caused by using FOC ultimately results in negative outcomes. Therefore, the reasoning influencing the adoption of

FOC is rational, but the subsequent effect of using FOC is negative. Stormer and Devine (2008) challenge the idea that displaying FOC is always accompanied by internal tension.

In addition, employees may use FOC as a coping strategy to suppress personal identities that are discriminated against at work, such as being homosexual (Ahmed & Hammarstedt, 2009) or transgender (Van Borm & Baert, 2018). In addition, employees may use FOC to cope with the scrutiny, otherness and negative perception (Hewlin, 2009; Phillips et al., 2016) associated with minority social identities at work, such as being non-white (Baldry, 2016; Denton & Vloeberghs, 2003) or female (Krook & O'Brien, 2010; Thomas, 2002). Notably, theories of intersectionality reveal that individuals may embody more than one suppressed identity (McCall, 2005) and, therefore, may experience multiple points of oppression which interact to worsen the negative experience associated with embodying oppressed individual and social identities (McCall, 2005). Therefore, employees with , single or multiple, oppressed social and individual identities may use FOC as strategy to cope with their distress.

FOC and internal tension

Stormer and Devine's (2008) discussion contributes to understanding the complex nature of FOC. They argue that in some contexts the use of FOC will not result in internal tension and refer to these contexts as one where facades are engaged instead of FOC. They use literature on value congruence, particularly the concepts of cognitive dissonance and cognitive consonance to frame their argument.

Cognitive dissonance occurs when "one says or does something but really believes the opposite. Consonance occurs when the promise of reward or punishment is large enough to justify saying or doing the opposite of what one believes (Stormer & Devine, 2008, p.114)." FOC align with the idea of cognitive dissonance because the value discrepancy experienced by employees using FOC is accompanied by internal tension. However, in some contexts,

cognitive consonance overrides cognitive dissonance. Stormer and Devine (2008) write "in high- risk situations consonance can temper dissonance; such situations, which may involve a façade, are not necessarily experienced as a façade of conformity because of lack of internal tension (p.114)."

For example, a lecturer whose job is threatened by the rapid assimilation of technology into the profession, such a remote (online) learning (Mhlanga & Moloi, 2020; Motala & Menon, 2020), as well as the volatile economy created by the COVID-19 pandemic (Sutherland, 2020) may adopt FOC to secure their job. According to Stormer and Devine (2008) such a lecturer will not experience internal tension because the potential of losing the job if FOC are not used outweighs the costs associated with using FOC to secure the job, as well as to secure the benefits associated with remaining employed. Furthermore, according to Stormer and Devine (2008) because there is lack of internal tension, such a lecturer will not necessarily be engaged in FOC.

The idea that the absence of internal tension coincides with the use of facades rather than FOC seems consistent and reasonable given Hewlin's (2003) conceptualisation of FOC. However, a nuanced perspective reveals that if this idea holds true then there is a potential significant problem, particularly with the measurement of FOC. The FOC instrument does not directly measure the presence of internal tension. It assumes that conflicting values are inherently distressing. Therefore, one cannot determine the absence or presence of internal tension. In fact, when measuring employee behaviour using the FOC scale one accepts the fundamental assumption that internal tension is present. In contrast, Stormer and Devine (2008) identify an alternative reality in which internal tension sometimes does not exist and tentatively propose that in such a reality an employee is using facades instead of FOC.

If there is a reality in which falsely representing oneself does not always lead to internal tension, then, it is imperative to have an FOC scale that can identify the absence or presence of internal tension. Merely assuming the presence of internal tension limits the researcher's ability to determine whether they are dealing with facades or FOC. Consequently, creating the possibility for situations in which researchers think they are dealing with FOC while, in fact, they are dealing with facades. Notably, Stormer and Devine (2008) state this argument tentatively, choosing to say, "such situations , which may involve a façade, are not necessarily experienced as a façade of conformity because of a lack of internal tension" (p. 114), instead of stating it in absolute terms. In addition, several researchers have found a link between FOC and emotional exhaustion (Chou et al., 2019; Doblhofer et al., 2019; Anjum & Shah, 2017) therefore provide a compelling argument for the inherent presence of internal tension when displaying FOC. Thus support the validity of the current FOC scale developed by Hewlin (2009). As a result, the use of the FOC scale without confirming or disconfirming the presence of internal tension seems justified. Furthermore, the current study directly examines the relationship between FOC and emotional exhaustion therefore accounts for this measurement issue.

In the following section FOC are discussed in relation to value congruence.

FOC and value congruence

FOC are expressed through consciously chosen verbal expressions or non- verbal expressions (eg. nods and attire) of conformity (Hewlin, 2003). These expressions of conformity do not always translate to acceptable organisational behaviour (Stormer & Devine, 2008). When expressions of conformity do not result in behaviour that is consistent with organisational norms then there is inconsistency between apparent value congruence and actual value congruence. Consequently, indicating a lack of value congruence. Such a discrepancy is

problematic because value congruence is related to positive organisational outcomes such as high retention rates, organisational commitment, work satisfaction and high work performance (Stormer & Devine, 2008).

Veiled sabotage is a term used to describe when FOC represents apparent conformity and not actual conformity. It occurs when an employee appears to conform using verbal and/or non-verbal expressions while behaving defiantly. That is, employees may falsely represent themselves verbally and non-verbally yet in concrete terms remain aligned to their personal values. For example, an employee may announce support for non-discriminatory behaviour towards minorities yet behave in a discriminatory manner towards minorities in their daily work interactions. Therefore, the use of FOC does not necessarily indicate that an employee will behave in a manner that benefits the organisation. Furthermore, veiled sabotage is reflected in the behaviour an employee displays after apparent conformity therefore it is difficult to identify. In fact, veiled sabotage is usually recognised when change initiatives fail (Anjum & Shah, 2017) because employees may verbally express support for a change initiative yet not implement the change.

In addition, knowing an employee's value system does not necessarily mean that you can predict the employee's behaviour. Although values remain stable over time (Hewlin, 2003), employees do not always act in ways that align with their value system particularly in situations in which perceived reward or consequences for displaying FOC seem to justify abandoning personal values (Stormer & Devine, 2008).

Consequences of engaging in FOC are discussed in the following section.

Consequences of FOC

The notion that there is a positive relationship between FOC, and emotional exhaustion has been supported extensively by research findings (Chou et al., 2019; Doblhofer et al., 2019;

Anjum & Shah, 2017; Hewlin, 2003). This prevailing narrative is useful in that it supports Hewlin's (2003) assertion that FOC is accompanied by internal tension. The link between FOC and emotional exhaustion is, arguably, the single most compelling argument for the presence of internal tension when displaying FOC.

In addition to emotional exhaustion FOC has been linked to several other negative employee outcomes. These include, but are not limited to, reducing employee voice (Chou et al., 2019),low affective commitment, anxiety depression and absenteeism (Doblhofer et al., 2019). Therefore, research findings provide overwhelming support for the conclusion that using FOC has adverse effects. However, Phillips and colleagues (2016) conducted research on a sample of African Americans employed in higher education and found no relationship between job satisfaction and FOC (Phillips et al., 2016). These findings, while different, do not strongly oppose the prevailing narrative since job satisfaction is a positive employee outcome. In addition, Phillips et al. (2016) found that FOC are positively linked with emotional exhaustion supporting Hewlin's (2003) assertion that FOC are accompanied by internal tension.

In addition to the overwhelming evidence for the adverse outcomes associated with FOC, researchers agree on several conditions that precede the development of FOC. These conditions are discussed in the following section.

Conditions for FOC

Position and status in an organisation (Hewlin, 2009; Phillips et al., 2017) individual characteristics (Hewlin, 2003) and organisational context (Hewlin, 2003; Stormer & Devine, 2008) are considered ideal conditions for creating FOC. Position and status in organistion are discussed first.

Position and status

Hewlin (2009) pioneered the first research endeavour to investigate the association between FOC and minority status. Minorities are "individuals who possess salient social characteristics such as demographic characteristics that are different from those of more than 50% of the group to which they belong (Hewlin, 2009, p.729)." Therefore, employees that hold attitudes and beliefs that differ from most employees in the organisation may be considered minorities. Thus, may feel compelled to embrace organisational values at the expense of personal values to ensure acceptance by other employees (Hewlin, 2003; Phillips et al., 2016). The compulsion to conform is heightened in social contexts in which minority employees are conscious of being scrutinized by other employees (Hewlin, 2009). Therefore, these employees will carefully curate their social image, including but not limited to appearance, in order to avoid negative publicity (Hewlin, 2009).

Next, individual characteristics that influence the use of FOC are discussed.

Individual characteristics

Individual characteristics, such as self-monitoring, influence the use of FOC. Self-monitors are individuals who use the behaviour of others to guide their own behaviour. Such people are sensitive to the desires and expectations of others (Hewlin, 2003). High self-monitors are more accurate at evaluating social situations and are excellent at presenting impressions of social and interpersonal cues that support the expression of divergent views (Hewlin, 2003, 2009). On the other hand, low self-monitors express views that genuinely reflect their personal values and are not skilled at presenting impressions (Hewlin, 2009) thus, are less likely to display FOC as compared to high self- monitors. For example, low self-monitors are unlikely to succeed at ingratiating a job interviewer by expressing divergent views.

The ability to segment personal and work identities influences the extent to which an employee will experience distress when engaged in FOC. Employees that successfully segment their personal and work identities are less likely to experience distress (Hewlin, 2003). For example, an employee might personally value co-operation yet display authoritarian characteristics at work, however, because such an employee does not feel that their role at work reflects negatively on their role in other contexts, such an employee will not experience distress when using FOC.

Whether an employee identifies as collectivist or individualistic influences the likelihood to use FOC (Hewlin, 2003) and determines the level of distress experienced when engaged in FOC. Collectivist employees tend to value successful assimilation into a social group, view themselves as inseparable from the group, value group norms, pursue the interests of the group (Hewlin, 2003) and are more likely to use FOC as compared to individualist employees. In contrast, individualist employees tend to value distinctiveness from the social group, devalue group norms, are autonomous and are less likely to use FOC as compared to collectivist employees (Hewlin, 2003). Paradoxically, although collectivist employees are more likely to use FOC they are less likely to experience distress when engaging FOC, when compared to individualist employees, because they derive satisfaction from group harmony (Hewlin, 2003). This observation has relevance for Southern African employees since Southern Africa contains several collectivist cultures (Eaton & Louw, 2000; Ngowi, 2000). Therefore, it is possible to find high levels of FOC in the Southern African workforce without finding the corresponding and expected internal tension.

In the following section organisational contexts that influence the use of FOC are discussed.

Organisational Contexts

FOC is influenced by the extent to which supervisors use subjective forms of evaluation (Hewlin, 2003). It is argued that FOC is used as a proactive method of advancing in one's career (Hewlin, 2003). Therefore, in dyadic relationships, such as supervisor and subordinate interactions, the subordinate employee may use FOC to appear favourable to the supervisor.

In addition, research indicates that, ironically, when leader integrity is high employees tend to display FOC as means to ingratiate the adored leader (Hewlin et al., 2017). Notably, positive leader characteristics, such as integrity, align with leader behaviour described in theories of inclusive leadership (Randel et al., 2018). These theories argue that inclusive leaders, such as leaders with integrity, inspire employee authentic expression (Randel et al., 2018). In fact, inclusive leadership is defined as leadership that accepts divergent points of view and celebrates individuality (Randel et al., 2018). Therefore, by definition, inclusive leadership is predicated on the idea that it facilitates authentic expression. Thus, the negative relationship between leader integrity and FOC (Hewlin et al., 2017) is paradoxical when viewed through the perspective of inclusive leadership.

Job insecurity influences the extent to which FOC are used because for some employees their job is their only form of security therefore, it is a critical aspect of their life (Stormer & Devine, 2008). For example, in contexts of perceived job insecurity employees may engage in FOC as a means to secure the social aspect of their job (Hewlin et al., 2016). In addition to being linked with FOC, perceived job insecurity has received research attention globally, and locally (De Witte, 2005; Stander & Rothmann, 2010; van Wyk & Pienaar, 2008), and is linked to adverse employee outcomes, such as burnout. In the following section perceived job insecurity and its relationship with FOC is demonstrated.

Perceived Job Insecurity

It is logical to discuss perceived job insecurity prior to demonstrating its relationship with FOC. Therefore, in the following section perceived job insecurity is discussed without relating it to FOC.

Defining Job insecurity

Perceived Job Insecurity has been studied extensively globally and locally (De Witte, 2005; Hewlin et al., 2016; Stander & Rothmann, 2010; Sverke et al., 2002; van Wyk & Pienaar, 2008). Van Wyk & Piennar (2008) found that there is inconsistency in the conceptualisation of job insecurity. Researchers debate whether job insecurity should be understood using the global or multi-dimensional approach. The global approach measures job insecurity as the fear of job loss. While the multi-dimensional approach measures job insecurity as the fear of job loss and the fear of losing important features of the job (van Wyk & Piennar,2008). Furthermore, concerns related to the continuity of the job are referred to as quantitative insecurity. While, concerns about losing job features are referred to as qualitative insecurity (Hellgren et al., 1999).

Influential authors in the field of job insecurity, such as De Witte (2005), prefer the global approach; defining job insecurity simply as “the perceived threat of job loss and the worries related to that (De Witte, 2005, p.1)”, thus employees experiencing job insecurity live with the threat of losing their job. This study aligns with the definition provided by De Witte (2005) as previous research investigating FOC and perceived job insecurity lends itself to the global approach. For instance, research conducted by Hewlin et al. (2016).

Origins

Literature on job insecurity finds its origin in the work of pioneer authors Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984). In 2010, Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt rejoined the conversation on job insecurity. They define job insecurity as “perceived powerlessness to maintain desired

continuity in a threatened job situation" (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1988, p.438, as cited in Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 2010) and note that the definition of job insecurity has barely changed over the years, specifically when job insecurity is perceived through the global approach. In addition, they emphasize that "job insecurity isn't simply another work attitude but a source of deep trauma and life disruption (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 2010, p.16)." Notably, they assert that "the topic of job insecurity is of increasing importance because continuity of employment is a dwindling expectation" (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 2010, p. 16) because of globalization and fierce competition (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 2010). In addition, the effects of 4IR (Acemoglu & Restrepo, 2020; Ayentimi & Burgess, 2019; Sutherland, 2020) and most currently the COVID-19 pandemic (Lone & Ahmad, 2020) have led to decreased economic security for organisations and decreased job security for their employees.

Research examining job insecurity since 1984 establishes job insecurity as a salient work stressor and that the psychological effects of the anticipation of job loss can be as distressing as the psychological effects of actual job loss (De Witte, 1999). In addition, employees working in an organisations were jobs are actually at risk (objective job insecurity) experience higher levels of perceived (subjective) job insecurity (Klandermans & van Vuuren, 1999). Notably, longitudinal studies found that employees develop survival syndromes after experiencing job insecurity (Klandermans & van Vuuren, 1999). For instance, employees who stay in an organisation after a period of restructuring and downsizing show survival syndromes; meaning such employees would continue to show the negative effects of perceived job insecurity, such as burnout, lowered psychological well-being, intention to leave (Hewlin et al., 2016) and lowered job satisfaction even after perceived job insecurity decreases (Klandermans & van Vuuren, 1999). However, it is possible that these supposed survival syndromes (negative effects) are a consequence of other antecedents. For instance, in addition

to perceived job insecurity, other conditions associated with the experience of burnout include: occupational stress (Van der Colff & Rothmann, 2009), low social support (De Beer et al., 2013) and subjective well-being (Hansen et al., 2015). Therefore, survival syndromes may not be the consequence of prior elevated levels of perceived job insecurity.

Furthermore, longitudinal research has established causal relationships between perceived job insecurity and psychological distress, therefore it is largely accepted that job insecurity predicts psychological distress (Klandermans & van Vuuren, 1999). In fact, the relationship between job insecurity remains significant after controlling for demographic characteristics indicating that the association is robust (De Witte, 1999). The following section explores job insecurity within contemporary literature.

Job insecurity in contemporary literature

De Witte (2005) mentions that there has been a spike in the prevalence of job insecurity, internationally, because of the fundamental changes in the economic system. Similar to the economic changes occurring in Southern Africa (Ayentimi & Burgess, 2019; Sutherland, 2020) because of the changing world of work. When discussing the prevalence of perceived job insecurity De Witte (2005) emphasizes that the job insecure population is significantly larger than the population of employees who have actually lost their job. Given, the known antecedents of job insecurity such as technological change and unpredictable economic situation (van Wyk & Pienaar, 2008) as well as the rapid movement towards 4IR and the Covid -19 pandemic we are currently subject to, it can be assumed that De Witte's sentiments, although 15 years old , are as relevant today as they were in 2005.

In the seminal publication, "towards a research agenda for job insecurity in South Africa" van Wyk & Pienaar (2008) identify five distinct characteristics of job insecurity: perceived probability of job loss; objective and subjective qualities; cognitive and affective

qualities; and a stressor. The trend in South African literature is to assume that job insecurity is a work stressor, characterized by affective and cognitive qualities, and to use the multidimensional approach to investigate job insecurity (van Wyk & Pienaar, 2008). The current study contrasts the prevailing trend and examines job insecurity using the global approach. Thus, contributes to the small body of South African literature that uses the global approach to investigate job insecurity. In addition, it aligns with the approach used, by previous researchers, when examining the relationship between job insecurity and FOC (Hewlin et al., 2016). The next section discusses the antecedents and consequences of job insecurity.

Antecedents and consequences

In 2008, van Wyk and Pienaar investigated the antecedents, moderators, mediators, and consequences of job insecurity within the South African context. They found that studies conducted in South Africa identified organisational change, restructuring, downsizing and privatization as relevant indicators that employees in South African organisations may be feeling job insecure. De Witte (2005) found that studies conducted internationally identified national unemployment; organisational structure; position in organisation and personality traits, such as low self-esteem and pessimism (Klandermans & van Vuuren, 1999) as antecedents of job insecurity. Furthermore, job insecurity can be mitigated through communicating with employees about future events and allowing employees to participate in the decision-making process (De Witte, 2005).

Several systematic reviews conducted internationally have revealed that job insecurity has negative effects on organisational attitudes, individual well- being and organisational behavior (De Witte, 2005; Sverke et al., 2002). These negative effects include burnout (De Witte, 2005; Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995; Reisel et al., 2010; Vander Elst et al., 2014); decline in organisational commitment; distrust of company management; resistance to organisational

change; performance decrease; decline in organisational citizenship behavior and employee intention to leave (De Witte, 2005).

In a review of the job insecurity literature De Witte (2005) highlights that the relationship between job insecurity and burnout is conspicuous. This observation is relevant for the current study because examining the relationship between job insecurity and burnout is one of the primary goals of this study. Notably, Dekker & Schaufeli (1995) reveal that social support has no stress buffering effect on the relationship between job insecurity and burnout. Thus, suggesting that to reduce the negative effect of job insecurity it must be dealt with directly.

Notably, only one article was found that examined job insecurity in Botswana (Moeti-Lysson et al., 2017). The research results indicate that job insecurity is related to conflict amongst construction workers in Botswana. However, the methodological rigour of the study is difficult to determine since the authors offered limited information on the methods used in the study. For example, the instruments used in the study and, consequently, the validity and reliability statistics of these instruments are not reported.

The next section briefly describes the mediating variables that influence job insecurity and its known consequences.

Mediating variables

There is inconclusive evidence with regard to mediating variables in the job insecurity literature published in South Africa (van Wyk & Pienaar, 2008). This is relevant for the current study as FOC is investigated as a potential mediating variable and contributes to the theoretical and empirical gap that currently exists. In contrast, there is evidence for the moderating effect of organisational, job and social features (van Wyk & Pienaar, 2008).

In addition, several negative employee outcomes were related to job insecurity. These include reduced affective commitment and emotional exhaustion, which mirrors the

international trends observed when investigating the consequences associated with job insecurity (van Wyk & Pienaar, 2008). In the subsequent section it will be illustrated how and why perceived job insecurity is expected to interact with FOC.

Perceived Job Insecurity and Facades of Conformity (FOC)

The literature on FOC argues that job insecurity is a condition likely to lead to FOC (Stormer & Devine, 2008). In fact, Hewlin et al.'s (2016) research findings strengthen this argument. They found that perceived job insecurity was positively related to FOC and that FOC mediated the relationship between perceived job insecurity and organisational commitment. In addition, FOC mediated the relationship between perceived job insecurity and intention to leave (Hewlin et al., 2016). FOC researchers suggest that job insecure employees are likely to use FOC as coping strategy to cope with threatening work contexts (Hewlin et al., 2016; Stormer & Devine, 2008). Therefore, the literature on FOC highlights the notion that perceived job insecurity is a work stressor. This notion is mirrored and supported by research published pertaining to job insecurity. Research within this domain identifies perceived job insecurity as a "classic work stressor" that has adverse effects on employee wellbeing (Sverke et al., 2002).

Notably, the most compelling explanation for the negative effects of perceived job insecurity on employee well-being has its roots in theories of belonging. According to Hewlin et al. (2016) perceived job insecurity threatens an employee's sense of belonging to a social group. Given that acceptance to a social group is a fundamental need of all humans (Maslow, 1943; Baumeister, 1982) it is evident that this threat is of existential proportion. Therefore, employees are motivated towards ensuring social acceptance (Baumeister, 1982) even if doing so costs them their well-being. Consequently, the fundamental desire for social acceptance at whatever cost is a potential rationale motivating employees to engage in counter-productive behaviours, such as FOC, in the wake of perceived job insecurity. For instance, because employees aim to achieve and retain social acceptance, thus increase the likelihood that they

will retain their jobs, they pretend to embrace organisational values that contradict their personal values (Hewlin, 2003, 2009; Hewlin et al., 2016; Stormer & Devine, 2008). Therefore, it is hypothesised that job insecure employees are likely to engage in FOC.

H1: Perceived job insecurity is positively associated with façades of conformity

The subsequent section will discuss burnout.

Burnout (Emotional Exhaustion and Disengagement)

There is evidence linking emotional exhaustion to both Perceived job insecurity and FOC. Emotional exhaustion is studied as a sub-construct of the broader and extensively researched construct burnout. In addition to emotional exhaustion, burnout is studied in terms of disengagement. Therefore, in the following section emotional exhaustion and disengagement are discussed as an expression of burnout.

Burnout has been extensively researched globally (Akbar & Akhtar, 2018; Bellou & Chatzinikou, 2015; Chiu & Tsai, 2006; Cordes et al., 1997; Dyląg et al., 2013; Jourdain & Chênevert, 2015; Sesen et al., 2011) and within Sub-Saharan Africa (Dubale et al., 2019). Specifically, researchers in South Africa have shown substantial interest in studying burnout (Asiwe et al., 2014; De Beer et al., 2013; Hansen et al., 2015; Mostert, 2011; Schultz et al., 2012; Viljoen, 2004). In contrast, burnout has received limited research attention in Botswana (Ledikwe et al., 2018; Westmoreland et al., 2017). Notably, amongst the research found examining burnout in Botswana, some were unpublished Masters dissertations (Kekgonegile, 2014; Khunwane,2006) and some did not use validated existing burnout instruments to measure burnout (Pheko, 2015) therefore sparsely contribute to the already limited understanding of burnout in Botswana.

Defining Burnout

Maslach (1982) defines burnout as emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment. Contemporary definitions of burnout support and extend Maslach's (1982) definition of burnout. Viljoen (2004) refers to burnout as general feelings of emptiness and overtaxing from workload and distancing of oneself from one's work in general. In addition, depersonalization, which is defined as the tendency of an employee to distance himself from service recipients, has in contemporary research been replaced by disengagement which refers to the tendency of an employee to distance himself from work (Demerouti et al., 2001). Therefore, burnout can be expressed as three sub-constructs: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, or reduced accomplishment. In addition, alternatively, burnout can be expressed as two sub-constructs: emotional exhaustion and disengagement.

Conceptual Debate

There is a prevailing debate over whether the three factor or two factor expression of burnout is most appropriate. Publications in this field indicate that there is no conclusive agreement on which definition is better; some research is consistent with the three-factor expression of burnout (Chiu & Tsai, 2006; De Beer et al., 2013; Sesen et al., 2011; Van der Colff & Rothmann, 2009) while some is consistent with the two-factor expression of burnout (Demerouti et al., 2001; Hansen et al., 2015). Demerouti et al. (2001) is an advocate for the two-factor approach and pioneered work on the development of the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI). The main purpose for developing the OLBI was to improve the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI). The MBI was developed by Maslach (1982) and exists in several versions. According to Demerouti et al. (2001) the MBI is an insufficient measure of burnout primarily because it was developed to measure burnout amongst workers who work in the service industries only. This is a pertinent concern given that the use of the MBI excludes the working population not involved in the service industries. In addition, items on the MBI and its revised versions are worded in the same direction therefore, the use of the MBI is more

likely to introduce method bias when compared to the use of the OLBI. Furthermore, the OLBI is consistent with the two-factor expression of burnout while the MBI is consistent with the three-factor expression of burnout. The current study measures burnout using the OLBI therefore burnout is expressed as a two-factor construct representing a state of emotional exhaustion and disengagement.

The two distinct conceptualizations of burnout do not pose an eminent threat. In fact, quality research is published on either side highlighting the ability for these two schools of thought to co- exist. However, research in this field must ensure that there is consistency amongst the research sample, conceptualization of burnout and the measurement instrument. For instance, if research is conducted on the working population outside the service industry, then the OLBI is the most appropriate instrument to use. In addition, if the OLBI is used then burnout must be conceptualized as a two-factor construct. Therefore, there is need for alignment between the model used to conceptualize burnout and the measuring instrument used.

Notably, although quality research is published on either side of the conceptual debate, the two-factor expression of burnout runs the risk of losing a nuanced understanding of burnout. The factors that constitute burnout provide valuable information about which factors are related to outcomes of interest; this is particularly true for research conducted internationally. Consider research conducted by Chiu and Tsai (2006) and Sesen et al. (2011); Chiu and Tsai (2006) found that emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment were negatively related to organisational citizenship behavior (OCB) while depersonalization had no effect on OCB. Similarly, Sesen et al. (2011) found that personal accomplishment was related to OCB while emotional exhaustion and depersonalization were not related to OCB. Notably, in the case of Sesen et al. (2011) if burnout had been measured using the OLBI and expressed as two constructs (emotional exhaustion and depersonalization) the results would have indicated that

burnout is not related to OCB and information on the effect of personal accomplishment would have remained unidentified.

The current study adopts the two-factor expression of burnout for two reasons. Firstly, data was collected from employees across all industries. Secondly, the OLBI has negatively, and positively worded items thus reduces method bias. Therefore, in the current study burnout is expressed as emotional exhaustion and disengagement. Notably, a systematic review of burnout amongst health care workers in Sub-Saharan Africa indicates that most studies investigating burnout in this context use the MBI to measure the experience of burnout (Dubale et al., 2019). This is particularly true for Botswana; when consulting the literature published in Botswana on burnout only two studies were identified as rigorous (Ledikwe et al., 2018; Westmoreland et al., 2017) and both these studies used MBI to examine burnout. Therefore, in addition to the two aforementioned reasons, the current research contributes to the limited amount of research that has investigated burnout using the OLBI in the local context. It is important to note that within the context of this research 'local' refers to, both, Botswana and South Africa because majority (93.5%) of the sample comprised of employees working in Botswana or South Africa.

Thus far, the conceptual differences in the definition of burnout have been explained. In the following section the development of burnout is discussed.

Development of Burnout

Demeroutti et al. (2001) trace the development of burnout within the boundaries of the job demands resource model (JD-R). Therefore, the discussion will focus on explaining the JD-R before demonstrating how burnout develops.

Job Demands- Resource Model (JD-R)

The JD-R is a theoretical framework that integrates stress research and motivation research (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). The main assumption of the JD-R is that every job has

inherent risk factors (job demands) related to stress and that job resources are needed to deal with job demands as well as produce and protect job resources (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). Job demands are related to adverse health while job resources are related to motivation. In addition, the model is able to explain the development of burnout (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011).

Job demands refer "to those physical, social or orgnaisational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs" (Demerouti et al., 2001, p.501) such as, work overload (Pooja et al., 2016) While, job resources refer to "those physical, psychological, social or organisational aspects of the job that may do any of the following : a) be functional in achieving work goals; b) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs; c) stimulate personal growth and development" (Demerouti et al., 2001, p.501), such as colleague social support (Demerouti et al., 2001).

Notably, increased job demands explain the development of emotional exhaustion, while a lack of job resources explain the development of disengagement. The subsequent sections discuss how emotional exhaustion and disengagement occur.

Development of emotional exhaustion and disengagement

The relationship between job demands and emotional exhaustion is explained by the theories on the development of fatigue (Demerouti et al., 2001). Emotional exhaustion is the consequence of sustained physical or mental effort towards completing a task (Demerouti et al., 2001). The prolonged state of directing effort towards completing a task results in feeling exhausted and drained (Demerouti et al., 2001). Thus, emotional exhaustion is perceived as the result of intensive physical, affective and cognitive strain because of the long-term consequence of prolonged exposure to work demands (Demerouti et al., 2001).

On the other hand, disengagement is defined as distancing oneself form one's work and experiencing negative attitudes toward the work object, work content or one's work in general

(Demerouti et al., 2001). Disengagement occurs when job resources are low and is characterized by the inability to recover from exposure to excessive workload (Demerouti et al., 2001). Job resources are perceived as health factors that allow an employee to recover after being exposed to excessive workload (Demerouti et al., 2001). Therefore, theories about health promotion and maintenance explain the relationship between job resources and disengagement (Demerouti et al., 2001).

The development of burnout is a result of consistent exposure to the demanding aspects of work that lead to overtaxing, consequently resulting in emotional exhaustion. Lack of resources, then, undermines an employee's ability to deal with the demanding aspects of work which leads to withdrawal, consequently resulting in disengagement (Demerouti et al., 2001). Therefore, burnout can be understood as the interaction between emotional exhaustion and disengagement. In addition, according to Demerouti et al. (2001), emotional exhaustion occurs when job demands are high, and disengagement occurs when job resources are low. Therefore, when job demands are high and job resources are high it is likely to observe high emotional exhaustion and low disengagement. In contrast, when job demands are low and job resources are low it is likely to observe low emotional exhaustion and high disengagement (Demerouti et al., 2001). Thus, a condition characterized by both high job demands, and low job resources is most likely to result in burnout.

Furthermore, emotional exhaustion and disengagement are correlated but not causally linked (Demerouti et al., 2001). Instead, they are causally related to organisational conditions and outcomes. Therefore, the next section discusses the conditions and outcomes of burnout.

Antecedents and consequences

Research conducted in South Africa shows that occupational stress (Van der Colff & Rothmann, 2009), low social support (De Beer et al., 2013) and subjective well-being (Hansen et al., 2015) result in burnout. The literature reviewed for the current study reveals that most

South African researchers including, but not limited to, Van der Colff and Rothmann (2009), (Mostert, 2011) and De Beers et al. (2013) used the MBI, or revised versions of the MBI, to measure burnout in South African employees. In contrast, Hansen et al. (2015) used the OLBI to measure levels of burnout in a sample of 103 educators in Kwazulu Natal. The current study joins the smaller group of South African burnout studies that have been conducted using the OLBI.

Research conducted internationally indicates that classic job stressors (Demerouti et al., 2001), lack of employee training and development (Bellou & Chatzinikou, 2015) and FOC (Akbar & Akhtar, 2018) are associated with burnout. Notably, Dylag et al. (2013) examined the relationship between value discrepancy and burnout on a sample of 480 white collar workers in the service industry. They found that value discrepancy, between individual and organisational values, results in increased levels of burnout (Dyląg et al., 2013). Thus, suggests that FOC might result in burnout. Akbar and Akhtar (2018) confirm this suggestion, showing that FOC results in emotional exhaustion in a sample of full-time employees. In addition, emotional stability mediates the relationship between FOC and emotional exhaustion (Akbar & Akhtar, 2018). Akbar and Akhtar (2018) and Dylag et al.'s (2013) findings are particularly important to the current study because they provide a rationale for the studying the relationship between FOC and burnout.

The next section discusses the consequences of burnout.

Consequences of burnout

Both South African and international literature reveal that burnout is related to adverse employee outcomes such as, increased intention to leave (Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010) and absenteeism (Jourdain & Chênevert, 2015). In addition, the relationship between burnout and adverse employee outcomes may differ across the distinct dimensions of burnout as

demonstrated by Chiu and Tsai (2006) and Sesen et al. (2011) and discussed in the earlier in this chapter.

Notably, literature emerging from Botswana examines either the prevalence rate of burnout (Westmoreland et al., 2017) or the efficacy of wellness interventions in reducing burnout (Ledikwe et al., 2018) thus, is unable to contribute to the conversation about the antecedents and consequences of burnout.

The following section discusses the relationship between job insecurity and burnout.

Job insecurity and Burnout

Demerouti et al. (2001) assert that burnout is a withdrawal reaction while job insecure employees have been observed to engage in work withdrawal behaviour (Viljoen, 2004). This link can be understood using the Job Demand Resource (JD-R) model (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011) if perceived job insecurity is viewed as a job demand. Job demands are those sustained physical and psychological aspects of a job which are associated with certain physiological and psychological cost (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). They are known to induce a stress response and interact with job resources to predict either work engagement or burnout (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). An inability to recover from job demands leads to burnout and decreases the wellbeing and work performance of an employee (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011).

As stated earlier in the chapter job insecurity is viewed as classic work stressor (Sverke et al., 2002) and has negative employee consequences. Notably, the relationship between job insecurity and burnout is robust (De Witte, 2005). An overwhelming amount of research supports the conclusion that burnout is a conspicuous result of job insecurity (De Witte, 2005; Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995; Reisel et al., 2010; Vander Elst et al., 2014). Thus, it is likely that job insecure employees will experience burnout. Therefore, it is hypothesized that job insecure employees are likely to report feelings of burnout and report feelings of the two constructs of burnout: emotional exhaustion and disengagement.

H2: Perceived job insecurity is positively associated with burnout

H2a: Perceived job insecurity is positively associated with emotional exhaustion

H2b: Perceived job insecurity is positively associated with disengagement

Facades of Conformity (FOC) and Burnout

As stated earlier in the chapter FOC are associated with burnout (Akbar & Akhtar, 2018). Hewlin (2003) asserts that employees experience emotional exhaustion – a subscale of burnout- when creating facades in the workplace. This suggests that job insecure employees who create facades as an attempt to increase belonginess undermine their own well-being. This is because sustained use of facades highlights the fact that an employee is operating in an environment that pressures him to suppress his personal values and adopt contradictory values (Hewlin et al., 2016). Consequently, this awareness and consistent façade creation is emotionally taxing (Hewlin, 2009). Therefore, it is hypothesized that employees who create facades at work are likely to experience burnout; and are likely to experience the two constructs of burnout: emotional exhaustion and disengagement.

H3: Facades of conformity is positively associated with burnout.

H3a: Facades of conformity is positively associated with emotional exhaustion

H3b: Facades of conformity is positively associated with disengagement

In addition, because job insecure employees use FOC as a coping strategy in an environment in which their sense of belonging is threatened (Hewlin et al., 2016), it is hypothesized that FOC can explain the already established relationship between Perceived job insecurity and burnout; and the two constructs of burnout: emotional exhaustion and disengagement.

H4: Facades of conformity mediate the relationship between perceived job insecurity and burnout

H4a: Facades of conformity mediate the relationship between perceived job insecurity and emotional exhaustion

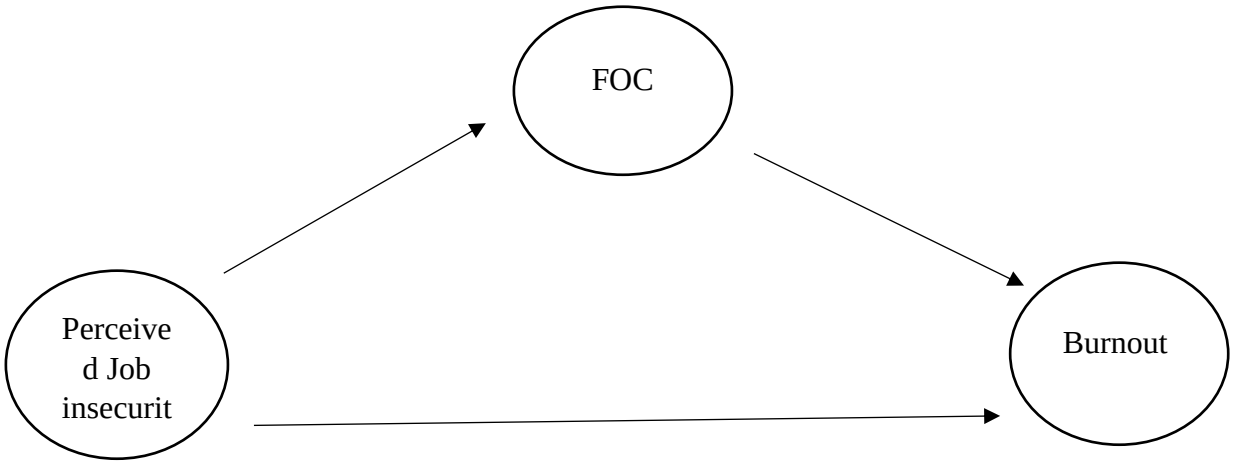
H4b: Facades of conformity mediate the relationship between perceived job insecurity and disengagement

Facades of Conformity (FOC) and demographic characteristics

There has been evidence for a significant relationship between FOC and demographic characteristics. For instance, older employees are less likely to engage in FOC than younger employees because as employees grow older they value authentic relationships and emotional satisfaction over professional growth (Hewlin et al., 2016). Therefore, it is anticipated that age may influence the mediating effect of FOC. In addition, research findings suggest that minority status increases the likelihood that an employee will use FOC (Phillips et al., 2016). Therefore, since literature in the field of minorities, specifically feminist literature (McCall, 2005), has established women as minority group (Krook & O'Brien, 2010; Thomas, 2002) it is anticipated that gender may influence the mediating effect of FOC. Thus, the effect of age and gender are taken into consideration.

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

The research hypotheses embedded in this study can be illustrated in the diagram below and subsequently captured in the statements that follow.



Research Hypotheses

1. H1: Perceived job insecurity is positively associated with façades of conformity
2. H2: Perceived job insecurity is positively associated with burnout

    H2a: Perceived job insecurity is positively associated with emotional exhaustion

    H2b: Perceived job insecurity is positively associated with disengagement
3. H3: Facades of conformity is positively associated with burnout.

    H3a: Facades of conformity is positively associated with emotional exhaustion

    H3b: Facades of conformity is positively associated with disengagement
4. H4: Facades of Conformity mediate the relationship between perceived job insecurity and burnout

    H4a: Facades of Conformity will mediate the relationship between perceived job insecurity and emotional exhaustion

    H4b: Facades of Conformity will mediate the relationship between perceived job insecurity and disengagement

Secondary objectives

1. Is there a relationship between disruptions experienced because of the COVID-19 pandemic and perceived job insecurity, facades of conformity, and burnout?
2. Do types of COVID-19 pandemic disruptors predict the experience of perceived job insecurity, facades of conformity and burnout?

Conclusion

The literature reviewed for the current study develops a strong argument for the aforementioned hypotheses. Specifically, revealing gaps within the literature that need attention: such as studying FOC within a population of people that have received limited attention from researchers working in this domain; expanding upon the Job Demands-Resource model by highlighting a psychological process (FOC) that explains the relationship between a well-established job stressor (perceived job insecurity) and stress reaction (burnout); as well as studying job insecurity during the COVID-19 pandemic which has exacerbated the uptake of 4IR practices and likely increased the prevalence of the job insecure population.

Ideas from this chapter will be revisited in the discussion chapter. In the following chapter, methods are discussed.

Chapter 3: Methods Chapter

Introduction

The Methods chapter outlines in detail how the study was conducted. It is structured in the following way: research design; sampling strategy; sample; data collection and procedure; instruments, ethical consideration, and data analysis.

Research design

The proposed research used a cross-sectional, correlational quantitative study design. This research design was appropriate as there was no manipulation of the independent variable and no random assignment when examining all of the variable pairs (Field, 2009). Therefore, temporal precedence and non-spuriousness were not established thus, conclusions on causality were not made. In contrast, predictive conclusions were made tentatively since the theory explaining the relationship between the variables implies that the experience of burnout is a result of the independent variable, perceived job insecurity, and the mediating variable, FOC. This allowed for the use of regression analysis when examining the mediation hypotheses, since regression is concerned with measuring predictive probabilities between variables. Lastly, data was collected at one point in time and analyses of associations was used to examine the main hypotheses of the study.

Sampling Strategy

A sample was obtained through the researcher's social media platforms: WhatsApp, Facebook and LinkedIn. The original intention was to obtain participants from several organisations operating in South Africa. However, the COVID-19 pandemic made it difficult to access employees directly from organisations. Appendix B (request for access) and Appendix E (cover email) include documents that were disseminated to 7 organisations, five operating in Botswana and two operating in South Africa, requesting access to approach their

employees. Three of these organisations did not grant access and 4 organisations did not respond to the request for access. Consequently, social media and snowballing technique were adapted as a means to gain direct access to employees. Appendix D (consent form) includes the organisational consent form that would have been distributed to organisations had access been obtained.

As aforementioned, participants were approached directly through the researcher's social media platforms, specifically WhatsApp, LinkedIn and Facebook. The researcher posted an invitation link on each of these social media platforms that clearly stated that only currently employed individuals were invited. In addition, the snowballing technique was used to ensure adequate data was collected; participants were asked to invite other suitable individuals to participate in the study. Informed consent was obtained electronically from participants prior to electronically completing the research questionnaire. Notably, collecting data through social media platforms ensured that sufficient data was collected even under pandemic conditions. However, individuals on social media are not representative of the general population (Culotta, 2014) therefore, this sampling strategy introduced a bias that is explored in the discussion chapter.

Sample

The sample consisted of 139 participants, this included 67.6% (n=94) females and 32.4% (n=45) males. The mean age of the participants was 31 years and ranged from 21 years to 60 years. In addition, the most represented age was 27 years (19.4%; n=27) followed by 26 years (10.8%; n=15). The participants were working in Botswana (63.3%; n=88), South Africa (30.2%; n=42), other Southern African countries (1.4%; n=2) and outside Southern Africa (5.0%; n=7). The majority of the participants are employed full time (88.5%; n=123) while the rest (11%; n=16) are either employed part-time, employed on contract, employed full-time and

studying or completing internship. In addition, most of the participants have 2 years of experience or less (55.9%; n=77). Furthermore, the most represented race was black 87.8% (n=122), followed by white 7.2% (n=10). Indian employees 2.9% (n=4), coloured employees .7 % (n=1) and employees identifying as 'other' 1.4% (n=2) were least represented in the sample.

The most represented sector was 'finance' (31.2%; n=43), followed by government (13.0%; n=18) and education (13.0%; n=18). The most represented occupation level was that of 'skilled technical and academically qualified worker, junior manager, supervisor, foreman, superintendent' (48.6%; n=67). While the rest of the sample (51%; n=72) represented occupational levels ranging from 'top management' to 'unskilled'. Furthermore, most of the participants highest level of education was a Bachelor's degree (51.1%; n=71) followed by a Postgraduate degree (40.3%; n=56); the rest of the participants had obtained either a 'Matric/IGCSE/ BGCSE' or 'Diploma' certificate.

Notably, the composition of the participants across age, gender, race, level of education and tenure in organisation reveal biases that reflect the demographic composition of the researcher at the time data was collected. Specifically, the researcher was a black, 27-year-old female, with a postgraduate degree and less than 2 years of work experience at the time data was collected. This bias will be explored further in the discussion chapter.

Majority of the participants were working from the office (61.0%; n=83) at the time of data collection (August to October 2020). While 30.1% (n=41) were working from home and 8.8% (n=12) were working from both the office and home. Furthermore, 18.6% (n=24) of the participants returned to work during lockdown level 5, when there was highly restricted

movement and only essential services were allowed to move; followed by 15.5% (n=20) returning to work during lockdown level 1. The rest of the participants returned to work during lockdown level 4 (10.1%; n =13), lockdown level 3 (14.7%; n=19) and lockdown level 2 (140%; n=18). Notably, 3.6% (n=5) of the participants reported being unemployed before the COVID-19 pandemic, thus becoming employed during the pandemic.

In addition, 90.6% (n=126) participants report that COVID-19 has disrupted their work. Even so, the extent of the disruption differs; 34.5% (n=48) of the participants report that their work has been disrupted to a great extent; while 30.9% (n=43) report that their work has been disrupted somewhat and 25.2% (n=35) report that their work has been disrupted very little. Notably, the most commonly experienced disruption is that of the fear of the unknown (65.9%; n=91).

Data Collection and Procedure

Once ethical clearance was received from the University of the Witwatersrand a research questionnaire was uploaded onto Google Forms and individuals were invited to participate in the study via social media (WhatsApp, Facebook and LinkedIn). Individuals interested in participating in the study accessed the research questionnaire through a link attached to the invite. The research questionnaire included a link to the participant information sheet (PIS) (Appendix C) describing the study and participants were encouraged to read it prior to completing the research questionnaire. In addition, informed consent was obtained electronically prior to completing the questionnaire and it was specified that submission is indicative of informed consent. It is assumed that participants spent approximately 10-15 minutes completing the questionnaire. Participants submitted their response on Google Forms. Participants will receive a brief summary of the research results through accessing a blog link

that the researcher will provide if requested. These activities occurred between August 2020 and April 2021.

Instruments

Data was collected electronically through a questionnaire (Appendix A) that includes three scales: Job Insecurity Inventory (JII), Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI) and the Facades of Conformity Scale. As well as biographical questionnaire.

1. The Biographical questionnaire included questions that obtained information about the experience of the COVID-19 pandemic, age, gender, race, level of education, and tenure in the organisation.
2. Perceived job insecurity was measured using the shortened version of the Job Insecurity Inventory (JII) (Appendix A) developed by De Witte (2000). After considering the application of the JII in the South African context researchers shortened the original scale from an 11 item scale to an 8 item scale (Pienaar et al., 2013). Therefore, JII is an 8 item five-point type Likert type scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), that measures the cognitive and affective dimensions of job insecurity. De Witte (2000) reported a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.92 for the scale. Example items from the scale are: "I am very sure that I will be able to keep my job" (cognitive insecurity) and "I fear that I might get fired" (affective insecurity). In addition, all four items measuring cognitive job insecurity are reverse coded. For instance, "There is only a small chance that I will become unemployed".
3. Burnout was measured using the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI) developed by Demerouti (1999) which is an alternative to the popular Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI). The OLBI can measure levels of burnout within employees not working in the service industry which is a major advantage over the MBI. It consists of 16 items on a

four-point Likert type scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree), with two subscales which measure emotional exhaustion and disengagement, therefore yielding three scores. Research in South Africa found the Cronbach's alpha reliabilities for the two subscales to be 0.82 and 0.80; and found the overall Cronbach's alpha for the OLBI to be 0.93. Example questions from the scale are: "After my work, I usually feel worn out and weary" (exhaustion subscale) and "Over time, one can become disconnected from this type of work" (disengagement subscale). For both subscales, four items are reversed. For instance, "I get more and more engaged in my work." (disengagement subscale reversed) (Demerouti, 2007).

4. Facades of Conformity (FOC) was measured using a 6 item five-point Likert type scale (1_never, 2_not often, 3_sometimes, 4_often, 5_always) developed by Hewlin (2009) (Appendix A). The Cronbach alpha coefficient in international studies has shown a value of 0.83. As far as could be ascertained, the scale has not been used in Southern Africa and therefore its psychometric properties and appropriateness for use in the Southern African context is unknown at this point. Therefore, the use of the scale posed some risks to validity and these were accounted for as far as possible. While that is so, the unfamiliarity of this variable in Southern African research is itself a compelling reason to study it. Example items include "I suppress personal values that are different from those of the organization." and "I withhold personal values that conflict with organizational values" (Chou et al., 2019). In addition, item 4, "I don't "play politics" by pretending to embrace organizational values" is reversed. However, in the current study, the item was rephrased and written as "I play politics by pretending to embrace organisational values" to reduce the likelihood of confusion when using this instrument in majority Southern African sample, where English is not the dominant native language (Chisanga & Alu, 1997).

Notably, Cronbach alpha coefficients for the scales in the current study are as follows: perceived job insecurity (alpha =.86), facades of conformity (alpha = .83), burnout (alpha = .88), emotional exhaustion (alpha = .83) and disengagement (alpha =.82). Therefore, all the scales used have high internal consistency, thus are reliable. Furthermore, the instrument included 45 items which may have introduced response bias because of its length (Morii et al., 2017).

Ethical considerations

Data was collected from employees through the researcher's social media platforms: WhatsApp, Facebook and LinkedIn. Approval to conduct the research was sought from the University of Witwatersrand Human Research Ethics Committee (Appendix F). In addition to including a question directly asking for informed consent, submission of the questionnaire was considered informed consent and a participant information sheet (PIS) was provided to the participants to inform them of the right to confidentiality, to voluntary participation and to withdraw from the research at any time. Identifying information such as names was not collected; instead, participants were assigned numbers to identify their responses. The researcher has been trained in ethical conduct. Additionally, participants were advised to seek appropriate health care support if they were adversely affected by participating in the research. Lastly, data was stored permanently in an anonymous electronic form on a password protected laptop and can be used for future research studies and additional analyses.

Data Analysis

Firstly, data was cleaned on Excel to account for data that may skew the results, such as missing data, problematic outliers, reverse scoring and so forth; following this data was analyzed using IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 25 (Gouda, 2015). Descriptive statistics were run to obtain an understanding of trends and how the data was

distributed. Lastly, reliabilities and tests for normality were run to ensure that the data met the assumptions for the tests of association and regression.

During primary analyses test of association were conducted using Pearson's R correlation analysis and mediation was examined using mediated regression analysis. In addition, the effects of age and gender were controlled for by treating these variables as covariate variables. Thus, entering them into the regression model when conducting the analysis. Similarly, during secondary analyses test of association were conducted using Pearson's R correlation analysis. In addition, One-Way-ANOVA was used to analyse differences between groups and multiple regression analysis was used to analyse the extent to which COVID-19 disruptors predicted the experience of the main study variables.

Pearson's R correlation analysis was used to quantify the strength of association between the main study variables. Therefore, it was used to examine hypothesis 1 to 3b.

H1: Perceived Job Insecurity is associated with Facades of Conformity

H2: Perceived Job Insecurity is associated with Burnout

H2a: Perceived Job Insecurity is associated with Emotional Exhaustion

H2b: Perceived Job Insecurity is associated with Disengagement

H3: Facades of Conformity is associated with Burnout

H3a: Facades of Conformity is associated with Emotional Exhaustion

H3b: Facades of Conformity is associated with Disengagement

Mediated regression analysis using Andrew Hayes's PROCESS macro was used to examine hypothesis 4 to 4b. Regression analysis aims to quantify the causal relationship of one variable on another (Sykes, 1993). Hypothesis 4 to 4b model a predictive (causal) relationship

in which perceived job insecurity affects FOC which, in turn, affects burnout (emotional exhaustion and disengagement) therefore a mediated regression analysis is the most appropriate method of analysis. In addition, the explanatory and linking quality (Newsom, 2020) of FOC on the hypothesized relationship between perceived job insecurity and burnout indicate that FOC are best described as mediating this relationship. In contrast, a moderating variable affects the direction and magnitude of a relationship between variables meaning it modifies the relationship (Wu & Zumbo, 2008) but is not responsible for it. Therefore, it would have been inappropriate to examine FOC as a moderating variable.

Chapter 4: Results Chapter

Introduction

The results chapter outlines in detail how the data was analysed. It is structured in the following way: Data cleaning; descriptive statistics and test for normality; hypotheses 1 to 3b: tests of association; testing assumptions for multiple regression; hypotheses 4 to 4b: mediation and COVID-19 pandemic secondary analysis.

Data cleaning

Data was cleaned to account for data that may skew the results, such as missing data, reverse scoring, problematic outliers, and significant group differences. The raw unclean data set consisted of 164 participants. Coding the data, removing unqualified participants (ie. those participants that were either unemployed or self-employed), accounting for missing data and reverse scoring was done on an Excel spreadsheet. This resulted in a final sample of 140 participants. Subsequent analysis on SPSS 25 identified one outlier, therefore that participant was removed. Resulting in a final sample of 139 participants.

In addition, t-tests were run to determine if there were significant differences between participants working in Southern Africa (South Africa, Botswana, Lesotho and Zimbabwe) and other countries (Japan, United States of America, Qatar and United Kingdom). The t-test results revealed that there were no significant differences between Southern African employees (n=132) and employees from other countries (n=6) in their level of job insecurity ($t = -.41$, $p = .68$), facades of conformity ($t= -.75$, $p = .45$), burnout ($t= -.21$, $p = .83$), emotional exhaustion ($t = -.44$. $p = .66$) and disengagement ($t= .03$, $p =.97$). Therefore, employees working in other countries were included in the final sample.

Similarly, t- tests were run to determine if there were significant differences between participants working in South Africa (n=42) and Botswana (n=88). The t-test results revealed

that there were no significant differences between South African employees and Botswana employees in their level of perceived job insecurity (t = -.37 p = .71), facades of conformity (t= .57, p = .57), burnout (t= 1.45 p = .15) and emotional exhaustion (t = -.11 p = .92). In contrast, there was a significant difference in their level of disengagement (t= 2.68, p =.01). Additionally, employees working in South Africa experienced more disengagement (*M*= 22) than employees working in Botswana (*M*=19).

Although, South African employees and Botswana employees differed significantly in their level of disengagement these two groups were treated as one sample because they are similar across four (perceived job insecurity, facades of conformity, burnout, and emotional exhaustion), out of the five, variables of interest.

Descriptive statistics and tests for normality

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics (N=139)

Table 1 displays descriptive statistics and the normality statistics for the perceived job insecurity, FOC, burnout, emotional exhaustion, and disengagement scales.

	M	***SD***	**Min**	**Max**	**Skewness**	**kurtosis**	**Kolmogorov-Smirnov**	**Shapiro-Wilks**
Perceived job insecurity	20	7	8	37	.58	-.35	.11**	.96**
Facades of conformity	15	5	6	29	.11	-.37	.07	.98
Burnout	42	8	23	59	-.00	-.68	.08*	.98
Emotional exhaustion	21	4	10	32	-.08	-.13	.06	.99
Disengagement	20	4	11	32	-.07	-.41	.08*	.99

**Correlation is significant at the .01 level

*Correlation is significant at the .05 level

The narrative below presents descriptive statistics and describes the normality of the data:

Perceived job insecurity

The perceived job insecurity score for the sample ranged from 8-37 with a mean score of 20, indicating that the sample experienced moderate levels of perceived job insecurity. In

addition, the standard deviation of the scores is 7, indicating that the participants varied greatly in their level of job insecurity. The skewness and kurtosis coefficients were appropriate for normal data. The histogram displayed a normal looking bell curve and the dots on the Q-Q plot were situated around the line (Appendix G). That said, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilks tests were significant, thus indicate non-normal data. However, these tests are extremely sensitive and sometimes represent normal data as non-normal. This is probably the case, given that all other tests for normality have been satisfied. Therefore, it was decided to treat perceived job insecurity as normally distributed (see Table 1).

Facades of conformity

The facades of conformity (FOC) score for the sample ranged from 6-29 with a mean score of 15, indicating that the sample experienced moderate levels of FOC. In addition, the standard deviation of the scores is 5, indicating that the sample varied in their level of FOC. The skewness and kurtosis coefficients are appropriate for normal data. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilks tests were insignificant, thus indicate normally distributed data. In addition, the histogram and Q-Q plot displayed normal data (Appendix G). Therefore, it was decided to treat FOC as normally distributed (see Table 1).

Burnout

The burnout score for the sample ranged from 23-59 with a mean score of 42, indicating that the sample experienced moderate to high levels of burnout. In addition, the standard deviation of the scores is 8, indicating that the sample varied greatly in their level of burnout. The skewness and kurtosis coefficients were appropriate for normal data. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilks tests were insignificant, thus indicate normal data. In addition, the histogram and Q-Q plot displayed normally distributed data (Appendix G). Therefore, it was decided to treat burnout as normally distributed (see Table 1).

Emotional Exhaustion

The emotional exhaustion score for the sample ranged from 10-32 with a mean score of 21 indicating that the sample experienced moderate to high levels of emotional exhaustion. In addition, the standard deviation for the scores is 4, indicating that sample varied in their level of emotional exhaustion. The skewness and kurtosis coefficients were appropriate for normal data. The Kolmogorov- Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilks tests were insignificant, thus indicate normally distributed data. In addition, the histogram and Q-Q plot displayed normal data (Appendix G). Therefore, it was decided to treat emotional exhaustion as normally distributed (see Table 1).

Disengagement

The emotional exhaustion score for the sample ranged from 10-32 with a mean score of 20 indicating that the sample experienced moderate to high levels of disengagement. In addition, the standard deviation for the scores is 4, indicating that sample varied in their level of emotional exhaustion. The skewness and kurtosis coefficients were appropriate for normal data. The histogram displayed a normal looking bell curve and the dots on the Q-Q plot were situated around the line (Appendix G). That said, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was significant, thus indicates non-normal data. On the other hand, the Shapiro-Wilks tests was insignificant, thus indicates normal data. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test is extremely sensitive and sometimes represents normal data as non-normal. This is probably the case, given that all other tests for normality have been satisfied Therefore, it was decided to treat disengagement as normally distributed (see Table 1).

In summary, the tests for normality indicate that all the scales could be treated as normal data.

Hypotheses 1 to 3b: tests of association

Table 2: Pearson's Correlations and Cronbach alpha among study variables (N=139)

Table 2 displays correlation statistics for the relationships found when examining hypothesis 1 to 3b. As well as the reliability statistics for the perceived job insecurity, FOC, burnout, emotional exhaustion, and disengagement scales.

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**Cronbach alpha**
1.Perceived job insecurity	Na	.43**	.47**	.40**	.45**	.86
2.Facades of conformity	.43**	Na	.55**	.43**	.57**	.83
3.Burnout	.47**	.55**	Na	Na	Na	.88
4. Emotional exhaustion	.40**	.43**	Na	Na	Na	.83
5. Disengagement	.45**	.57**	Na	Na	Na	.82

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

The narrative below describes the relationships found when examining hypothesis 1 to

H1: Perceived Job Insecurity is positively associated with Facades of Conformity (FOC)

The data are normal therefore Pearson's R was used to conduct the analysis. There is a significant, moderate relationship between perceived job insecurity and FOC (r=.43; p=.00) (Table 2). Thus, the null hypothesis was disproved.

H2: Perceived Job Insecurity is positively associated with Burnout

The data are normal therefore Pearson's R was used to conduct the analysis. There is a significant, moderate relationship between perceived job insecurity and burnout (r=.47; p=.00) (Table 2). Thus, the null hypothesis was disproved.

H2a: Perceived Job Insecurity is positively associated with Emotional Exhaustion

The data are normal therefore Pearson's R was used to conduct the analysis. There is a significant, moderate relationship between perceived job insecurity and emotional exhaustion (r=40; p=.00) (Table 2). Thus, the null hypothesis was disproved.

H2b: Perceived Job Insecurity is positively associated with Disengagement

The data are normal therefore Pearson's R was used to conduct the analysis. There is a significant, moderate relationship between perceived job insecurity and disengagement (r=.45; p=.00) (Table 2). Thus, the null hypothesis was disproved.

H3: Facades of Conformity (FOC) is positively associated with Burnout

The data are normal therefore Pearson's R was used to conduct the analysis. There is a significant, moderate relationship between FOC and burnout (r=.55; p=.00) (Table 2). Thus, the null hypothesis was disproved.

H3a: Facades of Conformity (FOC) is positively associated with Emotional Exhaustion

The data are normal therefore Pearson's R was used to conduct the analysis. There is a significant, moderate relationship between FOC and emotional exhaustion (r=.43; p=.00) (Table 2). Thus, the null hypothesis was disproved.

H3b: Facades of Conformity (FOC) is positively associated with Disengagement

The data are normal therefore Pearson's R was used to test for association. There is a significant, moderate relationship between FOC and disengagement (r=.57; p=.00) (Table 2). Thus, the null hypothesis was disproved.

Testing assumptions for regression analysis

The normal distribution of scores and absence of outliers for the burnout scale, emotional exhaustion scale and disengagement scale is indicated by tests for normality and the section on cleaning data addressed earlier in the chapter. The scatter plots indicate that there was linearity between the predictor variables (perceived job insecurity and FOC) and: 1) burnout, 2) emotional exhaustion and 3) disengagement. The scatter plots showed that the dots are randomly scattered about the line without any pattern for the burnout scale, emotional exhaustion scale and disengagement scale. Suggesting, homoscedasticity, independent errors, and linearity. Correlation (Pearson's R) coefficient (r= .43, p = .00) for the burnout scale,

emotional exhaustion scale and disengagement scale is less than .7 indicating that perceived job insecurity and FOC are not problematically correlated (Daoud, 2017), and indicating that there is no multicollinearity. In addition, the Tolerance value (.82) is more than .2 and the VIF value (1.22) is less than 10 for the burnout scale, emotional exhaustion scale and disengagement scale. Thus, supports the conclusion that there is no multicollinearity. The histogram and P-P Plot indicate that the residuals were normally distributed for the burnout scale, emotional exhaustion scale and disengagement scale. In addition, there are no influential cases affecting the slope of regression since the Cook's Distance value (.00) is between 1 and -1 for the burnout, emotional exhaustion, and disengagement scale. In addition, the std. residual value for the burnout (-2.29), emotional exhaustion (-3.29) and disengagement scale (-2.28), is less than 3 therefore, there are no outliers present (Appendix H).

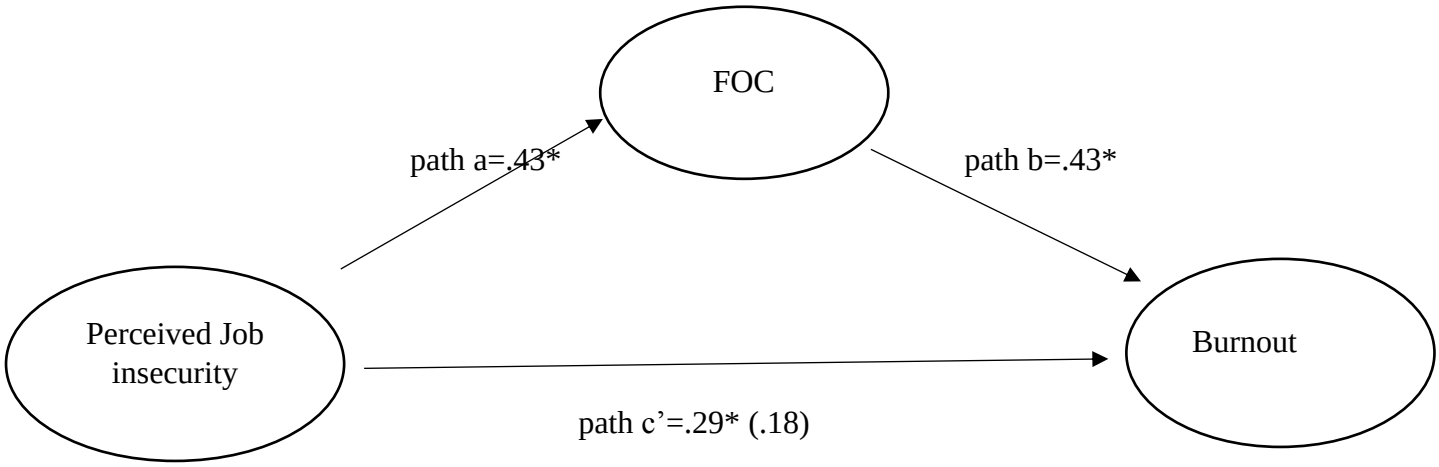
In summary, the results for assumptions indicate that: outliers have been excluded; there is linearity between the predictor variables and outcome variables; residuals are normally distributed; residuals are independent; there is homoscedasticity; there is no multicollinearity and there are no influential cases. Therefore, the assumptions for regression have been met for the three scales. Thus, the mediation analysis can be conducted.

Hypotheses 4 to 4b: mediation regression

H4: Facades of Conformity (FOC) mediate the relationship between Perceived Job Insecurity and Burnout

Figure 2: Standardized regression coefficients (Burnout)

Figure 2 displays regression statistics for the relationship between perceived job insecurity and burnout as mediated by FOC



*p < .05.
.18 indicates the indirect (mediation) effect

The narrative below explains Figure 2 and describes results related to the relationship between perceived job insecurity and burnout as mediated by FOC:

Hypothesis 4 predicted that FOC mediate the relationship between perceived job insecurity and burnout. Figure 2 illustrates that the standardized regression coefficient between perceived job insecurity and burnout was significant (path c' = .29, p .00), as was the standardized regression coefficient between perceived job insecurity and FOC (path a = .43, p = .00). Similarly, the standardized regression coefficient between FOC and burnout was significant (path b = .43, p =.00). Therefore, support was found for a relationship between perceived job insecurity and FOC (path a =.43, p = .00) and a relationship between FOC and

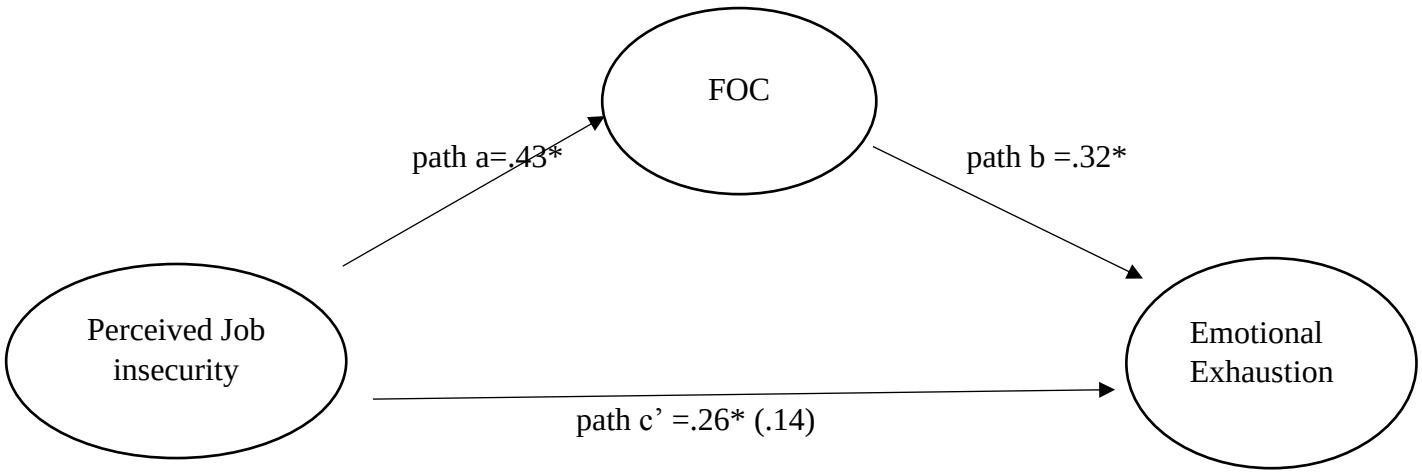
burnout (path b = .43, p = .00). Furthermore, perceived job insecurity accounts for approximately 22% (R^2= .22) of the variance seen in burnout and the standardized indirect (mediation) effect was .18 (.43 x .43 = .18), thus providing initial support for hypothesis 4.

Unstandardized indirect effects were computed for 5000 boot strapped samples. Bootstrapping is done by resampling the sample data over and over again to create many more samples thus enabling inferences to be made about a population from sample data (Rochowicz Jr, 2011). The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect was .21 and the 95% confidence interval ranged from .12 to .32, thus excluded zero and provided formal support for hypothesis 4. Therefore, FOC mediate the relationship between perceived job insecurity and burnout (estimate = .21, 95% CI [.12, .32]).

H4a: Facades of Conformity (FOC) mediate the relationship between Perceived Job Insecurity and Emotional Exhaustion

Figure 3: Standardized regression coefficients (Emotional Exhaustion)

Figure 3 displays regression statistics for the relationship between perceived job insecurity and emotional exhaustion as mediated by FOC



*p < .05.
.14 indicates the indirect (mediation) effect

The narrative below explains Figure 3 and describes results related to the relationship between perceived job insecurity and emotional exhaustion as mediated by FOC:

Hypothesis 4a predicted that FOC mediate the relationship between perceived job insecurity and emotional exhaustion. Figure 3 illustrates that the standardized regression coefficient between perceived job insecurity and emotional exhaustion was significant (path c' = .26, p .01), as was the standardized regression coefficient between perceived job insecurity and FOC (path a = .43, p = .00). Similarly, the standardized regression coefficient between FOC and emotional exhaustion was significant (path b = .32, p =.00). Therefore, support was found for a relationship between perceived job insecurity and FOC (path a =.43, p = .00) and a relationship between FOC and emotional exhaustion (path b = .32, p = .00). Furthermore, perceived job insecurity accounts for approximately 16% (R^2 = .16) of the variance seen in

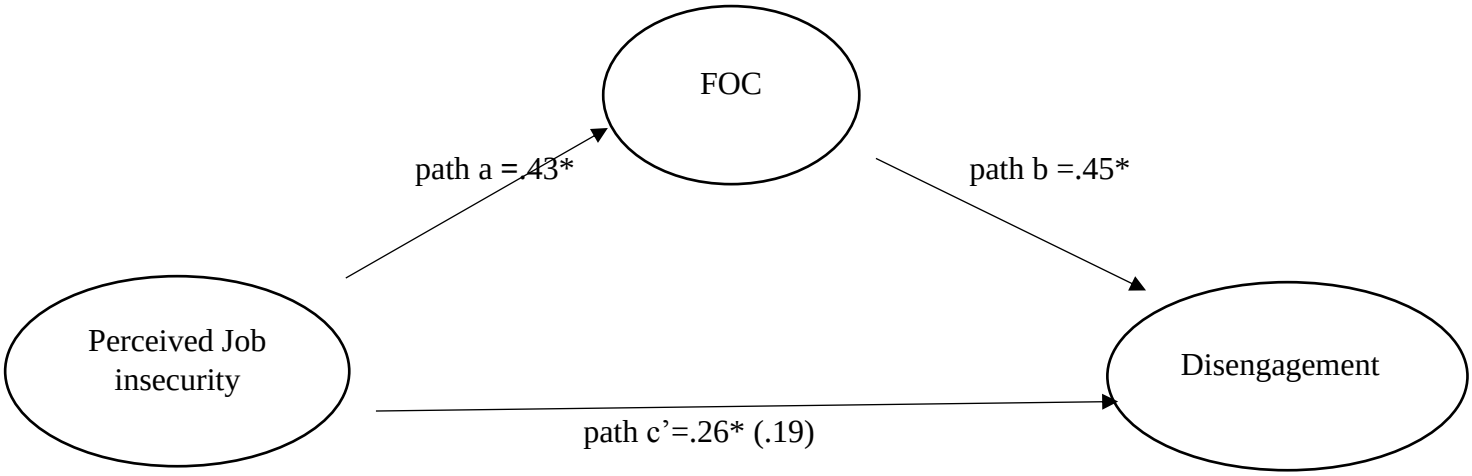
emotional exhaustion and the standardized indirect (mediation) effect was .14 (.43 x .32 = .14). Thus, providing initial support for hypothesis 4a.

Unstandardized indirect effects were computed for 5000 boot strapped samples. Bootstrapping is done by resampling the sample data over and over again to create many more samples thus enabling inferences to be made about a population from sample data (Rochowicz Jr, 2011). The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect was .08 and the 95% confidence interval ranged from .04 to .14, thus excluded zero and provided formal support for hypothesis 4a. Therefore, FOC mediate the relationship between perceived job insecurity and emotional exhaustion (estimate = .08, 95% CI [.04, .14]).

H4b: Facades of Conformity (FOC) mediate the relationship between Perceived Job Insecurity and Disengagement

Figure 4: Standardized regression coefficients (Disengagement)

Figure 4 displays regression statistics for the relationship between perceived job insecurity and disengagement as mediated by FOC



*p < .05.
.19 indicates the indirect (mediation) effect

The narrative below explains Figure 4 and describes results related to the relationship between perceived job insecurity and disengagement as mediated by FOC:

Hypothesis 4b predicted that FOC will mediate the relationship between perceived job insecurity and disengagement. Figure 4 illustrates that the standardized regression coefficient between perceived job insecurity and disengagement was significant (path c' = .26, p .00), as was the standardized regression coefficient between perceived job insecurity and FOC (path a = .43, p = .00). Similarly, the standardized regression coefficient between FOC and disengagement was significant (path b = .45, p =.00). Therefore, support was found for a relationship between perceived job insecurity and FOC (path a =.43, p = .00) and a relationship between FOC and disengagement (path b = .45, p = .00). Furthermore, perceived job insecurity accounts for approximately 20% (R^2 =.20) of the variance seen in disengagement and the

standardized indirect (mediation) effect was .19 (.43 x .45 = .19). Thus, providing initial support for hypothesis 4b.

Unstandardized indirect effects were computed for 5000 boot strapped samples. Bootstrapping is done by resampling the sample data over and over again to create many more samples thus enabling inferences to be made about a population from sample data (Rochowicz Jr, 2011). The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect was .13 and the 95% confidence interval ranged from .07 to .19, thus excluded zero and provided formal support for hypothesis 4b. Therefore, FOC mediates the relationship between perceived job insecurity and disengagement (estimate = .13, 95% CI [.07, .19]).

Age and facades of conformity

Additional analysis was run to examine the relationship between age and facades of conformity.

The data are normal therefore Pearson's R was used to conduct the analysis. Pearson R's correlation analysis revealed that there is no significant relationship between age and facades of conformity (r= -.15; p=.08). Therefore, people of different ages do not differ significantly in their use of facades of conformity.

COVID-19 pandemic secondary analysis

A secondary analysis of COVID-19 related demographic characteristics revealed the following:

Pearson R's correlation analysis revealed that perceived job insecurity (r=.36, p=.00), façades of conformity (r= .19, p= .03), burnout (r =.22, p= .01), emotional exhaustion (r= .19, p= .03) and disengagement (r= .20, p=.02) were weakly to moderately related to extent of

COVID-19 disruption experienced (not at all, very little, somewhat, to a great extent). Furthermore, results of a One-Way-ANOVA analysis indicates that the sample experienced different levels of perceived job insecurity (Brown-Forsythe (3, 127.12) =8.17, p=.00) burnout (F (3) =3.25, p=.02) and disengagement (F (3) = 3.35, p-.02) based on the extent of COVID-19 disruption (not at all, very little, somewhat, very much) experienced.

Specifically, post hoc analysis indicates that employees that experienced a great extent of COVID-19 disruption (n=48) differed significantly from employees that experienced no COVID-19 disruption (n=13) in their level of perceived job insecurity (Benferronni= 7.51, p= .00). Similarly, employees that experienced a great extent of COVID-19 disruption differed significantly from those employees that experienced very little COVID-19 disruption (n=35) in their level of perceived job insecurity (Benferronni= 5.13, p= .00). Therefore, participants who experienced more disruption because of the pandemic experienced more perceived job insecurity.

Furthermore, employees that experienced a great extent of COVID-19 disruption (n=48) differed significantly from employees that experienced no COVID-19 disruption (n=13) in their level of burnout (Benferroni= 7.16, p=.02). Similarly, employees that experienced a great extent of COVID-19 disruption differed significantly from employees that experienced no COVID-19 disruption in their level of disengagement (Benferroni= 4.21, p=.02). Therefore, participants who experienced more disruption because of the pandemic experienced more burnout and disengagement.

Notably, an examination of the effect size indicates that the extent of COVID-19 disruption experienced (not at all, very little, somewhat, to a great extent) accounts for approximately 13% ($\eta^2 = .13$) of the differences seen in the level of perceived job insecurity;

7% (η^2 = .07) of the differences seen in the level of burnout; and 7% (η^2 = .07) of the differences seen in the level of disengagement.

Further analysis conducted using multiple regression revealed that types of COVID-19 disruption (technological challenges, loneliness, fear of the unknown, inability to meet deadlines, lack of childcare and financial problems) predicted the experience of perceived job insecurity, burnout, and disengagement. In contrast, types of COVID-19 disruption did not predict the experience of facades of conformity and emotional exhaustion.

Specifically, fear of the unknown (β=.17, p=.04), lack of childcare (β =.16, p=. 05) and financial problems (β= .32, p=.00) predict the experience of perceived job insecurity. In addition, these types of COVID-19 disruptions account for approximately 17% (r^2 = .17) of the variance seen in perceived job insecurity. Similarly, loneliness (β = .20, p=.01), fear of the unknown (β= .16, p=.05) and financial problems (β =.19, p=.03) predict the experience of burnout. In addition, these types of COVID-19 disruptions account for approximately 14% (r^2 =.14) of the variance seen in burnout. Furthermore, loneliness (β= .25, p=.00), fear of the unknown (β=.21, p= .01) and financial problems (β = .19, p= .02) predict disengagement. In addition, these types of COVID-19 disruption account for approximately 18% (r^2 = .18) of the variance seen in disengagement.

Chapter 5: Discussion

Introduction

The main objective of the current research was to examine the potential for facades of conformity (FOC) to mediate the relationship between perceived job insecurity and burnout in a Southern African context. The findings of the current research support literature that has explored the nature of the relationships that exists between the variables of interest. In addition, they provide insight on the nature of FOC in a context that has not been explored in previous studies. Furthermore, they expand on the understanding of perceived job insecurity and burnout within the context of the COVID-19 pandemic and the Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR).

The chapter will begin by providing insight into the context of the participants by discussing the secondary analyses run between the main variables of the study and data collected related to the participant's experience of the pandemic. After an understanding of the context is established the chapter is divided across the four main research hypotheses thus, will discuss the results in the following order: the relationship between perceived job insecurity and facades of conformity; the relationship between perceived job insecurity and burnout (emotional exhaustion and disengagement); the relationship between facades of conformity and burnout (emotional exhaustion and disengagement); and the relationship between perceived job insecurity and burnout (emotional exhaustion and disengagement) with facades of conformity as a mediating variable.

COVID-19 pandemic conditions

Prior to understanding the working context created by the pandemic it is important to note that the rapid shift towards digitization (Acemoglu & Restrepo, 2020) automation, big data and robotics (Sutherland, 2020) caused by the 4IR revolution was hastened by the pandemic (Acemoglu & Restrepo, 2020). For example, social distancing measures enforced

by the pandemic pressurized firms to adopt 4IR techniques in their daily activities in order to operate under pandemic conditions (Acemoglu & Restrepo, 2020) . Therefore, the pandemic has likely increased the experience of disruptive technological change and exacerbated the rapidly changing world of work, consequently, according to De Witte (2005), increasing the prevalence of perceived job insecurity.

Perceived Job insecurity

Findings suggest that the extent of disruption caused by the pandemic accounts for 13.3% (η^2 = .133) of the formation of perceived job insecurity. Specifically, the fear of the unknown, lack of child-care and financial problems as a result of the pandemic account for 17.4% (r^2 = .174) of the variance seen in perceived job insecurity. These results provide preliminary evidence for an association between the pandemic and the experience of perceived job insecurity. However, the effect of the pandemic on the experience of perceived job insecurity was investigated during a secondary analysis. Therefore, definite claims with regard to a relationship are suggested tentatively and require direct investigation.

Facades of Conformity (FOC)

Pearson's R correlation analysis revealed a weak (r= .19, p=.03) relationship between FOC and disruption caused by the pandemic was found. Notably, ANOVA results indicate that participants did not differ in their experience of FOC based on the extent of disruption experienced (not at all, very little, somewhat, to a great extent). For instance, an employee experiencing very little disruption is just as likely to use FOC as an employee experiencing a great deal of disruption. This finding supports the logical idea that employees were probably involved in the creation of FOC before the pandemic. While that is so, the degree to which FOC were engaged might have been affected by the pandemic but this was not directly examined. Data collected with regards to the pandemic was intended to obtain contextual information.

Burnout (emotional exhaustion and disengagement)

Pearson's R correlation found associations between disruption caused by the pandemic and burnout (r=.22, p=.01), emotional exhaustion (r=.19, p=.03) and disengagement (r=.20, p=.02). In addition, ANOVA results indicate that participants experienced different levels of burnout and disengagement based on the amount of disruption experienced (not at all, very little, somewhat and to a great extent).

Furthermore, multiple regression analysis revealed that participants experience of emotional exhaustion was not predicted by type of disruption. In contrast, loneliness, fear of the unknown and financial problems was found to predict the experience of burnout and disengagement. These results are best explained by the development of disengagement. According to Demerouti et al. (2001) disengagement develops because of the inability to recover from exposure to the demanding aspects of work. The ability to recover from exposure to excessive workload is contingent on an individual's access to the psychological and social aspects of the job that allow one to achieve work tasks, reduce work demands and stimulate growth (Demerouti et al., 2001). For example, the experience of loneliness during the pandemic implies that there is reduced physical social interaction with co-workers. Under non-pandemic working conditions an employee might use the social support experienced during physical interactions as a job resource (Pooja et al., 2016) and, therefore, use social support to recover from exposure to excessive workload. Notably, these results imply that under pandemic conditions employees may experience burnout as disengagement as opposed to emotional exhaustion. However, this was not directly examined, therefore is tentatively suggested, and requires further investigation.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: The relationship between Perceived Job Insecurity and Facades of Conformity (FOC)

The findings of the current research reveal that there is a positive moderate relationship (r =. 43, p=.00) between perceived job insecurity and FOC. Thus, confirming hypothesis 1 (perceived job insecurity is positively related to FOC) and aligns with findings by Hewlin et al. (2016). Hewlin et al. (2016) established that American employees use FOC as a coping strategy to deal with job insecure environments. The current study borrows from Hewlin et al.'s (2016) rationale and asserts that employees, mostly working in Southern Africa, use FOC as a coping strategy to deal with job insecure environments. Furthermore, Stormer and Devine (2008) note that employees use FOC in insecure job environments because the job is a form of security and a critical aspect of life thus, expand on Hewlin et al.'s (2016) explanation.

Hypothesis 2: The relationship between Perceived Job insecurity and Burnout (emotional exhaustion and disengagement)

Similarly, it was found that there is a moderate relationship (r=.47, p=.00) between perceived job insecurity and burnout thus confirming hypothesis 2. This particular finding echoes De Witte's (2005) observation that the relationship between perceived job insecurity and burnout is conspicuous. In addition, hypothesis 2a and hypothesis 2b were confirmed; results showed that perceived job insecurity was moderately related to both emotional exhaustion (r=.40, p=.00) and disengagement (r=.45, p=.00).

Previous research, conducted in South Africa and abroad, has demonstrated overwhelming evidence for the relationship between perceived job insecurity and emotional exhaustion (De Witte, 2005; Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995; Reisel et al., 2010; Vander Elst et al., 2014). The findings of this research contribute to this line of evidence. Furthermore, they expand on the conversation surrounding perceived job insecurity and its consequences by revealing its relationship with disengagement.

Disengagement is a dimension of burnout that has not been heavily studied in relation to perceived job insecurity. Thus, there is limited understanding of the relationship that exists between perceived job insecurity and a fundamental dimension of burnout. A detailed examination of burnout, specifically the disengagement dimension of burnout, would provide a nuanced and more thorough understanding of the construct since researchers have established distinct differences between the effect of emotional exhaustion and burnout on employee relevant outcomes. For instance, emotional exhaustion is related to workload and interpersonal conflict (Pooja et al., 2016) while disengagement is related to individual characteristics such as equanimity and resilience (Rastogi et al., 2018).

The findings for hypotheses 1 and 2, collectively, contribute to the prevailing trend in the perceived job insecurity literature, in which perceived job insecurity is considered a classic work stressor that has negative employee outcomes (De Witte, 2005). Notably, previous research by Dekker and Schaufeli (1995) indicate that interventions aimed at reducing the negative effects of job insecurity are encouraged to aim directly at reducing the prevalence of perceived job insecurity because interventions aimed at mitigating the negative effects of perceived job insecurity have limited efficacy. However, given that pandemic conditions have contributed to a precarious business climate and a depressed economy (Lone & Ahmad, 2020) where job loss has been a reality for many people, it is unlikely that attempts at directly reducing the prevalence of perceived job insecurity will be effective.

Literature reviewed for the current study did not find literature that challenged Dekker and Schaufeli's (1995) research results. Therefore, it seems that there is consensus about the resistant nature of perceived job insecurity to secondary forms of intervention. Notably, as aforementioned, primary forms of intervention aimed at reducing perceived job insecurity remain a challenge under the effects of a precarious economy (de Villiers et al., 2020), the

complexity of 4IR (Ayentimi & Burgess, 2019; Sutherland, 2020) and the negative economic impact of the pandemic (Lone & Ahmad, 2020) which have made potential and actual job loss a reality for the working population (Shook & Knickrehm, 2016;World Economic Forum, 2018).

Hypothesis 3: The relationship between Facades of conformity and Burnout (emotional exhaustion and disengagement)

A moderate relationship (r=.55, p=.00) was found between FOC and burnout thus, confirms hypothesis 3 (FOC is positively related with burnout). This finding supports previous research that has linked FOC with negative consequences (Anjum & Shah, 2017; Chou et al., 2019; Doblhofer et al., 2019; Hewlin, 2009; Hewlin et al., 2016; Phillips et al., 2016; Stormer & Devine, 2008). Notably, the correlation coefficient (r=.55) indicates that the coefficient of determination (R^2) is .30 therefore, FOC accounts for approximately 30% of the variance seen in burnout. Notably, Ozer (1985) indicates that the coefficient of determination may grossly underestimate the intensity of a relationship, therefore although statistically moderate, this result indicates a strong relationship for real world data.

Given that South Africa and Botswana are contexts known to embrace a collectivist culture (Eaton & Louw, 2000; Ngowi, 2000) then ,consequently, the participants are likely to embody the values of their context therefore, are likely to embrace collectivist ideals. The strong relationship found between FOC and burnout in conjunction with the fact that the sample displayed moderate to high levels of burnout (*M*=42, *SD*=8) seem to contradict Hewlin's (2003) assumption that employees with a collectivist orientation are likely to experience less distress when using FOC. However, Hewlin (2003) does not define collectivism as a product of cultural conditioning rather she describes collectivism as an individual's personal choice to perceive oneself as inseparable from the group. Therefore, it can be argued that the sample presents with elevated levels of distress because the sample may perceive themselves as separate from the

group, regardless of working in a collectivist culture. Notably, the current research did not examine the role of collectivism on the experience of distress when using FOC therefore, the role of collectivism requires direct examination to enable valid conclusions.

The association found between perceived job insecurity and burnout provide initial support for the notion that FOC is related to emotional exhaustion. This is an important notion since it provides a compelling argument for the idea that the conflict experienced when using FOC is related to internal tension and that internal tension results in negative employee outcomes (Hewlin 2003). Therefore, internal tension drives the potential for FOC to have negative consequences. Since the psychometric instrument developed by Hewlin (2009) to measure FOC does not directly collect data related to feelings of internal tension, a potential means to establish the existence of internal tension when engaging FOC is to correlate FOC with emotional exhaustion prior to conducting other analysis.

FOC and emotional exhaustion

The results revealed that there is a moderate relationship between FOC, and emotional exhaustion (r=.43, p=.00) thus confirm hypothesis 3a. This finding is consistent with research that found a positive relationship between FOC and emotional exhaustion (Akbar & Akhtar, 2018). In addition, this finding provides compelling support for Hewlin's (2003) conclusion that the internal conflict inherent when using FOC results in psychological and emotional distress ie. internal tension. However, research spanning several decades has linked the experience of emotional exhaustion directly to other factors such as, low levels of emotional stability (Akbar & Akhtar, 2018), low organisational citizenship (Chiu & Tsai, 2006), quantitative role overload and interpersonal relationships (Cordes et al., 1997). These factors were not accounted for in the current study yet may have contributed to the experience of emotional exhaustion. Therefore, the internal tension that occurs as a result of the internal

conflict caused by organisational and personal value discrepancy as argued for by Hewlin (2003) may not be the only factor contributing to the experience of emotional exhaustion. Notably, this finding provides two seemingly paradoxical perspectives. Firstly, it supports the notion that engaging in FOC is linked to adverse emotional states. While, secondly, arguing for the need to validate this relationship by accounting for several other factors that are known to be linked directly to the experience of emotional exhaustion.

Building on the second point, Hewlin (2003) establishes conditions in which the use of FOC may not result in or reduce the experience of emotional and psychological distress. She argues that individual characteristics such as, the tendency towards collectivism and an employee's ability to role segment are likely to reduce the experience of the negative effects associated with creating FOC. It is assumed that majority of the sample is inclined towards collectivism because of the collectivist culture that dominants Botswana (Ngowi, 2000) and South Africa (Eaton & Louw, 2000) and, therefore, likely to experience less distress when using FOC.

However, a correlation coefficient (r) of 0.43 indicates that the coefficient of determination (R^2) is .18, therefore, although statistically moderate it represents a strong relation for real world data (Ozer,1985). In addition, the sample experienced moderate to high levels of emotional exhaustion (M=21, SD=4), therefore the sample seems to contradict the notion that individuals with a collectivist orientation experience less distress when using FOC and align with results yielded for overall burnout. That said, it is important to note that data concerning the cultural orientation of the sample was not collected therefore cultural orientation and its effect on the main variables of the study was not examined.

Notably, the argument raised by Hewlin (2003) for the moderating potential of individual characteristics on the association between FOC and employee outcomes; and other

factors known to directly influence the experience of emotional exhaustion, hint towards the need for future research to establish the validity of the association between FOC and emotional exhaustion by investigating possible factors that could be moderating and/ or mediating this relationship.

FOC and disengagement

A relationship (r=.57) was found between FOC and disengagement thus confirms hypothesis 3b. This finding indicates that $R^2 = .32$ therefore, FOC accounts for approximately 32% of the variance seen in disengagement, thus although statistically moderate this effect size represents a strong correlation for real world data (Ozer,1985). Furthermore, this finding is aligned with the prevailing trend in FOC literature, which is that FOC is related to negative affective states such as anxiety and depression (Doblhofer et al., 2019). Demerouti et al. (2001) links the development of disengagement with reduced job resources and the development of emotional exhaustion with increased job demands. Therefore, this finding in conjunction with results associating FOC with emotional exhaustion, suggest that creating FOC represents a working context characterized by high job demands and low job resource. However, research directly investigating the relationship between FOC and the job demand-resource model would have to be conducted to validate the aforementioned implication.

Hypothesis 4: The relationship between Perceived Job Insecurity and Burnout (Emotional exhaustion and Disengagement) with Facades of Conformity as a mediating variable

Burnout

It was hypothesized that FOC will mediate the relationship between FOC and burnout (H4). Results indicate that FOC mediates the relationship between perceived job insecurity and burnout (estimate = .21, 95% CI [.12, .32]). These findings are similar to the results found by Hewlin et al. (2016) when examining the mediating effects of FOC. They found that FOC

mediates the relationship between perceived job insecurity and intention to leave and organisational commitment.

The current research did not find a significant relationship between age and FOC. Therefore, employees of different ages do not differ significantly in their use of facades.These results differ from Hewlin et al.'s (2016) research findings; they found that age moderated the relationship between FOC and, both, intention to leave and organisational commitment so that younger employees were more likely to engage in FOC as compared to older employees.

Emotional exhaustion

Subsequent analysis found evidence to confirm hypothesis 4a (estimate = .08, 95% CI [.04, .14]). These findings reveal that FOC mediates and directly affects emotional exhaustion therefore provide a nuanced understanding of burnout. Thus, employees are expected to portray behaviours that are linked to the emotional exhaustion dimension of burnout, such as feeling fatigued and overtaxed (Demerouti et al., 2001).

Disengagement

Subsequent analysis found evidence to confirm hypothesis 4b (estimate = .13, 95% CI [.07, .19]). These findings reveal that FOC mediates and directly affects the relationship between perceived job insecurity and disengagement therefore provide a nuanced understanding of burnout. Thus, employees are expected to portray behaviours that are linked to the disengagement dimension of burnout, such as reduced motivation and feelings of detachment from work (Demerouti et al., 2001).

Implications

Theoretical implications

The current research contributed to the relatively new conversation surrounding FOC by studying the construct on a sample which comprised mostly of employees working in South

Africa and Botswana, thus beginning the conversation amongst researchers in this context. The research findings indicate that FOC has detrimental effects on this sample, similar to its effects on samples drawn from abroad (Chou et al., 2019; Doblhofer et al., 2019; Hewlin et al., 2016) thus setting the scene for further examination of FOC and its relationship with employee outcomes that have been studied abroad, such as job satisfaction (Chou et al., 2019) intention to leave and organisational commitment (Hewlin et al., 2016).

Results indicate that FOC mediates the relationship between perceived job insecurity and burnout. Therefore, adding new insight to the extensively researched (De Witte, 2005; Hewlin et al., 2016; Stander & Rothmann, 2010; Sverke et al., 2002; van Wyk & Pienaar, 2008) and broadly discussed relationship between perceived job insecurity and employee outcomes. Analysis also revealed that younger employees drawn from the sample, similar to younger employees abroad (Hewlin et al., 2016), are more likely to engage in FOC. These findings encourage researchers to prioritise younger employees when investigating FOC in organisations. In addition, it was found that types of disruption caused by the pandemic is associated with disengagement but not emotional exhaustion. This finding highlights the need to study burnout across its two dimensions in order to yield meaningful results.

Practical implications

Given the current pandemic and the rapid changing world of work caused by 4IR, the research findings highlight the importance for organisational leaders to understand the link between the disruptions experienced by employees as a result of the pandemic and the main study variables. As well as understand that organisational transformation aimed at adapting and surviving in the complex business climate created by 4IR (Sutherland, 2020) is likely to increase the experience of perceived job insecurity (van Wyk & Pienaar, 2008) consequently, increasing the experience of adverse employee outcomes, such as FOC and burnout. Such an

understanding could inform leadership style and interventions aimed at surviving and thriving in the current organisational context. De Witte (2005) suggests that leaders communicate with employees about future events and allow employees to participate in the decision-making process in order to reduce the experience of perceived job insecurity. The behaviour that is portrayed in De Witte's (2005) suggestion aligns with the theories of inclusive leadership.

Inclusive leadership refers to leadership behaviour that facilitates an employee's sense of belonging in a group setting, as well as celebrates an employee individuality and unique contribution to group processes (Randel et al., 2018). Based on its definition inclusive leadership seems particularly suited to provide an environment that celebrates different identities and encourages authentic expression consequently reducing the experience of FOC. In addition, research conducted by Akbar & Akhtar (2018) found that leader-member exchange was negatively associated with FOC. Supporting the idea that the quality of relationship between leaders and their subordinates affects the use of FOC, thus highlighting the potential benefits of inclusive leadership as a means to decrease the experience of FOC.

However, there has been research that has linked leader integrity to increased use of FOC (Hewlin et al., 2017). In addition, leadership style is linked to personality traits and personality is known to remain consistent overtime (Digman, 1990) therefore resistant to change, thus leaders are unlikely to adopt and implement leadership behaviours as rapidly and as consistently as they would need to, in order to reduce the experience of FOC in a sustainable manner. For instance, inclusive leaders are inclined towards humility, openness to experience and tolerance for ambiguity (Randel et al., 2018) and it may be difficult for a leader not naturally inclined towards these behaviours to learn and adopt these behaviours.

Secondary analysis examining the effect of the pandemic on the main study variables revealed that disruption experienced because of the pandemic was positively associated with

all the main study variables. Revealing that the degree to which employees experience perceived job insecurity, FOC and burnout probably changed in response to the occurrence of a pandemic during 4IR. Therefore, suggesting that organisations could benefit from engaging in interventions aimed specifically at supporting employees through the changes brought about by 4IR and the pandemic. Such interventions could include upskilling employees whose work tasks now require technological expertise related to 4IR such as, familiarity with robotics, artificial intelligence and big data (Sutherland, 2020); and introducing flexible work schedules that have been associated with positive outcomes such as increased work/life balance (Hayman, 2009). For example, under a flexible work schedule an employee can fulfil other roles, such as childcare, during traditional working hours while ensuring that deadlines are met. That said, given the detrimental effects of the pandemic on the economy (Lone & Ahmad, 2020) and the volatile business climate created by 4IR (Shook & Knickrehm, 2016; Sutherland, 2020) organisations are unlikely to have the capacity to effectively support employees experiencing perceived job insecurity, FOC and burnout (emotional exhaustion and disengagement).

The current study supports the sentiments of Hewlin et al. (2016), Chou et al. (2019) and Doblhofer et al. (2019) that it is necessary for organisational leaders to create organisational environments that encourage authentic expression because there are adverse consequences, such as burnout, emotional exhaustion, and disengagement, related to employees suppressing personal values and pretending to embrace organisational values. This is likely achieved through inclusive leadership behaviours such as, enhancing employee sense of belonging and ensuring non-discriminatory team dynamics (Randel et al., 2018) .

In addition, leaders are encouraged to pay close attention to the experience of older employees during times of organisational change. This is because during times that necessitate organisational change, such as the conditions brought about by the pandemic and 4IR, older

employees whose values may have aligned with the organisation before the change may experience a misalignment with current organisational practices, therefore may be more vulnerable to creating FOC (Hewlin et al. 2016). However, since one cannot observe the creation of FOC leaders would have to speak to employees and gather information with regard to their experience of the ongoing change. This method may prove time consuming and may require additional skills in interviewing and knowledge about FOC in order for leaders to collect valid information. Thus, leaders would have to be motivated towards acquiring additional skills, if necessary, in order to support and facilitate the well-being of their employees.

Limitations

A salient limitation of the current study is the fact that the sample was biased and is more suitable for generalization amongst specific minorities. The sample comprised mostly of young, black female employees with less than 2 years work. Previous research supports that these demographic characteristics reflect minority groups (Chrobot-Mason & Thomas, 2002; Hofhuis et al., 2014; Krook & O'Brien, 2010; Thomas, 2002)..

A biased sample is the direct result of collecting data via the researcher's social media platforms (WhatsApp, Facebook, and LinkedIn) (Culotta, 2014). Majority of the sample accurately reflects the researcher's demographic characteristics. That is, the researcher is a young (27 years at the time of data collection), black, female, with a postgraduate qualification and less than 2 years work experience. Theories of belonging (Baumeister, 1982) and theories of homophilic relationships (Currarini, 2016) offer reasonable explanations for this phenomenon. They assert that human beings have a desire to meet the fundamental need to belong to a social group (Baumeister, 1982) therefore will voluntarily interact with people that accept them. In addition, people usually accept people like them (Bourdieu, 1986; Currarini,

2016). Social media platforms, specifically WhatsApp and Facebook, demonstrate social networks to which the researcher voluntarily belongs therefore, based on theories of belonging and theories of homophilic relationships, these social networks will consist, mostly, of people like the researcher. Thus, the sample was collected from a larger population of people with similar demographic characteristics to the researcher. In addition, social media users are not representative of the general population (Culotta, 2014).

Notably, while a biased sample, collected via social media platforms, reflects poorly on ecological validity (Culotta, 2014) it enables the production of knowledge on idiosyncratic samples that would not otherwise receive research attention. For instance, consider the sort of sample and unique knowledge that could be generated if an individual with oppressed multiple identities, such as an elderly, homosexual, black female researcher collected data via their social media platform. Collectively, such unique samples could assist in solving the problem of conducting research on WEIRD (white, educated, industrialized, rich, democratic) samples that has stained the social sciences for years (Laher, 2016). Thus, provide a nuanced understanding of employee experiences that have been largely understood using the experiences of WEIRD and non-minority samples.

A further limitation of the study is the well-established disadvantages of using self-report instruments. Common disadvantages of using self-report measures include the desire for social desirability (Adams, 2005; Logan et al., 2008), inattentive responding (McKibben & Silvia, 2017) and scale measurement issues (Prasad et al., 2004). While that is so, response bias was reduced by assuring participants of their right to confidentiality and anonymity. However, self-report measures were most appropriate for the current study because they have been used in several previous studies examining the main variables of the study (Akbar & Akhtar, 2018; Bellou & Chatzinikou, 2015; Hansen et al., 2015b; Hewlin et al., 2016; Stander & Rothmann,

2010). In addition, the presence of internal tension as a direct result of the conflict between organisational and personal values that is at core of FOC was not directly investigated because the research instrument available for examining FOC does not directly examine the presence of internal tension. However, FOC was positively associated with emotional exhaustion suggesting that internal tension was present in the sample.

Furthermore, conducting a cross-sectional study has its limitations which include, but are not limited to, the inability to make causal conclusions and the likelihood of common method bias (Jordan & Troth, 2020). In addition, the FOC scale is not adjusted for use in the context from which the sample was derived therefore this may potentially skew the data thus, adversely affect internal and external validity and the FOC instrument was not piloted before use. Laher (2016) explains that in order to achieve rigour in quantitative research the psychometric credibility of a research instrument must be established. According to Laher (2016) inappropriate use of research instruments created outside the context of the researcher has implications for the generalizability of results and suggests that instruments be piloted prior to use, whether they are adapted or not. While that is so, this is the first known study to examine FOC on a sample with majority of participants working in South Africa and Botswana, therefore there was limited opportunity to have adapted the scale to this cohort of participants.

Recommendations for future research

Researchers conducting studies in the field of FOC are encouraged to directly investigate the notion that internal tension is present when using FOC as a direct result of the conflict between personal and organisational values. Possible means of establishing the presence of internal tension include directly correlating FOC with emotional exhaustion before correlating FOC with other variables of interest. This would assist in identifying situations in which there is an absence of internal tension. Stormer & Devine (2008) make the point that in

situations where there is an absence of internal tension then the employee is likely to be engaging in facades and not FOC (Stormer & Devine, 2008).

In addition, future research could consider improving on the current FOC instrument by adding items that directly investigate the presence of internal tension. Possible items could include: “I experience emotional distress when pretending to embrace organisational values”; “I experience cognitive distress when pretending to embrace organisational values” and “I experience physical distress when pretending to embrace organisational values.” An instrument that directly examines the presence of internal tension as well as the types of tension would not only assist in confirming the presence of internal tension but would also enable researchers to investigate whether creating FOC involves using cognitive and physical resources that could have a negative effect on completing work tasks, particularly with younger employees since they are more likely to use FOC (Hewlin et al., 2016) and are known to be on a steeper learning curve (Lowe & Krahn, 1995).Thus, reemphasizing Hewlin’s (2003) suggestion that it would be valuable to investigate whether the creation of FOC involves cognitive resources that could adversely affect completing work tasks. In the same vein, it would be valuable to investigate whether the creation of FOC involves physical tasks (such as faking a smile in the case of employees involved in customer relations) that could adversely affect completing work tasks.

Furthermore, research could focus the development of an improved FOC scale on a sample of participants working in South Africa or Botswana in order to develop an FOC scale that is suitable for this specific cohort. Thus contributing to solving the problem of conducting majority of research on WEIRD samples (Laher, 2016) , developing instruments on WEIRD samples and imposing the use of those instruments on non- WEIRD samples, without first confirming the suitability of using the instrument on non-WEIRD samples (Laher, 2016).

A limited amount of research investigates the relationship between FOC and positive employee outcomes, such as job satisfaction, therefore this relationship is poorly understood. Notably, research conducted by Phillips et al. (2016) found that there was no association between FOC and job satisfaction while FOC was associated with emotional exhaustion. Researchers are encouraged to examine the relationship between FOC and positive employee outcomes. Consequently, identifying and explaining the similarities and/ or differences that may exist between positive and negative employee outcomes in relation to FOC. In addition, future research could focus on investigating the relationship between the main study variables and organisational outcomes, such as general productivity (Muchiri & Ayoko, 2013). Furthermore, research could investigate whether employees that embrace individualist ideals differ in their experience of FOC when compared to employees that embrace collectivist ideals. Specifically, examine Hewlin's (2003) assumption that collectivist employees are more likely to use FOC as compared to individualist employees. Information produced in the local context would extend this conversation since Hewlin (2003) based her assumption on a sample derived from a context that differs in its cultural ideals with local collectivist ideals (Eaton & Louw, 2000; Ngowi, 2000).

There is limited longitudinal studies investigating FOC, therefore the causal nature of FOC is poorly understood. Longitudinal research would allow for the accumulation of knowledge related to the causal relationships between the study variables as well as overcome some of the challenges associated with cross-sectional research, such as common method bias (Jordan & Troth, 2020). In addition, Hewlin (2003) notes that the idea that employees could in time internalize values that they initially pretended to embrace is a question that has intrigued identity researchers for a long time and is worth investigating. Thus, researchers are encouraged to investigate how FOC develops overtime. The limited production of longitudinal studies

investigating FOC and Hewlin's (2003) suggestion provide compelling reasons for researchers concerned with issues surrounding identity and value congruence, particularly FOC, to conduct longitudinal research.

A secondary analysis showed that disruption experienced because of the pandemic was positively related with the main study variables. Therefore, indicating that the pandemic is linked to undesirable employee outcomes. Future research could directly examine the relationship between disruption experienced because of the pandemic, such as loneliness, lack of childcare and financial problems, and the main study variables. As well as changes caused by 4IR, such as the use of automation, artificial intelligence and robotics in business activities (Sutherland, 2020) and the main study variables. Results of a direct investigation could yield insightful and nuanced information about how the experience of FOC, burnout, emotional exhaustion and disengagement have changed, are changing and are likely to change given the collective effects of the pandemic and 4IR. Notably , research indicates that the pandemic has hastened the adoption of 4IR in South Africa (Mhlanga & Moloi, 2020; Motala & Menon, 2020) and abroad (Acemoglu & Restrepo, 2020).

De witte (2005), notes that the rapidly changing business climate, such as the one created by the ongoing pandemic (Lone & Ahmad, 2020), the mass infiltration of disruptive technology (Pereira & Romero, 2017) use of automation and artificial intelligence as a result of 4IR (Sutherland, 2020) increases the probability that the prevalence rate of job-insecure employees will increase. Consequently, increasing its adverse employee effects. Therefore, researchers are encouraged to focus effort towards identifying variables (moderators) that could reduce the negative effects of perceived job insecurity. In addition, it would be valuable to examine whether there is a difference in the experience of perceived job insecurity between

employees working in organisations that were able to swiftly adopt 4IR techniques at the onset and during the pandemic when compared to employees working in organisations that struggled and/or are struggling to adopt 4IR techniques at the onset and during the pandemic. Research conducted during the pandemic indicates that the pandemic hastened and necessitated the uptake of 4IR techniques in South Africa (Mhlanga & Moloi, 2020; Motala & Menon, 2020) and abroad (Acemoglu & Restrepo, 2020) such as remote (online) learning (Mhlanga & Moloi, 2020; Motala & Menon, 2020) and remote (online) working.

Conclusion

The current study intended to examine the relationship between perceived job insecurity and burnout (emotional exhaustion and disengagement) and the potential of facades of conformity (FOC) as a mediating variable on a sample of employees mostly working in South Africa and Botswana. Notably, the sample was bias towards the researcher's demographic characteristics which limited the ability to generalise the results to the general working population.

The findings indicate that participants presented with moderate levels of perceived job insecurity and FOC, and moderate to high levels of burnout, emotional exhaustion, and disengagement. In addition, a positive moderate relationship was found between all the main study variables therefore, the main effects were confirmed. Furthermore, results indicated that FOC mediates the relationship between perceived job insecurity and burnout (estimate = .21, 95% CI [.12, .32]); the relationship between perceived job insecurity and emotional exhaustion (estimate = .08, 95% CI [.04, .14]); and the relationship between perceived job insecurity and disengagement (estimate = .13, 95% CI [.07, .19]).

A secondary analysis revealed that the pandemic likely affected the degree to which participants experienced perceived job insecurity, FOC, burnout, emotional exhaustion, and

disengagement. While that is so, it is important to note that participants probably experienced perceived job insecurity, FOC, burnout, emotional exhaustion, and disengagement prior to the pandemic. In addition, data collected about the pandemic was for contextual purposes therefore the direct effect of the pandemic on the main study variables was not directly examined. Furthermore, 4IR was used as a context to rationalise the presence of perceived job insecurity. In addition, research from before (Ayentimi & Burgess, 2019; Pereira & Romero, 2017; Shook & Knickrehm, 2016) and emerging during the pandemic (Sutherland, 2020) indicates that organisations are still in the grip of 4IR and that the pandemic hastened the uptake of 4IR (Acemoglu & Restrepo, 2020) therefore, the prevalence rate of job insecurity will likely increase, consequently increasing the experience of FOC, burnout, emotional exhaustion and disengagement.

Researchers are encouraged to conduct studies focused on: collecting qualitative data on the experience of FOC; establishing the relationship between FOC and organisational outcomes; identifying similarities and differences that may exist between negative and positive employee outcomes in relation to the use of FOC; a non-biased sample in order to yield results that are generalisable to the general working population; focused samples of specific minorities and longitudinal studies that can trace the development of facades over-time. Notably, FOC is a relatively new conversation amongst local researchers therefore presents significant opportunity to gain insight into the experience of employees working locally.

Similarly, organisational leaders are encouraged to foster working environments that accept different identities and encourage the expression of divergent points of view. In addition, organisational leaders are encouraged to deal with burnout proactively and equip employees with the skills necessary to cope with the effects of 4IR and the pandemic on completing job tasks. That said, the effects of the pandemic and 4IR, such as a depressed economy (Ayentimi

& Burgess, 2019; Sutherland, 2020) limit the ability of organisational leaders to support employees under the current working conditions.

References

Acemoglu, D., & Restrepo, P. (2020). Robots and jobs: evidence from US labor markets. *Journal of Political Economy*, *128*(6), 2188–2244. https://doi.org/10.1086/705716

Adam, C., Henstridge, M., & Lee, S. (2004). After the lockdown: macroeconomic adjustment to the COVID-19 pandemic in sub-Saharan Africa. 21.

Adams, S. A. (2005). The effect of social desirability and social approval on self-reports of physical Activity. *American Journal of Epidemiology*, *161*(4), 389–398. doi.org/10.1093/aje/kwi054

Ahmed, A. M., & Hammarstedt, M. (2009). Detecting discrimination against homosexuals: evidence from a field experiment on the internet. *Economica*, *76*(303), 588–597. doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-0335.2008.00692

Akbar, F., & Akhtar, S. (2018). Relationship of LMX and agreeableness with emotional exhaustion: a mediated moderated model. *Current Psychology*, *37*(4), 862–874. doi.org/10.1007/s12144-017-9566-z

Anjum, M. M., & Shah, D. Z. A. (n.d.). Creation of facades of conformity in organizations—a moderated-mediation model of antecedents and outcomes. 191.

Asiwe, D. N., Jorgensen, L. I., & Hill, C. (2014). The development and investigation of the psychometric properties of a burnout scale within a South African agricultural research institution. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *40*(1), 14 pages. doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v40i1.1194

Ayentimi, D. T., & Burgess, J. (2019). Is the fourth industrial revolution relevant to sub-Sahara Africa? *Technology Analysis & Strategic Management*, *31*(6), 641–652. doi.org/10.1080/09537325.2018.1542129

Bahari, S. F. (2010). Qualitative versus quantitative research strategies: contrasting epistemological and ontological assumptions. 12.

Baldry, K. (2016). Graduate unemployment in South Africa: Social inequality reproduced. *Journal of Education and Work*, *29*(7), 788–812. doi.org/10.1080/13639080.2015.1066928

Baumeister, R. F. (1982). A self-presentational view of social phenomena. 24.

Bellou, V., & Chatzinikou, I. (2015). Preventing employee burnout during episodic organizational changes. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, *28*(5), 673–688. doi.org/10.1108/JOCM-11-2014-0197

Bourdieu, P. (1986). The forms of capital. 15.

Chisanga, T., & Alu, N. M. K. (1997). Owning the other tongue: the english language in Southern Africa. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 12.

Chiu, S.-F., & Tsai, M.-C. (2006). Relationships among burnout, job involvement, and organizational citizenship behavior. *The Journal of Psychology*, *140*(6), 517–530. doi.org/10.3200/JRLP.140.6.517-530

Chou, H.-H., Fang, S.-C., & Yeh, T.-K. (2019). The effects of facades of conformity on employee voice and job satisfaction: the mediating role of emotional exhaustion. *Management Decision*, *58*(3), 495–509. doi.org/10.1108/MD-04-2019-0492

Chrobot-Mason, D., & Thomas, K. M. (2002). minority employees in majority organizations: the intersection of individual and organizational racial identity in the workplace. *Human Resource Development Review*, *1*(3), 323–344. doi.org/10.1177/1534484302013004

Cordes, C. L., Dougherty, T. W., & Blum, M. (1997). patterns of burnout among managers and professionals: a comparison of models. 18.

Culotta, A. (2014). Reducing sampling bias in social media data for county health inference. 12.

Currarini, S. (2016). Identity, homophily and in-group bias. *European Economic Review*, 16.

Daoud, J. I. (2017). Multicollinearity and regression analysis. *Journal of Physics*, 7.

De Beer, L. T., Pienaar, J., & Rothmann, S. (2013). Investigating the reversed causality of engagement and burnout in job demands-resources theory. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *39*(1), 9 pages. doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v39i1.1055

De Villiers, C., Cerbone, D., & Van Zijl, W. (2020). The South African government's response to COVID-19. *Journal of Public Budgeting, Accounting & Financial Management*, *32*(5), 797–811. doi.org/10.1108/JPBAFM-07-2020-0120

De Witte, H. D. (1999). Job Insecurity and psychological well-being: review of the literature and exploration of some unresolved issues. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *8*(2), 155–177. doi.org/10.1080/135943299398302

De Witte, H. (2005). Job insecurity: review of the international literature on definitions, prevalence, antecedents and consequences. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *31*(4). doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v31i4.200

Dekker, S. W. A., & Schaufeli, W. B. (1995). The Effects of job insecurity on psychological health and withdrawal: a longitudinal study. *Australian Psychologist*, *30*(1), 57–63. doi.org/10.1080/00050069508259607

Demerouti, E. (2007). measurement of burnout. 25.

Demerouti, E., & Bakker, A. B. (2011). The Job Demands–Resources model: challenges for future research. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *37*(2), 1–9. doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v37i2.974

Demerouti, E., Bakker, A. B., Nachreiner, F., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2001). The job demands-resources model of burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*(3), 499–512. doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.3.499

Denton, M., & Vloeberghs, D. (2003). Leadership challenges for organisations in the new South Africa. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *24*(2), 84–95. doi.org/10.1108/01437730310463279

Digman, J. M. (1990). Personality structure: emergence of the five-factor model. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *41*(1), 417–440. doi.org/10.1146/annurev.ps.41.020190.002221

Doblhofer, D. S., Hauser, A., Kuonath, A., Haas, K., Agthe, M., & Frey, D. (2019). Make the best out of the bad: coping with value incongruence through displaying facades of conformity, positive reframing, and self-disclosure. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *28*(5), 572–593. doi.org/10.1080/1359432X.2019.1567579

Du Plooy, J., & Roodt, G. (2010). Work engagement, burnout and related constructs as predictors of turnover intentions. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *36*(1), 13 pages. doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v36i1.910

Dubale, B. W., Friedman, L. E., Chemali, Z., Denninger, J. W., Mehta, D. H., Alem, A., Fricchione, G. L., Dossett, M. L., & Gelaye, B. (2019). Systematic review of burnout among healthcare providers in sub-Saharan Africa. *BMC Public Health*, *19*(1), 1247. doi.org/10.1186/s12889-019-7566-7

Dyląg, A., Jaworek, M., Karwowski, W., Kożusznik, M., & Marek, T. (2013). Discrepancy between individual and organizational values: Occupational burnout and work engagement among white-collar workers. *International Journal of Industrial Ergonomics*, *43*(3), 225–231. doi.org/10.1016/j.ergon.2013.01.002

Eaton, L., & Louw, J. (2000). Culture and self in South Africa: individualism-collectivism predictions. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, *140*(2), 210–217. doi.org/10.1080/00224540009600461

Gouda, M. A. (2015). Common pitfalls in reporting the use of SPSS software. *Medical Principles and Practice*, *24*(3), 300–300. doi.org/10.1159/000381953

Greenhalgh, L., & Rosenblatt, Z. (2010). Evolution of research on job insecurity. *International Studies of Management & Organization*, *40*(1), 6–19. doi.org/10.2753/IMO0020-8825400101

Hansen, A., Buitendach, J. H., & Kanengoni, H. (2015). Psychological capital, subjective well-being, burnout and job satisfaction amongst educators in the Umlazi region in South Africa. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, *13*(1), 9 pages. doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v13i1.621

Hayman, J. R. (2009). Flexible work arrangements: exploring the linkages between perceived usability of flexible work schedules and work/life balance. *Community, Work & Family*, *12*(3), 327–338. doi.org/10.1080/13668800902966331

Hellgren, J., Sverke, M., & Isaksson, K. (1999). A two-dimensional approach to job insecurity: consequences for employee attitudes and well-being. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *8*(2), 179–195. doi.org/10.1080/135943299398311

Hewlin, P. F. (2003). And the award for best actor goes to….: facades of conformity in organizational settings. *Academy of Management Review*, 11.

Hewlin, P. F. (2009). wearing the cloak: antecedents and consequences of creating facades of conformity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *94*(3), 727–741. doi.org/10.1037/a0015228

Hewlin, P. F., Kim, S. S., & Song, Y. H. (2016). Creating facades of conformity in the face of job insecurity: a study of consequences and conditions. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *89*(3), 539–567. doi.org/10.1111/joop.12140

Hewlin, P. F., Dumas, T. L., & Burnett, M. F. (2017). To thine own self be true? facades of conformity, values incongruence, and the moderating impact of leader integrity. *Academy of Management Journal, 60*(1), 178-199.

Hofhuis, J., Van der Zee, K. I., & Otten, S. (2014). Comparing antecedents of voluntary job turnover among majority and minority employees. *Equality, Diversity and Inclusion: An International Journal*, *33*(8), 735–749. doi.org/10.1108/EDI-09-2013-0071

Jordan, P. J., & Troth, A. C. (2020). Common method bias in applied settings: the dilemma of researching in organizations. *Australian Journal of Management*, *45*(1), 3–14. doi.org/10.1177/0312896219871976

Jourdain, G., & Chênevert, D. (2015). The moderating influence of perceived organizational values on the burnout-absenteeism relationship. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *30*(1), 177–191. doi.org/10.1007/s10869-014-9346-9

Jr, J. A. R. (2011). Bootstrapping analysis, inferential statistics and excel. 25.

Kekgonegile, K. (2014). The impact of talent management on burnout and turnover intention of employees in the Botswana mining industry. 115.

Khunwane, E. N. (2006). The effects of teacher burnout in a school curriculum: a case study of community junior secondary schools in the southern region of Botswana (Doctoral dissertation).

Klandermans, B., & van Vuuren, T. (1999). Job insecurity:introduction. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *8*(2), 145–153. doi.org/10.1080/135943299398294

Kristof-Brown, A. L., Zimmerman, R. D., & Johnson, E. C. (2005). Consequences of individuals' fit at work: a meta-analysis of person-job, person-organization, person-

group, and person-supervisor fit. *Personnel Psychology*, *58*(2), 281–342. doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2005.00672.x

Krook, M. L., & O'Brien, D. Z. (2010). The politics of group representation: quotas for women and minorities worldwide. *Comparative Politics*, *42*(3), 253–272. doi.org/10.5129/001041510X12911363509639

Laher, S. (2016). *Ostinato rigore*: establishing methodological rigour in quantitative research. *South African Journal of Psychology*, *46*(3), 316–327. doi.org/10.1177/0081246316649121

Ledikwe, J. H., Kleinman, N. J., Mpho, M., Mothibedi, H., Mawandia, S., Semo, B., & O'Malley, G. (2018). Associations between healthcare worker participation in workplace wellness activities and job satisfaction, occupational stress and burnout: a cross-sectional study in Botswana. *BMJ Open*, *8*(3), e018492. doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2017-018492

Logan, D. E., Claar, R. L., & Scharff, L. (2008). Social desirability response bias and self-report of psychological distress in pediatric chronic pain patients. *Pain*, *136*(3), 366–372. doi.org/10.1016/j.pain.2007.07.015

Lone, S. A., & Ahmad, A. (2020). COVID-19 pandemic – an african perspective. *Emerging Microbes & Infections*, *9*(1), 1300–1308. doi.org/10.1080/22221751.2020.1775132

Lowe, G. S., & Krahn, H. (1995). Job-related education and training among younger workers. *Canadian Public Policy / Analyse de Politiques*, *21*(3), 362. doi.org/10.2307/3552093

Maslach, C. (1982). Burnout: the cost of caring. *Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.*

Maslow, A.H. (1943). "A theory of human motivation". *In Psychological Review, 50 (4), 430-437*

McCall, L. (2005). The complexity of intersectionality. *Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society*, *30*(3), 1771–1800. doi.org/10.1086/426800

McKibben, W. B., & Silvia, P. J. (2017). Evaluating the distorting effects of inattentive responding and social desirability on self-report scales in creativity and the arts. *The Journal of Creative Behavior*, *51*(1), 57–69. doi.org/10.1002/jocb.86

Mhlanga, D., & Moloi, T. (2020). COVID-19 and the digital transformation of education: what are we learning on 4IR in South Africa? *Education Sciences*, *10*(7), 180. doi.org/10.3390/educsci10070180

Moeti-Lysson, J., Sokro, E., & Courvisanos, J. Job insecurity as a predictor of conflict in Botswana construction industry.

Morii, M., Sakagami, T., Masuda, S., Okubo, S., & Tamari, Y. (2017). How does response bias emerge in lengthy sequential preference judgments? *Behaviormetrika*, *44*(2), 575–591. doi.org/10.1007/s41237-017-0036-6

Mostert, K. (2011). Job characteristics, work–home interference and burnout: testing a structural model in the South African context. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *22*(5), 1036–1053. doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2011.556777

Motala, S., & Menon, K. (2020). In search of the 'new normal': reflections on teaching and learning during Covid-19 in a South African university. 21.

Muchiri, M. K., & Ayoko, O. B. (2013). Linking demographic diversity to organisational outcomes: the moderating role of transformational leadership. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *34*(5), 384–406. doi.org/10.1108/LODJ-11-0086

Newsom, J. (2020). Testing mediation with regression analysis. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 4.

Ngowi, A. B. (2000). Impact of culture on the application of TQM in the construction industry in Botswana. *International Journal of Quality & Reliability Management*, *17*(4/5), 442–452. doi.org/10.1108/02656710010298517

Ozer, D. J. (1985). Correlation and the coefficient of determination. *Psychological bulletin*, *97*(2), 307.

Pereira, A. C., & Romero, F. (2017). A review of the meanings and the implications of the Industry 4.0 concept. *Procedia Manufacturing*, *13*, 1206–1214. doi.org/10.1016/j.promfg.2017.09.032

Pheko, D. B. C. (2015). Factors associated with teacher burnout in some Gaborone secondary schools in Botswana. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 13.

Phillips, T. N., Williams, F., & Kirkman, D. (2016). An examination of façades of conformity as a social mobility strategy. 17.

Pienaar, J., Witte, H. D., Hellgren, J., & Sverke, M. (2013). The cognitive/affective distinction of job insecurity: validation and differential relations. 22.

Pooja, A. A., De Clercq, D., & Belausteguigoitia, I. (2016). Job stressors and organizational citizenship behavior: The roles of organizational commitment and social interaction: job stressors and organizational citizenship behavior. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *27*(3), 373–405. doi.org/10.1002/hrdq.21258

Prasad, M., Wahlqvist, P., Shikiar, R., & Shih, Y.-C. T. (2004). A review of self-report instruments measuring health-related work productivity: a patient-reported outcomes perspective. *PharmacoEconomics*, *22*(4), 225–244. doi.org/10.2165/00019053-200422040-00002

Randel, A. E., Galvin, B. M., Shore, L. M., Ehrhart, K. H., Chung, B. G., Dean, M. A., & Kedharnath, U. (2018). Inclusive leadership: realizing positive outcomes through

belongingness and being valued for uniqueness. *Human Resource Management Review*, *28*(2), 190–203. doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2017.07.002

Rastogi, A., Pati, S. P., Krishnan, T. N., & Krishnan, S. (2018). Causes, contingencies, and consequences of disengagement at work: an integrative literature review. *Human Resource Development Review*, *17*(1), 62–94. doi.org/10.1177/1534484317754160

Reisel, W. D., Probst, T. M., Chia, S.-L., Maloles, C. M., & König, C. J. (2010). The effects of job insecurity on job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, deviant behavior, and negative emotions of employees. *International Studies of Management & Organization*, *40*(1), 74–91. doi.org/10.2753/IMO0020-8825400105

Schultz, G., Mostert, K., & Rothmann, I. (2012). Repetitive strain injury among South African employees: the relationship with burnout and work engagement. *International Journal of Industrial Ergonomics*, *42*(5), 449–456. doi.org/10.1016/j.ergon.2012.06.003

Sesen, H., Cetin, F., & Basim, H. N. (2011). The effect of burnout on organizational citizenship behaviour: the mediating role of job satisfaction. *Administrative Sciences*, *1*, 26.

Shook, E., & Knickrehm, M. (2016). Reworking the revolution. *Agora*, *51*(1), 67.

Ślusarczyk, B. (2018). Industry 4.0 – are we ready? *Polish Journal of Management Studies*, *17*(1), 232–248. doi.org/10.17512/pjms.2018.17.1.19

Stander, M. W., & Rothmann, S. (2010). Psychological empowerment, job insecurity and employee engagement. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *36*(1), 8 pages. doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v36i1.849

Stormer, F., & Devine, K. (2008). Acting at work: façades of conformity in academia. *Journal of Management Inquiry*, *17*(2), 112–134. doi.org/10.1177/1056492607310983

Sutherland, E. (2020). The fourth industrial revolution – the case of South Africa. *Politikon*, *47*(2), 233–252. doi.org/10.1080/02589346.2019.1696003

Sverke, M., Hellgren, J., & Näswall, K. (2002). No security: a meta-analysis and review of job insecurity and its consequences. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *7*(3), 242–264. doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.7.3.242

Sykes, A. O. (1993). An introduction to regression analysis. 34.

Thomas, A. (2002). Employment equity in South Africa: lessons from the global school. *International Journal of Manpower*, *23*(3), 237–255. doi.org/10.1108/01437720210432211

Van Borm, H., & Baert, S. (2018). What drives hiring discrimination against transgenders? *International Journal of Manpower*, *39*(4), 581–599. doi.org/10.1108/IJM-09-2017-0233

Van der Colff, J. J., & Rothmann, S. (2009). Occupational stress, sense of coherence, coping, burnout and work engagement of registered nurses in South Africa. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *35*(1), 10 pages. doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v35i1.423

Van Wyk, M., & Pienaar, J. (2008). Towards a research agenda for job insecurity in South Africa. 38.

Vander Elst, T., Van den Broeck, A., De Cuyper, N., & De Witte, H. (2014). On the reciprocal relationship between job insecurity and employee well-being: Mediation by perceived control? *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *87*(4), 671–693. doi.org/10.1111/joop.12068

Viljoen, E. (2008). Job insecurity, burnout, job engagement and psychological well-being of workers at a government organisation. 74.

Westmoreland, K. D., Lowenthal, E. D., Finalle, R., Mazhani, L., Cox, M., Mwita, J. C., Mphele, S. B., Turner, C. E., & Steenhoff, A. P. (2017). Registrar wellness in Botswana: measuring burnout and identifying ways to improve wellness. *African*

Journal of Health Professions Education, *9*(3), 98. doi.org/10.7196/AJHPE.2017.v9i3.881

World Economic Forum. (2018). The future of jobs 2018. *In Executive Summary*. doi.org/10.1177/1946756712473437

Wu, A. D., & Zumbo, B. D. (2008). understanding and using mediators and moderators. *Social Indicators Research*, *87*(3), 367–392. doi.org/10.1007/s11205-007-9143-1

Appendices

Appendix A (Instrument)

Good day,

This questionnaire pertains to the Master's research of Tshepo Tumelo at the University of the Witwatersrand. The study focuses on burnout in unpredictable work environments, such as Covid-19, and the extent to which individuals supress personal values in order to cope. A participation information sheet (PIS) has been circulated simultaneously and describes the study in detail.

Thank you for volunteering to complete the questionnaire which takes approximately 10-15 minutes. You are free to withdraw from the study up until the point of submission. Confidentiality and anonymity will be maintained throughout the study.

Please remember to click 'Submit' at the end of the questionnaire. Thank you again.

Clicking on the item below indicates informed consent:

○ I understand what this research is about and give my informed consent to participate in this study.

For each question, please select the answer category that best describes you

1. How would you describe your current employment status?

○ Unemployed
○ Employed full time
○ Employed part time
○ Self-employed

Other (please specify):

2.Which of the following categories best describes your current occupational level?

○ Top management

○ Senior management

○ Professionally qualified, experienced specialist and mid-management

○ Skilled technical and academically qualified worker, junior management, supervisor, foreman, superintendent

○ Semi-skilled

○ Unskilled

3. Which country you are currently working from?

4. Are you currently working-from-home or in your workplace?

○ Working-from-home

○ Workplace

Other (please specify):

5. At what lockdown level did you return to your workplace?

○ Level 5

○ Level 4

○ Level 3

○ Level 2

○ Level 1

○ I have not returned to my workplace

6. To what extent has your work been disrupted due to the Covid-19 pandemic?

○ Not at All

○ Very Little

○ Somewhat

○ To a Great Extent

7. What challenges have you faced due to the changes caused by the Covid-19 pandemic?

(Please select one or more)

○ Technological and/or data challenges

○ Loneliness

○ Fear of the unknown

○ Job deadline challenges

○ Lack of childcare

○ Financial challenges

[ ]

8. Which of the following categories best describes the sector you primarily work in (regardless of your actual position)?

○ Agriculture

○ Finance

○ Government

○ Trade

○ Manufacturing or production

○ Transport and communication

○ Mining

○ Personal services

○ Education

○ Sales

Other (please specify):

[ ]

9. How would you describe your employment status before the Covid-19 pandemic?

○ Unemployed

○ Employed full time

○ Employed part time

○ Self-employed

Other (please specify):

10. What is your age?

11. What is your gender?

○ Female

○ Male

12. What is your race?

○ Black

○ Coloured

○ White

○ Indian

○ Other

13. What is your highest level of education?

○ Matric/ BGCSE/IGCSE

○ Diploma

○ Certificate

○ Bachelors Degree

○ Postgraduate

14. For how many years have you worked in your organisation?

For each statement please select the answer category that best describes you

Job Insecurity Inventory (JII):

15.I think that I will be able to continue working in my current organisation *(reversed)*

○ strongly disagree
○ disagree
○ neutral
○ agree
○ strongly agree

(The above answer categories were repeated for scale items 15-22)

16.There is only a small chance that I will become unemployed *(reversed)*

17.I am certain/sure of my job environment *(reversed)*

18.I am very sure that I will be able to keep my job *(reversed)*

19.I feel uncertain about the future of my job

20.I worry about the continuation of my career

21.I fear that I might lose my job

22. I fear that I might get fired

Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI):

23.I always find new and interesting aspects in my work. *(reversed) (disengagement)*

○ strongly disagree
○ disagree
○ agree
○ strongly agree

(The above answer categories were repeated for the scale items 23-38)

24. It happens more and more often that I talk about my work in a negative way. *(disengagement)*

25.Lately, I tend to think less about my work tasks and do them almost mechanically. *(disengagement)*

26.I find my work to be a positive challenge. *(reversed) (disengagement)*

27.Over time, one can become disconnected from this type of work. *(disengagement)*

28.Sometimes I feel sickened by my work. *(disengagement)*

29.This is the only field of work that I can imagine myself doing. *(reversed) (disengagement)*

30.I feel more and more engaged in my work. *(reversed) (disengagement)*

31.There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work.

32.After work, I tend to need more time than in the past in order to relax and feel better.

33.I can tolerate the pressure of my work very well. *(reversed)*

34.While working, I often feel emotionally drained.

35.After work, I have enough energy for my leisure activities. *(reversed)*

36.After work, I usually feel worn out and weary.

37.I can usually manage my workload well. *(reversed)*

38.When I work, I usually feel energized. *(reversed)*

Facades of Conformity (FOC):

39.I don't share certain things about myself in order to fit in at work.

○ never
○ not often
○ sometimes
○ often
○ always

(These answer categories were repeated for scale items 39 -44)

40.I suppress personal values that are different from those of the organization.

41.I withhold personal values that conflict with organizational values.

42. I "play politics" by pretending to embrace organizational values. *(rephrased from "I don't "play politics" by pretending to embrace organizational values" therefore, not reversed)*

43.I behave in a manner that reflects the organization's value system even though it is inconsistent with my personal values.

44.I say things that I don’t really believe at work

Appendix B (Request for Access)

PSYCHOLOGY
THE SCHOOL OF HUMAN AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT (SHCD)

Private Bag 3, Wits, 2050 · Tel: 011 717 4541 · Fax: 011 717 4559 · E-mail: psych.SHCD@wits.ac.za

Request for Access

Good day,

My name is Tshepo Tumelo and I am a master's student in Organisational Psychology at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. As part of my studies I am required to conduct a research project. Given the many sources of uncertainty created by the pandemic, I am examining how genuinely employees express themselves at work in the face of possible feelings of job insecurity and how this relates to burnout. Many organisations are having to find creative solutions to numerous challenges at the moment and this requires open communication. However, when people feel insecure, it is possible that they suppress their true views and pretend to embrace organisational views and values. This could contribute to feelings of burnout and have negative consequences for the organisation. I would like to request permission to invite members of your organisation to participate in this study.

All white collar workers (i.e., 'office' workers, administrative, professional, supervisory and managerial employees) qualify to participate, and I would like to get as many participants as possible. Participation will involve answering a 10-minute online questionnaire that can be accessed through a secure link that I will provide. Participation will be voluntary and individuals will be free to withdraw at any point without consequence until they submit the questionnaire. There will be no direct benefits or disadvantages to participating in the research. Responses will be anonymous, and group rather than individual responses will be reported. In writing up the research results, the name of your organisation will not be mentioned. In addition, I will provide a blog link that will give your organisation access to a summary of the research report on completion of the study.

I would appreciate the opportunity to talk to you about the way forward and can be contacted at the email address or phone number below. You may also direct ethical queries to The University of the Witwatersrand Human Research Ethics Committee (non-medical) at Shaun.schoeman@wits.ac.za.

Yours sincerely,

Tshepo Tumelo
2253664@students.wits.ac.za
+26774915930

Prof. Fiona Donald
Fiona.donald@wits.ac.za
Research supervisor

Appendix C (Participation Information Sheet)

PSYCHOLOGY
THE SCHOOL OF HUMAN AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT (SHCD)

Private Bag 3, Wits, 2050 • Tel: 011 717 4541 • Fax: 011 717 4559 • E-mail: psych.SHCD@wits.ac.za

Participation Information Sheet (PIS)

Good day,

My name is Tshepo Tumelo and I am a master's student in Organisational Psychology at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. As part of my studies I am required to conduct a research project. Given the many sources of uncertainty created by the pandemic, I am examining how genuinely employees express themselves at work in the face of possible feelings of job insecurity and how this relates to burnout. Many organisations are having to find creative solutions to numerous challenges at the moment and this requires open communication. However, when people feel insecure, it is possible that they suppress their true views and pretend to embrace organisational views and values. This could contribute to feelings of burnout and have negative consequences for employees and the organisation.

I would like to invite you to participate in my research. Participation is voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any point without consequence. Your personal information will be kept confidential and anonymity can be guaranteed. Submitting the research questionnaire indicates that you give informed consent. There will be no direct benefits or disadvantages to participating in the research.

I will collect data electronically. You will have access to a link that will direct you to the questionnaire. You can access the link and answer the questions at a time that is convenient for you. It should take approximately 10-15 minutes to answer the questionnaire. I will access your

responses electronically and aggregate them with data from other participants. When analysing the data and reporting the research results your confidentiality and anonymity will be maintained. In addition, I will store the data permanently in an anonymous electronic form on a password protected laptop and use it for future research studies and additional analyses.

In the unlikely event that you are adversely affected by participating in the research you may contact the Wits Emthonjeni centre and request assistance on 011 717 4513 . In addition, you may also direct ethical queries to The University of the Witwatersrand Human Research Ethics Committee (non-medical) at Shaun.schoeman@wits.ac.za.

If you are interested in the research report, I will provide you with a link that will give you access to a summary of the research results. Thank you for taking the time to consider participating in my study.

Yours sincerely,

Tshepo Tumelo
2253664@students.wits.ac.za
+26774915930

Prof. Fiona Donald
Fiona.donald@wits.ac.za
Research supervisor

Appendix D (Consent Form)

PSYCHOLOGY
THE SCHOOL OF HUMAN AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT (SHCD)

Private Bag 3, Wits, 2050 • Tel: 011 717 4541 • Fax: 011 717 4559 • E-mail: psych.SHCD@wits.ac.za

Organisation Consent form

I…… agree to have employees from my organisation participate in the research study investigating Perceived job insecurity, facades of conformity and burnout.

1. I understand that participation is voluntary.
2. I understand that they may withdraw from the research at any time without consequence.
3. I have read and understood the purpose and nature of the research explained in Participant Information Sheet (PIS).
4. I have had the opportunity to ask questions about the research.
5. I understand that participation involves taking part in an electronic questionnaire.
6. I understand that their responses will be used for statistical analysis.
7. I understand that their responses will remain confidential.
8. I understand that they will not benefit directly from participating in the research.
9. I understand that their responses will be stored in a password protected computer.
10. I understand that when compiling the research report their anonymity will be maintained.
11. I understand that they are free to contact the organisations outlined in the PIS in the unlikely event that they are adversely affected by participating in the research.
12. I understand that the research results may be presented at any local/international conferences and/or published in a journal or book.

13. I understand that data collected will be stored permanently in an anonymous electronic form to be used in future research studies and for additional statistical analysis.

Organisation Representative's Name:_____ Signature:_____ Date:_____

Appendix E (Cover E-mail)

PSYCHOLOGY
THE SCHOOL OF HUMAN AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT (SHCD)

REQUEST TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Dear Sir/Ma'am (Will insert name of the HR manager),

My name is Tshepo Tumelo and I am an Organisational Psychology Masters student at the University of the Witwatersrand. I would like to request permission to invite employees from your organisation to participate in my study. The study forms part of my degree requirements and examines the relationship between the level of burnout experienced by employees in unpredictable environments, such as COVID-19, and how employees tend to supress their personal values in attempt to deal with this.

Participation would involve completing a 5 to 10-minute questionnaire online. The questionnaire would be available through a link. Participants' identities and the names of participating organisations will remain anonymous and confidential throughout the study and in the final report.

If you agree to allow employees to participate, please could you confirm in a letter on your company letterhead, as I need this for the university's ethics committee. We can then explore the best way to distribute the link to employees.

Attached is detailed information about the study and an access request letter.

Thank you

Kind regards

Perceived Job Insecurity, Facades of Conformity (FOC) and Burnout

Researcher: Tshepo Naomi Tumelo (2253664@wits.ac.za)

Supervisor: Prof. Fiona Donald (Fiona.Donald@wits.ac.za)

Private Bag 3, Wits, 2050 · Tel: 011 717 4541 · Fax: 011 717 4559 · E-mail: psych.SHCD@wits.ac.za

Appendix F (Ethics Clearance certificate)



SCHOOL OF HUMAN AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT ETHICS COMMITTEE CONSTITUTED UNDER THE UNIVERSITY HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (NON-MEDICAL)

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE: **PROTOCOL NUMBER: MAORG/20/010**

PROJECT TITLE: Threatened & Hidden: Perceived Job Insecurity, Facades of Conformity (FOC) and Burnout

INVESTIGATOR	Tumelo Tshepo (2253664)
SCHOOL/DEPARTMENT OF INVESTIGATOR	SHCD/Psychology
DATE CONSIDERED	12 July 2020
DECISION OF THE COMMITTEE	Approved unconditionally
RISK LEVEL	Minimal Risk
EXPIRY DATE	31 December 2022

ISSUE DATE OF CERTIFICATE 25 July 2020 **CHAIRPERSON**



(Dr Colleen Bernstein)

cc: Prof. Fiona Donald (Supervisor)

DECLARATION OF INVESTIGATOR

To be completed in duplicate and **ONE COPY** returned to the Chairperson of the School/Department ethics committee.

I fully understand the conditions under which I am are authorized to carry out the abovementioned research and I guarantee to ensure compliance with these conditions. Should any departure to be contemplated from the research procedure as approved I/we undertake to resubmit the protocol to the Committee.



Signature **Date** 29 / 07 / 2020

PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER ON ALL ENQUIRIES

Appendix G (Histogram with Bell curve and Q-Q plot)

Figure 5: Histogram with Bell curve (Perceived Job Insecurity)

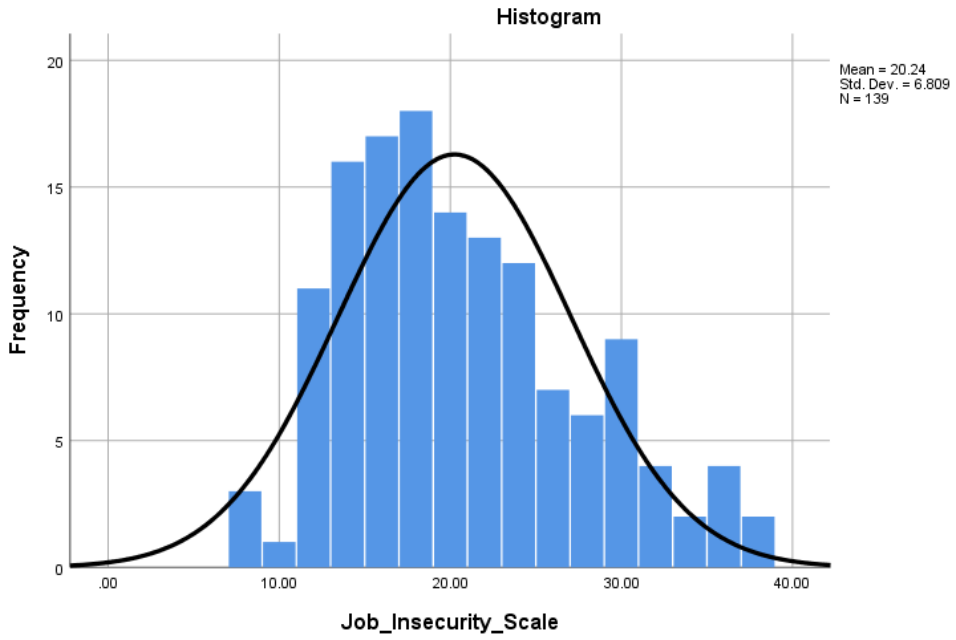


Figure 6: Q-Q Plot (Perceived Job Insecurity)

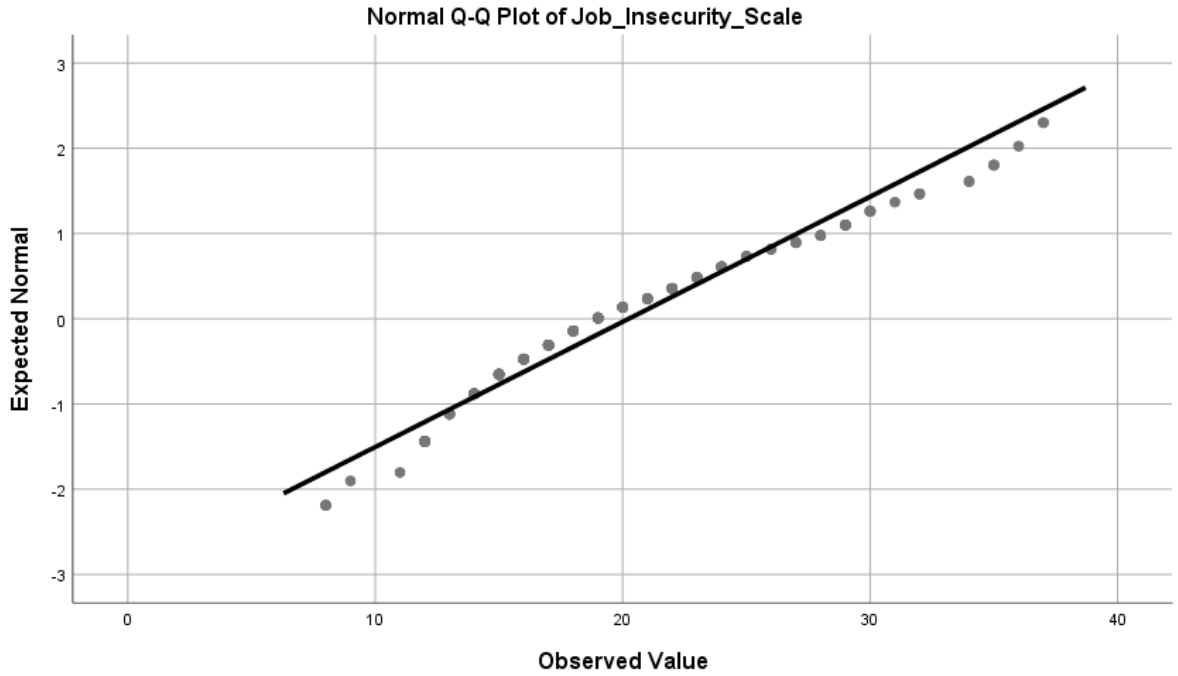


Figure 7: Histogram with Bell curve (FOC)

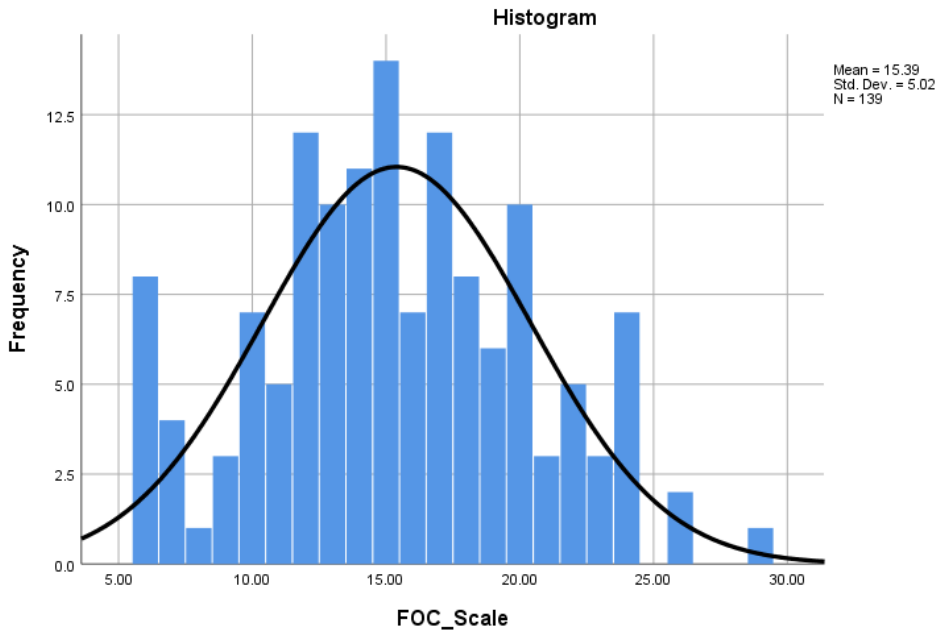


Figure 8: Q-Q Plot (FOC)

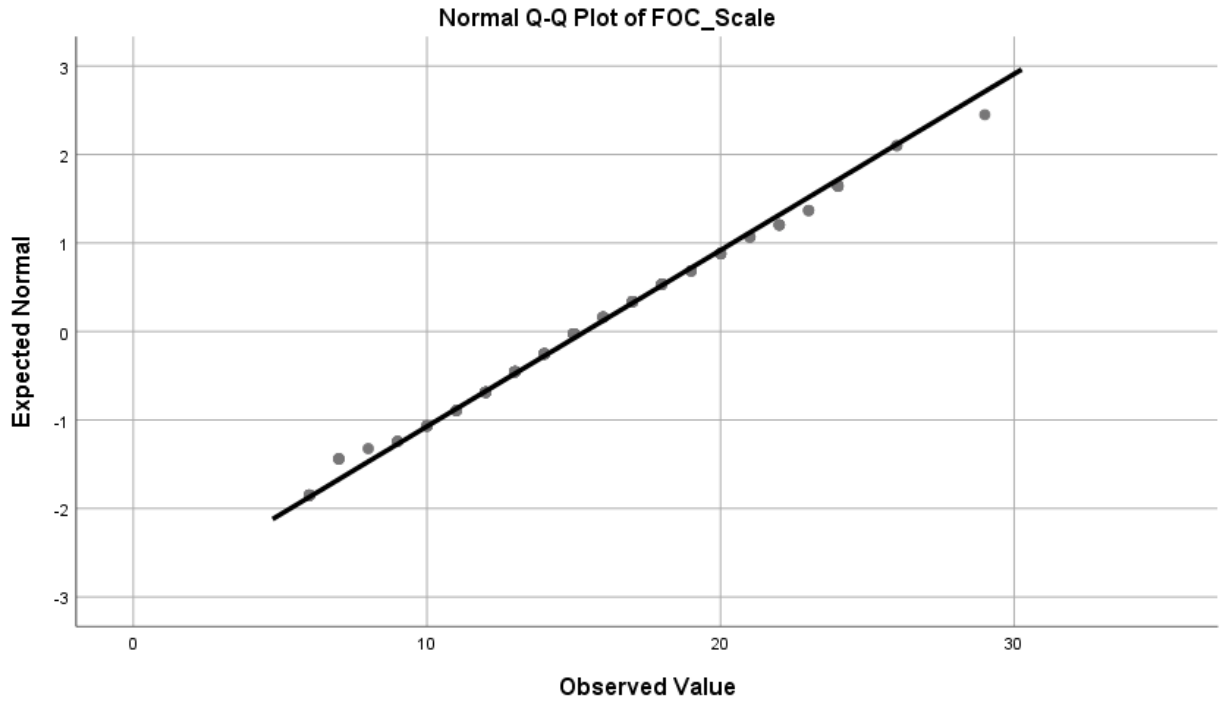


Figure 9: Histogram and Bell curve (Burnout)

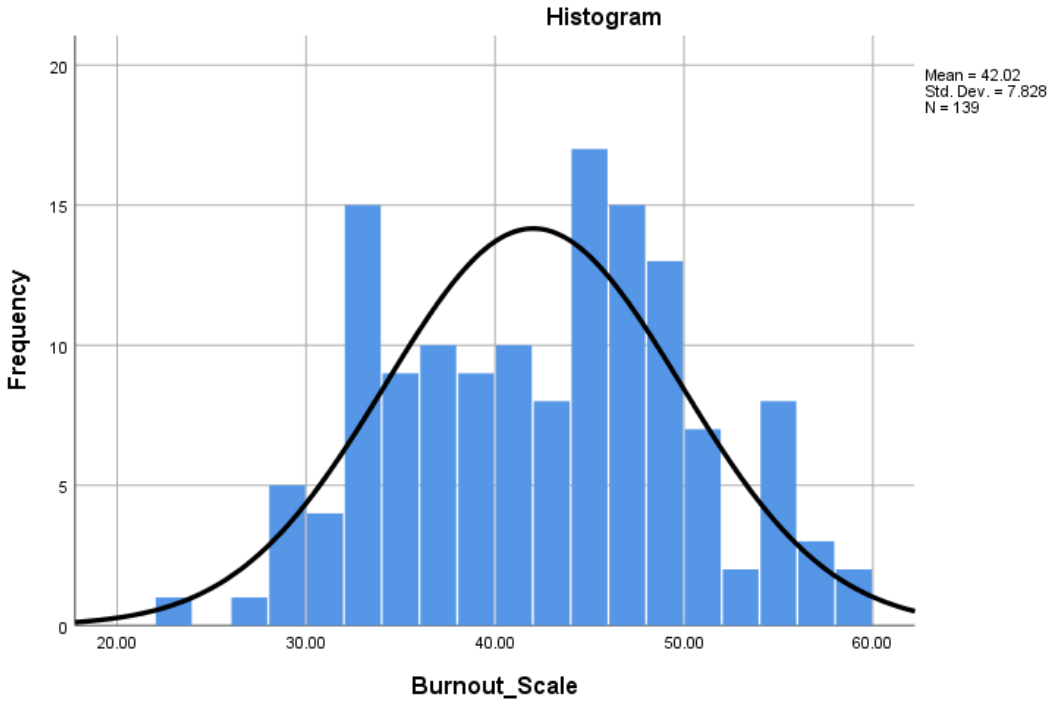


Figure 10: Q-Q Plot (Burnout)

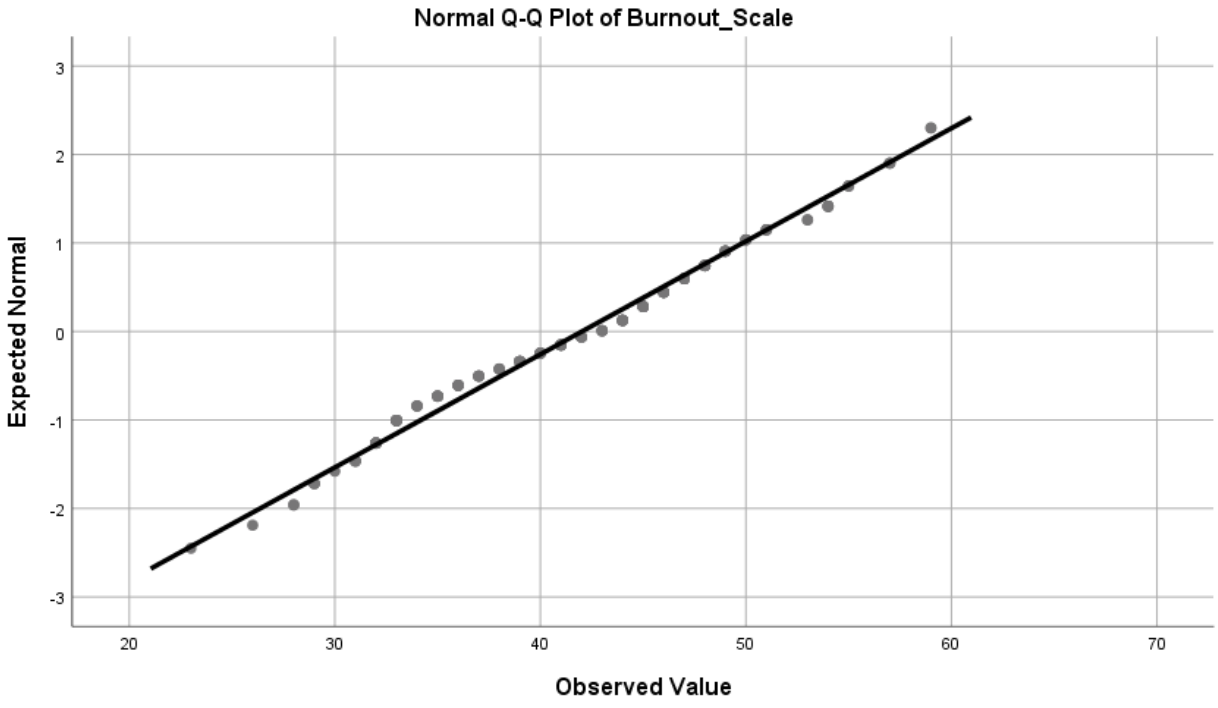


Figure 11: Histogram with Bell curve (Emotional Exhaustion)

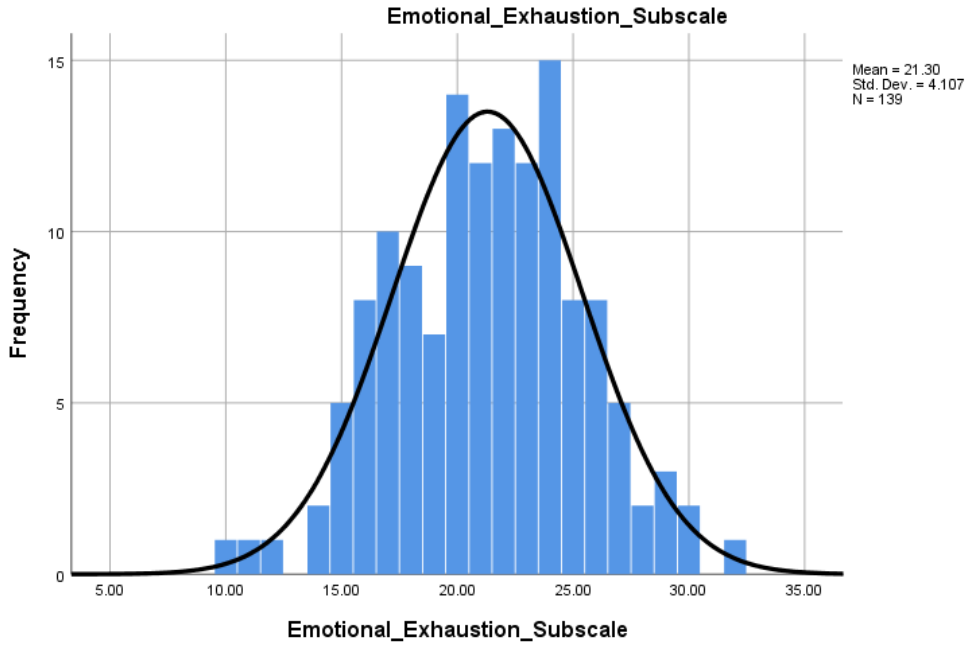


Figure 12: Q-Q Plot (Emotional Exhaustion)

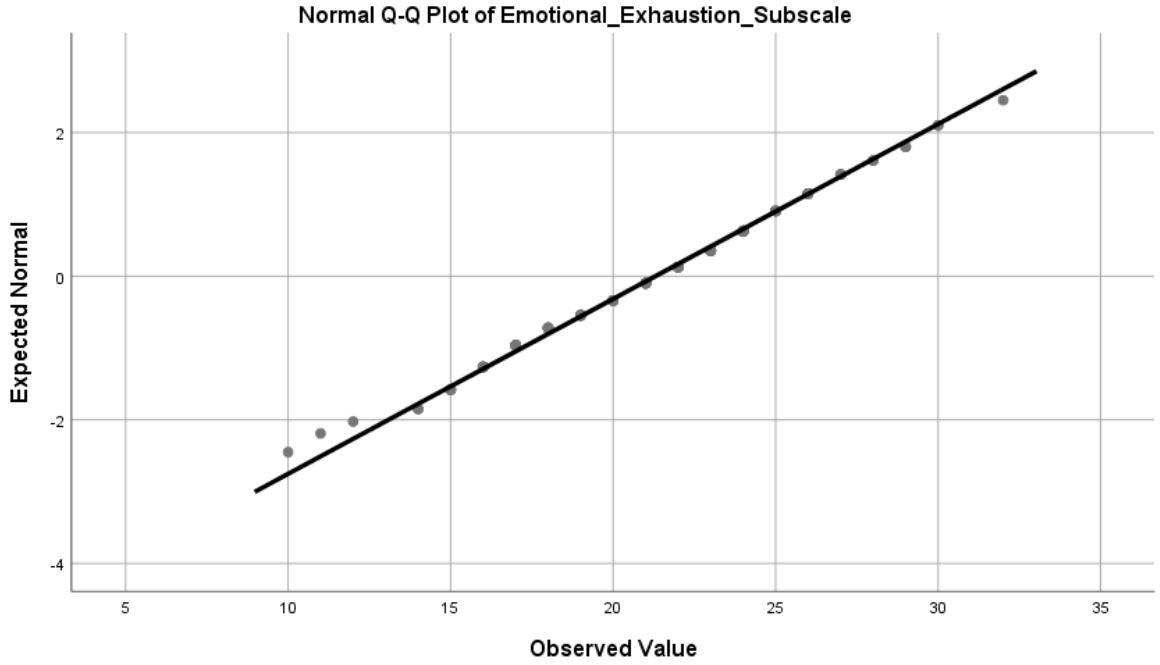


Figure 13: Histogram with Bell curve (Disengagement)

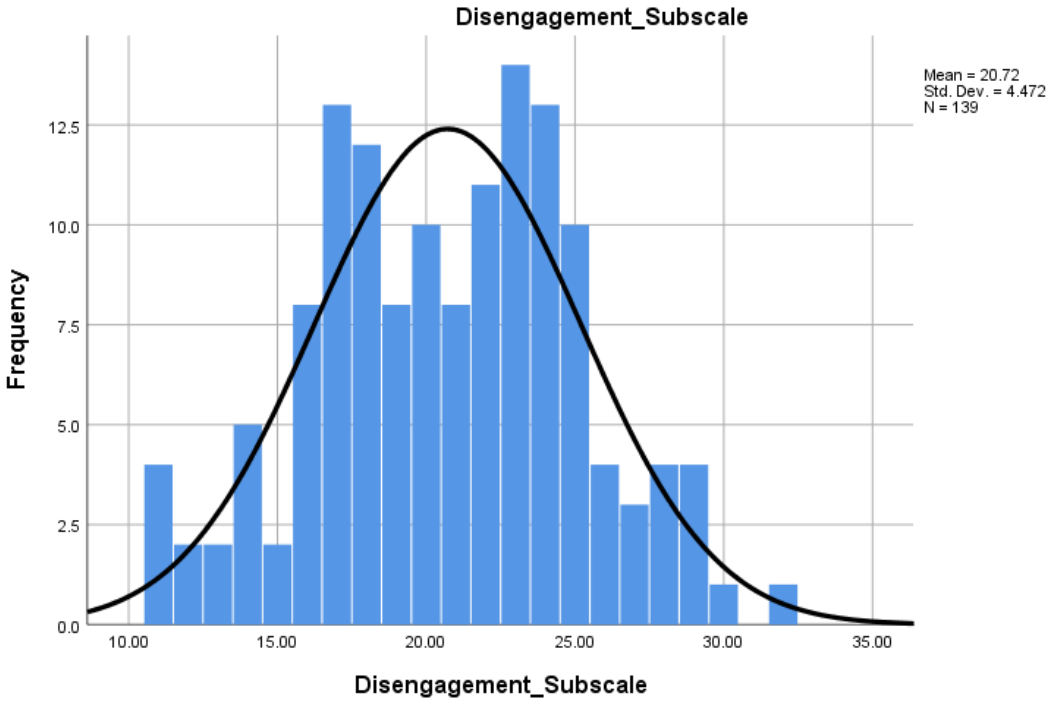
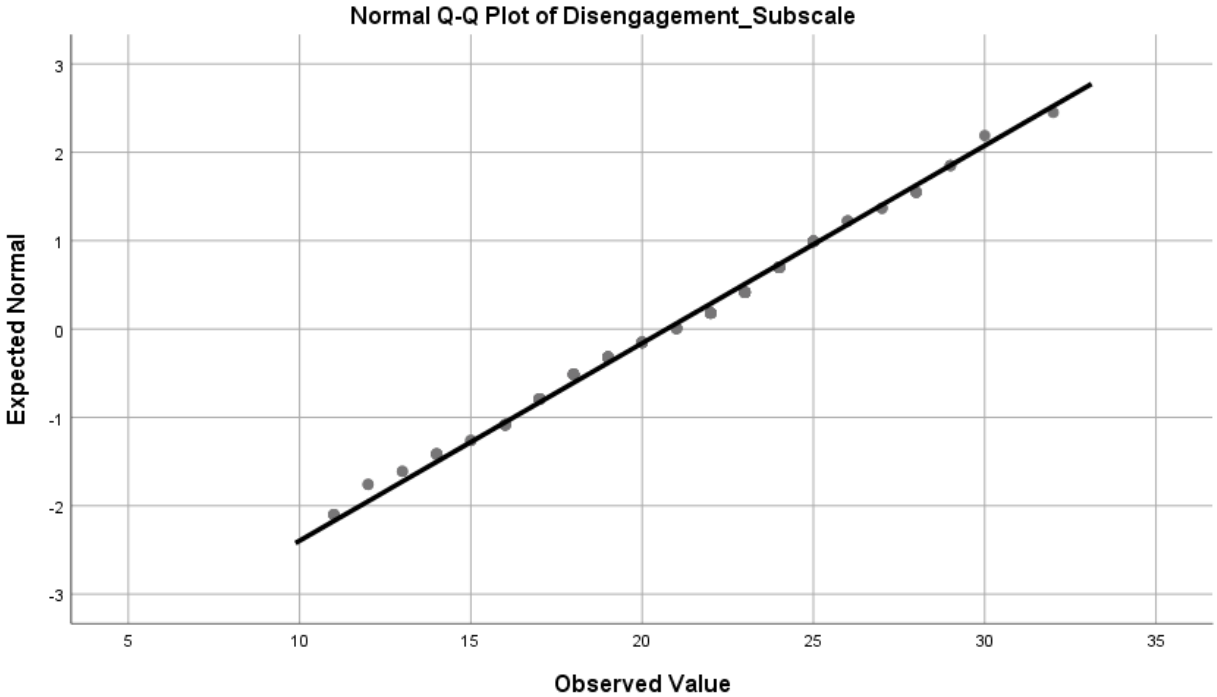


Figure 14: Q-Q Plot (Disengagement)



Appendix H (Assumptions for mediated regression)

Figure 15: Burnout and predictor variables

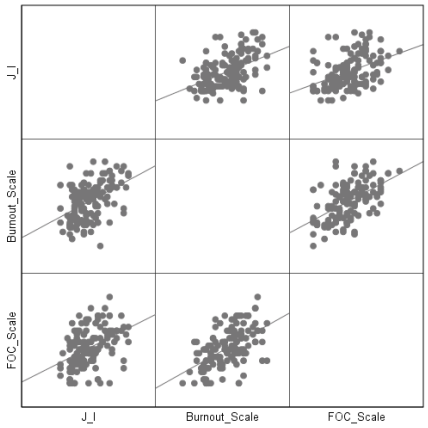


Figure 16: Emotional Exhaustion and predictor variables

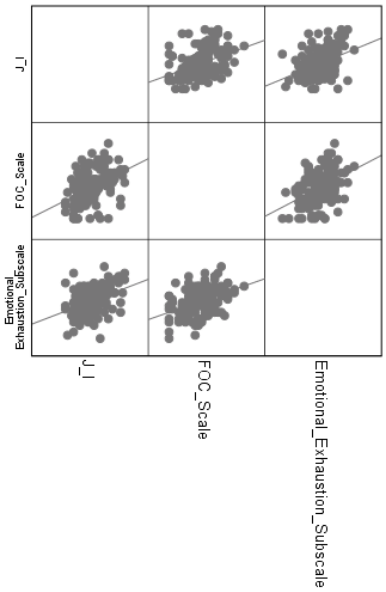


Figure 17: Disengagement and predictor variables

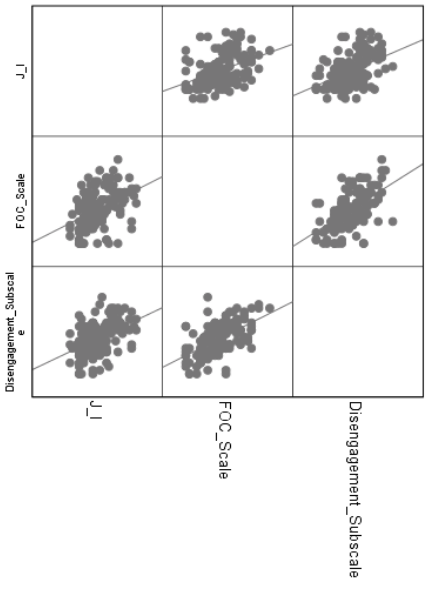


Figure 18: Scatter Plot (Burnout)

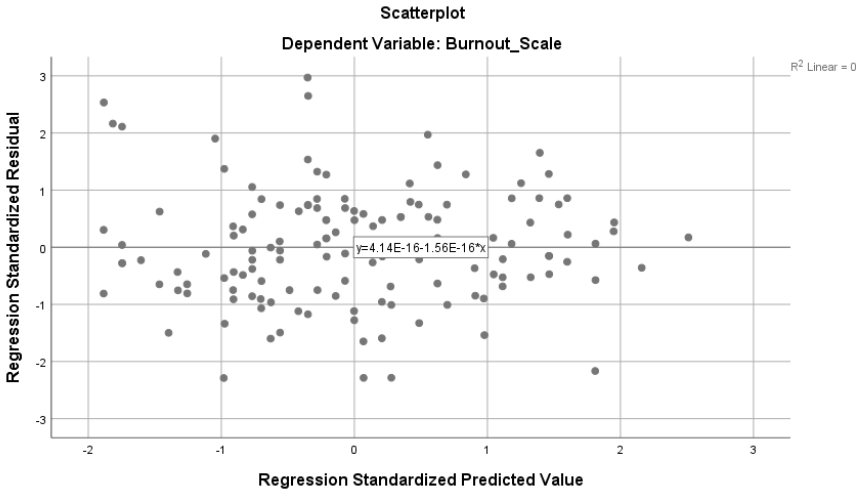


Figure 19: Scatter Plot (Emotional Exhaustion)

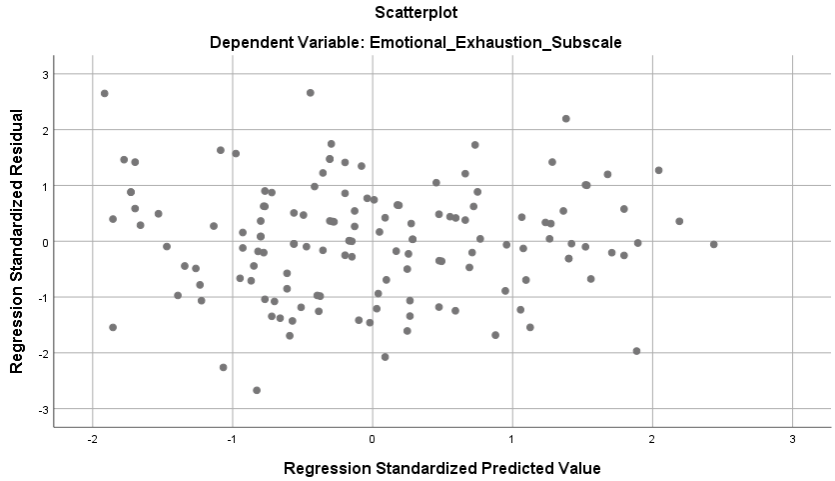


Figure 20: Scatter Plot (Disengagement)

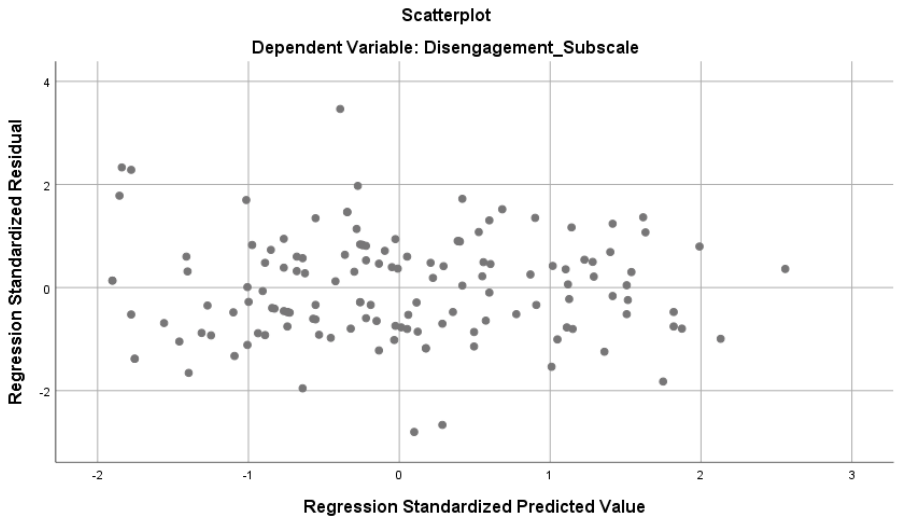


Figure 21: Histogram of standardized residuals (Burnout)

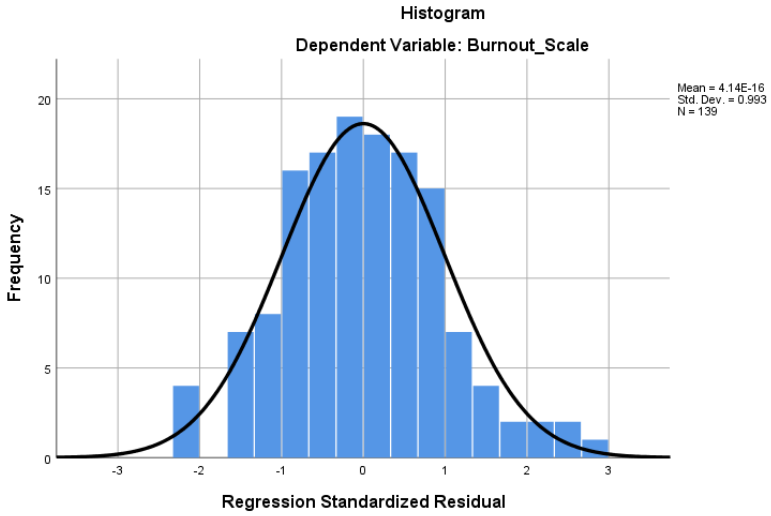


Figure 22: Histogram of standardized residuals (Emotional Exhaustion)

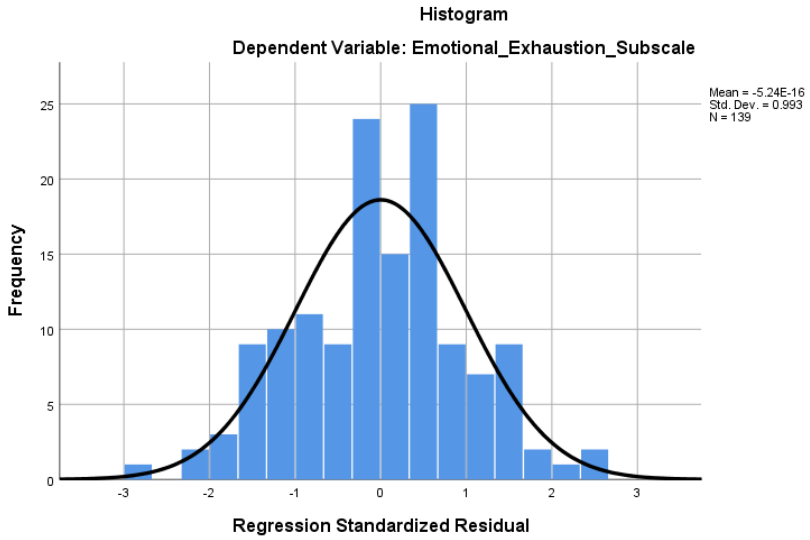


Figure 23: Histogram of standardized residuals (Disengagement)

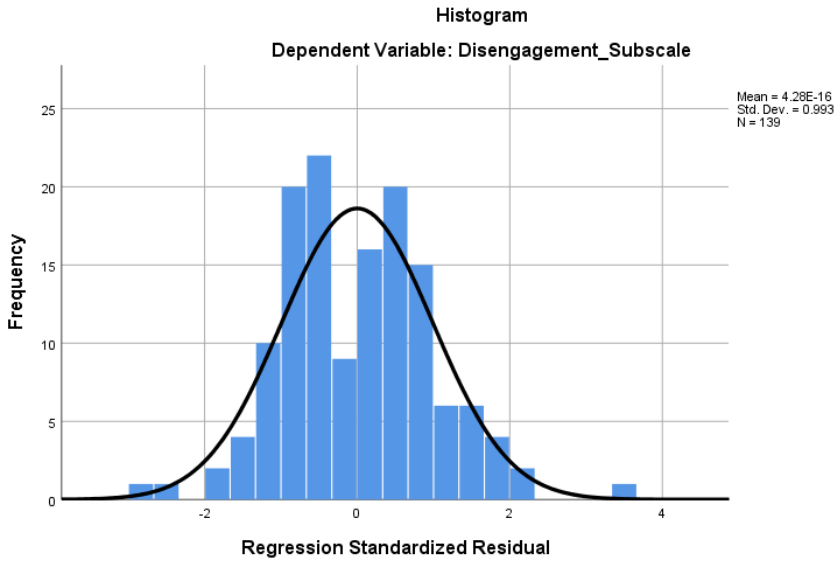


Figure 24: P-P Plot of Std. Residuals (Burnout)

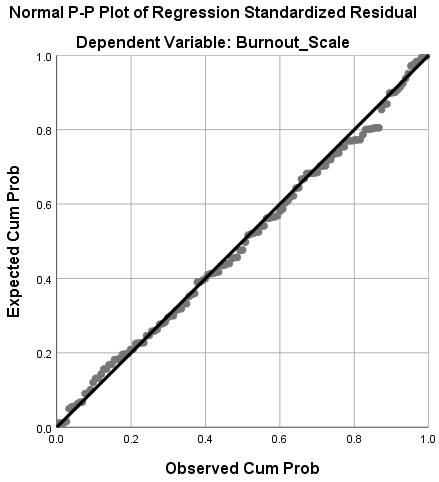


Figure 25: P-P Plot of Std. Residuals (Emotional Exhaustion)

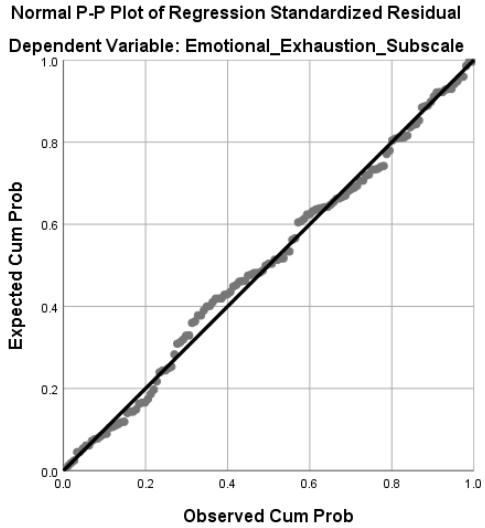


Figure 26: P-P Plot of Std. Residuals (Disengagement)

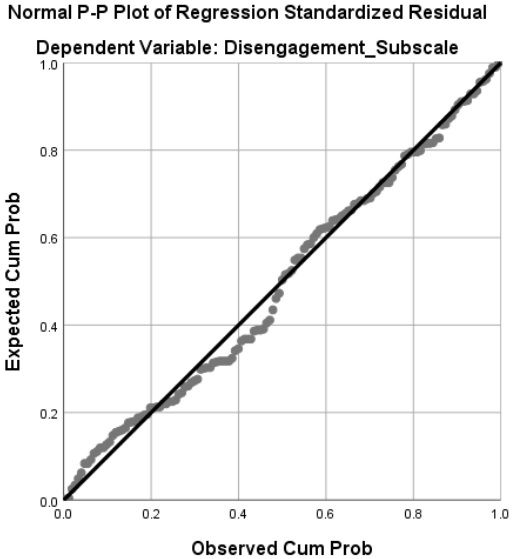


Table 6: Cook's Distance and Std. Residual statistics

Residuals Statistics[a]

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	35.4334	51.0368	42.0216	3.66348	139
Std. Predicted Value	-1.798	2.461	.000	1.000	139
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.589	1.569	.802	.226	139
Adjusted Predicted Value	35.0047	50.9311	42.0196	3.66792	139
Residual	-21.58022	19.41442	.00000	6.91817	139
Std. Residual	-3.108	2.796	.000	.996	139
Stud. Residual	-3.125	2.821	.000	1.004	139
Deleted Residual	-21.81426	19.76664	.00195	7.02017	139
Stud. Deleted Residual	-3.231	2.896	.000	1.011	139
Mahal. Distance	.001	6.056	.993	1.270	139
Cook's Distance	.000	.078	.007	.013	139
Centered Leverage Value	.000	.044	.007	.009	139