FACTORS INFLUENCING SURVIVOR QUALITIES AFTER DOWNSIZING

By

CRISPEN CHIPUNZA

Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree:

DOCTOR TECHNOLOGIAE: HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT

In the Faculty of Business and Economic Sciences at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University

December 2009

Promoter/Supervisor: Prof. D. M. Berry
DECLARATION

‘I, Crispen Chipunza, hereby declare that:

- the work in this thesis is my own original work;
- all sources used or referred to have been documented and recognised;
- the thesis has not been previously submitted in full or partial fulfillment of the requirements for an equivalent of higher education qualification at any recognised educational institution.’

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CRISPEN CHIPUNZA         DATE
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CRISPEN CHIPUNZA

DEGREE: DOCTOR TECHNOLOGIAE (HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT)

FACULTY: BUSINESS AND ECONOMIC SCIENCES

PROMOTER: PROFESSOR. D. M. BERRY

ABSTRACT

Today organisations all over the world have to cope with the ever-increasing rate of local and global change. Those in developing countries have to cope with the inefficiencies engendered by state-led economic, developmental and political strategies, such as new government regulations. These have had an impact on the management of human resources and are exemplified by an increasing adoption of strategies meant to reduce pressure on costs and margins. An increasing popular management response to these challenges has been to engage in some form of organisational restructuring such as downsizing. Often employees who remain (survivors) after downsizing are not given much attention, yet the achievement of new strategic goals depends on the survivors having positive attitudes, relentless commitment and high motivation. Research indicates that employees who are motivated and committed contribute vastly to the financial-bottom-line of the organisation. Therefore, downsizing organisations should continuously search for ways to increase such qualities among their survivors.
The objective of this study was to identify the factors that influence the attitudes, commitment and motivation of survivors in a developing economy with a volatile environment. To achieve this objective, a theoretical survivor quality model was presented. In order to present the model, firstly, a literature survey on the importance of survivor quality in terms of attitudes, commitment, and motivation among survivors was conducted. Secondly, literature survey pertaining to the drivers of survivor quality was done, and thirdly, literature dealing with strategies to deal with survivor quality was surveyed.

The theoretical survivor quality model was used to compile the research instrument that determined the attitudinal, commitment and motivational levels of survivors, how the three constructs are related after downsizing, as well as the factors influencing the observed levels. The questionnaire was randomly distributed among survivors in the selected manufacturing organisations in Zimbabwe. The empirical results obtained from the study showed that survivors in a developing economy with a volatile environment had moderate levels of attitudes, commitment and motivation. Two categories of factors were identified as important in influencing these levels. They were downsizing strategy and demographic factors. The downsizing strategy factors were communication and victim support, while education, age, and number of years employed emerged as the demographic factors. The study further highlighted that older survivors with less education contributed more to the moderate levels of attitude, commitment and motivation observed. The study highlights that these variables must be taken into consideration when implementing downsizing in an economically volatile environment in order to manage survivor quality. A further point emanating from the study is that prior to downsizing, organisations should adopt effective communication strategies throughout the process.

The key factors identified as influencing survivor quality in this study were integrated into the survivor quality model which can be used by other organisations in a similar context to manage survivor quality in order to increase their efficiency, effectiveness,
and competitive advantage after downsizing.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I thank the following people for their support and help in writing this thesis:

- My promoter, Professor. Dave Berry for his continuous guidance and support throughout the period of undertaking this research;

- My employer, the University of Fort Hare for the financial support, study leave and use of facilities;

- My colleagues at the University of Fort Hare for their encouragement;

- Andrew Mandeya, for his advice and guidance in the data analysis section;

- My student assistants, Herbert, Hillary and Trust, for helping me in data coding, and checking references;

- My girlfriend, Shungu, for all the moral support;

- This thesis is dedicated to my late father, Matthew Tapindwa, whose belief in the power of education has lived in me up to this day, and my mother Selina, Kajiwa Macheka, whose love for me has remained constant up to this stage.
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION, PROBLEM STATEMENT AND OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION
One of the biggest challenges facing organisations today is how to deal with the current business challenges that range from increased oil prices, political instability and economic recession in order to increase their productivity. Melaine (2006, p. 248) asserts that, developing a learning organisation and making it able to adapt to the environmental and economic changes becomes the key to effective productivity.

Globally, organisations that do not respond to the afore-mentioned business challenges through engaging in strategies intended to reduce expenses, enhance performance, and maximise productivity do so at their own peril because their survival and viability in the current competitive environment will be compromised. To remain competitive, most organisations are changing the way they are doing business (Taylor, 2008, p. 3). They are adopting and implementing cost saving strategies in order to prevent the erosion of their productivity baseline. The target of cost reduction measures invariably is to reduce expenditure on manpower. Therefore, workforce-related expenses are usually the target of early investigations by many organisations on causes directly related to productivity erosion. Because there is pressure on today’s managers to account for all the expenses and identify their sources, the strategy adopted by organisations as part of their response to the business challenges they are facing is downsizing through workforce reduction.

According to Noer (2001, p. 50) downsizing is defined as a deliberate organisational decision to reduce the workforce in order to increase organisational performance. Other euphemisms used to refer to downsizing are retrenchment and/ or layoffs. Sandringham (2000, p. 4) points out that there are various strategies used in downsizing, namely workforce reduction,
work redesign, and systemic strategies. Workforce reduction employs tactics such as early retirement, transfers and out-placement, buy-out packages, lay-offs and firings ((Makawatsakul & Kleiner, 2003, p. 1). The overall goal of workforce reduction as part of downsizing is to reduce the head count quickly and so it is mostly done through top-down directives. With it usually come other strategies such as work redesign and systematic changes. Work redesign includes eliminating functions, hierarchical levels, divisions, or products, consolidating and merging units, and reducing the working hours, while systematic changes entail changing the organisation’s internal and external systems such as values, communication, production chains in terms of suppliers and customers (Bleuel, 2001, p.45). Downsizing using the workforce reduction strategy has been regarded as the harshest way of improving efficiency, productivity and worker competencies because of its impact on both the victims and survivors. For the purpose of this study, the word ‘downsizing’ will be used to refer to ‘workforce reduction’.

According to De Vries and Balazs (2001, p. 11) downsizing has become one of the inevitable outcomes of living in a global economy that is characterised by harsh economic, technological, social and political environments. Political ideologies and how they are implemented affect the economic condition of any country negatively or positively, leading to organisations responding accordingly, either through complete closure or by adopting any one of the downsizing strategies. A typical case of where this assertion is applicable is Zimbabwe. In recent years, there have been considerable economic hardships in Zimbabwe. Globally, it is argued that the Government of Zimbabwe’s land reform programme, recurrent interference with, and intimidation of the judiciary, as well as maintenance of unrealistic price controls and exchange rates has led to the sharp drop in investor confidence (CIA World Fact Book, 2009, p. 3). As a result, direct foreign investment has all but evaporated. The economy has collapsed under the weight of economic mismanagement, resulting in 94% unemployment and spiraling hyperinflation (Mail & Guardian, 30 January 2009, p. 18).
The current inflationary figure stands at 230 million per cent, a figure that surpasses the inflation of all other nations. The country also has the lowest Gross Domestic Product (GDP) real growth rate of any independent country.

The Zimbabwean government’s decision to compulsorily acquire white-owned farms led to a massive reduction in on-farm production, which in turn affected the availability of inputs to the key manufacturing sector. For example, overall agricultural production in the 2006/7 season was less than 30% of that of seven years ago (Zimbabwe Business Watch, 11 March 2008, p. 4). A report by the Confederation of Zimbabwe’s Industry Survey (CZI) showed that manufacturing continues to under-perform. The sector is estimated to have declined by 7% in 2007 compared to 3.2% in 2005. Thus, a decline in agricultural production has had a significant effect on productivity in the manufacturing sector. As a result, continuing closures and downsizing has seen many workers being laid off. According to Al Jezeera News (6 March 2008), job cuts have been rampant in the manufacturing and retail sectors. For example, in 2007, the Cold Storage Commission Abattoir (CSC) reportedly reduced its workforce from 500 to 132 as a result of underutilisation (MacGarry, 2007, p. 6). The strategy to cut the labour force was seen by many organisations as the only viable way to remain competitive in such an unstable environment. The strategy however, created new social pressures on the part of employees who remained because of the socio-economic situation they found themselves in.

Whatever the reasons that cause downsizing to take place, the strategies adopted and used must be such that those employees who remain (survivors) are focused and committed to the new organisational goals. It is thus justified to assume that the strategies used by management to downsize determine the quality of survivors in terms of their work-related attitudes, such as job satisfaction and job involvement (hereafter referred to as attitudes), commitment and motivation to achieve the new organisational goals. Various theoretical explanations and models have therefore been used to explain the relationship between organisational processes and the procedures of
downsizing and the quality of survivors. Some of the theories are discussed below.

1.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
An understanding of factors that influence survivor quality after downsizing is grounded in theories that explain the reactions of employees to organisational downsizing. Such theories include the organisational justice theory (Greenberg, 1987, p. 19), the threat rigidity theory (Staw, Sanderlands & Dutton, 1981, p. 504) and the attribution theory (Weiner, 1995, p. 550). Organisational justice is defined as employees’ perceptions of the fairness with which they have been treated by an organization (Campbell & Finch, 2004, p. 179). The theory focuses on perceptions of fairness in organisations, by categorising employees’ views and feelings about their treatment and that of others within an organization (Saunders & Thrnhill, 2003, p. 362). Three types of organisation justice theory have been identified in literature. Perceptions about outcomes of decisions taken form the basis of distributive justice (Homans, 1961) cited in Campbell and Finch (2004, p. 177). Perceptions about the process used to arrive at decisions to downsize form the basis of procedural justice (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 2001, p.257) while perceptions about the quality of the interpersonal treatment that an individual receives during the enactment of organisational procedures form the basis of interactional justice (Campbell & Finch, 2004, p. 180).

Within the context of downsizing, distributive justice is concerned with perceptions of fairness by survivors arising from organisational allocations of resources to victims and the outcomes thereof. Perceptions of unfairness among survivors are more likely to lead to positive inequity, where survivors perceive they had a better claim to allocations leading to feelings of guilt and decreased motivation. In this way, an outcome may be favourable but may not facilitate fairness, trust or commitment owing to perceptions of the lack of integrity in the relation process (Bews & Uys, 2002, p. 22). Alternatively, perceptions of unfairness may lead to negative inequity, where survivors feel that they had a greater claim to an outcome compared with the person
receiving it, leading to feelings of anger, and possibly less effort in work (Saunders & Thornhill, 2003, p. 363).

Procedural justice would be concerned with, for example, survivors' feeling with regards to whether supervisors or managers conducted downsizing in a fair manner. Positive views of the procedures are linked to higher levels of trust in the organisation and the supervisors. Justification of downsizing and the use of empathetic communication (interactional justice) with both victims and survivors are likely to produce perceptions of fairness. Thus, survivors are more likely to accept decisions, even unfavourable ones, when given an adequate and genuine reason for them (Saunders & Thornhill, 2003, p. 362). This assumption points to the role that effective communication may play in engendering the reactions and subsequent behaviours of survivors in the new organisational setting.

There are a range of other theoretical perspectives (e.g., equity theory (Adams, 1965), and the social exchange theory (Homans, 1961) cited in Campbell and Finch (2004, p. 179) that examine the concept of organisational justice and the importance of maintaining perceptions of fairness in the workplace. Studies based on these theories have shown that during times of organisational change, perceptions of injustice may not only lead to dissatisfaction, but also to decreased job performance, poor quality of work, decreased job involvement, increased intentions to leave and less cooperation with co-workers (Campbell & Finch, 2004, p.181). Indeed, the way survivors feel about downsizing strategies and the organisation that implements it determines their attitudes and their behaviour in the new organisation following the action. In particular, the likelihood that survivors would behave in ways that are conducive to the new goals of the organization, and engage in individual productive behaviours (e.g., job involvement) that promote the effective functioning of the organisation is to some extent dependent on the perceptions, emotions and feelings that survivors develop from how the downsizing process was conducted.
Survivor reactions, feelings and behaviours after downsizing can also be explained using the threat-rigidity theory. This theory holds that a threat to the vital interests of an entity... will lead to forms of rigidity (Staw, et al., 1981, p.502). The rigidity may be either adaptive or maladaptive. In other words, leadership in organisations attempt to deal with potential sources of adversity by changing their internal structures and taking actions such as changing roles to enhance their position in the environment. According to Barnett and Pratt (2000, p. 76) the adoption of these market strategies engenders the development of strict management styles that may result in information insufficiency, confusion, development of incapacity for rapid response, desire to leave the organisation, and dysfunctional levels of stress, fear and anxiety about the future among employees (survivors). Barnett and Pratt (2000, p. 77) further reiterate that threat and/or crisis usually overwhelm organisations and their members’ emotional, cognitive behaviour and response capacities.

Weiner’s (1985, 1986) cited in Hareli and Tzafrir (2006, p. 403) attribution theory provides another framework for analysing potential positive and negative emotional, and consequently, behavioural reactions of employees who survive organisational downsizing. Attribution theory focuses on causal attributions – subjective thoughts about the causes of a given outcome and their link to affective and behavioural reactions. Downsizing involves major changes for the individual and the organisation as a whole. Such a situation is likely to lead to emotional reactions on the part of the individuals at the nexus of the event (Mossholder, Setton, Armenakis, & Harris, 2000, p.235). Emotions arise from the way a person appraises a given situation. One type of appraisal known to contribute to an emotional reaction and, which may play an important role in the context of downsizing is attribution information, that is, information concerning the reasons underlying the given outcomes.

In the context of downsizing, attribution information centres on the criteria for dismissing other employees and retaining others. This information, if not provided, is likely to be spontaneously generated by the employees because
significant outcomes, such as fear, insecurity, guilt, tend to elicit causal thinking. The likelihood for causal thinking increases when the situation is unexpected, as is the case with downsizing, and the chances for attribution thoughts in the context of downsizing also increases (Brockner, DeWitt, Grover & Reed, 1990, p. 397). In addition, rumors related to downsizing, and the formal information provided by a manager may also include information concerning the reasons for the decision. Hareli and Weiner (2002, p. 190) argue that this attribution information is known to be an antecedent of different emotional reactions and behaviours on the part of the person who is considering the information. The specific emotion elicited by such attributions is partially a function of the nature of the causal information contained in the attribution. For example, survival attributed to mere luck is likely to elicit fear or anxiety resulting from the perceptions of the probability of being laid off in a possible future wave of downsizing. Survivors embroiled in such fear are not able to perform effectively. They are likely to stay demotivated and less committed in the post-downsizing phase.

Because emotions are significant determinants of attitudes, motivations and behaviour (Weiss, 2002, p. 54), emotions that arise in the context of downsizing can affect significant work attitudes and behaviours such as loyalty, trust, satisfaction, job insecurity, performance and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB).

Recent work exploring the consequences of downsizing suggests that Lazarus and Folkman’s (1984) theory of stress provides a useful analytical and integrative framework to recognise and manage the consequences (Clay-Warner, Hegtvedt & Roman, 2005, p. 91). Clay, et al., argue that downsizing is a constellation of stressor events which require a process of coping and adaptation. Changes emanating from downsizing, such as changes in roles geographic location, supervisors, work group and working hours indicate a significant number of potential sources of stress for survivors (Saunders & Thornhill, 2003, p. 360). Depending on how each survivor copes with downsizing, the coping strategies may involve alleviating the emotional
consequences of the stressful situation or withdrawal from the situation (Saunders & Thornhill, 2003, p. 361).

There are clear organisational implications from the application of the stress theory to the downsizing context. In relation to stress appraisal, clarity regarding the choice of victims and survivors and the support provided prior prior to downsizing, may be important to the way that survivors react to the events in the new organisation. Organisational support throughout the downsizing event itself is likely to be important in relation to the type of coping strategy which affected individuals adopt (Saunders & Thornhill, 2003, p. 362). The aim of such support is to encourage control-oriented and problem-focused coping approaches. Indeed, Armstrong-Stassen (1994) in Hareli and Tzafrir (2006, p.414) found that survivors with high perceived supervisor support reported greater commitment to the company, high job performance, and were less likely to be thinking of leaving the organisation than survivors with low perceived supervisor support. Some form of link therefore exists between organisational support strategies and survivors’ coping after downsizing (Saunders & Thornhill, 2003, p. 282).

The influence of downsizing on survivors as discussed in the above theories is conceptualised below.

**1.3 CONCEPTUAL MODEL ON THE INFLUENCE OF DOWNSIZING ON SURVIVORS**

As discussed in the preceding section, downsizing generates a variety of psychological states for survivors. The conceptual framework by Brockner (1992) cited in McKinely, Zhao and Rust (2000, p. 236) presented in Figure 1 help us to understand the factors that influence the psychological effects of downsizing and how such effects result in changes in outcomes such as survivors’ attitudes and behaviour. The model shows that downsizing creates psychological states such as perceptions of insecurity, feelings of being over rewarded, overloaded, of anger, guilt, stress, fear, loss of confidence, reduced
risk-taking, intention to leave and sometimes relief among survivors, depending on the way the process unfolded. These psychological states, in turn, have the potential to influence survivors’ work performance, job satisfaction, involvement, engagement, motivation levels and commitment to the organisation. Whether downsizing leads to positive or negative psychological states however, depends on, among others, a number of factors such as the relationship of the survivor to the dismissed employees, survivors’ perception of the criteria used for making the decision on layoffs, perceptions of work load, compensation provided to the laid-off, the degree of support survivors receive, external conditions such as alternative job opportunities for the victims, the communication process during downsizing, organisational policies as well as demographic variables.

Positive attitudes, total commitment to the organisation, and increased levels of motivation among survivors result in improved efficiency, effectiveness, competitiveness and productivity. The need to manage survivors before, during and after downsizing therefore becomes imperative in enabling them to remain focused on the new organisational objectives.

Figure 1: Conceptual model on the effects of downsizing (Brockner, 1992)
Indeed, literature in the human resource field points to the need for organisations to pay attention to the level of contribution that needs to be made by the surviving employees for the downsized organisations to remain competitive (Fisher & White, 2000, p. 247; Iverson & Pullman, 2000, p. 1001). Researchers within the human capital field argue that employees are the most valuable resources in an organisation because of their contribution towards organisational competitiveness (Willcoxson, 2006, p. 102). McKeown (2001, p. 1) and Pete, Martin & Staines (2000, p. 481) have documented extensively the role of employees as ‘champions’ in an organisation, identifying issues such as job security, employee commitment and capability as some of the key factors in organisational competitiveness. Furthermore, Applebaum, Patton and Shapiro, 2003, p. 25) add that organisations that downsize are realising that improved business performance is based not only on technology, improved processes and products, but also equally as much on the attitudes of remaining employees towards the new work environment. As a result, survivor attitudes, commitment and motivation have become the focus of most research after downsizing.

The above framework and discussions provide some evidence on why organisations that have or are contemplating downsizing should worry about the factors that influence survivor quality when they decide to downsize. The framework has also provided the need for organisations to understand what contributes to work-related attitudes, commitment and motivational levels of the survivors in the aftermath of downsizing. It has also formed a basis for the delineation of the main problem of the study.

1.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT
While it has become a common practice for organisations operating in the current global economy characterised by recession and political instability to downsize in order to remain competitive, a grave problem of survivor quality arises. Survivor quality according to Vinten and Lane (2002, p. 435) is characterised as the worker’s attitude, commitment and motivation in the new work situation after downsizing. As previously indicated, workers who remain
after downsizing are likely to be affected in terms of survivor quality. Survivor quality is viewed as a critical component in guaranteeing increased productivity and long-term growth and productivity after downsizing (Littler, Wiesner & Dunford, 2003, p. 225). Survivor quality is also seen to account for the organisation’s credibility, and bottom line impact (Vinten & Lane, 2002, p.433). The literature argues that often management overlooks the psychological effect of downsizing in terms of survivor quality. Vinten and Lane (2002, p. 430) point out that downsizing leaves the survivors frustrated, anxious, resistant and with the “wait and see” attitude, a scenario also known as ‘survivor syndrome’ (Kusum, 2004, p. 175). Good (2005, p. 3) also notes that survivors are the greater losers when compared to those who have been terminated, because they have to endure disillusionment, frustration and generally have a perception of insecurity.

In view of the above, the challenge for human resource practitioners in downsized organisations is to ensure that after downsizing, survivors’ energies are focused on the new organisational objectives. Ryan (1989, p. 40) points out that with downsizing, organisations end up using even slimmer and flatter organisational structures since they can no longer sustain and secure career progressions of employees. Ryan (1989, p. 42) further stresses that much as organisations are downsizing, there is also a commensurate change in survivors’ attitudes and motivation towards the new working conditions. It is therefore important that organisations that have or are contemplating downsizing to determine the factors that influence the attitudes, commitment and motivation of survivors in the new work environment. Such knowledge and understanding will help organisations to design intervention strategies that will enable the survivors to meet the challenges of the new work environment.

A closer look at the literature on survivor quality shows that few studies have examined the factors that influence psychological attitudes after some organisational restructuring (Kusum, 2004, p.172), and these have overlooked
the influence of the individual characteristics of survivors (Armstrong Stassen, 2001, p.234). There have also been few attempts to examine factors that influence work motivation and employees’ commitment after downsizing (Guest, Peccei & Thomas, 1993, p. 156; Fred, 2004, p. 267).

These studies can be criticised for focusing on factors that influence the separated components of survivor quality after downsizing. In addition, the studies were done in developed countries with stable economies and among organisations making losses. The extent to which the results are applicable in different contexts is therefore questionable. Currently little or no empirical evidence exists on the factors that influence survivor quality after downsizing in an economically volatile environment by focusing on all the three survivor quality components of attitudes, commitment and motivation as well as the relationship among them in a single study. The literature (e.g., Noronha & D'Cruz, 2005, p.78) states that the benefits of downsizing, such as reduction in costs, increased productivity and competitiveness, can only be realised when survivors have positive attitudes, are motivated and committed to the new organisational goals.

Similarly, no known studies have attempted to demonstrate the influence of demographic variables on survivor quality in the context of developing economies in a volatile environment. An investigation that combines the influence of downsizing strategies and demographic variables leads to the development of a specific model that can be utilised by organisations to manage survivor quality in a developing economy. In addition, it might also lead to the development of comprehensive strategies that could focus on addressing each of the survivor quality components among survivors before, during and after downsizing. The development of strategies from the observations made is likely to promote the achievement of the objectives for downsizing such as reduction in operational costs, increased organisational productivity and competitiveness, efficient use of survivors as well as improved survivor competencies.
The above discussion has provided a basis on which the main problem of the study will be explored. The study will therefore be guided by the following question:

**What factors influence survivors' attitude, commitment and motivation after downsizing?**

### 1.5 SUB-PROBLEMS

A critical examination of the main problem lead to the identification of the following sub-problems.

**Sub-problem one**

What attitudinal, commitment and motivational qualities are identified by the relevant literature as appropriate for survivors after downsizing?

**Sub-problem two**

What factors are revealed in the literature as influencing the attitudes, commitment and motivation among survivors after downsizing?

**Sub-problem three**

What strategies are used by management to manage survivor quality before, during and after downsizing?

**Sub-problem four**

What attitudes, commitment and motivation do survivors have after downsizing?

**Sub-problem five**

What is the relationship between survivors' attitude, commitment, and motivation after downsizing?

**Sub-problem six**

Do demographic characteristics have an influence on survivor quality?
Sub-problem seven
Does downsizing strategy and demographic variables have the same influence on survivor quality?

Sub-problem eight
How can the results obtained from the resolution of sub-problems one to seven (above) be combined into an integrated model or a set of strategies that can be used by organisations to improve survivor quality after downsizing?

1.6 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY
The purpose of demarcating the study is to make it more focused and manageable from a research point of view. However, the fact that some areas related to, but not the same as the one under investigation have been omitted does not mean that they are not researchable.

1.6.1 Size of the organisations
The study is limited to organisations that employ 50 or more employees. These organisations will have a sufficient number of employees who are diverse in nature. The organisations are more likely to have clear hierarchical structures for the easy identification of the subjects of the investigation. In addition, as part of reorganisation, larger organisations are more likely to reduce the number of their employees. However, smaller organisations may also do so in certain circumstances

1.6.2 Type of organisation
The study is limited to large international and local manufacturing organisations in the designated geographical area.

1.6.3 Geographical demarcation
The data collection of the study is limited to the downsized manufacturing organisations based in all the major towns and cities in Zimbabwe. These are Harare, Bulawayo, Mutare, Masvingo, Gweru, Chegutu, Kwekwe, Chinhoyi
and Bindura. Most manufacturing organisations in Zimbabwe are found in these areas.

1.6.4 Units of analysis
The study is limited to lower level employees, first-line supervisory levels and middle management. According to Allen, Freeman, Russell, Reizenstein and Rentz (2001, p. 156) these levels are the ones largely targeted and affected by the process of reorganisation through workforce reduction, work design and systematic changes. Lower level employees are those employees below middle managers and supervisors. They are responsible for executing the different tasks in different departments of the organisation in order to achieve the organisation’s objectives. First-line supervisory staff ensure that tasks are carried out as designated, and middle managers are responsible for establishing specific plans and specific goals for their departments (Robbins and de Cenzo, 2001, p. 5). Examples of job titles that will comprise the first-line supervisory level employees are section leaders, team leaders, foremen and superintendent. Middle managers will include financial managers, production managers, divisional managers, human resources managers, marketing managers and factory managers. These titles however will differ from one organisation to the next.

1.6.5 Subject of evaluation
The concept of survivor quality after downsizing using the workforce reduction strategy can be divided into the following areas:
- Understanding the concept of survivor quality;
- Drivers of survivor quality;
- Organisational strategies that promote survivor quality; and
- A strategic organisational model for managing survivor quality.

1.6.6 Basis for the model
The study aimed to develop an integrated strategic model that can be used by organisations planning to downsize in a volatile environment in order to keep survivors effective. The model incorporates the factors that drive survivor
quality as provided for in the literature, survivors’ perceptions of strategies employed by management before, during and after downsizing, the observed influence of demographic characteristics and links these with the attitudes, commitment and motivation of the respondents surveyed in the study.

1.7 DEFINITION OF SELECTED CONCEPTS

1.7.1 Downsizing
The term is defined as a response by an organisation to environmental changes using strategies such as workforce reduction, work redesign and systematic changes (Wagar, 2001, p. 852). The literature sometimes uses other words such as organisational change, organisational restructuring, re-engineering, and retrenchment in lieu of downsizing. The present study uses downsizing to entail workforce reduction.

1.7.2 Survivor quality
The current study defines this term to include worker-related attitudes, commitment and motivation of survivors after downsizing. The concept encompasses all the attitudinal/psychological experiences and behavioural reactions of survivors after downsizing (Mak & Mueller (2001, p. 125).

1.7.3 Attitude
This is currently defined in this study as the survivor's perceptions of the new work situation. Wagar and Rondeau (2000, p. 6) state that after downsizing, survivors develop different perceptions regarding the work situation in terms of job security, job involvement, personal development, working conditions, and job engagement.

1.7.4 Commitment
Commitment is defined in this study as the survivor's perception of the organisation after downsizing (Vijay, 2000, p. 429). Three types of commitment can be distinguished. These are continuance commitment, affective commitment and attitudinal commitment. These types are detailed in
the literature review section.

1.7.5 Motivation
For the purposes of this study, motivation is currently defined as the survivor’s drive towards accomplishing tasks in the present work situation after downsizing using workforce reduction as a strategy. Motivation after a workforce reduction is affected by low morale and manifests itself in decreased service quality and sometimes translating into reduced revenue for the organisation (Matakawatsakul & Kleiner, 2003, p. 54).

1.8 REASONS FOR AND IMPORTANCE OF THE RESEARCH
Organisations need to continually evolve as they adapt to new and often challenging environmental changes. Downsizing as an organisational strategy is usually adopted when (1) there is economic meltdown that increases operational costs and reduces production for organisations, or (2) when the economy is stable but organisations are running at a loss. The process of downsizing is best achieved through planning in order to take into account factors that might have a significant influence on the quality of survivors. Frydenberg and Lewis, (2002, p. 628) suggest that the quality of survivors in terms of attitudes towards the new work situation, commitment towards the organisation and motivation to carry out the new tasks often undergo change as downsizing begins or after it ends. Such changes can cause heightened stress levels which in turn affect job performance and consequently productivity. Research (e. g., Noronha & D’Cruz, 2005, p.90) shows that in the new environment created after downsizing, an organisation’s success depends on the well being of the survivors in terms of their initiatives and enthusiasm to work. Therefore, an understanding of the factors that influence survivor quality components is important in order to avoid a vicious cycle in which the survivors become victims.

Based on the above discussion, the question that arises then is: How do organisations deal with the attitudes, commitment and motivation of survivors when they decide to institute downsizing as a cost saving measure?
An organisation can be worse off, if careful planning is not done before, during and after downsizing. Downsizing should not be abrupt, but rather should follow a sequential pattern characterised by careful planning intended to remove uncertainty and risk-aversive behaviour among survivors. The uncertainty that is created after downsizing, if not addressed promptly and adequately, can give the competition an advantage (Armstrong-Stassen, 2005, p. 118). Understanding the factors that influence survivor quality factors (attitudes, commitment and motivation) is therefore an essential step in getting closer to dealing with survivor quality. Knowledge of the factors that impact on survivor quality aspects will enable Human Resources (HR) practitioners design methods to involve survivors in the decision-making process, improve worker conditions, and initiate survivor re-training focused on the new job demands. The aim will be to improve survivor morale, commitment and motivation. An understanding of the factors that stifle or promote survivor quality aspects will also help organisations to be proactive by focusing inwards at their departments and outwards at their customers in order to effectively reorganise and enhance the efficiency of their delivery systems without jeopardising worker quality.

Lastly, an understanding of the factors that influence survivors’ reactions, especially in volatile environments, can help in devising HR and Human Resource Development) (HRD) practices that will improve the outcomes of such a process for survivors and organisations. In particular, it should be beneficial in devising organisational policies for downsizing implementation and information provision that can lead to better downsizing outcomes in similar contexts. Knowing the quality of survivors after downsizing can help suggest ways in which managers and employees can be trained and prepared to cope with the process of downsizing and its consequences.

In light of the above discussion, the main goal of the present study is to determine the factors influencing survivors’ attitudes, commitment and motivation after downsizing, specifically among organisations that have downsized in an economically volatile environment in a developing economy.
1.9 RESEARCH DESIGN

A brief description of the methodological approach that was used in the study is as follows:

1.9.1 Research methodology

In order to solve the problem and the sub-problems, the following procedure was adopted:

- The identification of key psychological attitudes necessary for survival after downsizing;
- The conceptualizing of organisational commitment from the relevant literature and the determination of the critical dimensions necessary after downsizing;
- A concise explanation of the concept of motivation after downsizing as provided for in the literature;
- An identification of the drivers of survivor quality through a further study of the literature;
- The adoption and development of a comprehensive questionnaire from the literature survey mentioned above to determine survivors’ perceptions of the strategies used by organisations to downsize as well as their attitudes, commitment and motivation after the process;
- The carrying out of an empirical study comprising self-administered survey. Lower, supervisory and middle managers were surveyed to determine their perceptions of the strategies used by the organisation to downsize as well as their attitudes, commitment and motivation after the exercise;
- The establishment of the relationship between survivors’ attitude, commitment, and motivation,
- The correlation of the survivor quality variables with demographic characteristics, and;
- The incorporation of the results from the literature survey and empirical investigation and develop an integrated model that can be used by organisations planning to downsize in future so that they are able to manage survivor quality.
1.10 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY
The main purpose of the study is to determine the factors that influence the attitudinal, commitment and motivational qualities of survivors after downsizing.

The specific objectives of the study are:

- To establish the strategies perceived by survivors as having been used by management to downsize;
- To determine the attitude, commitment and motivation among survivors after downsizing;
- To determine whether there is a relationship among survivors’ attitude, commitment and motivation;
- To determine whether there is a correlation between survivors’ attitude, commitment, motivation and the perceived strategies;
- To determine the demographic variables influencing survivor quality;
- To establish whether survivors’ attitude, commitment, motivation and demographic characteristics have the same influence on survivor quality, and;
- To integrate the results obtained and develop a model which can aid organisations planning to engage in downsizing so that survivors remain effective;
- To make recommendations to organisations planning to engage in downsizing regarding the management of survivor quality.

1.11 OUTLINE OF THE THESIS
The thesis is comprised of the following chapters:

Chapter 1  Introduction, problem statement and outline of the study
Chapter 2  The concept of downsizing
Chapter 3  The concept of survivor quality
Chapter 4  Drivers of survivor quality
Chapter 5  The management of survivor quality
Chapter 6  Research methodology and analysis of biographical details of respondents
1.12 CONCLUDING REMARKS
This chapter aimed at clearly stating the problem to be addressed and providing a concise explanation of how the researcher aims to solve it. The chapters that follow will address the main problem and the subsequent sub-problems of the study.
CHAPTER 2

THE CONCEPT OF DOWNSIZING

2.1 INTRODUCTION
The previous chapter provided a background on how 21st century organisations are embarking on downsizing as a strategy to remain competitive in the global world. The chapter also highlighted the neglect of survivors after downsizing, and indicated that their quality in terms of attitudes towards the new work situation, commitment towards the organisation and motivation towards accomplishing the tasks in the new work situation can be determined by a number of factors. Therefore, organisations planning to downsize should pay particular attention to how the downsizing process takes place and whether any other individual characteristics might impact survivors’ quality.

The present chapter seeks to set the context in which the issue of downsizing will be understood. The information in the chapter is written with the assumption that the study of downsizing has assumed greater significance in the literature used by human resource management practitioners (Thornhill & Saunders, 1998, p. 275). Human resource practitioners use the literature to analyse and evaluate downsizing practices, and their effects on organisations and their employees, with a view to providing information that will yield positive spin offs for the downsizing organisations. While there is no unifying theory of downsizing because of the existence of wide contextual variations in downsizing events among different organisations, industries and countries, some level of generalisation is, of course, possible (Thornhill & Saunders, 1998, 277). The present chapter draws on this assertion. The chapter will provide an overview of the concept of downsizing and highlight some of the factors that cause downsizing. It will also focus on the benefits of downsizing and its impact on the survivors.
2.2 THE MEANING OF DOWNSIZING

The concept of downsizing has been defined inclusively by a number of researchers. For example, Kozlowski, Chao, Smith and Hedlund (1993, p.267) define downsizing as a deliberate organisational decision to improve organisational performance through workforce reduction. The concept encompasses the divestiture of unrelated business or the sale of capital assets. However, it is primarily associated workforce reduction using strategies such as layoffs, redeployment, or early retirement. This view of downsizing as a deliberate organisational decision intended to improve organisational performance portrays downsizing in terms of its function for the organisation and highlights three key aspects of this process. These are, improving effectiveness and efficiency, productivity and competitiveness (Thornhill & Saunders, 1998, p. 280). The view also highlights another important element of the reduction of an organisation’s employee size. This element brings in the dimension of understanding the impact downsizing has on stakeholders such as work groups and individuals who survive this event. It also serves to highlight the presence of psychological and behavioural consequences for the survivors (Thornhill & Saunders, 1998, p.278).

Differentiating it from other related concepts such as organisational decline, downsizing is seen as a deliberate attempt by the management of an organisation to take action to adapt the organisation to changes in its operating environment (Cameron, 1994b, p.190). This view supports an understanding of the concept of downsizing across different levels of analysis since the experience of downsizing at the organisational level is different from that at the individual level. In addition, an organisational action like downsizing is often initiated, maintained, or at a minimum, influenced by individual employees and work group forces. As a result, if we are to have a clear definition of the concept of downsizing, it is necessary to define it in terms which are more transportable across the different levels of analysis, especially the individual level.
According to Koeber (2002, p. 217) downsizing refers to a large-scale and systematic displacement of employees by typically corporate employers. It is a planned elimination of jobs which has become the favourite business practice for a large number of troubled organisations. The concept has turned into one of the inevitable outcomes for organisations of living in a global world where continual adjustments to products, services, and the price of labour are needed to remain competitive (Kets de Vries & Balazs, 1997, p. 11). According to Kets de Vries & de vitry d’ Avaucourt (1996, p.111) many organisations today are finding their overhead costs escalating compared not only to domestic but also international competitors. As a result, they have turned to the convincing strategy of taking off large numbers of their employees from the payroll. The definition by Koeber (2002, p.218) indicates that the concept of downsizing not only results in job losses, but also provides a platform on which to understand corporate downsizing in the ‘new economies’ of different countries in more expansive terms than the narrow and conventional definition that is often associated with it. Within this view therefore, Kets de Vries and Balazs (1997, p.12) argue that employees’ or survivors’ experiences of downsizing might be viewed through focusing on the complex relationship between the changing working experiences and the changes in the structure of the economy/economies.

In supporting the above assertions, a number of scholars who studied organisations have argued that a broader approach to downsizing has a positive long-term impact and is preferable to a narrower one (Tonder, 2004, p. 162; Manson, 2000, p. 2). To these authors, downsizing does not imply the mere elimination of positions or jobs; on the contrary, it is much more than that. If it is done in a proper way, it affects all the work processes in the organisation. With the enlarged definition offered by these authors, the goal of the downsizing effort becomes that of reassessing and altering the organisation’s fundamental business practices. Thus, an organisation’s design efforts, its work processes, corporate culture, and mission may need an overhaul. Not only functions such as these, but also hierarchical levels and complete business units may need to be eliminated.
In its widest sense therefore, downsizing can be used to describe a complete strategic transformation effort to change the values and attitudes of an organisation's corporate culture (Kets de Vries & de Vitry d' Avaucourt (1996, p.112). Taking this view also moves downsizing away from being an unsuccessful short cut, to being part of an organisation's continuous improvement process scheme that takes a long-term perspective, its objective being to look for ways to improve productivity, cut costs, and increase earnings.

Although different definitions of downsizing have been put forward, they all seem to concur that: (1) the activity is an intentional and conscious decision by management. It does not just happen to the organisation, managers opt for it (Appelbaum, et al., 2003, p.24); (2) it involves employee reduction but is not only limited to that alone; (3) it focuses on the improvement of the effectiveness and the efficiency of the organization; (4) it has an effect on how work is done, and (5) other words used to refer to downsizing are, rightsizing, demassing, restructuring, and delayering. Whichever word is used, the result is the same: permanent layoffs of employees.

2.3 TRACING THE ROOTS OF THE CONCEPT OF DOWNSIZING

Downsizing and its associated euphemisms can be traced back to the period from the 1860s until the 1980s in the United States (U. S.) (Devine, Reay, Staunton & Collins-Nakai, 2003, p. 113) when the theory of ‘corporate control’ (Fligstein, 1990, p. 47) dominated the running of organizations. The theory of ‘corporate control’ dominated explanations of strategic and structural changes among well known organisations such as Fortune 100. The conception of ‘corporate control’ allows top managers in large organisations to control their environment by specifying how such resources as employees should be distributed in order to ensure that directives are executed (internal control) and how management should stabilise the conditions of competition (external control). Both internal and external controls provide managers with the opportunity to deal with and handle problems that have to do with competition, thereby ensuring the growth and productivity for their organisations.
A conception of control thus serves as a total worldview that identifies the goals that large organisations should pursue and the means by which they should pursue them. Because managers perceive a conception as the natural way to run an organisation, they experience pressures to implement strategies such as workforce reduction and structures associated with a particular conception.

According to Budros (2002, p. 309) macroeconomic and political shocks such as economic depression, globalisation and industry regulation undermine managers’ control over internal and/or external environments. When this happens, a crisis of control ensues. Since new conceptions are unnatural in such situations, they are introduced by those managers who take risks and their appropriateness is discussed, making power and conflict central to the rise of new conceptions. Managers whose functional backgrounds are compatible with the rising conception especially are the ones capable of handling competition problems. As the conception gains momentum, its strategies and structures are viewed increasingly as legitimate, pressing one organisation after the other to adopt them. The conception prevails, until another crisis produces a new conception and another round of strategies and structural innovation.

Based on the above explanation of the corporate control theory, the concept of downsizing became a managerial lexicon among the Fortune 100 firms from the 1960s to the 1990s in the U. S when there was a fall of the finance conception of control and the rise of the lean and mean conception (Shaw & Barret-Power (1997, p. 110). Dominant during the 1960s and the 1970s, the finance conception stressed control of competitive conditions using financial criteria to increase short-run profits and assets. The financially oriented organisations bought assets with performance potential and kept those that realized this potential; assets that failed to pay off were sold. The interest in growth through the accumulation of profitable assets led organisations to make purchases anywhere in the economy, transforming themselves into bundles of disposable assets that operated in diverse industries.
A key strategy was diversification through mergers with attractive organisations and divestments of underperforming ones. The large organisations featured the multidivisional form, with its product division being responsible for its own manufacturing sales, and financial performance. Central offices held executives close to production responsible for everyday decisions and for their performance.

Bamford and Daniel (2005, p. 392) point out that although the financially driven organisations dominated the 1980s, there were threats to their viability. The profitability, asset growth and sales growth of the organisations were disappointing, prompting more interest in divestment of underperforming divisions than in investment in new production lines. On the other hand, worldwide competitions led merging organisations to focus more on job reduction than on job creation and plant expansion, and the reductions enhanced short-term performance at the expense of long-term survival. As a result, Fligstein (1996, p. 668) concluded that the finance conception was overshadowed by a new conception in the 1980s. This was the lean and mean conception which came about as a result of the transformation that took place in the U.S. in the 1980s.

The transformation involved, among other things, the intensification of the economic competition. Because the finance organisations’ senior people lacked marketing and production experience, they recruited a number of these at their divisional levels. As the organisations entered the overseas markets, the finance organisations found themselves overstaffed and over-bureaucratised as they competed against the fitter foreign organisations growing in the global economy. As a result, their shortcomings were exposed (Peters & Waterman, 1982, p. 49). Moreover, global competition stimulated the deregulation of industries. The large organisations opposed deregulation which destabilised competition and thus undercut financial performance. The expansion of competition to new geographical regions and to new classes of organisations jeopardised the large organisations’ survival, producing the search for a new philosophy of management (Downs, 2005, p. 50).
As competition in the 1980s approached, the ownership of large organisation was in the hands of a small number of institutional investors – pension funds, for example - with the purpose of curtailing managerial prerogatives. Challenging the finance conception and managerial capitalism, they pressed managers to divest, to assume debt to keep organisations disciplined, to emphasise core competencies by selling highly diversified assets and by acquiring rivals, and by cutting layers of management (Budros, 2002, p. 312). In supporting the emergence of the new conception of control (the lean and mean), Peters and Waterman (1982) as quoted by Koeber (2002, p. 219) challenged managers to ‘search for excellence’ by adopting eight strategies, one of which is lean staff. Similarly, Hammer and Champy (1999, p.12) exhorted managers to re-engineer their corporations. Although reengineering formally involves reinventing the processes by which organisations produce goods, it focused attention in reducing organisation size and bureaucratisation. The lean and mean conception instructed managers to tackle competition by emphasizing small size and structural simplicity. Managers were required to enhance financial performance by preventing their organisations from employing too many people and from operating with over-bureaucratic structures.

Commenting on the requirements of the new conception of control, Willcoxson (2006, p. 107) pointed out that the competitive advantages of such a conception were employee empowerment, fluid communication, management by people rather than by numbers, better customer service, and flexibility in the face of shifting market conditions. Thus, the lean and mean conception rejected the core assumptions of its predecessor – bigger is better, continual growth is natural and desirable – and embraced counter-assumptions – small is beautiful, decline is natural and desirable. While the finance organisations pursued economic growth, when they did reduce employment, they generally did so through temporary layoffs of employees. In contrast, the lean and mean organisations tried to keep employment levels low through permanent elimination of employees.
A key strategy that was then oriented toward leanness and meanness adopted by organisations during this time was downsizing - the conscious use of permanent personnel reductions in an attempt to improve the prospects for survival (Budros 1999, p. 70).

The word downsizing was coined by auto makers to refer to the shrinking of cars in the 1970s, and it was then applied to humans and first appeared in the college edition of the American Heritage Dictionary in 1982 (Hecksher, 1995, p.43). Another strategy adopted was restructuring, which included job redesign, the cutting of hierarchical levels, and the buying and selling of divisions. Thus, organisations that adopted the lean and mean conception started engaging in deconglomeration; selling highly diversified assets they did not have much knowledge about. They also started purchasing assets in their main product lines, often intending to increase their performance levels through the newly coined strategies of downsizing and restructuring (Sa & Kanji, 2003, p. 501).

The above historical discussion of the emergence of the concept of downsizing facilitates the understanding of the environmental and institutional contexts in which 21st century organisations have operated since the coining of the concept around 1980s. The history also provides a platform for understanding the adoption of particular downsizing strategies and structures as well as the human resource strategies that make the downsizing process a success. Thus, having become a managerial term today, various conceptualisations of downsizing approaches, their causes and their benefits have emerged.

**2.4 APPROACHES TO DOWNSIZING**

Downsizing exercises by organisations may take different approaches, all of which are meant to improve organisational effectiveness, efficiency, productivity and competitiveness. The most common downsizing approaches cited in the literature are the orientation and the convergence approaches (Thornhill & Saunders 1998, p.276).
The two are based on the assumption that when an organisation decides to downsize, it must first of all establish whether there is some compatibility between its internal operations and external environment. This will determine the downsizing approach to be used - reorientation or convergence.

Downsizing as reorientation entails a realignment of the internal organisation with the external environment in order to improve its competitive position within the industry (Bruton, Keels, & Shook, 1996, p.42). This is achieved through not only paying attention to issues of how the downsizing should be done, but also to finding out if it should be done and what its consequences would be. Some of the consequences affect the organisation itself as well as the laid off employees and the survivors. The major goal for an organisation in reorienting is to ensure that it adopts an efficient and effective new overall structure after an analysis of its present mission and strategic direction. Through orientation, the manner in which the organisation is to downsize is made clear, for example, through combining units, or redundancies.

In most cases, reorientation rarely results in across the board cuts where each department or division is expected to reduce the number of employees or the budget by a fixed percentage. However, needs and skills analyses are conducted and selective layoffs are encouraged (Appelbaum, Schmidt, Peytchev & Shapiro, 1999, p. 437). To avoid detrimental consequences for survivors through this approach, the entire organisation is usually involved in the systemic analysis in addition to participation from all levels in the organisation as well as increased communication regarding the process. Essentially therefore, downsizing as reorientation involves direction from management yet with a high degree of participation from all employees to cushion the after effects on both victims and survivors (Appelbaum, Everard & Hung, 1999, p. 535). Participation helps the organisation to remain competitive as survivors' performance is expected always to be focused and high after the process (Nieto, 2006, p. 69).
According to Applebaum, *et al.*, (1999, p. 540) based on a broader definition of downsizing, the convergence approach, unlike orientation, does not imply any major changes but rather tries to reinforce the existing structure and strategy of the organisation by continuously attempting to make the organisation more efficient. In downsizing via convergence, all employees and not only the management of the organisation participate in the process. The convergence approach uses the understanding that there is always room for improvement as a driving force. Therefore, innovation is encouraged, as are suggestions for improvement from individual employees. While reorientation changes occur across the board in areas of the organisation, convergence changes occur in small quantities in selected areas of the organisation. Since the approach is best implemented at the micro level (for example, jobs and processes), more extensive participation is required from those directly affected by the downsizing, the ones going to be laid off and the survivors (Applebaum, *et al.*, (1999, p. 542). The advantage of the convergence downsizing approach is that the whole organisation is urged to adopt a mindset of continuous improvement, regardless of whether one is going to be laid off or remain.

The orientation and the convergence approaches to downsizing are important in as far as they can be used evaluate how appropriate an organisation’s strategy for downsizing has been effective. The approaches are useful in predicting some of the consequences from a particular type of downsizing at both the organisational and the individual levels (Thornhill & Saunders, 1998, p. 274). A knowledge of downsizing consequences helps to suggest appropriate human resource tactics used to manage the process before, during and after, within each organisation’s particular circumstances.

### 2.5 DOWNSIZING STRATEGIES

Within the downsizing literature, there are three commonly cited strategies that organisations adopt to downsize. These are workforce reduction strategy, the work design strategy and the systemic strategy (Applebaum, *et al.*, (1999, p. 542).
Kinnie, Hutchinson and Purcell (2000, p. 296) posit that workforce reduction consists of eliminating headcount through layoffs, firings, early retirement, by-outs, attrition, etc. The work design strategy aims to eliminate work in addition to or instead of eliminating workers, while systematic strategies focus on changing the organisation’s culture and the attitudes and values of employees (Appelbaum, et al., 2003, p. 22). The systemic strategy does not see downsizing as a one time programme with fixed targets, but seeks to place the process in the context of continuous improvement leading to a new organisation. What this means is that the strategy emphasises the concern for stakeholders on the part of management. This stakeholder commitment perspective results in improved attitudes, commitment and motivation among survivors in the newly created organisation.

Most often, downsizing strategies lead to workforce reductions (Appelbaum, et al., 2003, 23). Most authors (Cascio, 1993, p.101; McKinley, Sanchez & Schick, 1999, p.134; Budros, 2000, p. 278) have thus focused on reductions through layoffs in their writings on downsizing. When mentioning strategies for downsizing, these authors have distinguished between voluntary and involuntary downsizing. Voluntary downsizing is associated with attrition, early retirement, and other related programmes while involuntary downsizing is associated with layoff programmes such as outplacement, redeployment, induced retirement, etc. Though a number of scholars have distinguished between these two broad strategies, the distinction is usually less straightforward than commonly suggested. For example, when employees are pressed to retire early, it may seem unique to associate early retirements with voluntary downsizings. However, authors such Greenhalgh, Lawrence, and Sutton (1999, p. 244) view early retirements resulting from managerial pressures as an essentially voluntary method of workforce reduction, noting that layoffs require employees to leave and the early retirement pressures induce them to leave. This argument can be questioned, however, the two phenomena differ along some key dimensions, such as employee protection and cost savings.
The employee reduction strategy that brings about less effect on survivors and victims is the voluntary one. This assertion is supported by Hillman and Keim (2001, p. 125) who argue that voluntary downsizing has more positive human and economic effects than the involuntary one. In this case then, a determination of why organisations downsize through the involuntary rather than the voluntary means, and the two key dimensions underlying these downsizing strategies can contribute towards a theoretical understanding of downsizing. One of the two dimensions mentioned in the literature (Budros, 2002, p. 316) is the degree to which employee well-being is protected. The protection of employees, that is, ensuring that before, during and even after the downsizing exercise survivors remain committed and motivated to expend maximum effort, is relatively low when organisations resort to involuntary downsizing strategies and relatively high when they implement voluntary ones. What this means is that employees do not have control over the continuity of their employment when organisations execute layoffs, indicating that the protection of employee well-being is relatively low in these cases. In contrast, normal attrition and other voluntary downsizing strategies offer employees varying levels of economic security, indicating that employee protection is relatively high in these cases.

The second dimension is the degree of short-term cost savings for the organisation. Relatively, low savings accrue from the use of voluntary strategies, and high savings from the use of involuntary ones. Voluntary downsizing strategies generate relatively low cost short-term savings because it takes considerable time to complete them or because they require costly payment to exiting employees, while involuntary downsizing strategies produce relatively high short-term savings because most displaced employees receive a modest severance pay or nothing (Budros, 2000, p.313). In tandem with this latter assertion, McKinley, Zhao and Rust (2000, p. 238) state that survivors of an involuntary downsizing exercise usually develop feelings of guilty just by the mere fact that their long-standing colleagues have been laid off and they have remained.
2.6 THE ECONOMIC REASONS FOR DOWNSIZING

Beginning with the factory closures in the 1980s during the recession period in the USA, downsizing has turned into one of the inevitable outcomes of living in a global world where continual adjustments to products, services and the price of labour are needed to remain competitive (Kusum, 2003, p. 12). Today, even patriarchal organisations offering lifetime employment and security have not gone unscathed from the need to layoff some of their employees. In the Southern African region, for example, most organisations have entered the business arena recently and therefore unique demands are being imposed on their leaders to compete internationally. In South Africa specifically, Robbins, Odendall and Roodts (2004, p.12) state that business managers are responding to the ever changing environment and going global by having to improve their organisation’s productivity as well as the quality of products and services offered. In order to improve quality and productivity, business managers are implementing programmes such as total quality management and re-engineering/downsizing. For example, South African Airways, ABSA and Nedcor have implemented cost cutting programmes and eliminated hundreds of jobs during the period 2000-2002 (Naidoo, 2003, p. 13). These programmes are justified in the face of the changes regarding what characterises managing in a global arena.

Hitt, Miller & Cocella (2006, p. 9) ascertain that today, managing would be described as long periods of ongoing change, interrupted occasionally by periods of stability. As a result, both organisations and employees are in a state of flux, hence the need to continually re-organise various divisions of organisations. The re-organisation can be done through eliminating businesses that are performing poorly, downsizing some operations, and outsourcing non-critical services and operations to other organisations. Such strategies represent proactive responses in the face of a globally competitive business environment. From the above, as observed by Stavrou, Kassinis & Filotheou (2006, p. 149) it is imperative to state that factors such as productivity and efficiency, business environment and globalisation are significant strategic considerations in making decisions about downsizing.
Interestingly, the business environment and globalisation both have been cited in the literature as external ‘determinist’ explanations of downsizing (Budros, 1999, p. 76). They have been used to deflect blame for downsizing away from possible poor management decisions towards external conditions and forces which managers do not control. Indeed, such an explanation is in line with theoretical approaches to the study of downsizing that emphasise the economic theory.

By and large the predominant line of thinking, implicit or explicit, that is given by most studies on downsizing is the economic theory based on the dominant conception of control. As stated previously, the theory of corporate control is associated with institutionalism because it sees strategic and structural changes as being driven specially by cultural and individual-level factors (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983, p. 158). However in the discussion of the theory, Fligstein (1996, p. 660) argues that organisational change can be attributed to economic as well institutional (noneconomic) processes and includes both institutional and economic factors. With respect to economic processes, Fligstein (1996, p. 661) rejects the assumption of classic economic theory that managers are rational actors seeking to maximise growth, profits, and technical efficiency but instead assumes that managers pursue acceptable performances and survival in the face of competition. Fligstein (1996, p.663) therefore stresses the need for an assessment of strategies to downsize and structures to remain efficient and effective within a specific institutional context. Thus, managers always refer to the dominant conception of control and the competitive problems that they face in evaluating strategies and structures. Structures that are perceived as efficient are those that produce higher growth and profits.

Efficient structural changes to the organisation resulting in reductions in the numbers employed take a number of forms. For example, Kinnie, Hutchinson and Purcell (2000, p.300) point out that senior managers may decide to simplify the structure of the organisation by removing layers from the hierarchy.
On the other hand, they may decide to decentralise the organisation often with related reduction in the numbers employed in the head office. It is common these days to find head offices with very few employees. This may be linked to the establishment of strategic business units (Kinnie, et al., 2000, p. 298). The whole idea is to reduce costs and remain as efficient as possible. Efficiency, then, is viewed not in abstract and technical terms but in concrete terms: with a conception of control in mind, managers adopt human resource practices they define as efficient in order to achieve acceptable performances, stabilise competitive conditions and allow organisations to survive.

Drawing from Fligstein’s (1990) theory as explained above, it is possible to state that downsizing strategies are affected by economic and institutional pressures. This understanding is linked to the previously outlined dimensions – the protection of employees’ well-being and short-term cost savings. As noted, involuntary downsizings combine relatively low employee protection with relatively high short-term savings. Although the high savings may be attractive to organisations, the offering of low employee protection may generate social problems and operational problems within an organisation as well as reputation problems with certain constituencies outside the organisation. Therefore, involuntary downsizings results from economic pressures requiring immediate cost reductions and from institutional pressures defining such acts as natural. This assertion is supported by a number of scholars (Lee, 1997, p. 888; McKinley, et al., 2000, p. 67) who argue that organisations always resort to layoffs when they recognise the economic need to react to increased competition, challenge from foreign imports, sluggish sales, and increased costs of doing business.

Voluntary downsizings offer employees greater protections than involuntary ones but produce less short-term savings. In such cases, organisations cannot be accused of mistreating employees, but they could be inclined to offer employee protections only when they are viable economically or when they seem to be appropriate socially (De Meuse, Bergmann, Vanderheiden & Roraff, 2004, p. 159).
As a result, voluntary downsizings occur when organisations are protected from economic pressures and when social processes generate a preference for voluntary downsizings. Few researchers (Cappelli, 2000, p. 110; Kassins & Vafeas, 2006, p. 1) have considered this causal logic underlying voluntary downsizing. Cappelli (2000, p. 105) argues that the reasons for downsizing may affect the method of downsizing used. Thus, organisations that are not burdened by financial pressures can afford the expense of severance plans and the lengthy planning required to organise early retirement programmes. Those organisations that need to stay competitive by conforming to what they term ideal models of ‘lean’ to remain competitive will pursue swifter, less-generous options. What this means is that organisations requiring a drastic turnaround are forced to execute layoffs, while those that are in less dire economic straits can rely on voluntary downsizing strategies and can thus avoid the painful layoffs.

Nixon, Hitt, Lee and Jeong (2004, p. 1126) identify six economic factors whose link to downsizing is based on efficiency logic as discussed above. Specifically, the logic is that economic, technical and related pressures can produce economic crises that jeopardise survival. As a result, organisations are most likely to respond to them by seeking short-term cost savings through involuntary downsizings and least likely to respond by pursuing longer-term cost savings through voluntary downsizings. The most likely response by organisations exposes them to accusations that they are undervaluing employees’ well-being but, when faced with immediate economic pressures, survival concerns override reputation concerns. This logic is supported by the tendency of researchers to associate pressures of this nature with involuntary downsizing (layoffs). The six economic factors are discussed below.

### 2.6.1 Organisational profit decline

The first economic cause mentioned in surveys (American Management Association, 1987, p. 457) is the declining of profits. During the early 1980s, many organisations worldwide were oligopolies. This means that prices were administered informally rather than competitively.
But as the 1980s approached, competitive pressures led to profit declines, producing downsizings. For example, Japanese organisations started to take profits away from their United States (U. S.) counterparts, and in response, Daimler Chrysler in Germany also eliminated personnel (Budros, 2002, p. 318). Similarly, today, in other parts of the world such as South Africa, an organisation such as the South African Airways (SAA) made a loss of about R650 million in its 2005/6 financial year. According to the Chief Executive Officer, the introduction of international competition halved the SAA’s local market share to 40 per cent while its staff compliment increased. As a result, the airline adopted a number of cost-cutting exercises that saw the scrapping of several domestic flight routes, a reduction in cellphone allowances, the review of expensive aircraft lease contracts as well as job losses to right-size the organisation (Daily Dispatch, 2007, p. 7). In line with these examples, it can be argued that profit declines create financial problems that can be solved more effectively by pursuing short-term cost savings through layoffs than by implementing other downsizing strategies whose cost savings are delayed. Therefore, profit declines are a cause of involuntary downsizing.

The above conclusion is supported by Applebaum, Close and Klasa (1999, p. 424) who state that crisis-led financial management and change in organisational ideology are closely connected to downsizing. However, as other scholars (e. g., Cascio, 2002, p. 88) argue, this approach to downsizing does not take into consideration the stakeholder management model. The model states that when employees are taken as important stakeholders, organisations with a tradition of placing greater value on employees’ needs and interests rather than on short-term profits avoid downsizing, since it seems to be incompatible with a philosophy endorsing the humane treatment of employees (Stavrou, et al., (2006, p. 154). Adopting a stakeholder model approach would take into consideration the welfare and performance of both laid off and remaining employees.
2.6.2 Organisation type

Downsizings have varied by organisation. According to the U.S General Accounting Office Report (1987, p. 48) the activity has been greater among manufacturing than among non-manufacturing organisations. The variation is attributed to manufacturers’ greater exposure to competitive pressures, and the attention especially centres on the cost-cutting pressures generated by economic globalisation. For example, competitive pressures resulted in the South Africa Breweries (SAB Ltd) losing a forty-year old brand and almost a tenth of its domestic beer volumes as Heineken moved in to take back its control over Amstel Lager in South Africa (van de Merwe, 2007, p. 1). This created tough domestic and international competition in beer distribution in South Africa. The SAB reacted to this move by reducing some of its excess employees to cut its costs (van der Merwe (2007, p. 1). Similarly, the textile industry in South Africa experienced a wave of international competition from Chinese-made clothing organisations during the period 2003-2006. As a result 70 500 jobs were made redundant during which time growth in clothing imports from China to South Africa surged by 730% (Business Times, 2007, p. 7).

Recently, Stavrou, et al., (2006, p. 152) wrote that, while global competition has wreaked havoc on manufacturers since the early 1980s, it has also begun to affect service firms such as banks, insurers, and public utilities. Indeed, downsizings, long prominent among manufacturers, have only increased in the last decade or so among service organisations. For example, in 1996 the Standard Bank of South Africa Ltd., the country's largest bank, offered voluntary severance packages to about 700 employees in South Africa (The New York Times, 2007, p. 8). Similarly, Shoprite retail shop in South Africa bought OK furniture’s which had been bankrupt for a number of years. As a result, a number of employees lost their jobs as the new owners decided to right-size their new ownership. (www.btimes.co.za). It is therefore clear that the effects of organisational affiliation (manufacturing vs. non-manufacturing) on involuntary downsizing are positive among involuntary downsizings since
intensifying competition has pressed manufacturers to cut costs quickly, while
they are negative on voluntary downsizings, since the less intense
competition experienced by non-manufacturing organisations has allowed
them to cut their costs gradually.

2.6.3 Mergers and acquisitions
Reductions in workforce may also take place because of an acquisition or
merger among organisations. A large wave of mergers and acquisitions has
unfolded since the 1980s among organisations in the U. S. and it continues to
do so in both the public and the private sectors in other parts of the world,
such as Australia (Harman, 2002, p. 91), South Africa (Wyngaard & Kapp
(2004, p.185), and Zimbabwe (The Herald, 2007, p. 8). Applebaum, Everard
and Hung (1999, p. 537) report that the striking feature of these mergers and
acquisitions is that organisations have used them not as a means of
generating asset growth but as a means of achieving cost cuts through
downsizing. Such an assertion is supported by a survey done by Chadwick,
Hunter and Walston (2004, p. 411) who showed that middle managers in
particular, are often dismissed after mergers, incorporations or acquisitions,
with financial, communications, planning, and human resources personnel
being affected more significantly than operations personnel.

Deniz and Suarez (2005, p.31) note that banking mergers and acquisitions
accelerated in the mid-1980s and one example of this activity involved Wells
Fargo, a company in the U. S which purchased another company called
Crocker National Corporation in 1995. Upon completion of the sale, nearly all
of Crocker’s executives and almost 1,600 managers were let go. Plans were
also made to shed 25% of Crocker’s assets and branches and 3,000 more
jobs were lost (Budros, 2002, p. 320). This example links acquisitions to
employee redundancies, which downsizings can eliminate. Taking downsizing
strategies into account, it can be argued that mergers, acquisitions and/or
incorporations result in involuntary downsizing because the expense of
employing excess personnel created by such decisions pushes organisations
to eliminate personnel quickly through layoffs.
2.6.4 Market regulation
Organisations in regulated industries have historically been protected from open competition (Budros, 1999, p. 70). This allowed them to maintain surplus employees (Vanderheiden, De Meuse & Bergmann, 1999, p. 278). In contrast, organisations in deregulated industries need to compete in the open market, forcing them to increase their competitiveness through reductions in workforce. The economic deregulation that characterises most African economies including South Africa has exposed many organisations to open competition, forcing them to cut costs. According to Bothma (2001, p. 37), the competitiveness of many enterprises in the South African economy continues to be based on the traditional factors of costs and access to raw materials. As a result, employee costs ranged from 30% to 80% of general and administrative costs in most organisations and most of them have lowered their costs through downsizings. Indeed, even in countries such as the U.S. organisations cite deregulation as a reason for downsizing (Michael, 1997, p. 19). One survey attributed 8% of all known downsizing to this factor (Budros, 2002, p. 320). Considering the competitive pressure created by economic deregulation, it can be stated that deregulation (deregulation vs. regulation) of an economy causes organisations to use involuntary downsizing in order to reduce costs and increase their competitive advantage.

2.6.5 Public or private organisation
The existence of two types of corporate ownerships has also provided a basis for downsizing. These are publicly held corporations, which are owned by shareholders, and privately held ones, which typically are owned by a few residual risk bearers (Budros, 2000, p. 280). Shareholders usually are regarded as being interested in short-term financial performance and, as the agents of shareholders, managers of public organisations always feel pressured to satisfy this interest. One way to satisfy the shareholders is to reduce employment costs quickly through involuntary downsizings. As noted previously, attention to stakeholder interests especially should have been keen during the 1980s and 1990s, because of the prominence of investor capitalism during these decades. The pressure to improve an organisation’s
financial performance should compel managers to use voluntary downsizings to cut costs and thus increase performance levels (Cao & McHugh, 2005, p. 480).

In contrast, managers who own organisations do not face shareholder pressures, so they should be able to decide on longer-term strategies such as voluntary downsizing over short-term ones as a means of handling financial pressures (Budros, 1997, p. 64). To illustrate this logic, the South African Reserve Bank (2006, p. 68) notes that the sensitivity to shareholder interests led such publicly held organisations as Eskom and Telkom to execute large scale layoffs. Building on this example, it can be argued that the effects of ownership (public or private) compel an organisation to downsize using either the involuntary or voluntary approach.

### 2.6.6 Decrease in demand for goods

Another cause for downsizing mentioned in the literature by scholars (Martin & Cheung, 2002, p. 447) is that, during the hard economic times, a decrease in demand for goods and services creates short-term financial pressures. Managers can alleviate such pressures through cost saving employee cuts. This logic is well illustrated in the current wave of economic hardships that Zimbabwe is experiencing. According to The Zimbabwean Financial Gazette (2007, p. 13) nearly 200 000 jobs have been lost as companies struggle to grapple with the decreased demand for goods and services during the period 2001-2005.

Similarly, since the early 1980s, and since the economic crisis that took place in 1982 in the US, organisations have continued to cite business downturns as a rationale for downsizing (Budros, 1999, p. 71). For example, organisations such as Hewlett-Packard and Nike stressed that declining economic conditions deriving from the economic ills in Asia contributed to them deciding to downsize their workforce (Budros, 2002, p. 285). Nevertheless, some (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001, p. 130) argue that employee cuts have been happening even during economic upturns.
Their explanation for this situation is that any given organisation interprets economic upturns as a sign that its rivals are thriving. Worried about its competitive position relative to rivals, the organisation should be motivated to make cutbacks. In view of the above arguments and counter-arguments, we can state that the weaker the economy, the more likely it is that organisations downsize using involuntary strategy.

The economic logic of downsizings as indicated above can result in organisations taking a number of measures in implementing their downsizing strategy. For example, Kinnie et al., (2000, p. 308) state that competition can result in the organisation adopting the core–periphery model of downsizing. This practice involves distinguishing between activities which are central or core to the business and those which are peripheral. Core staff will generally enjoy permanent or long-term contracts and conditions of work. Peripheral staff will comprise various other groups including short-term contracts or casual employees and staff employed by labour agencies in-sourced to the organization (Kinnie, et al., 2000, p. 309). With changes in technology, some more qualitative changes where the core staff is required to acquire competence in a wider range of tasks in order to become functionally flexible are carried out. In such situations, core staff may be rewarded for their flexibility by the use of human resource management techniques such as access to training, development opportunities, and guaranteed job security. In this instance, the uncertainty resulting from fluctuations in the economy is transferred from core employees to periphery employees and the sub-contracting organizations (Kinnie, et al., 2000, 310).

Another downsizing strategy related to the economic logic, but specifically meant to improve the efficiency of the organisation with fewer employees, is the adoption of new processes of managing including techniques such as Total Quality Management (TQM), Just In Time (JIT) or team working (Budros, 1999, p.71). TQM is described as a concept that includes principles of customer orientation, process orientation and continuous improvement. The main aim of JIT is to match the output of manufacturing systems to the needs
of the market. Both TQM and JIT can lead to reductions in the number of those employed in the quality departments and to delayering with the use of team working. As Cascio (2000, p. 86) commented, often the move by organisations to JIT and TQM is accompanied by the introduction of new technology which itself may involve job losses and new working practices. Change brought about as a result of JIT and TQM are often regarded as part of broader developments in the organisation and are defined as systemic (Cameron, 1994, p.198). Systemic change focuses on changing an organisation’s culture and the attitudes and values of its employees, not just changing the size of the workforce or work (Kinnie, et al. 2000, p. 300). In such scenarios downsizing is regarded as a continuous improvement process for the organisation in the face of competition or economic downturn, rather than as a program or a target.

2.7 INSTITUTIONAL REASONS FOR DOWNSIZING

It is important to note at this point that the above-mentioned reasons/causes for downsizing are based on economic logic. According to Stavrou, et al., (2006, p.151) there are four other factors in literature whose relationship to downsizing is based on institutional logic. These factors suggest that organisations downsize in response to mimetic, professional, socialisation, and other processes, with no direct bearing on internal functional requirements. In explaining these factors, Mckinley et al., (2000, p. 236) argue that in any society a network of organisations, such as the Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment Enterprises (BBBEEE) in South Africa, emerges as organisations become aware of their interdependence.

An established network of organisations features a common conception’ of appropriate action, providing its members with strategies and structures to control the external environment and thus to promote stability and survival. But as a new conception develops, new strategies and structures penetrate the network, and viewing the innovations as possessing a degree of legitimacy, some of network members adopt them. The adoptions occur because the effects of any action are unclear in the global environment and
the definition of any given situation is open to many interpretations. As a result, network member organisations adopt what they perceive as socially legitimate innovations. However, the innovations’ perceived legitimacy rises as they become more prevalent, increasing the pressure for the network’s member organisations to adopt them (Fligstein, 1991, p. 35). This process is called mimicry and scholars (Budros, 2000, p. 277; Lee, 1997, p. 883) have speculated and argued that mimicry underlies downsizing situations where the economic meltdown is so rampant that it continues to undermine business operations.

According to Fligstein (1990, p. 39) organisational managers are always engaged in a power struggle to determine who will become the Chief Executive Officer (CEO). Research (Collins, 2001, p. 20) has shown that those managers with functional backgrounds and who are compatible with the organisation’s prevailing conception of control have a competitive advantage over others, and tend to win the struggle. It is then in their interest to promote the dominant conception and to adopt the corresponding strategies and structures that solve the crises of competition. The point here is that individual-level factors involving personal and professional socialisation and other related psycho-social processes affect a CEO’s view of the organisation and how this abstract view is translated into concrete strategies and structures. Thus, in addition to the functional background, factors such as age and tenure should influence the strategies and structures that the CEO implements.

With respect to the CEO’s background, the finance conception mentioned earlier in the chapter spearheaded asset growth through unrelated diversification. The conception has a history of being used to guide mergers and acquisitions (Kinnie, et al., 2000, 300). The training of finance oriented CEOs equipped them to pursue these strategies. During the 1960s and 1970s, CEOs with such training dominated many organisations (Ocasio & Kim, 2000, p. 555). However, globalisation during the 1980s undermined these strategies and shareholder activists pushed organisations to solve the
crisis of control. They did so by embracing a new conception that recognised corporate specialisation and managers who have operational knowledge about their organisation’s lines of business, and the ability to make large-scale changes in production processes and operating practices. Those CEOs of discredited strategies and structures were viewed as lacking experience and dispositions to spearhead change. But since operations CEOs typically posses experience in administration and general management and thus know how to manage such large-scale changes as downsizings and restructurings in the operations of organisational divisions, they should have been seen as having the professional socialisation and outlook needed for the job (Ocasio & Kim, 2000, p. 570). As a result, finance CEOs fell from power and operations CEOs rose to power among large firms during the 1980s and 1990s.

Today, 70% of organisations in the world are headed by CEOs who have experience in operations management (Buckingham & Coffman, 2001, p. 39). While this is the case, it might be asked whether there is a relationship between operations CEOs and downsizings. The answer is that, since these CEOs’ backgrounds equip them with the ability to initiate large-scale reorganisation, and since they have risen to power in the era of globalisation when layoffs have been exalted as a competitive strategy, it is possible to conclude that the effects of operations CEOs on involuntary downsizings will be positive. The argument here is that a new CEO with an operations background who takes over the reign of an organisation with a lackluster performance record may blame his/her predecessor, and then execute layoffs in order to signal that he/she will revitalise the organisation. Thus, layoffs are caused or linked more closely to the CEO than to the organisation.

In tandem with the above conclusion, scholars (McKinley et al., 2000, p 95) also point out that the CEO’s age and length of tenure are related to downsizing. For example, in a study done by Bamford and Forrester (2003, p. 560) it was discovered that long-tenured CEOs are less likely than their more recent counterparts to initiate change because the former are more committed to the status quo that the latter. So when compelled to change, long-tenured
CEOs tended to implement the form of change that was least disruptive of the status quo. More specifically, since CEOs with short tenure would have expended a small amount of time and energy on the job, they would have had relatively impersonal relationships with their organisations. This means that the newer CEOs had weaker attachments to the status quo and especially to their employees. They were found to define the employees as human resources to be hired, organised, and dismissed, as needed. However, as the CEOs tenure lengthened, the greater investments of time and energy in running the organisation led to an escalation of commitment to prevailing arrangements. In such cases, the CEOs were found to have stronger relationships with employees, leading to the redefinition of the latter as valuable assets to the organisation’s success. Also confirming this finding, is another research that associated longer CEO tenure with fewer personnel changes, at least among an organisation’s upper-level managers (Guest & Conway, 2001, p.56). Given these findings, it is possible to conclude that one of the reasons for organisational voluntary downsizings is the length of the CEOs tenure.

While there are many other factors or reasons for organisations to downsize, it can be noted from the above discussion that economic shocks, social trends, technology and competition are the main reasons/causes for organisations to downsize. In other words, the economic argument associates industrial or manufacturing organisations with operating efficiencies, producing downsizing; the institutional argument is that organisations (especially manufacturing) downsize in order to be viewed favourably by stakeholders as users of the latest corporate practices. Despite differences in reasons for adopting downsizing as a strategy for efficiency and effectiveness by organisations, it is important to note that the downsizing through work force reduction has some positive spin-offs for survivors.
2.8 BENEFITS OF DOWNSIZING

Despite that fact that downsizing is seen in some circles as not meeting its intended outcomes such as performance improvement or business performance (Chadwick et al., 2004, p.423; Farell & Mavondo, 2005, p.98), a number of positive outcomes of downsizing have been noted. Among the expected benefits of downsizing are factors such as lower overheads, decreased bureaucracy, faster decision making, smoother communication, greater entrepreneurial behaviour, increased productivity and better earnings (Kets de Vries & Balazs, 1997, p. 12). Concurring with such an assertion Stavrou et al., (2006, p.151) state that the positive effects indicated in the literature are that downsizing reduces operating costs, enhances short-term financial performance, eliminates unnecessary levels of management to eliminate redundancies, and many save the organisation from continuing financial deterioration and possible bankruptcy.

It is certain from these observations that the major benefits of downsizing are greater flexibility, improvement in quality, and increased efficiency and productivity (Kumar, 2005, p. 5) The findings also point to the fact that the positive outcomes of downsizings could be grouped into those that deal with human resources (improved worker competencies, efficient use of employees’ capabilities, and prospects for career development); and those that deal with the effect on the organisation or the business (improved revenues and high profits, improved productivity, optimised structure and increased competitiveness) (Appelbaum, et al., 1999, p. 451).

Downsizing has been used as the driver in creating a more collaborative or team orientation to work processes (Appelbaum & Patton, 2002, p. 131). By focusing a downsizing effort around progressive human resources management practices, including the idea of using existing human resources effectively, the downsizing event can be a catalyst to implementing an organisational culture that emphasises teamwork and respect for people (Appelbaum, et al., 1999, p. 452).
This entails such well-known human resources practices as involving employees in decision-making; linking compensation to performance, and providing appropriate training. As Farell and Mavondo (2005, p.101) point out, these practices are already well researched and proven and a large body of evidence indicates that these practices are associated with increases in productivity and improved long-term financial performance. The challenge for management is to find the drive to implement them in a cohesive manner during and after a downsizing.

Based on the three forces (cost containment; strategic examination of core business capabilities and the identification and having access to the best ideas, people and technology) that encourage downsizing, Amabile and Conti (2000, p. 635) observed that many organisations end up outsourcing to obtain services after a downsizing event. Outsourcing arrangements that are a true reflection of a strategic alliance can result in the shifting of focus from cost-cutting to maximising the overall benefits to each other. One principal result of downsizing within the outsourcing initiative is that it allows the human resources within organisations to be more specialised and focused (Appelbaum, et al., 1999, p.445). This specialisation, especially among the survivors, in the form of intellectual capital, is what differentiates one organisation from the next after the process of downsizing (Amabile & Conti, 2000, p. 5)

Cefis and Marsili (2005, p. 1180) claim that within the knowledge sector, downsizing can have a positive effect on both the employees who have been downsized and those who remain behind after downsizing has been completed. Evans (1997, p. 53) writes that within the organisations that downsize, the span of control and the type of work changes for those knowledge sector workers who remain (survivors). Thus, in discussing the changing role of professionals and the subsequent benefits to survivors, Cameron, Freeman and Mishra (1993, p. 47) point out that corporate trainers
are now spending more time on higher order skills such as consulting with their internal clients (survivors) to be able to identify business issues, determining the appropriate interventions required, and brokering the services required with outside suppliers. Cameron et al., (1993, p. 50) further argue that this role has drastically changed from earlier surveys and reports, where trainers spent most of their time on more traditional duties such as programme design and delivery. These services are now provided by contractors. What this means therefore is that those employees who remain after downsizing benefit in terms acquiring higher order intellectual skills.

Applebaum, et al., (1999, p. 440) identified what they term as ‘organisational benefits’ of downsizing. These benefits are seen from the point of view of boards of directors of organisations, senior management, market analysts, and from the stockholders. A study done by Worrell, Davidson and Sharma (2000, p. 670) showed that the share price of companies rose significantly after downsizing. The rationale behind the rise in share prices was the reduction in payroll and other expense costs, and in the anticipated gains from increased productivity and competitiveness, all of which are attractive to market analysts (Applebaum et al., 1999, p. 441). With the increase in share price, downsizing does lead to productivity gains as part of processes such as business process re-engineering (BPR).

While the argument of using downsizing to improve productivity seems to be very strong, the positive correlation of downsizing to productivity only appears when management is effective in implementing significant operational changes, such as through BPR (Appelbaum, et al., 1999, p. 456). When human resource cuts become viable after a BPR effort, organisations usually eliminate positions and not individuals. When this happens, the positions of competent and loyal employees are cut. If the organisation cannot find work elsewhere for these employees in the organisation, giving those generous packages and outplacement services can undermine the savings of BPR. On the other hand, the continued support of the remaining employees (survivors) is critical to the ongoing success of the reengineering process (Applebaum &
Donia, 2002, p.341). When survivors are catered for, downsizing as part of a business process re-engineering project is assumed to lead to increased productivity. Several other scholars concur with the above noted benefits when they point out that downsizing may lead to the development of multi-skilled teams and flatter organisational structures that can potentially lead to more, not less, innovation (Love & Nohria, 2005, p.1100). Boone (2000, p. 29) notes that while downsizing is often regarded as bad for innovation, ‘there are examples of successful downsizing operations which substantially improve an organisation’s innovation record’. Thus, Conti and Amabile (1999, p.42) argue that open communication between decision-makers and staff during the downsizing process may facilitate more creative work after downsizing.

Litler and Inns (2003, p. 93) also argue that downsizing often results in more teamwork and an empowered multi-skilled workforce which encourage new idea generation, ingredients which are regarded as necessary for innovation. What these authors are basically arguing for is that the elimination of positions and some management layers by downsizing may create an internal environment that is favourable to the generation and survival of innovative ideas. Thus, one might argue that those employees (survivors) in flat organisations with few layers of management as a result of downsizing tend to work in diverse teams thereby bringing together complementary skills. The complement of skills comes in the sense that these employees are most likely to frequently exchange ideas across teams, and have better communication channels as compared to those working in centralised and hierarchical organisations, which in turn generate high levels of new ideas (Mellahi & Wilkinson, 2006, p. 8).

2.9 THE IMPACT OF DOWNSIZING ON SURVIVORS

One of the most important challenges facing organisations that have downsized are ‘people'-oriented issues, which require human resource interventions and support designed to enhance the chances that survivors’ emotions foster reactions rather than discourage them (Sahdev, Vinnicombe & Tyson, 1999, p. 906). Parts of such interventions have to do with training
and preparing managers to cope properly with the process of downsizing itself and the organisational era that follows (Franco, 2006, p.218). Understanding the determinants of (affective) reactions of survivors is an important step toward devising adequate human resource (HR) and human resource development (HRD) interventions and policies that enable downsizing to fulfill its goals.

Downsizing, in general has been shown in the literature to cause a plethora of organisational problems. One finding that researchers of the downsizing phenomenon agree upon is the cluster of reactions among those remaining in the organisation – a cluster that has become known as ‘survivor sickness’ (Noer, 1993, p. 69) or survivor syndrome (Cascio, 1993, p. 102). Survivor syndrome is the major factor that contributes to the failure of most organisations to achieve their corporate objectives after downsizing (Appelbaum, et al., 1999, p. 452). The term was first used by Niederland (1968) referring to the Holocaust and other catastrophes. Other researchers (e. g., Barusch & Hind, 2000, p.438) refer to them as negative responses of employees who retain their jobs after downsizing.

Because research examining survivor syndrome is inconclusive, these terms all refer to the way the survivors react when many of their friends and colleagues are forced to terminate their relationship with the organisation. The terms are regarded as generic in terms of how they refer to a set of attitudes, feelings, and perceptions that occur in employees who remain in organisational systems following involuntary employee reductions. Within the medical field, these reactions are regarded as pathologies and are referred to as post-traumatic stress disorder (Appelbaum, et al., 1999, p. 455). Although not as severe in corporate downsizing as in major tragic traumatic events, ‘corporate survivor’s syndrome has proved to be no less physically or mentally devastating (Applebaum, et al., 1999, p. 443).

The survivors’ syndrome or negative reactions after downsizing manifests itself in a number of ways. These include anger, depression, fear, guilt, risk
aversion, distrust, vulnerability or powerlessness, and loss of morale and motivation (Nixon, et al., 2004, p. 1127). Several writers have shown the existence of these and many other reactions after downsizing. For example, Stavrou, et al., (2006, p.151) write that a number of negative outcomes are associated with the effects of downsizing. The outcomes include increased centralisation, adoption of short-term crisis mentality, the loss of innovativeness, increased resistance to change, decreased morale commitment and loyalty, risk aversion and conservatism, less information sharing, lack of teamwork, and loss of forward thinking (Stavrou, et al., 2006, p.152). In addition to the above, other studies on downsizing (Cao & McHugh (2005, p. 475) found that survivors report a sense of psychological withdrawal from their organisations. Survivors also express a range of emotional responses such as increasing cynicism, lack of morale and motivation that has a direct impact on productivity levels and fear and a sense of betrayal about the organisation's motive for downsizing (Cao & McHugh (2005, p. 477). Medical studies have also shown an increased rate of medically certified sickness and an increased risk of death among people who remain at work following a major downsizing (Vahtera, Kivimaki, Pentti, 1999, p. 1126).

However, other studies show that most of the above-cited negative impacts on survivor attitudes occur immediately post-downsizing, but in the aftermath of downsizing, attitudes return to pre-downsizing levels or may even improve (Armstrong-Strassen, 2002, p. 11). Although this statement is inconclusive, researchers generally agreed that downsizing affects the psychological contract between the employer and the employees, perceptions of severity and implementation tactics, workload, job security/insecurity, morale, loyalty and justice. It also impacts differently across the different levels in the organisation, disturbs the communication networks in organisations, turnover intentions, stress levels and survivor emotions.

2.9.1 The impact on the psychological contract

The major issue for those at the receiving end of downsizing - the survivors and victims - concerns the 'psychological contract'. This term, as mentioned by
Bamford & Daniel (2004, p. 112), was coined by Levinson (1962) to describe people’s unconscious choice of an organisation to respond to their psychological needs and support their psychological defenses in exchange for meeting the organisation’s unstated needs. Bamford and Daniel (2005, p. 394) regard the psychological contract as a set of unwritten expectations to do with implicit matters of dignity and worth (Burnes, 2004, p. 115). The term codependency has also been used to describe such a state of affairs (Noer, 1993, p. 56). In the case of downsizing, the organisation breaks this implicit psychological contract between the employer and the employee—a contract that implies lifetime employment in return for hard work and loyalty. As a result, the feeling of dependency that may have evolved into entitlement is transformed into a sense of betrayal by survivors (Kumar, 2005, p. 9).

The literature on downsizing consistently points to the potentially negative impact of downsizing on the psychological contract. For example, Worrall, Cooper and Campbell (2000, p. 627) observe the negative impact of downsizing in the public sector resulting in a breakdown of the psychological contract as a consequence of reduced job security, loyalty, morale and motivation and the threat to career of managers. Manson (2000, p. 20) observed that after the psychological contract between the employer and the employees was broken, distrust toward top management was very much present, causing survivors to believe that management was guilty until proven innocent. This blaming phenomenon among those who remained could be a form of projection that serves as a defense mechanism, helping the individuals to confront their own survivor’s guilt (Manson, 2000, p. 23). Therefore, fairness on the part of the organisation when implementing layoffs becomes crucial in minimising this phenomenon.

Human resource managers should also take note of the fact that the psychological contract of the 20th century and the one for the 21st century are different. The 20th century psychological contract operated in business environments that were predictable and where employees were assured of continuous employment.
On the other hand, the rate of change in the business environment in the late 20th century, and increasing globalisation have consequences for the new psychological contract which encourages a relationship that implicitly recognises its short-term and medium-term duration so that commitment by both parties may be adjusted accordingly. (Nieto, 2006, p. 74). The challenge and/or opportunity facing HR professionals in the face of downsizing and the new psychological contract is, therefore, how to create a new working environment where innovation flourishes and employee relations are at a level where their commitment can contribute to the success and performance of the organization for longer. One way of doing this is to try to counterbalance any mistrust that may overshadow good working relationships. In other words, the creation of a climate of mutual investment with congruence between the goals of the survivors and the organisation is important.

### 2.9.2 The impact of downsizing severity and implementation tactics

The extent to which downsizing is threatening to survivors depends on the implementation tactics through which it is accomplished. Natural attrition and voluntary redeployment are viewed as less severe (Lewin, 2001, p.151). Terminations are clearly viewed as the most threatening form of workforce reduction for all groups of surviving employees. The increased threat comes from the fact that survivors feel guilty because they were spared the fate of their co-workers and they also worry about whether they will be terminated next if further downsizing is expected (Lewin, 2001, p. 152). Supporting these assertions is a study done by Sutton and D’Aunno (1989, p. 205) which found that the use of severe strategies were more threatening to surviving managers and this provoked more pronounced and mechanistic shifts in the new organisational structures. In addition, the use of severe strategies increased the levels of role conflict and risk aversion and decrease levels of organisational commitment felt by survivors. Burke and Leittrr (2000, p. 246) also found that organisations experiencing high degrees of downsizing had surviving managers who increased the centralisation of authority and decreased levels of participative decision making.
In support of the above, the threat rigidity thesis (Staw, et al., 1981, p. 521) posits that decreases in organisational resources (e.g., workforce size) are threatening to organisational members. The anxiety generated by such threats is said to lead to mechanistic structures throughout the organisation, as managers seek to consolidate their control. Thus, to the extent that decreasing size is threatening, departments and decision-making groups within the downsizing organisations are expected to shift towards more mechanistic structures as manifested in increased centralisation of authority and increased emphasis on formal rules and procedures (Lewin, 2001, p. 152). The shifts cause anxiety which can lead to changes in the way in which departments and workgroups are structured and managed. Lewin (2001, p. 154) also found that the intensity of, and duration of downsizing effects were influenced by the degree of downsizing. The conclusion therefore was that the degree of downsizing; fundamental shifts in resources or a modest, temporary disruption has an influence on survivors’ reactions via managers’ adoption of rigid management styles. Thus, if surviving managers perceive reductions in resources as minor and temporary, little or no rigidity occurs. In contrast, large losses in resources may cause surviving managers to construe that they face a significant threat, and rigidities in structures occur (Lewin, 2001, p.1555). Tzafrir, Harel Baruch and Dolan (2004, p. 635) argue that as the magnitude of downsizing initiatives increases, survivors’ perception of threat and uncertainty increases as well. These growing stressors lead to greater levels of conflict and risk aversion and lower levels of organisational commitment.

The severity and implementation tactics also affect the survivors’ susceptibility to survivor sickness. For example, the feeling of loss of control over the situation and the uncertainty caused by the possible loss of their own jobs cause severe stress reactions in the survivors. The sharp increase in the work overload, longer working hours, and fewer vacation days can reinforce this effect, leading to inefficiency and burnout (Mone, 1999, p. 12). These effects are more pronounced when downsizing is short-term, deep and handled with limited communication and employee and stakeholder participation. However, the literature (e.g., Armstrong-Stassen (2006, p. 23) has shown that some
individuals are driven to work harder after surviving a layoff, particularly those who become worried about their own job security after watching lay-offs.

Based on research findings as indicated above, it is possible to conclude that organisations that define downsizing as reduction in some workforce or personnel (as opposed to a continuous corporate transformation) affect the commitment and loyalty of the survivors. Survivors end up feeling that they are taking on extra duties while receiving very little in return. Such attitudes indicate the breaking up of a complex set of interconnections; hence downsizing is often regarded as an activity that brings about dramatic changes in the organisational environment. In some of the worst cases, researchers such as Pritti (2000, p. 106) have found that the downsizing process succeeds in tearing the organisation’s whole value system apart. As a result, the corporate culture that used to serve as the glue that kept the organisation together now loses its amalgamating function, and feelings of rudderlessness and anxiety emerge (Kets de Vries, & de Vitry d’ Avaucourt, 1996, p. 116).

2.9.3 The impact on workload perceptions

There are numerous hidden costs associated with downsizing as a strategy but they are often underestimated. Massive downsizing very often seems to generate more problems than it solves, and only rarely does it achieve its original financial objectives because of the consequences it causes among those who survive (Carbery & Garavan, 2004, p. 12-13). One of the consequences created by downsizing is perceptions of work overload among the survivors. Not only does downsizing in general create such perceptions, but also the method used. Among the different methods used to downsize, attrition can create job demands that employees are not equipped to handle. As a result, workforce imbalances will develop especially if there are no plans in place to guide the distribution of employees. Remaining employees may be asked, in the face of attrition, to take broader and unfamiliar responsibilities as part of efforts to cover the tasks previously performed by those who have left the company. Because of such demands, burnout, frustration, and decline in
Commenting on the relationship between the methods of downsizing and perceptions of work overload, Carbery and Garavan (2004, p. 12) argue that in situations of attrition, hiring freezes, or forced early retirement, the star performers seem to be the first ones to leave the organisation. As a result, crucial skills in human capacity disappear, and organisational memory is disrupted or completely lost. As a result, those who remain are often stuck with an increased work overload. The result is a group of unhappy, overworked employees, some of whom have to do tasks for which they were not trained (Kets de Vries & de Vitry d’Avaucourt, 1996, p. 118). Kinnie, et al., (2000, p. 301) showed that following downsizing, surviving employees had increase in stress and absenteeism and quality slipped. This is because these survivors were forced to work longer hours than before and ended up engaged in initiating job searches. Survivors felt guilty that they were not the ones who went, they feared a loss of their own jobs, were unclear about their responsibilities and what managers expected of them, perceived their workload as heavier, and felt the psychological contract was threatened. The same study found that survivors had feelings of envy (he’s got a special retirement package and a new job that pays better etc.’) which reduced employee commitment and cultivated feelings of demoralisation and demotivation to operate in the new work environment (Blau, Tatum, McCoy, Dobria & Ward-Cook, 2004, p. 38). These findings may lead to the conclusion that downsizing programmes that limit the inflow of new employees are associated with increased feelings of role overload and role ambiguity (Feldman, 2002, p. 190).

Koeber (2002, p. 219) argues that downsizing and displacement change both conditions and social relations of work. Specifically, downsizing contributes to the structural transformation of the labour markets through the creation of competition, both among individuals and among collectives.
In addition, downsizing alters the career path and results in jobs with substantially different task assignments, hours, and pay. It also causes a decline in work effort and/or enthusiasm of the workforce. Thus, in a study to analyse the phenomenon of corporate downsizing and the experience of worker displacement as process of work and employment change in a new economy, Koeber (2002, p. 230) found that some workers became too distraught about their prospects of job loss and future employment to keep their minds on their tasks. Others decided their employers no longer deserved the extra work effort they once volunteered. Some where literally too busy searching for a new job to focus on the one they had now after downsizing. Resentment between co-workers was common and sometimes conflict involving perceptions of racial preference were rampant. It is important therefore that organisations that have downsized adopt effective human resource management practices, focusing on work redesign and systematic changes as ways of mitigating the negative consequences associated with downsizing.

Downsizing has also been associated with decreased levels of innovativeness among the survivors. Mellahi and Wilkinson (2006, p. 4) found a significant and negative relationship between high levels of downsizing and innovation output. One interpretation of this negative impact might be that a high level of downsizing is likely to lead to an increase in workload which may influence the time and effort employees spend on innovation activities and high stress levels which subsequently have a deleterious consequence on the ability of organisations (through their employees) to innovate. Such an interpretation highlights the merit of taking into account the intensity of downsizing when examining the impact of downsizing on survivors and their ability to innovate after the process.

**2.9.4 The impact on morale, loyalty and perceptions of justice**

The first unintended consequence of downsizing is usually decreased survivor morale and loyalty. High employee morale and increased loyalty are regarded
as critical assets to the organisation, especially among the survivors. All other physical assets of an organisation can be duplicated, but not employees’ willingness to put in effort and invest time and energy in doing their work. Because such ‘unseen assets’ are individual specific, the belief that the employees are able to link their own futures with the future of the organisation is taken away by strategies such as downsizing. The result is that the employees will no longer trust the organisation (Makawatsakul & Kleiner, 2003, p. 54) and may reduce their work effort.

With regard to the impact of downsizing on survivors’ perception of justice, several theoretical models have been developed and/or applied. For example, the concepts of ‘procedural and distributive justice’ have been adopted from the psychology literature and used to help explain the variance in survivors’ responses to downsizing (Lewin, 2001, p. 157). Using these theoretical constructs, it is reasonable to argue that employees’ attitudes after downsizing depend on (a) how fairly the survivors were handled and (b) their perceptions of their co-workers’ reactions to the layoffs. Thus, if survivors sense that downsizing was handled in an unfair manner, they are likely to define their new work context as unfair, harbour feelings of distrust and uncertainty towards the organisation (Brockner, Wiesenfield, Stephan, Hurley, Grover & Read (1997, p. 857) and be less accepting of the resulting changes. In a series of other studies, Brockner et al. (1997, p. 858) also found that survivors take cues from the reaction of other organisational members in forming the perceptions of justice and/or fairness of the downsizing event. The studies indicated that those individual who are prominent in the organisation before the downsizing are more likely to be influential in the formation of negative or positive perceptions among the survivors following the downsizing.

In further explaining the impact of downsizing on perceptions of justice among survivors, Thornhill & Saunders (1998, p. 283) argue that survivors of a downsizing exercise exhibit two opposing categories of reactions, depending on the perceptions of how victims were selected and subsequently treated.
These categories are labelled sympathetic and unsympathetic. They refer to survivor reactions to those who leave the organisation. In the downsizing context, an unsympathetic reaction includes the belief that the reductions in staff were justified, particularly in relation to those selected for redundancy. When this happens, survivors distance themselves from victims and working harder. A sympathetic reaction includes the belief that victims have been unfairly selected and/or treated, resulting in negative emotions and behaviours towards the organization (Thorhill & Saunders, 1998, p. 290).

The nature and strength of survivors’ reactions, particularly sympathetic responses may be partly explained by the moderating variables such as prior work interdependence with the victims. More broadly, they may be partly explained by the existence or absence of shared attitudes, values and experiences. Other moderating variables include survivors’ own previous experiences of being made redundant, which permits both comparison and scope for possible sympathy; survivors’ beliefs that they will themselves be made redundant in the future; environmental conditions such as redundant employees’ scope to find comparable work in the labour market, their level of occupational and geographical mobility and their economic need to work. (Thorhill & Saunders, 1998, p. 291). All these will affect the strength of survivors’ reactions (Lord, Klimoski, & Kanfer, 2002, p. 23).

Downsizing can threaten survivors’ sense of well-being in several other ways. Besides seeing the organisation as having behaved unjustly or unfairly, survivors may also lose the belief that their contribution to the business will be rewarded in the future. These responses may easily threaten business performance. Furthermore, survivors of downsizing can become unduly risk averse and narrowly focused, and therefore less creative and open to change (Bleuel, 2001, p. 57). Thus, instead of renewing the organisation, downsizing creates a cycle of negative consequences. These consequences begin with survivor dissatisfaction and end with organisational inefficiency as well as poor service quality. Poor service quality might lead to high customer turnover and decreased profitability. In some instances, survivors become skeptical of
management and their morale goes down as they begin to fear future cuts. A lot of revenue is lost as morale deteriorates.

With regard to effects of downsizing on morale, Littler and Innes (2003, p. 89) note that low morale among survivors tends to spill over to other areas and activities in the organisation. For example, motivation is affected generally. A climate of discontent sometimes takes over the organisation especially when perceptions of procedural and distributive justice are not addressed. When this happens, employees feel a sense of loss and alienation, a sense of chaos, and a strong sense of uncertainty. These side effects of downsizing among survivors have been found to disrupt the entrepreneurial spirit of many middle managers (Nieto, 2003, p. 45). With a sense of loss and a decrease in loyalty, middle managers reduce their level of enthusiasm and the innovativeness with which they conduct their activities (Allen, et al., 2001, p. 150). Because middle managers are responsible for operational tasks, strategic human resource management practices, such as increased participation of survivors in all the stages of downsizing become a panacea to reduced perceptions of unfairness, increased levels of trust, loyalty, morale and motivation among the surviving employees.

2.9.5 The impact on job security
Traditionally, survivors after downsizing were thought to be grateful to keep their jobs, and therefore, were expected to be more productive (Clark & Koonce, 1999, p. 12). In the wake of downsizing, however, survivors actually fear for their jobs, develop a growing mistrust for the organization and have little understanding of what management is doing, or of what their role will be in the organisation’s future (Appelbaum, et al., 1999, p. 540). The literature (e.g., Koeber, 2002, p. 220) reports that survivors of downsizing experience adverse effects as they are confronted with uncertainties about new or altered job responsibilities, changes in career paths and workgroup changes. The overall levels of job uncertainty decline between the anticipation (when employees receive notices of the intent to downsize by the organisation) and implementation stages of downsizing (Kernan & Hanges, 2002, p.923). Some
studies indicate that survivors show reduced levels of work effort, job satisfaction and organisational commitment in the aftermath of downsizing (Campbell-Jamison, Worrall & Cooper, 2002, p. 46). These negative reactions are due to increased workload, increased job insecurity, or a loss of trust in the organisation (Greenglass & Burke, 2000, p. 156; Niehoff, Moorman, Blakely & Fuller, 2001, p. 107).

However, findings relating to employee attitudes during and after downsizing suggest that in other change contexts, employees’ levels of job uncertainty and personal control stabilise or improve after the major change event. For example, Nelson, Cooper & Jackson (1995, p. 60) found significant changes in levels of job uncertainty and personal control over time. Pollard (2001, p. 22) found that levels of intense emotional arousal, self-reported mental health, and blood pressure were high just prior to and 4 months after reorganisation, and levels of job uncertainty were positively correlated with these variables. Other research has shown that uncertainty and stress are elevated during the change process, but then decrease or stabilise after the implementation of change (Armstrong-Stassen, 2001, p. 10; Parker, Chmiel & Wall, 1997, p. 292). Parker and colleagues found that role clarity, job control and participation increased during the change process due to improvements to work characteristics. Armstrong-Stassen reported that levels of job security for survivors in the post-downsizing period were significantly higher than during the initial and implementation stages. The stabilisation or non-stabilisation of job uncertainty and personal control as observed in these studies suggest the use of effective intervention human resource techniques in curbing the impacts of downsizing on survivors.

In support of the relationship between perceptions of job security/insecurity and subsequent employee performance or increase in productivity Manson (2000, p. 22) showed that survivors distanced themselves from the layoff victims or distanced themselves from the organisation because they felt guilt. However, to reduce the feelings of guilt over their co-workers’ dismissal, some employees increased their level of output. The reason was that job insecurity

caused survivors to develop a more negative attitude towards each other and triggered in them the need to outperform their co-workers. Furthermore, it appeared as if the remaining employees needed to redress the feeling of inequality elicited by their survival by convincing themselves that those who had been laid off deserved it. Thus, in some instances, it can arguably be stated that a moderate amount of job insecurity can actually lead to temporarily heightened productivity. Indeed, evidence is also provided that suggests that feelings of guilt or fear of further job cuts can increase performance and productivity (Paulsen, Callan, Grice, Rooney, Gallois & Jones (2005, p.490). Others, for example, Wagar & Rondeau (2000, p. 111) claim otherwise and argue that fear about future job losses can lead to inappropriate behaviour among survivors who work long hours simply to be at work. Such survivors are labelled 'presentees'.

Contrary to the argument that job insecurity increases productivity, Brockner, (2000, p.27) showed that job insecurity among survivors had an enormous negative impact on organisational effectiveness as indicated by the following: Many of the surviving executives asked themselves if they would be next in line; the dismissal of long-term employees resulted in the loss of institutional memory; head office staff with an overall strategic look had been dismissed; specialists and executives resorted to a short-term approach toward decision-making, which had serious repercussions for research and development, capital investments, and training and development. All these changes were found to contribute to the sense of disorientation that survivors were experiencing.

In a survey in the UK of 170 personnel specialists in 131 financial services companies, Fugate, Kinicki and Scheck (2002, p. 923) concluded that organisations forced to cut jobs neglected the needs of the employees who remained. Although 79 per cent of the companies provided outplacement services for employees leaving, the survey found that less than half gave support to those who remained. Instead of feeling relieved that their jobs were secure, those who survived were demoralised about their own future (Kinnie,
et al., (2000, p. 298). This means that survivors perceived a significant and lasting change in their relationship to the organisation which could have drastic effects on the commitment levels.

2.9.6 The impact across organisational levels
Downsizing brings a certain amount of ‘cutback democracy’ to the workplace; people of all job positions now seem to be included in the effects of the practice. A study by an outplacement company in the USA noted that 74% of the remaining senior executives in downsized companies experienced problems with morale, trust, and productivity (Bennett, 2001, p. B-12). Other researchers (e.g., Kumar, 2005, p. 10), exploring possible defensive reactions among survivors, found that denial was a coping mechanism which was common among both management and employees in the downsizing process. The findings confirm suggestions that the higher the organisational level, the stronger the denial tends to be (Cameron, 1994, p. 204). Kumar (2005, p. 11) also found various cognitive coping strategies among the different levels in the organisation leading to two different reactions to downsizing: survivors either resort to denial-detachment, thus distancing themselves psychologically from the perceived threat, or show signs of hypersensitivity, closely monitoring for danger signs (Luthans & Sommer, 1999, 59). Lower level survivors were found to resort to denial-detachment while managers became hypersensitive. These reactions prevent the remaining employees from concentrating on the new goals of the organisation and are likely to lead to decreases in productivity or bad interpersonal relations between and within the different organisational levels.

In other related studies, Luthans and Sommer (1999, p. 58) found that attitudes such as organisational commitment, job satisfaction and workgroup trust significantly declined over the downsizing intervention within and between organisational departments. For example, organisational commitment and job satisfaction were significantly different between departments that were affected by downsizing versus those that were not affected. In addition, survivors’ attitude changes were influenced by whether
the respondents were managers or staff employees. Employees showed lower workgroup trust and managers reported higher levels of commitment, job satisfaction and workgroup trust (Luthans & Sommer (1999, p. 59). This might however be explained, in part by the managers’ tendencies to have a long-term vision. These findings, however, are contrary to reports that after downsizing, managers find themselves working in new and less friendly environments where they are stretched thin from managing more people and jobs and from working longer hours (Pritti, 2000, p.110). As a result, the remaining managers usually get confused and have mixed emotions. On one hand, they are glad to stay, and the organisation’s apparent high regard for them gives them more comfort. On the other hand, their trust and loyalty is undermined by the displacement of co-employees. Thus, they sometimes suffer guilt when colleagues and friends are forced out of jobs.

Further evidence of different symptoms of the survivor syndrome among the organisational levels were found in a survey of BT managers (Bordia, Hunt, Paulsen, Tourish & DiFonzo, 2004, p. 356). The survey results showed that programme managers were demotivated, felt they were working longer hours, lacked information about their role and had reduced control. Studies on perceptions of loss of control following a downsizing exercise found similar results. For example, a study to compare the coping reactions of middle–level and executive-level managers by Armstrong-Stassen (2005, p.120) reported that survivors who felt they had little control over decisions affecting the future of their jobs were less likely to engage in control-oriented coping, that is, recasting the situation in positive terms; being task-focused, applying problem-solving efforts such as devoting more time to one’s job and seeking information from others.

According to Armstrong–Stassen (2005, p. 121) these reactions were rampant among middle managers than among other staff members. On the other hand, middle managers reported a significant increase in their workload demands as the downsizing progressed. Middle managers also perceived more threat of job loss and a greater sense of powerlessness to influence
decisions concerning the future of their jobs. These findings support the claims in literature that middle-managers have less control over decisions concerning the future of their jobs than executive-level managers (Swanson & Power, 2001, p.170). As a result, middle-managers are more likely to resort to escape coping (avoiding the situation and withdrawing by putting less effort into doing one’s job) than executive-level managers. It is important to note that middle managers are both implementers and targets of downsizing. They have been described as the ‘filling in the sandwich’ and ‘toothpaste in the tube’ squeezed in between the upper and lower levels of organisational demands (Holden & Roberts, 2004, p.270). As both implementers and targets of organisational downsizing, much of the work of implementing downsizing falls on middle managers and much of the downsizing that takes place targets middle managers. The result is increased workloads and feelings of job insecurity among this level of management managers which will eventually lead to decreased motivation and commitment levels (Armstrong-Stassen, 2005, p.120).

Despite the above findings, there is evidence that the differential survivor sickness reactions between the different levels within an organisation varies with the different stages of the downsizing process. For example, (Balogun, 2003, p. 71) found that executive-level and middle-level managers reported more health symptoms in the post-downsizing period compared with the first phase of downsizing. Similarly, Armstrong-Stassen (2005, p. 123) also reported that both groups of managers perceived a significantly higher sense of power to influence decisions concerning the future of their jobs than they did prior to the downsizing. Depending on whether the managers had experienced/survived small or large scale reduction in their ranks, it seems as though this gave them a greater sense of control over decisions about their jobs, promoting such aspects as commitment and motivation.

2.9.7 The impact on communication networks
Organisational downsizing is a disruptive process that affects the communication patterns, perceptions, and attitudes of surviving employees. It
has a detrimental effect on innovation and learning as it breaks the informal networks developed by people over the years (Reynolds-Fisher & White, 2000, p. 247). As employees are dismissed from the work environment, the remaining employees may positively or negatively characterise the downsizing depending on their gain or loss of connections to their valued network sources (Shah, 2000, p. 106 & p.110). What this means is that downsizing survivors are likely to face many changes in the work environment, including the loss of ties to information sources and the loss of direct and indirect links to individuals with power and influence in the network.

As the network of communication changes, surviving individuals in the network will likely rely in part on their transactive memory to help them process their information needs in the post-downsizing environment. Transactive memory is a collection of information that exits in an organisational setting where members are aware of shared and unique information held by others that are needed for work functioning (Hollingshead, 2001, p. 1084). Given our current knowledge of downsizing and communication networks, it is reasonable to state that after an organisational downsizing the organisation’s communication network fluctuates as members are removed and surviving network members adjust to the post-downsizing environment. Individuals will reconfigure their communication and interaction networks to accommodate the loss and/or addition of communication linkages (Shah, 2000, p.106), eventually leading to a reconfigured post-downsizing network. This is a key adjustment factor for downsizing survivors to work through. These adjustments are likely to be facilitated by the transactive memory where members begin to understand and process who holds what information and how it is important for operational functioning (Hollingshead, 2001, p.1085). Survivor adjustments are also given impetus by the formal arrangements of groups and departments within the organisation.

Although organisations typically divide their members into formal departments and functional groups of informal communication, links exist within and between formal work groups.
Organisational members maintain task and social relationships with other members at varied hierarchical levels that make up the network in an organisation (Feeley, 2000, p.381). Thus, any disruptions to these network interactions can influence individual perceptions and attitudes after a downsizing exercise. In support of these assertions, research on downsizing has shown that observable reconfigurations to work groups are likely to have considerable impact on employee attitudes and performance (Cummings & Cross, 2003, p. 948).

Shah (2000, p. 106) notes that: (a) the communication network patterns are related to network members’ organisational commitment and role ambiguity, (b) longitudinal changes in network relationships have a unique influence on network members’ perception of uncertainty and openness to change following a downsizing event, and (c) changes to friendship and advice networks lead to unique affective responses among downsizing survivors in the post-downsizing environment. Shah (2000, p. 107) further examined the network implications of downsizing and found that the friendship ties were not easily replaced and generally had a negative effect on the post-downsizing environment. Shah (2000, p. 108) also reports that in the 6 months following a downsizing, friendship and advice networks are usually influenced differently. Friendship network decrease and advice networks increase. These findings suggest that employees’ adjustment to a new post downsizing network are tied in part to organisational performance following a downsizing, and it is likely that the flow of communication and the general effectiveness of communication during and following a downsizing event influence survivors’ perceptions and attitudes of the organisation.

It is not only the flow of information that survivors require, but its adequacy in order for them to function effectively in the new environment. Researchers (e.g., Shah, 2000, p. 111) argue that not receiving adequate levels of pertinent work-related information has been shown to negatively influence downsizing survivors’ certainty about their future careers and is believed to negatively affect levels of commitment to the organisation.
Therefore, employees’ perceptions of information adequacy are particularly important during times of uncertainty when employees have an enhanced need for information (Morris & Vancouver, 2000, p.127). Indeed, the literature argues that regardless of the hierarchical levels in an organisation, employees require information to perform their work-related duties (Luthans & Sommer, 1999, p.63).

The perception of not receiving sufficient information among the surviving employees can influence their willingness to participate in organisational change or future activities. However, the perception is influenced by a number of factors. Morrison (2002, p. 238) points out that a need for information and perceptions of adequacy or inadequacy under conditions of organisational change is influenced by contextual and individual factors. In particular, contextual issues such as ambiguity or performance pressure relative to the new organisational structure, and individual factors such as tolerance for uncertainty or need for control, are likely to influence survivor’s perceptions of information adequacy.

Other researchers (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998, p. 575) have found that decreases in information adequacy are related to higher levels of turnover intentions because the loss of needed work-related information will likely prompt survivors to re-evaluate their current employment relationship and their desire to remain employed in the post-downsizing environment. This is most likely to be severe when the change in information flow influences their ability to successfully perform their work-related duties and raises questions about their organisational future as downsizing survivors (Morris & Vancouver, 2000, p. 133). Similarly, Susskind (2007, p. 165) found that changes to downsizing survivors’ information network in the immediate post-downsizing environment were positively related to changes in perceptions of information adequacy and changes in information adequacy were negatively related to turnover intentions constantly across the post-downsizing environment. Thus, survivors who reported decreases in perceived information adequacy reported higher levels of turnover intentions compared to their peers who reported
gains in perceived information adequacy over the same time frame. It is possible that those who gained contacts in the post-downsizing environment had greater access to support processes that, in turn, lowered their negative perceptions of their new job situation and subsequently promoted their loyalty and commitment to stay with the organisation.

Writing on the disruptive nature of downsizing on network communication and the subsequent turnover intentions of survivors, Susskind (2007, p. 163) further argues that downsizing challenges survivors to restore a sense of order to their work environment. An individual’s desire to end an employment relationship is normally defined as a set of psychological responses to specific organisational conditions, like downsizing. These responses include withdrawal behaviours such as the physical act of quitting (turnover intentions). In this regard, although downsizing represents involuntary turnover for those dismissed, survivors’ turnover intentions in a post-downsizing environment are likely to be influenced by unresolved job tensions and lack of trust in management following the downsizing (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998, p. 577). When survivors lack or do not have access to information pertaining to their jobs, and when they are not able to restore a sense of order into their work life after downsizing, they are likely to consider a voluntary turnover.

From the above information and evidence, the impact of downsizing on the communication networks of survivors cannot be overemphasised. Even though the impact might vary among layoff survivors, its effects on survivor work performance, commitment, job uncertainty, and turnover intentions are evident. It should be noted, however, that changes to communication networks can occur in many ways. For example, in addition to losing or gaining contacts as a result of shifts in personnel, survivors can be promoted, demoted, or moved, which will affect their power and position, their reporting relationships, and ultimately their need for and access to work-related information. Such changes are likely to lead survivors to experience shifts in perceptions of work-related information adequacy in the post-downsizing
environment. In the post-downsizing environment, access to information is a key resource as it affects survivors' willingness to remain with the organisation as well as their motivation to work in the new environment. Human resource strategies aimed at ensuring the smooth flow of information regarding the downsizing process are therefore important in both the pre, during and post-downsizing phases.

2.9.8 The impact on stress levels
Researchers writing on the impact of downsizing on a number of variables also consider stress, the theoretical construct underlying the psychological dynamics pertaining to job loss (Leana & Feldman, 2003, p. 1174). In their study of the effects of work layoffs on survivors, Leana and Feldman (2003, p. 1176) clearly showed that organisational downsizing is a strong stress inducing factor that has a profound influence on work behaviours and attitudes of the remaining workforce. In addition, considerable evidence on how downsizing induces stress and feelings of loss of control among the survivors has been shown. For example, Paulsen, et al., (2005, p.487) found that in the aftermath of restructuring and downsizing, personal control was not related to emotional exhaustion. However, job uncertainty was significantly related to emotional exhaustion, stress and job satisfaction for employees assessed at that point in time. The results support previous findings that uncertainty has a lingering effect on survivor emotional health and stress levels.

While survivor attitudes generally stabilised across the implementation and aftermath stages, residual uncertainty was still related to the degree of emotional exhaustion, stress and job satisfaction experienced by the employees. In other related studies (e. g., Kumar 2005, p.12) job loss of workmates (or threat of job loss among the remaining employees), which makes for feelings of loss of mastery and control over one’s environment and threatens one’s internalised concept of self, was found to be the strongest stressor. The continued threat of job loss is regarded as the primary cause of deteriorating psychological well-being in the workplace and in other studies (e.
g., Cao & McHugh, 2005, p. 481) it accounted for much stress-related illness, such as heart disease and ulcers. These findings suggest that when individuals such as survivors are confronted with a stressful situation such as downsizing, they are more likely to appraise the situation as less controllable. The results also suggest that employees may adjust to change more readily when they perceive that they have more control over the implementation of change. This is in line with previous findings that survivors who feel in control and are more likely to use control coping, have improved mental health and feel more organisational attachment and loyalty, compared to survivors who do not feel in control (Kivimaki, 2001, p. 67). The findings pose a challenge for human resource practitioners in downsizing organisations. Such organisations need to stress the importance of managing interpersonal relations to help employees deal with stress caused by increased level of uncertainty and ambiguity generated by the downsizing process (Kumar, 2005, p. 10).

2.9.9 The impact on survivor emotions
Emotions are reactions to significant and specific changes and events (Ben-Ze’ev, 2000, p. 90). Downsizing involves major changes for the individual and the organisation as a whole; such situations are expected to lead to emotional reactions on the part of the individuals at the nexus of these changes (Mossholder, et al., 2000, p. 221). Emotions are considered by many theorists to result from the way a given situation is appraised or evaluated by the person experiencing the emotion (Frijda, 1996, p.23); Lazarus, 1991, p. 12). The appraisal that is likely to contribute to emotions and play a significant role in the context of downsizing is attribution information, that is, information concerning the reasons underlying given outcomes. In the context of downsizing, attribution information mainly involves the reasons why an employee was retained in the organisation. This information is most likely to be spontaneously generated by employees in an unexpected/uncertain situation such as in the context of downsizing. The most commonly used attribution theory in the literature is that of Weiner (1995, p. 550; 1986, p. 20). Weiner’s attribution theory focuses on causal attributions-subjective thoughts
about the causes of given outcome and their link to affective and behavioural reactions. Thus, the emotions that are considered in the context of downsizing are a function of what survivors perceive to be the cause for their survival.

Using the above-mentioned theory, attribution information is therefore known to be an antecedent for different emotional reactions on the part of the person considering this information. Applying the theory of attribution to the understanding of discrete emotional reactions to downsizing, it is possible to state that because emotions are significant determinants of attitudes, motivations and behaviour (Weiss, 2002, p.168); emotions that are raised in the context of downsizing can affect significant work attitudes and behaviours such as loyalty, trust, satisfaction, absenteeism, performance and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Hareli and Tzafrir (2006, p. 400) used Weiner’s (1985, 1986) attribution theory of motivation and emotion to analyse potential positive and negative emotional, and consequently, behavioural reactions of employees surviving organisational downsizing. Harel & Tzafrir (2006, p. 407) found that survivors who attributed their survival to their own high ability (internal cause) believed that they were wanted by the organisation, hence, it increased their self-esteem, pride and hopefulness. Similarly, survivors who attributed their survival to help from others experienced gratitude towards the helper. Alternatively, survivors who attributed their survival to luck experienced fear of future layoffs. These results indicate that survivors of downsizing experience a number of emotions as a result of their perception of the causes of their survival. Some emotions are positive (increased self-esteem and hopefulness) and others are negative (fear).

The above results imply that for the downsizing procedure to be effective, organisations need to be sensitive to the fact that managerial decisions and behaviours can have a bearing on the emotions, attitudes, and behaviours of the remaining employees. This suggestion is in line with several studies that indicate the contribution of employees’ emotions and attitudes to successful
downsizing. For example, using a sample of recently downsized hospitals, Chadwick, *et al.*, (2004, p. 411) found that showing consideration for employees' morale and welfare during downsizing was positively related to organisational financial performance and survivors' perceived success of downsizing. Human resource managers should therefore take steps to foster as many possible settings that generate positive emotions as possible. On the other hand, an understanding of the role that emotions play in survivors’ reactions can help in devising HR and HRD practices that will improve the outcomes of the downsizing process for employees and organisations. In particular, it should be beneficial in devising organisational policies for downsizing implementation and information provision that can lead to better downsizing outcomes. Lastly, it can suggest ways in which managers and employees can be trained and prepared to cope better with the process of downsizing and its consequences.

### 2.9.10 The impact on job attitudes over time

Using the work/job transition theory as a guide, Allen, *et al.*, (2001, p. 145-164) indicate that work role transitions are any major changes in role requirements or work context. Typically, downsizing results in a dramatically changed organisation. Survivors are likely to find that their jobs have been significantly modified or even eliminated. These changes may include alterations in job responsibilities, modified reporting relationships, new co-workers, and other environmental differences such as policies and procedures (Allen, *et al.*, p. 146).

Taking downsizing as a major organisational change, the transition theory stipulates that psychological defense mechanisms, such as denial and withdrawal, occur in the early stages of employees’ encounter with the downsizing phase before change can be assimilated and integrated. After the initial shock and surprise of the encounter stage subsides, individuals enter the adjustment stage where a new set of priorities emerge. For example, adjustments must be made with regard to one’s work role, the people with whom one interacts, and the culture of the new environment.
When the adjustment stage has been completed, the stabilisation stage finds the individual striving to maintain valued elements of the current role, making fine adjustments, and either enjoying their success or suffering from failure (Allen et al., 2001, p. 154). In line with the above analysis, Nicholson and West (1988, p. 34) found that positive experiences quickly succeeded the negative experiences following a job change. Other researches (Kusum, 2003, p. 59) have also indicated that surviving employees describe the experience of job change as stressful during the encounter period, but later report that the changes are positively correlated with challenge, freedom, and so on. Thus, it could be argued that in certain instances, while survivors’ initial reactions to downsizing may be negative, it may be that after a settling in period more positive experiences occur. Some individuals may experience downsizing as an opportunity to grow and develop in their job. Fewer layers of management may mean more autonomy and increased opportunities for those who remain in the organisation. New or different career options may be opened due to the elimination of ‘deadwood’ (Allen, et al., 2001, p. 157).

In concurrence with the findings on positive experiences succeeding negative experiences, and, based on the job transition theory as a guide, Allen, et al., (2001, p. 145) note that job attitudes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment, job involvement, role overload, role clarity, satisfaction with top management, and turnover intentions become less favourable after downsizing. These attitudes would be impacted by organisational downsizing and changes therein would vary over time. However, in their study Allen, et al., (2001, p. 159) found that the most negative impact of downsizing on attitudes occurred during the immediate post-downsizing period. After a long period of time, attitudes generally reached more favourable levels among the survivors. These researchers concluded that downsizing seems to have an effect on work attitudes, that this effect varies over time, and that the initial impact is generally negative. They also found that the examined attitudes also influence each other over time. For example, role clarity, role overload, satisfaction with top management, and satisfaction with job security are thought of as attributes in the work environment that are affected or altered by
layoffs. These variables are referred to as environmental variables. As noted earlier, downsizing may create new and increased responsibilities for survivors that result in increased work overload and decrease in role clarity (Allen, et al., 2001, p. 160). Additionally, downsizing may foster distrust of top management and fear regarding the survivors' future security with the organisation (Armstrong-Stassen, 2002, p. 9). Such changes over time may be related to changes in other variables, such as organisational commitment, motivation and turnover intentions (referred to as outcome variables). For instance, changes in organisational commitment may be influenced by the extent to which survivors are satisfied with the performance of top management during the period following downsizing (Allen, et al., 2001, p. 159).

Theoretical work concerning survivor reactions to downsizing supports the above propositions. For example, Mishra and Spreitzer (1998, p. 578) using Lazarus and Flokman's (1984) theory of stress, found that if survivors do not trust that the top management is competent and honest with employees through downsizing, they are likely to withdraw from the organisation or respond in other destructive ways. Additionally, if work is not redesigned in a manner that minimises overload, survivors are more likely to respond negatively. Accordingly, we can conclude that changes in the environment variables are related to changes in the outcome variables. Thus, Allen, et al., (2001, p. 155) found that increases in role clarity predicted increases in organisational commitment and decreases in turnover intentions after a downsizing event.

The implications for HR professionals for the reviewed impacts of downsizing are numerous. They should recognise that changes in the working patterns that are brought about as a result of downsizing need to be introduced with care and consultation. A review by top management of the kinds of both internal and external changes that bring about downsizing and subsequent survivor reactions should be done. This helps in putting in place measures to prepare survivors, new tasks and structures that will be effective in the new
working environment. In addition, top HR professionals should endeavour to advise colleagues of where and why tensions and difficulties in employee relations may arise before, during or after the workforce reduction event, and suggest ways of averting unnecessary conflict. The HR professionals should also recognise that the process of downsizing is likely to face resistance from surviving employees in the form of reduced work effort, commitment and job satisfaction. These are manifested through different employee reactions. In this case, it is more important for them to consult with staff and gain their cooperation than just to impose change.

2.10 CONCLUDING REMARKS
This chapter has provided a historical explanation of the concept of downsizing and highlighted that 21st century organisations embarking on the process mostly use the workforce reduction strategy to remain competitive. The chapter has also shown how downsizing using the workforce reduction strategy affects survivors in a number of ways and how this ultimately results in their ‘survivor quality’ with regard to work attitudes, organisational commitment and motivation to work being compromised. The chapter that follows provides an understanding of the literature pertaining to the main problem under investigation, that is, survivor quality and its different dimensions.
CHAPTER 3

THE CONCEPT OF SURVIVOR QUALITY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In chapter two the concept of downsizing was discussed. Literature on downsizing indicates that it is a business strategy that is designed to improve the competitive advantage of an organisation. Chapter two has also put into perspective organisational downsizing issues such as approaches to downsizing, the different reasons for downsizing and the impact/effects of downsizing on employees who remain in the organisation when downsizing is carried out using the workforce reduction strategy. The effects of downsizing at the individual level, in terms of its impact on a number of survivors’ attitudes, commitment to the organisation and motivation to put more effort in the new work environment are of special interest for this research. The extent to which downsizing affects each of these attributes among the survivors will impact on their quality as ‘assets’ needed to improve the competitiveness of the organisation.

The aim of this chapter is to give an explanation of the concept of survivor quality as it is used in this study. The importance of survivor quality and its different dimensions/constructs, that is, attitudes, commitment and motivation and their different characteristics are discussed in order to provide a description of the prevalent set of behaviors and attitudes as found among survivors of downsized organisations. The issues and arguments presented will provide an indication of the attitudinal, commitment and motivational qualities that are identified by literature as important for survivors after downsizing.
3.2 DEFINITION OF SURVIVOR QUALITY

The concept of survivor quality is rooted in the management literature where organisations continuously focus on issues of total quality management (TQM). The total quality management approach demands that management and all its members should be committed to high-quality results, continuous improvement, and customer satisfaction. The concept of quality in total management literature entails that the needs of both customers and employees are met and that all tasks are done right the first time. An important concept in total quality management is continuous improvement - the belief that anything and everything done in the workplace should be continually evaluate by asking two questions: (1) Is this necessary? (2) If so, how can it be done better? (Schermerhorn, Hunt, & Osborn, 2005, p. 27). In line with total quality management is the role of human capital in creating competitive advantage for an organisation. Human capital is the sum total of knowledge, skills, and the general attributes of people in the organisation. Creating human capital that is of great value, rare and imitable has become a strategic focus of downsizing organisations. Therefore, drawing from the concepts of total quality management and human capital development, and the fact that downsizing leaves a plethora of work-related problems on the part of survivors, the state of survivors is of great importance to downsizing organisations. It enables them to ensure that survivors have the correct knowledge, skills, expertise, experience, attitudes and motivation for the achievement of the new goals in the downsized organisation.

Sronce and McKinley (2006, p. 89) point out that that the process is detrimental to survivors. The basic findings show that survivors experience a number of reactions, ranging from developing negative job-related attitudes, reduced commitment to the organisation, as well as reduced effort to accomplish new tasks. Such psychological states, if not monitored and corrected before, during or after downsizing, may result in an organisation having a poor quality of remaining employees who are not focused and prepared to achieve its new objectives. Remaining employees are regarded
as the ‘cream of the crop’ (Carbery & Garavan, 2004, p. 488). They are considered as crucial to organisational success. Armstrong-Stassen (2003, p. 397) acknowledge that the condition of the remaining employees will largely determine the effectiveness and quality service provided by the organisation. Thus, within the downsizing context, survivor quality entails the state of survivors in terms of their work-related attitudes, commitment to the organisation and motivation to exert more work effort. The quality of survivors in terms of these attributes after downsizing should be positive in order for them to champion the organisation’s competitiveness and productivity objectives. The quality management literature notes the importance of having quality employees who will in turn support all the quality initiatives of the organisation (Lam & Reshef (1999, p. 729). Indeed, the long-term performance and success of any organisation depends on the strong quality foundation of its human capital, that is, the value of its employees with job related abilities, experience, ideas, energies, creativity and dedication. Therefore, after downsizing, the creation and development of human capital (survivors) possessing the correct competencies, creativity and expertise, and commitment becomes imperative because the benefits outweigh the costs of doing so.

3.3 THE IMPORTANCE OF SURVIVOR QUALITY AFTER DOWNSIZING

Organisations today are operating in a global environment characterised by increased competition, shifting demographics, technologies and changing social values. An important reaction to these characteristics is the emergence of a new breed of organisations referred to as high performance organisations (Schermerhorn, et al., (2005, p. 25). High-performance organisations are competitive and they focus on being highly productive. They do this through bringing out the best in people, creating an extraordinary capability, and delivering high-performance results. There is every reason to conclude that downsizing organisations aim to become high performance organisations.

According to Wright, Gardner and Moynihan (2003, p. 21) high performance organisations are expected to value employees as human assets, mobilise
teams that build synergy, utilise latest information and production technologies, thrive on learning with members experiencing learning and growth, achievement oriented, and create a high quality of life environment. With these characteristics in mind, organisations that downsize should therefore focus on ensuring that their future success lies in their ability to execute new goals and objectives with quality talented and motivated survivors that care about the organisation (Schermerhorn, et al., (2005, p. 25). As pointed out by Edwards, Rust, McKinley and Moon (2005, p. 75), organisations should operate within the confines of the ideology of employee worth - the belief that employees are the most valuable resource because they provide critical inputs to business processes.

With the new wave of global downsizing that has characterised many organisations in the early 2000s up to date, organisations now increasingly recognise the potential for the survivors to be a source of competitive advantage. The scope of reactions of survivors recorded in the literature suggests that organisations should take action in order to influence survivors’ reactions and subsequently have positive spin-offs for the organisation. Byrne (1994, p. 69) argues that survivors whose reactions are taken care of are able to bring about the much needed productivity. Increased productivity comes from the implementation of flat structures and flexible working practices, often quoted as the key behind downsizing. Flat structures mean easy access to survivors whose reactions might be counter-productive. With the use of modern progressive HR practices, well-managed survivors will ultimately have higher levels of job satisfaction, leading to higher productivity and increased competitiveness (Schmidt & Svorny, 1998, p. 650).

Pritti (2000, p. 106) indicates that workers who tend to maximise their effort are those who believe that their interests are being aligned with the organisational changes. Indeed, researchers on downsizing (e.g., Gilson, Hurd & Wagar, 2004, p. 1060) point out the significance of creating a participatory environment as a way of promoting survivor quality for the achievement of organisational objectives. It is therefore possible to conclude that the quality of survivors as depicted by their positive perceptions of
participation in the downsizing process is closely linked to higher levels of productivity, lower levels of wastage and lower levels of conflict and resistance.

Research by Doorewaard and Brouns (2003, p. 117) indicates that the realisation that people are the greatest assets who should be treated properly in the organisation is linked to increased synergy of survivor teams to drive the organisation after downsizing. Teams, not jobs, have become the critical building block for the future of any organisation. According to Stallworth and Kleiner (2002, p. 71), teams and teaming are seen as the primary means of creating the high performance, high-flexibility, and high-commitment organisation. Research evidence provided by Robbins, Odendaal and Roodt (2003, p. 199) shows that designing organisations around teams provides a leverage for an organisation to become competitive and of world class standards from a people perspective point of view. Downsizing disrupts the team spirit and the effectiveness of a team, as well as the interdependence among work units. For example, evidence given by Grunberg, Moore and Greenberg (2001, p. 21) show that indirect experiencing of layoffs by survivors (experiencing the lay-off of a co-worker) is associated with their future willingness to work in teams, less perceived job security, greater perceived stress and less use of proactive coping mechanisms.

Downsizing also reduces the size of the workforce and results in the creation of small survivor work teams. The need to create new survivor work teams that are complementary is a challenge for downsized organisations. It is therefore prudent to argue that a focus on redesigning the downsized organisation around small teams of survivors who can take ownership of the new meaningful pieces of work after downsizing facilitates easy synergy and the development of a culture of team learning and opportunities to be innovative. Such team attributes are characteristics or qualities required of survivors in downsized organisations for the achievement of new strategic goals.
According to Kets de Vries and Balazs (1997, p. 34), trust towards the organisation and self among survivor is usually lost after downsizing. Additionally, Armstrong-Stassen (2006, p.34) noted that employees who remain in the organisation after a downsizing process have been found to experience perceptions of high threat and low control. Armstrong-Stassen (2006, p.35) further found that survivors who felt that they had little control over decisions affecting the future of their jobs were less likely to engage in control-coping. Other researchers such as Brockner, Spreitzer, Mishra, Hochwarter, Pepper and Weinberg, 2004, p. 77) report that downsizing organisations threaten the freedom of the surviving workforce. With these findings and reports, a concern for survivor quality in the downsized organisations is therefore important in that it helps in the re-building of the lost trust among survivors, reduces turnover and helps in rebuilding feelings of control among the survivors. Given the fact that survivors, regardless of their level in the organisation are susceptible to experiencing high levels of threat in the aftermath of downsizing, strategic HR practices such as the inclusion of steps to heighten survivors’ perceived control will help to improve the quality and focus of survivors as well as bring back their lost trust. Support for this assertion is provided by Cameron (1995, p.108) who argues that a focus on the well-being and quality of survivors after downsizing restores the survivors’ perceived control by creating an environment in which survivors believe that their actions can make a difference in the post downsizing phase. As a result, survivors will show an increase in the time spent working, a lot of willingness to take risks, reduction in their intentions to leave and an increased amount of effort expended on the job.

A concern for survivor quality on the part of downsizing organisations is to search for the best ideas and means to achieve high performance. Central to this need for high performance after downsizing is the commitment on the part of management to value the remaining employees who will champion the new course of the organisation. According to strategic management researchers (e.g., Zyglidopoulos, 2003, p. 13), although there is no convincing evidence that downsizing leads to long-term organisational performance, there is need
for a discussion on how valuing the remaining employees would culminate in an understanding of the relationship between downsizing and the notion of reputation for corporate social performance. It is obvious that downsizing has consequences for an organisation’s reputation for corporate social performance if survivor quality issues are not properly addressed. Therefore, a focus on survivor quality after downsizing would enable the infusion of components addressing the organisation’s corporate social responsibility reputation within its strategic plans.

Research reports in the U.S. (e.g., Williams, 2004, p. 4) found that about fifty per cent of corporations that downsized incorporated the reputation for corporate social responsibility in their future strategic plans. The corporations scored highly on their performance with people management, organisational change and management ethics. The organisations’ focus on survivor quality helped them to restore trust and credibility among the survivors. These were regarded as important and significant factors that influence the organisations’ reputation for corporate social performance. As pointed out by Muirhead (2004, p. 42), despite the fact that the reputation for corporate social responsibility is intangible, ensuring that survivors whose trust and other attitudinal concerns have been eroded by downsizing are catered for also directly impacts on an organisation’s ability to retain talented survivors competent enough to maintain a competitive advantage. It is therefore justified to argue that an organisation’s reputation for corporate social performance after downsizing depends on its ability to focus on and enhance the quality of remaining employees. This will probably culminate in the creation of committed survivors whose concern for the organisation is critical in building and sustaining a competitive advantage.

Downsizing as a strategy results in new goals and objectives for the organisation. These new goals and objectives need to be implemented by remaining employees who are focused. The remaining employees do not operate in a vacuum, but they need the support of other relevant interdependent factors within the organisation. The McKinsey 7-s model (Peters & Waterman, 1982, p. 34) of change management has been widely
used in a variety of situations where the alignment perspective of the interdependent factors is useful to achieve a competitive advantage. The McKinsey 7-s model focuses on seven elements that should be mutually aligned and reinforcing in order for an organisation to perform well. These are structure, systems, strategy, shared values, style, staff and skills. The model is used to explain how these organisational elements should be interrelated, and so ensure that the wider impacts of change made in one area is taken into consideration.

As downsizing takes place, all these elements are disrupted and the need for their alignment arises if the new goals are to be achieved. More specifically, after downsizing, the survivors as one of the soft elements in the organisation should be people who share the new superordinate values of the organisation. They should feel that the organisation was fair in designing a reasonable structure where they are accommodated; that the current leadership style provides them with the necessary support, and that they feel they have the necessary skills and competences to perform the tasks in the new work environment. These are important psychological elements which, if taken into consideration, result in a group of survivors whose attitudes, commitment and motivation in the downsized organisation will be of the required standard. The presence of the staff component in the 7-s model therefore requires that survivors of a downsized organisation should be developed so that they have the survivor quality characteristics that are necessary for them to gel with the other elements and be able to implement the new strategy. This augurs well with the assertion by Doorewaard and Brouns (2003, p.110) that a downsized organisation that places importance on the quality of survivors will be able to easily implement the new goals and objectives.

Survivor quality issues should also be given some prominence in the aftermath of a downsizing because there are benefits in terms of improved employee relations within the organisation. Newell and Liloyd, 2002, p. 78) argue that historically, many of the employment disputes are often as much as much to
do with changes in the working patterns as they are to do with pay and conditions of work. After downsizing, modern human resource personnel should be positioned to recognise that changes to working condition patterns need to be introduced with care among survivors. This in line with the sociotechnical theory (Trist, 1981, p. 15) which emphasises the interdependence of activities and interventions that influence survivors after downsizing. The theory stresses that management of changing organisations should focus their attention on the influence that changes in an organisation’s activities have on remaining employees. For example, downsizing sometimes results in changes in technology which will ultimately alter the nature of how tasks are conducted. The way tasks are conducted influences the way survivors will do their work as well as the organisational structure that will be adopted by the downsizing organisation. In all cases, downsizing has an impact on survivors, so employee relations are relevant to downsizing the management initiative.

Reid & Barrington (2000, p. 21) note that improving relations of survivors is vital for the achievement of quality commitment. What this means is that, understanding survivor quality in terms of survivor work relations enables management to adjust the changing employer-employee relationships brought about by downsizing. Effective employee quality with regards to relations creates a work environment where issues can be discussed long before individual survivors feel less committed, demotivated and insecure. It is also an opportunity for the downsizing organisation to review all the kinds of internal changes which have occurred in the organisation and to gauge the appropriate human resource initiatives that can be put in place to prepare survivors to manage the new tasks or structures effectively.

The above discussion has pointed out the importance of survivor quality in the context of downsizing. Such importance does have implications in terms of the role that HR can play after downsizing. Thus, in addition to strategically positioning itself in the downsized business, HR should also align the strategic
and the operational aspects of survivor quality with the new goals of the organisation after downsizing. Such a strategic approach indicates the seriousness of the organisation in achieving the envisaged benefits of committed and motivated survivors. The strategic approach would also ensure the adoption and encouragement of appropriate ways of enhancing survivor abilities, knowledge, competencies, attitudes and behaviors necessary for them to operate in the new work environment.

3.4 THE UNDERLYING CONSTRUCTS OF EMPLOYEE SURVIVOR QUALITY

The focus on the well-being or quality of survivors after downsizing is linked to the decision to downsize which in most cases is driven by expectations of financial gains and competitiveness. The expectation of looking after the survivors is that such actions will lead to a workforce that has good work-related attitudes and motivated to work for the organisation. However, many organisations that decide to downsize tend to neglect to factor in the psychological impact of downsizing on those who remain. In fact, if downsizing is handled improperly, the problems it was designed to correct may be intensified due to the impact on the survivor quality components, namely attitudes towards/concerning the work environment, commitment towards organisation and motivation to increase work effort (www.scantron.com). The presence of positive work-related attitudes among survivors after downsizing has been found to result in increased trust in management, increased job performance, increased job security, positive perceptions of workload, morale, and so on (Luthans & Sommer, 1999, p. 54). A synopsis of the concepts of attitude commitment and motivation as aspects of survivor quality and how they related to downsizing is therefore essential in so far as it puts the concept in the context of the present research.
3.4.1 Employee attitudes and downsizing

Attitudes in general are defined as a persistent mental state of readiness to feel and behave in a favourable or unfavourable way toward a specific person, object, or idea (Hitt, et al., 2006, p.173). They are predispositions to respond in a positive or negative way to someone or something in a person’s environment. Attitudes, just like values, are hypothetical constructs. They are inferred from what people say, informally or in formal opinions or through their behavior. A close examination of this definition reveals three important conclusions: (1) attitudes are reasonably stable, unless important reasons occur to change them (2) attitudes are directed towards some person or idea; that is, an employee might have an attitude towards his or her job, and (3) an attitude toward an object, person or aspect of one’s environment relates to an individual’s behavior towards that object, person or environmental aspect. In this instance, attitudes influence our actions. Research (Sirmon, Hitt & Ireland, 2006, p. 67) on the relationship between behavior and attitudes concludes that a person’s behavior is sometimes a function of attitudes. In turn, our attitudes are constantly developing and changing as a result of our behaviours. In addition, the attitude and behaviour linkage tends to be stronger when the person has had experience with the stated attitude. In general, the more the specific attitude and behaviours, the stronger the relationship.

In organisations, attitudes are important because they affect job behaviour. Managers need to have an understanding of the different circumstances, such as downsizing, that lead to attitude formation among employees and how these relate to actual job behaviour. For example, attitudes that are not favourable can result in an organisation incurring huge costs due to labour turnover, absenteeism and tardiness. The manager’s responsibilities in the downsizing context, therefore, are to recognise and foster positive attitudes and to understand both their antecedents and their potential implications for survivors. Positive attitudes after downsizing have been found to be vital in achieving organisational goals and in succeeding in changing programmes.
(Eby, Russell & Gaby, 2000, p. 420), while negative attitudes to change have negative consequences for the organisation (Beer & Nohria, 2000, p. 139).

The understanding of attitudes in the downsizing context can best be done by examining how attitudes are formed. Three elements of attitude formation that are cited in the literature are the cognitive, affective and behavioural elements (Katz & Stotland, 1959, p. 108). The cognitive element of an attitude consists of the facts one can gather and consider about the object, person, idea or aspect of the environment. Thus, before one can have feelings about something, one has to be aware of it and think about its complexities. Feelings about objects, ideas, persons or some aspects of the environment are affective in nature. Such feelings are frequently expressed as like or dislike of the object, person, or idea and the degree to which one holds these feelings. For example, after a workforce reduction exercise and, depending on a number of factors such as the strategy used to reduce the workforce, survivors might love their jobs, dislike them or hate them. In this case, the affective component of attitudes can be described as the survivors’ feeling about the personal impact of the antecedents of downsizing. Lastly, most attitudes contain a behavioural element, which is the individual’s intention to act in certain ways toward the object based on one’s feelings (du Plessis & Rousseau, 2007, p. 185). Survivors of a downsizing process might eventually behave in different ways in their new work environment as a result of developing certain attitudes towards different aspects of the downsizing process. The formation of attitudes is rather complex.

According to Bergh and Theron (1999, p. 173) attitudes can be formed through learning. Thus, as a result of experiencing punishment or reward in the process of an individual’s interaction with other people or a particular event such as downsizing, the individual might feel betrayed or cheated. As one experiences the outcomes of such an interaction, they may begin to develop feelings about the people or event of that behaviour. Alternatively, attitudes are formed from watching others experience rewards or punishments. Survivors may develop a range of positive or negative attitudes to the organisation and job after watching their colleagues or workmates
experience the pain of downsizing. The need for consistency has also been associated with the formation of attitudes. Using the balance and congruity theory (Heider, 1958, p. 45), the argument is that people prefer that their attitudes be consistent towards an object, person or aspect of an environment. Consequently, when downsizing takes place, survivors may develop certain self perception attitudes towards, for example, their ability to remain effective in their new roles. In order to maintain a balance between this attitude and their actions, they might put more effort in their work. Attitudes that are commonly mentioned in literature and are associated with downsizing are job satisfaction, job involvement, perceptions of job insecurity, trust and intentions to leave. These are discussed in the sections below.

3.4.1.1 Job satisfaction

Attitudes among employees can manifest themselves through feelings about their work, that is, job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The concept has been widely studied in psychological research (Judge, Parker, Colber, Heller & Ilies, 2002, p. 48) Job satisfaction is a broad attitude related to the job. It is defined as an individual’s general attitude towards his or her job (Staw & Cummings, 1996, p. 2) an emotional response to one’s task's as well as to the physical and social conditions of the workplace (Shermerhorn, et al., 2005, p. 143). Pinder (1998, p. 121) defines job satisfaction as ‘the degree to which a person’s work is useful for satisfying (his or) her needs. Job satisfaction is commonly viewed as including multiple facets such as pay, promotions, coworkers, supervision, the work itself...recognition, working conditions, and organisation management (Judge, et al., 2002, p. 26). An explanation of these facets is found in Herzberg’s two-factor theory of job satisfaction. The theory focuses on the presence of motivators such as opportunities for growth, recognition, responsibility, and achievement as indications of a high level of satisfaction. On the other hand, the presence of hygiene factors such as working conditions, pay, security and relations with others indicate dissatisfaction (Riggio, 2003, p. 195). From Herzberg’s theory, it possible to conclude that a high level of satisfaction represents a positive attitude towards
a job, while a low level of satisfaction represents negative attitudes (Riggio, 2003, p.196).

Besides the factors that influence job satisfaction identified by Herzberg, other factors such as high–involvement management are particularly important. Individuals usually have positive experiences working with this kind of management approach, and thus strong satisfaction is likely to develop through the learning mechanism of attitude formation. (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002, p. 84). A downsizing exercise where management does not use the high-involvement approach is therefore likely to result in survivors developing a negative attitude towards the new jobs assigned to them. Within the management literature, managers’ interests tend to centre on the effects or consequences of job satisfaction and/ or dissatisfaction. As a result, job satisfaction has been found to have a high positive effect on intentions to stay and modest effect on the actual staying (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski & Erez, 2001, p.1119). Factors such as opportunities for other employment after downsizing can cause satisfied survivors to leave. With the cost of replacing a departed employee generally quite high, maintaining high levels of survivor satisfaction after downsizing is, therefore, important. Satisfied employees have been found to be those who achieve high performance in their work thereby resulting in increased productivity, absenteeism and turnover (Greenberg, 1996, p. 99).

The specific form of relationship between satisfaction and job performance however, has been a subject of a great deal of controversy. As previously stated, managers and researchers believe that high satisfaction produces strong performance. However, other managers and researchers (Kinicki, McKee-Ryan, Schriesheim & Carson, 2002, p. 30) believe that it is high performance that causes employees to be satisfied. The strength of some of these variables with job satisfaction is based on the presence of some moderators such as an employee’s level of performance, labour market conditions, length of tenure, and expectations of alternative job opportunities. Downsizing can bring about some levels of job dissatisfaction or satisfaction among other survivors if, for example, survivors fail to perform as expected in
their new roles or if they feel that their employment tenure has been tempered with in an unfair manner. Thus, Judge, Thoreson, Bono and Patton (2001, p. 379) write that survivors show their dissatisfaction with the downsizing process through behaviours directed towards leaving the organisation, actively trying to voice out their concerns in order to improve their current conditions or passively allowing conditions to worsen through chronic absenteeism and increased error rates.

According to Cohen-Charsah and Spector (2001, p. 318) job satisfaction is a determinant of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Those employees who are satisfied have a high probability of talking positively about their organization. They are prepared to help others and go beyond the normal expectations in their job. Moreover, satisfied employees are more prone to go beyond the call of duty because they want to reciprocate their positive experiences. Consistent with this thinking, previous discussion on OCB assumes that it is closely linked with job satisfaction (Bateman & Organ, 1983, p. 591). However, later studies suggest that satisfaction influences OCB, but through perceptions of fairness. For example, a modest overall relationship between job satisfaction and OCB has been found (Organ & Ryan, 1995, p. 791). Similarly, Cohen-Charsah and Spector (2001, p. 318) found that satisfaction after organisational downsizing is related to distributive and procedural justice. They suggested that to promote a high level of satisfaction among survivors after downsizing, organisations must ensure that all distributions, procedures, and interactions are fair. However, it might be argued that satisfaction is related to OCB when fairness is controlled for. What this means is that after downsizing, survivors’ job satisfaction and OCB behaviours come down to the conceptions of fair outcomes, treatment, and procedures. If survivors do not feel that management, the procedures, or outcomes of the downsizing process are fair, both job satisfaction and OCB are likely to suffer.

The above analysis indicates that job satisfaction is comprised of both affective and cognitive components. The affective component relates to the way an individual feels about a particular target (Schleicher, Watt & Greguras,
In a downsizing context, the individual is the survivor and the target is the organisation, and an employee’s affect toward the organisation can either be positive or negative. An employee’s beliefs and thinking about the organisation constitute the cognitive component. Thus, after downsizing, what determines the satisfaction levels of survivors are their thoughts concerning the organisation and how they feel about it. The importance of job satisfaction among survivors of a downsizing exercise cannot therefore be overemphasised.

3.4.1.2 Job involvement

Interest in the concept of job involvement as an attitude after organisational downsizing has also been studied in recent years, beyond its value as an index of quality of work life (Aryee, 1994, p. 1). The concept has been linked to the understanding of work behaviours such as turnover, tardiness, and absenteeism (Mathieu & Kohler, 1993, p. 520). Job involvement has been variously conceptualised in the literature as the degree to which one is actively participating in one’s job or the extent to which one’s self esteem is affected by one’s perceived level of performance (Bergh & Theron, 2003, p. 180). Employees with high job involvement strongly identify themselves with and really care about the kind of work they do. After downsizing, survivors are expected to be highly involved with their new jobs in order to achieve the much anticipated productivity, efficiency and effectiveness. However, a number of identifiable antecedents have been found to be the determinants of survivor job involvement. These are personal characteristics, situational characteristics, and work outcomes. Differences in the levels of job involvement among men and women survivors after organisational restructuring have also been documented (Aryee, 1994, p. 206), with women reporting lower job involvement than men. The differences were attributed to women occupying lower-level, disadvantaged positions, devoid of intrinsic satisfaction and with limited advancement opportunities. The differences were further explained by perceptions of differential treatment experienced by women after downsizing.
In other related but different studies, Brockner, Grover and Blonder (1988, p. 440) investigated the level of job involvement following layoffs. Results showed that in the mild layoff condition (when layoff was not severe); work ethic was a predictor of job involvement in that those with strong work ethics were less affected by layoffs. However, in a severe layoff situation, work ethic was not a predictor of involvement suggesting that in large scale organisational change, even those who usually are able to cope are affected by layoffs. The literature also argues that the lack of job involvement affects survivor turnover (Martin & Hafer, 1995, p. 2). For example, the jobs survivors are asked to do should help them meet their intrinsic needs, such as satisfactorily performing a challenging job, which, in turn, increases their sense of competence. This leads to increasing employees’ job involvement attitude (Martin & John, 1995, p.1). If survivors’ new jobs do not meet their intrinsic needs, job involvement is compromised and turnover propensity increases. Therefore, in order to reduce the turnover propensity of survivors in such situations, the HR practitioners’ goal is to get the survivors to identify themselves and care about their jobs. The greater the success at this, the more the job becomes important to each survivor’s self-image, which reflects the basic definition of job involvement. Survivors with high job involvement should, therefore, have the most positive attitudes and the lowest propensity to quit because they are attracted by their jobs (Martin & John, 1995, p. 4)

3.4.1.3 Perceptions of job insecurity

After organisational downsizing, survivors develop attitudes about jobs or towards their work. The most widely studied consequences of downsizing include feelings of job insecurity. As organisations downsize, restructure, or merge, survivors develop feelings of insecurity concerning the nature and continued existence of their jobs (Jick, 1985, p. 96). The experience of job insecurity has been linked to several different outcomes after downsizing, such as negative attitudes towards work and the organisation (Naswall, Sverke, & Hellgren, 2005, p. 37). It can then be regarded as a primary outcome of layoffs. Given the fact that job insecurity is likely to persist as an important phenomenon in organisations that are coping with competitive
pressures, the concept needs to be understood in so far as it leads to certain attitudinal reactions among survivors after downsizing. Job insecurity is defined as a subjectively experienced worry about future involuntary job loss (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984, P. 440). In their model, Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984, p. 441) argue that the construct is multidimensional, consisting of five components. The first four make up ‘the severity of threat’ the degree of perceived threat to continuity in a job situation. This threat may pertain to various features of the job or to the entire job. These features may be opportunities for promotion and freedom to schedule work. The more features one believes are threatened, the greater the job insecurity.

The second component relates to the importance attached to each of the job features. Thus, a threat to the most important feature will increase job insecurity. The third involves the perceived threat of the occurrence of various events that would negatively affect an individual’s total job; being fired or laid off (in the cause of survivors). The importance attached to each of these potentialities has an effect on the strength of job insecurity. The fourth component of job insecurity is powerlessness, an individual’s ability to counteract the threats identified in the first four components. Since job insecurity involves the experiencing of threat, and implies a great deal of uncertainty regarding whether individuals get to keep their jobs in the future, it is important to understand its antecedents and consequences in the context of downsizing (Naswall, et al., 2005, p. 40). Knowledge of these antecedents and consequences is important in the monitoring and maintenance of appropriate job security levels among survivors after downsizing.

The psychological contracts that employees and employers enter into give each party what it will give and take. Such constructs give individuals a sense of mastery - a sense that they can reasonably control (or failing that, at least predict) events in their personal worlds (Shein, 1980. p. 22). One frequently named threat to employees’ sense of control is major organisational events such as downsizing. Brockner (1988, p. 250) highlighted layoffs as direct causes of job insecurity among employees surviving staff cuts, and Schweiger
and Ivancevich (1985, p. 57) argued that mergers negatively affect individuals by creating uncertainty and insecurity. Changes of this nature abrogate the survivors’ initial psychological contract with the organisation, causing them to experience a lack of control. Changes such as downsizing sometimes threaten such contracts because jobs will, in fact, be either altered dramatically or eliminated. However, even when management is not contemplating downsizing further, rumours abound in change situations. To the extent that survivors use this inaccurate information source to anticipate the consequences of downsizing, they may experience unwarranted insecurity.

In the absence of a number of factors that pose a threat to job insecurity, two job conditions, role ambiguity and role conflict, and one personal factor, locus of control, are important antecedents of individualised feelings of job insecurity. Role ambiguity has been described as the situation where an individual does not have a clear direction about expectations of his or her role in the job or organisation (Yousef, 2002, p. 252). Role conflict on the other hand is viewed as incompatibility in communicated expectations that impinge on perceived role performance (Robbins, 1999, p. 40). Role conflict is experienced when a person finds that compliance with one role requirement may make compliance with another more difficult. At the extreme, it could include situations in which two or more role expectations are mutually contradictory. Role ambiguity and role conflict both threaten an individual’s sense of control and thereby create perceptions of job insecurity. They induce some anxiety that heighten feelings of job insecurity. It is possible therefore to speculate that after organisational downsizing, and, given a scarcity of concrete information about their roles, survivors may speculate about a variety of events that might negatively affect their jobs. Such speculation might lead them perceive that they are unable to control future events such as downsizing in their own environment. This perceived condition, regarded as locus of control, is directly linked to the perceived powerlessness dimension of job insecurity.
Locus of control is defined as the extent to which an individual believes he or she is able to influence what happens to him or her (Armstrong-Stassen, Wagar & Cattaneo, 2001, P. 213). Research has indicated that compared to survivors with an external locus of control, those with an internal locus of control generally see environmental events such as downsizing as having less impact and believe that they have the power to counteract whatever threatens their environment might pose (Ashford, Lee & Bobko, 1989, p.807). After an event such as organisational downsizing, roles should be clear among survivors. Survivors should be empowered to feel that they can also have an influence on what happens to them thereafter. The anticipated organisational competitiveness and productivity increases can be realised when survivors have a clear direction in terms of their roles and responsibilities.

Job insecurity represents the frequently examined stressor involving downsizing. Because a protracted exposure of employees to uncertainties regarding the continued nature and existence of their present jobs is likely to result in impaired well-being, job security is described as a classic work stressor (Barling & Kelloway, 1996, p. 253). As result of this description, the concept has been repeatedly found to relate negatively or positively to job and organisational attitudinal outcomes such as job satisfaction, job involvement, organisational commitment, turnover intentions and job performance. Research has indicated that job insecurity has deleterious consequences for the individual. Job insecurity is often reported to be a source of physical and psychological well-being (Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995, p. 60). Greenglass, Burke and Fiksenbaum (2002, p. 8) found that changes due to hospital downsizing impacted significantly upon nurses’ job insecurity and their job satisfaction. Thus, to the extent that the hospital downsizing had lowered the quality of health care and had had a negative impact on working conditions, survivors were less likely to experience job satisfaction and more likely to experience feelings of job insecurity. Results further indicated that job satisfaction functioned as a mediator between the impact of downsizing and job security. Lower job satisfaction as a result of the greater impact of downsizing may therefore lead to lower job security.
Like any other stressor, job insecurity may be related to the withdrawal response - an attempt to avoid the stress altogether. It is therefore possible to assume that job insecurity should have a positive relationship to intentions to leave. Indeed, research by Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984, p. 443) indicated that survivors experiencing job insecurity may also leave for rational reasons – it would be rational for them to seek more career opportunities if they are worried about continuity of employment. Similarly, job insecurity feelings have been found to generate stress that in turn manifests itself in intentions to leave the organisation, greater absenteeism and higher turnover (Boroson & Burgess, 1992, p. 42). In addition, some researchers have found that, besides job insecurity, procedural and distributive justice perceptions also have a strong negative relationship with turnover intentions (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001, p. 290). Thus, if survivors feel that future decisions that could impact them are likely to be unfair, they may feel there is little sacrifice in moving to a new employer. Indeed, turnover, particularly among high performers, is the primary reason for organisational concern about job insecurity.

Research has indicated that people develop affective and attitudinal attachment to their organisations over time (Leung, Ludwig & Chang, 1999, p. 6), which show up as high levels of commitment, satisfaction and trust. Feelings of job insecurity may threaten such basic attachments to the organisation, especially trust. Organisational trust is a function of the psychological contract. Survivors count on organisations to dependently uphold their end of the psychological contract between them even after downsizing. Perceived job insecurity may reflect a survivors’ perception that the organisation has broken the psychological contract. In this case, organisational trust becomes negatively affected. Naswall, et al., (2005, p. 39) presented evidence consistent with this perspective. Survivors who perceived their organisations to be undependable in carrying out their commitments to employees, in turn, developed high job insecurity and low levels of trust. Similarly, in examining the effects of job insecurity on work commitment and job behaviour, research further shows that survivors exhibit levels of reduced
work commitment and effort (O’Neill & Lenn, 1995, p. 24). Thus, for the organisation to achieve its new goals after downsizing, survivors should have low job insecurity as this would have some ramifications on the trust they develop towards their work and organisation. In the event that survivors lack organisational trust, they might become self-interested and focus on their own career goals at the expense of organisational goals (Freedman, 1986, p. 4).

The above evidence and analysis point to the importance of job satisfaction, employee involvement and perceptions of job insecurity, trust and turnover intentions after organisational downsizing. The information cited also indicates the impact of a lack of these attitudinal factors after downsizing. Survivors should have high job satisfaction and be highly involved in their new positions as these have implications on turnover, absenteeism, loss of tacit knowledge and productivity in the post-downsizing phase. A break in the psychological contract means that survivors will develop high insecurity feelings which in turn affect satisfaction, trust perceptions, performance and productivity in the new work environment. The presence and maintenance of low levels of security, is therefore important in the post-downsizing period.

3.4.2 Employee commitment and downsizing

The recorded dysfunctional consequences of downsizing are believed to be mainly due to failure to maintain a high level of survivor commitment to the organisation. Yet, as organisations downsize, they rely more than ever on survivors to do what is needed for the organisation to survive and succeed (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p. 68). After downsizing, survivors usually find themselves with increased workloads because of a number of interrelated factors. These include taking on additional responsibilities, coping with the demands of increased spans of control. In addition, tasks may be defined less clearly. Thus, survivors are required to be flexible and adaptable, and find creative ways of improving efficiency. These points underline the importance of survivors’ commitment to the organisation (Corbett, 2005, p. 180). Studies suggest that committed workers contribute to the organisation in a more positive way than less committed employees (Metcalf & Dick, 2001, p. 399).
Other studies have suggested that organisational commitment is correlated with turnover and absence rates (Lee & Corbertt, 2006, p. 177), willingness to suggest improvements and citizenship behaviour (Moorman, Niehoff & Organ, 1993, p. 223).

Organisational commitment is defined as the acceptance of organisational goals and values, a willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organisation, and desire to maintain membership in the organisation (Gautam, Dick & Wagner, 2004, p. 303). This definition of commitment considers it an affective or emotional attachment where employees share the organisation’s goals and values. However, the kinds of commitment commonly discussed in the literature are affective, continuance and normative (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p.5).

*Normative commitment* is the sense of responsibility an employee develops in helping to sustain the organisation and its activities (Allen & Meyer, p.7). It refers to internalised pressure or feeling of obligation to continue employment due to the work culture and other socially accepted norms. *Continuance commitment* is defined as commitment to the organisation based on investments made in the organisation that make it costly for individuals to leave (Brown, 1996, p. 235). In this instance, commitment is based on the individual’s recognition of the costs associated with leaving. Cost-based commitment could be linked to perceived penalties involved in making the switch. For example, employees who invest considerable time and energy mastering an organisation specific job skill may find it difficult to move to other organisations after they have survived downsizing. In this vein, they assume that by staying in the same organisation, the time and energy invested will pay off (Kupers, 2007, p. 245).

Research has shown that there is a relationship between continuance commitment and procedural justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001, p. 320). Thus, when survivors perceive that the decisions and outcomes concerning downsizing were made in an effort to be fair, they are less likely to participate in withdrawal behaviours. The level of one’s continuance commitment can vary depending on one’s experiences and involvement in the downsizing. For
example, survivors might feel a breach of the psychological contract. In this instance, survivors might move away from affective commitment towards continuance commitment. In essence, when organisations are unable to provide job security or develop trust in the lay-off process, survivors are left to struggle with how to survive, in the hope that they will not be the next to go. In return, survivors’ who are high in continuance will work harder, since their organisation-specific skills are not transferable (Kupers (2007, p. 247.). This analysis is supported by Leung and Chang (1999, p.16) who found that change in continuance commitment after downsizing was positively correlated with work effort. The continuance commitment of survivors’ to the organisation is therefore a negative attachment, characterised by survivors’ failing to share the values and principles of the organisation but having greater intention to remain with the organisation (Kupers, 2007, p. 246). It is mostly perceived to be unfavourable or negatively related to performance and other variables valued by the organisation.

Affective commitment describes how emotionally attached a person is to an object (e.g., the organisation) and is referred to as ‘want to’ part of commitment (Brown, 1996, p. 240). It is sometimes referred to as personal acceptance and integration of organisational values. This type of commitment can develop from antecedents (e.g., positive experiences with the organisation, job-related characteristics, personal characteristics, and structural characteristics) (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p. 70). Studies have found positive relationship between justice and commitment (Hendrix, Robbins, Miller & Summers, 1998, p. 620). Hendrix et al. stated that fair procedures allow employees to have faith in the organisation and therefore, increase their organisational commitment. After an organisational downsizing, negative experiences can impact survivors’ perceptions of how they have been treated by the organisation. This, in turn, influences how they demonstrate their affective commitment to the organisation.

Because survivors who are high in affective commitment remain because they want to do so, they have been found to display an unwillingness to leave; they feel more comfortable in their relationship with the organisation (Allen &
Meyer, 1990, p. 12). In contrast however, findings by Leung and Chang (1999, p. 18) indicated that affective commitment significantly predicted intention to leave among survivors. Survivors felt they could not manage their careers since the psychological contract was broken. Such perceptions had an impact on their emotional bonding with the organisation; thus, the level of affective commitment decreased and the intention to leave increased. Overall, however, affective commitment has been found to be favourable for individual and organisational outcomes in terms of satisfaction, well-being, lower turnover, and higher productivity (Gautam, et al., 2004, p. 311).

Why should downsized organisations be concerned with the issue of commitment among survivors? According to Cross and Travaglione (2004, p. 277), in order to maintain the most efficient survivor workforce, it seems reasonable to ensure that all members’ commitment is based on emotional attachment (affective) because they will become potentially more beneficial to the company than those committed due to perceived costs of leaving (continuance). Similarly, Suliman & Iles (2000, p. 72) argue that in an era in which organisations frequently confront the necessity of massive change, committed employees can be an extremely valuable organisational resource in facilitating rapid adaptation to changing conditions. Other downsizing researchers (e.g., Greenberg (1996, p. 106) point out that committed survivors are less likely to resign or be absent. Being committed leads survivors to stay on their jobs and show up when they are supposed to. They are able to demonstrate great willingness to share and to make the sacrifices required for the organisation to thrive. Organisational commitment studies (Gowen 111, Mcfadden, Hoobler & Tallon, 2005, p. 768) have shown significant relationships between commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour and organisational climate. The management literature links good organisational climate with increased productivity. Therefore, commitment initiatives after downsizing have a potential of resulting in higher productivity and lower employee turnover.

Vakola & Nikolaou (2005, p. 163) write that organisational commitment plays an important role in employees’ acceptance of change. It is regarded as the
second most important determinant after union membership of attitudes
towards organisational change. Thus, a highly committed employee is more
willing to accept organisational change if it is perceived to be beneficial. Other
researchers (e.g., Darwish, 2000, p. 21) argue that organisational
commitment is a better predictor of behavioural intentions and job satisfaction
within the context of change. According to Vakola and Nikolaou (2005, p.
171), employees with high commitment are more willing to put more effort into
change projects and, therefore, they are more likely to develop positive
attitudes towards organisational change. These sentiments are supported by
Siu (2003, p. 340) who reported that highly committed employees report
higher levels of job performance and therefore higher productivity.

In other contexts such as quality management programmes, employee
commitment to the organisation after downsizing has been shown to act as a
moderator of the impact of the quality management programme on
organisational performance (Bou & Beltran, 2005, p. 77). Employee
commitment initiatives implemented as a high performance work system
proved to be more effective for manufacturing organisations than for service
organisations after downsizing (Boxall, 2003, p. 18). Similarly, in studies of
healthcare quality management programmes, employee commitment
initiatives have improved organisational success (Knoop, 1995, p. 170). In
view of these benefits, it seems as if survivors continuously reevaluate their
commitment to an organisation after a downsizing exercise. Survivors want
and expect particular outcomes for the effort they are expected to put into the
organisation. If there is lack of expected outcomes, commitment toward the
organisation or to an individual (e.g., supervisor) within the organisation may
be reduced (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001, p. 305). Thus, maintaining a high
level of survivor commitment to the organisation after downsizing is likely to
be a critical factor in successful downsizing.

3.4.3 Employee work motivation and downsizing

The sum total of skills, knowledge and general attributes (human capital)
alone, among survivors, is not enough for a downsized organisation to ensure
the correct attitudes, performance and productivity required. Survivors are required to translate their human capital into some form of action that results in performance that contributes to the achievement of organisational goals (Hitt, et al., 2006, p. 198). Motivation is the process through which this translation takes place. The concept refers to forces within an individual that account for the level and persistence of effort expended at work (Schermherhorn, et al., 2005, p. 120). Direction refers to an individual’s choice when presented with a number of possible alternatives (e.g., whether to exert effort towards product quality or quantity). Level refers to the amount of effort a person puts forth (e.g., a little or a lot) while persistence refers to the length of time a person sticks with a given action (www.peerpapers.com). Depending on a variety and number factors after downsizing, survivors can be motivated to exert little or a lot of effort in the new organisation.

Because organisations are composed of people and organisational performance is based on the efforts of individuals and groups, survivor motivation become an important element among downsized organisations. Generally speaking, employee motivation is regarded as one of the primary reasons and source for the success and competitive advantage of an organisation (Kanfer, 1995, p. 334). More specifically, for a downsized organisation to be highly effective, survivors must be motivated to exercise their creative skills at work, remain with the organisation and perform their tasks well. Changes in work effort of survivors are important to focus on among survivors because their level of effort is one of the key determinants of their job performance; the other is ability.

There is empirical evidence that downsizing is associated with reduced work effort and thereby job performance. For example, Armstrong-Stassen (1994, p. 611) has shown that perceived job insecurity is directly related to the amount of work effort exerted and lower job performance. Similarly, Brockner, Grover, Reed, & DeWitt (1992, p. 420) found that work effort was especially likely to decline in conditions of perceived high job insecurity and lack of control. Work effort was found to be greater at moderate than low levels of job
insecurity. What this means is that if job insecurity is low, survivors tend to be unmotivated because they become complacent. They do not believe that further layoffs are likely. On the other hand, survivors are also likely to be unmotivated in the event that job insecurity is high, but for a different reason. They will believe that additional layoffs are likely (perceived threat is high). Furthermore they will believe that there is little that they or the organisation can do to help them counteract the negative consequences of job loss (perceived control is low). These perceptions are likely to lead to feelings of helplessness, which in turn, lessen motivation (Brockner, et al., 1992, p. 421).

In other studies (e.g., Savery & Luks, 2000, p. 313) motivation or work effort has been found to be moderated by survivors’ economic need to work. Only those survivors high in need to work after downsizing translated their feelings of job insecurity into increased levels of work effort. High job insecurity, coupled with low need to work resulted in no change in the level of work effort among survivors.

These findings indicate that when there are high levels of job insecurity, as would be expected after downsizing, survivors with a high need to work will increase their work effort, while those with a low need to work will have no change in work effort (www.scantron.com). However, contrary to these findings, Leung, et al., (1999, p. 17) found that contrary to expectations in their study, job overload and job security had no relation with work effort. Instead, increased role conflict and/or ambiguity led to decreased work effort. These findings were consistent with Miller, Ellis, Zook and Lyles’s (1990, p. 324) perspective which states that role ambiguity leads to work uncertainty and reduces the extent to which survivors have control over their own jobs. Thus, when survivors feel that they are unequal to the tasks they are give in the new work order after workforce reduction, they feel fatigued, lose work spirit and exert less work effort.

The extend to which motivation to expend greater effort in doing work can also be understood, as previously stated, in situations that are not directly
controllable by survivors (e.g., organisational downsizing) (Brockner, Greenberg, Brockner, Bortz, Davy, & Carter, 1986, p. 375). In such situations, survivors may attempt to reestablish control by increasing their work effort and productivity. Besides the need to reestablish control, the increase in job performance may simply reflect the greater workload demands of survivors after downsizing.

How survivors put effort into their current work stations and whether they are motivated to do so depends on a number of factors that will make them perceive the layoffs as fair. Fairness judgments are influenced by a wide range of issues (Brockner, 1992, p. 113). These issues concern the following questions: Are the layoffs seen as truly necessary? Is the layoff consistent with the organisation's history and culture? Did the organisation provide advance notice? In implementing the layoff, how well did the organisation attend to details? Did management provide clear and adequate explanation of the reasons for the layoff? Were cutback shared at higher managerial levels? What criteria were used to determine which employees would be laid off and those that get to remain? Did the organisation involve employees in the layoff decision? (Brockner, 1992, p. 122).

In providing evidence to the use of these factors by survivors, motivational studies (Brockner, et al., 1992, p. 414) related to layoff survivors have paid a great deal of attention to the influence of positive inequity. This concept refers to surviving employees’ perception that their outcome-input ratio is greater than that of the laid off workers, and that those who have survived the layoff are no more deserving of their jobs than those who have been let go. This positive inequity can result in an increased input - for example, survivors may exert higher levels of effort-in order to reestablish equity. The motivational aspect comes from the effect that positive inequity has in arousing guilt. Individuals are motivated to redress this guilt through increased effort or reassessing their outcomes. In addition, factors such as survivors’ levels of self-esteem have been found relevant in predicting whether perceptions of positive inequity among survivors will increase their effort or not.
With regards to the role played by self-esteem, Robbins (1999, p. 33) writes that coworker layoff can have a significant effect on the work effort and subsequent productivity of survivors. However, the levels of work effort differ with the levels of self-esteem held by the survivors. Low self-esteem survivors are more likely than high self-esteem survivors to work harder after layoff. This is because they are more likely to perceive worry and job insecurity as a result of downsizing. They experience more positive inequity than their high self-esteem counterparts. They therefore work harder because they are worried about their job insecurity and see increased work effort as a means towards reducing the threat to their job security.

Contributing to the debate on the role played by feelings of positive inequity on the motivation of survivors, Brockner, et al., (1986, p. 381) showed that survivors’ motivation to redress guilt caused by feelings of positive inequity are a function of whether the layoffs are based on random conditions (without a clearly defined criterion) or on merit (e.g., work performance). In tandem with the equity theory which posits that inequity can be redressed through both behavioural and psychological means, these researchers found that survivors tend to respond to random-layoff conditions by increasing their quantity of output. But when layoffs are based on merit, survivors tend to establish equity by upgrading their assessment of their previous performance level and improving the quality of their work probably in an effort to prove that better performance or greater input justifies their status as survivors.

In almost similar findings, Armstrong-Stassen, Wagar, and Cattaneo (2004, p. 2038) found that survivors in moderate work-groups (work group without major changes) reported a significant increase in job performance after downsizing. On the other hand, survivors in the intact work group and those whose group experienced minor changes reported the lowest levels of job performance. These findings are consistent with those reported by Grunberg, Anderson-Connoly and Greenberg (2000, p. 28) who found out that layoff contact - either direct contact (at risk for being laid off) or indirect contact (close ties with the laid off; e.g., coworkers) – was associated with higher work
effort by survivors in lower positions. These findings indicate that motivation among survivors to put effort and energy for performance is partly explained by their perceptions of justice and fairness of the organisation when dealing with the laid off.

A major factor influencing the effects of terminations on survivors’ motivational levels is their perceptions of how fairly the decisions on terminations were made and how these were handled (Appelbaum, 1993, p. 1). Such perceptions affect survivors’ levels of productivity and the quality of job performance. Thus, within the downsizing literature, motivation and organisational justice theories help to explain survivors’ perceptions and the subsequent amount of effort they expend after downsizing through layoffs. One of the theories used to explain the perceptions of survivors and their subsequent effect on their motivation is the Expectancy theory (Vroom, 1969) cited in Allan (2005, p. 584). The theory suggests that an individual will perform and expend only as much effort as is necessary to reach desired outcomes and the extent of the effort depends on the value of that outcome to them. Thus, when downsizing takes place and employees perceive that performance is not a criterion used to decide who is to be laid off, they will have no incentive to perform. This conclusion is in tandem with the reinforcement theory Schultz & Schultz, 2006, p. 221) which states that employees perform well when there are immediate positive consequences for good performance. This means that after downsizing when negative consequences such as demotions, terminations or salary cuts are wrongly perceived, survivors will not be motivated to perform well. The second and most widely used theory in understanding work motivation after organisational downsizing is the organisational justice theory which has its basis on the Equity theory (Adams, 1965, p. 288).

The literature shows that much research has been written about the topic of organisational justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001, p. 273; Harvey & Haines, 2005, p. 55). The concept has been driven from different angles by different writers. Most agree that it is a dominating theme in organisational life.
Organisational justice is defined as an employee’s perception of the fairness of exchange he or she has with an organisation in relation to rewards and procedures (Hendrix, et al., 1998, p. 623). Saunders and Thornhill (2003, p. 372) state that justice is a ‘framework through which to explain and understand employees’ motivation and work effort. According to Tahir (2007, p. 295) generally speaking, employees’ perceptions of fairness in all organisational processes and practices are assumed to influence their behaviour and work outcomes.

As indicated before, the organisational justice theory is based on the equity theory (Adams, 1965, p. 270). Adams described equity as the belief that the distribution of rewards should rely on individual contributions. In the organisational setting, equity refers to an implied or psychological contract between an organisation and an employee dealing with expected inputs and outcomes from both parties (Hendrix, et al., 1998, p. 627). Individuals make a comparison of the treatment they receive with the treatment of other employees in the same organisation. Similarly, they also compare themselves with other employees in similar organizations in order to evaluate the relationship concerning input-output between the employee and the organisation. When a discrepancy is detected in the relationship, employees may attempt to reduce it through changing the input, that is, reduced work motivation and work effort. As illustrated by Armstrong-Stassen (2005, p. 135) because a layoff is a series of events in which victims and survivors evaluate the fairness of the layoff procedure, the perceived justice or fairness of the way in which the layoff occurs is an important variable in the understanding of survivor motivation to put effort in their work. Thus, researchers tend to agree on the multifaceted nature of organisational justice, and are inclined to cite four main factors, namely, distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice and informational justice.

Survivor’s perceptions of these types of justice combine to form their overall perception of the downsizing procedure, process and practices which in turn affects their levels of work effort. Distributive justice refers to the perceived
allocation of rewards or outcomes during the layoff process and following the layoff of victims (Armstrong-Stassen (2005, p. 136). Hopkins and Weathington (2006, p. 479) refer to these outcomes as ‘caretaking.’ One determinant of distributive justice is the perception of how well the organisation provided for the victims or intervened to ensure that the victims were treated fairly. Research (e.g., Campbell-Jamison, Worrall & Cooper, 2001, p. 41) supporting the equity theory and distributive justice perception showed that following layoffs, survivors experienced increased feelings of remorse and negative attitudes towards co-workers (in order to redress the inequity). Secondly, the study revealed that those who perceived injustice produced less, which suggested that layoffs do have the potential to (negatively) influence work motivation which will subsequently affect productivity.

On the other hand, procedural justice refers to the perceived legitimacy of the layoff and the inclusion of laid-off members in the organisational decision-making process (Armstrong-Stassen, 2005, p. 137). Brockner and Wiesenfield (1993, p. 45) reveal that an antecedent of procedural justice and its effects on survivors’ perception of fairness is the ‘clarity and adequacy of the explanation the organisation provides for the layoff; the more clearer and more adequate the explanation, the greater the perceived fairness. According to Lin and Tyler (1988, p. 61) organisations that ignore the procedural justice concern run the risk of engendering non-compliance in rules and procedures, and in some instances decreased work effort and lower performance.

Interactional justice is achieved when the organisation is perceived to have treated victims with dignity and respect throughout the layoff process (Armstrong-Stassen, 2005, p. 136). It also concerns the relationships between survivors and their immediate supervisors. Mohyeldin & Suliman (2006, p. 299) examined the relationship between employee-supervisor relationship (a factor of interactional justice), self-rated motivation and performance after organisational downsizing. They reported that survivors who positively perceived their relationships with immediate supervisor tended to rate positively their work motivation as well as their self-rated performance. The
greater the perceived dignity and respect afforded the victims, the more positive outcomes were shown by survivors such as increased motivation to expend energy in the new work environment.

Lastly, informational justice refers to the amount of information provided in the organisation’s communications with victims and survivors about the layoff (Armstrong-Stassen, 2005, p. 138). Fowke (1998, p. 4) supports the view that as clarity of explanation received during the layoffs increases, so does the perception of the layoff as a just and fair decision. Thus, Bies (1987, p. 294) concurs and comments that survivors will generally react better (and be motivated to work) even to undesirable resource allocation when they are given a good reason for those decisions.

Robinson (2004: 45) investigated the role of organisational justice in predicting four organisational outcome variables, namely, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, motivation and performance. As hypothesised, the four components of organisational justice discussed above were significant predictors of the four outcome variables. Distributive justice accounted for the most variance in job satisfaction, while procedural justice accounted for the most variance in organisational commitment, motivation and work performance. Similarly, Aryee, Chen and Budhwar (2004, p. 10) examined the relationship between organisational politics and procedural justice and their influence of survivor performance after downsizing. Results revealed procedural justice but not organisational politics to be related to task performance. Job performance and counterproductive behaviours, considered to be outcomes of perceived justice, were also found to be related to all justice types in organisations.

From the above discussion, it can be stated that besides being committed to the organisations, survivors are expected to increase their job performance in order to maintain the competitiveness of the organisation. Therefore, HR practitioners in downsized organisations can secure an increased level of motivation and subsequent increase in productivity among survivors by
adopting guaranteed security programmes to make employees feel a sure sense of employment continuity. In addition, situations in which employees are well informed of the whole process of downsizing and how they see themselves fitting in and making their contribution will also keep them motivated in the post-downsizing period. The final result is that the expected benefits of downsizing are not compromised.

3.6 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The aim of the present chapter was to provide an overview the concept of survivor quality and its various dimensions. It focused on the attitudinal, commitment and motivation levels that are needed by survivors to operate in the new work environment after downsizing. The chapter has also highlighted the need for downsized organisations to focus their attention on ensuring that survivors do have these qualities in the new work environment as this brings about the desired productivity and competitive advantage. The next chapter discusses the drivers of survivor quality.
CHAPTER FOUR

DRIVERS OF SURVIVOR QUALITY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided a discussion on the concept of survivor quality as depicted by three important dimensions; (1) attitudes (2) commitment, and (3) motivation. The reviewed literature has shown that downsizing through workforce reduction does have both negative and positive effects on the quality of those who remain. Survivors who show that they are satisfied with their jobs, have feelings of job security and are fully involved in their new jobs are able to contribute positively to the realisation of the new goals of the downsized organisation. In addition, through heightened levels of commitment and motivation among survivors, HR practitioners in the downsized organisations are able to link the new business strategy of the organisation with the survivors’ needs. The relationship of these three constructs of survivor quality and how each of them, as well as all of them combined affect survivor quality is the focus of this study. An analysis of the three constructs therefore provided a foundation upon which each of them has been understood.

Organisations today have recognized increasingly the potential for their employees (people) to be a source of competitive advantage. Creating competitive advantage through people requires careful attention to the practices that best leverage these assets (Wright, Gardner & Moynihan, 2003, p. 21). Research by Guthrie (2001, p. 188) has demonstrated statistically significant relationships between measures of HR practices and organisational profitability. Guthrie (2001, p. 189) suggests that HR practices have a direct impact on employee skills, motivation, job design, and work structures. These variables elicit certain levels of creativity, productivity, and discretionary effort, which subsequently translate into improved operating performance. On the other hand, downsizing has been shown to have a
negative effect on these variables. What this means is that HR practices have an impact on the work behaviour of survivors after downsizing. The work behaviour of survivors can be extra-role, in-role, or counter productive (or dysfunctional) behaviours. In-role behaviour refers to behaviour expected of employees, largely based on job requirements and commonly accepted norms (Wright, et al., 2003, p. 22). Extra-role behaviour consists of behaviour going outside the requirement for the job and which has a positive effect on organisational performance, while counter-productive behaviour usually consists of activities, in-role or extra-role, that are specifically or implicitly aimed at harming the organisation (Sacket & DeVore, 2000, p. 310). The attitudes of survivors after downsizing can largely influence on these three variables through HR practices which can act as important levers driving motivation, job satisfaction, or commitment. Indeed, research has demonstrated that management practices of an organisation influence individual employee feelings of commitment and motivation (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998, p. 580).

The present chapter is premised on the understanding that the central strategy behind achieving positive attitudes, commitment and motivation after downsizing is through understanding the HR practices that drive these three constructs. The identification of such practices will enable the development of innovative strategies for increased survivor involvement and increased commitment and motivation to the new organisation and its goals.

Smith (2001, p. 28) argues that the cultivation of heightened survivor trust, effort, commitment, and motivation among survivors is sometimes rendered difficult by the emergence of organisational policies that seek to achieve a competitive advantage through layoffs. Therefore, the achievement of a competitive advantage for a downsized organisation depends on close cooperation between management and survivors grounded on trust, commitment, motivation and involvement (Lorenz, 1992, p. 466). For the cooperation to be effective, both organisational and job-level HR practices as drivers of survivor quality are important to consider. Job-level practices are important for defining the nature and meaning of work and for influencing the
satisfaction or alienation that survivors will experience before, during or after downsizing. Organisational-level practices are important for determining the viability of the organisation and the level of survivor commitment and motivation to the organisation goals (Hodson & Roscigno, 2004, p. 672). The sections that follow will therefore identify and explain the interactions among HR practices, personal factors as well as environmental drivers regarded as drivers of survivor quality before, during and after organisational downsizing.

4.2 DRIVERS OF SURVIVOR QUALITY BEFORE DOWNSIZING

Planning downsizing – Downsizing relies on a careful planning effort. Before it takes place, an organisation needs to have developed a long-term strategic plan which takes into account how departments and processes can be realigned while retaining high performers who are crucial to the organisation (Appelbaum, et al., 1999, p. 544). Typical top-down approaches are most likely the least effective plan of action in downsizing. Thus, all members of the organisation should be involved in the planning stages, well before the actual downsizing begins. By having every organizational member participate in the process, employees are more likely to accept and feel responsible for the changes, and this increases the probability of successful downsizing; the planning and the implementation (Appelbaum, et al., 1999, p. 546).

Strategic planning for downsizing before it has taken place requires contributions not only from top management but also from middle and lower levels of employees within the organisation. In their study, Dolan, Belout and Balkin (2000, p. 34) found that, if there is a clear strategy to implement the downsizing, which includes scheduling and a well-specified operational plan, the impact on those dismissed as well the survivors is buffered. The use of a downsizing plan therefore mitigates the negative responses from the remaining employees. Dolan, et al., (2000, p. 34) concluded that when an organisation adopts a reactive approach towards the downsizing process, numerous problems associated with the survivors can result.
Rationale for downsizing and ideological beliefs - Carbery and Garavan (2005, p. 498) argue that the main reason why an organisation would downsize is an important factor/driver in determining the quality of survivors. Downsizing is usually carried out by organisations for economic reasons and the need by organisations to orient themselves in more strategic positions for efficiency and effectiveness. Employees’ perceptions of the dominant strategy adopted by an organisation to drive the workforce reduction process have a strong bearing on survivor quality after the downsizing exercise. Thus, in their study, Carbery and Garavan (2005) showed that respondents perceived the driver for change in the direction of efficiency and effectiveness (competition) to be the strength of management in adopting workforce reduction as a cost-effective strategy.

In line with this notion of the rationale for downsizing as a factor that contributes to survivor quality, researchers have also written about the ideological beliefs among survivors about business which appear to also influence perceptions of downsizing in ways that may either enhance or compromise their motivation, commitment or involvement. For example, according to Fourcade-Gourinchas and Babb (2002, p. 556), the belief in the ideology of market competition apparently enhances the belief that downsizing is financially effective and reduces the thinking that downsizing constitutes a breach of the implied employer/employee contract. Thus, a strong belief in the ideology of market competition has the potential to increase the palatability of downsizing for survivors, and make it easier for them to adjust to the new demands of the organization (McKinley, 2006, p. 456).

The ideology of shareholder wealth makes survivors believe that downsizing is financially effective, more inevitable, more liberating, and less of a breach of the implied contract between employer and employee. This cluster of perceptions suggests that strong survivor believers in the ideology of shareholder wealth are advocates of organisational downsizing, and would not dispute its taken-for granted status as an accepted management practice.
(McKinley, 2006, p. 468). Margolis and Walsh (2003, p. 289) also concur by arguing that the ideology of employee worth has perceptual effects that rend in different directions as those of the ideology of market competition and shareholder wealth. Specifically, believers of employee-worth see downsizing as less inevitable and as constituting a breach of the psychological contract. Taking into consideration these hypotheses about survivor perceptions before downsizing, managers should attempt to strengthen beliefs in these ideologies, in the hope that survivors’ perceptions of downsizing would shift in directions that are conducive to acceptance and advocacy of the practice (Sronce & McKinley, 2006, p. 100).

*Downsizing strategy* - Kase and Zupan (2005, p. 243) argue that an important decision in downsizing which might have an effect on survivor quality is the organisation’s choice of workforce reduction strategy. The common ones are the redeployment and the layoff tactics, commonly referred to as the ‘hard and ‘soft’ workforce reduction tactics. Redeployment tactics include natural attrition, induced redeployment and involuntary redeployment, while layoff tactics consist of layoffs with or without outplacement assistance. The actual choice of workforce reduction tactic by an organisation has been found to have an effect on the survivors in terms of their commitment and effort to work (Hitt, Ireland & Hoskisson (2001, p. 67).

In today’s competitive world, evidence suggests that organisations are continuing to downsize in an attempt to embrace organisational market orientation. Using data from 2, 000 organisations, Farrell (2003, p. 73) showed that downsizing-seeking efficiencies through reducing the number of employees had a negative effect on survivor quality in terms of trust and commitment in the post-downsizing phase. Conversely, downsized organisations that follow the natural attrition and layoff with outplacement route have been found to be in a better position to create a competitive advantage through survivors (Kase & Zupan, 2005, p. 241). Based on the preceding evidence, an organisation’s choice of downsizing strategy can be regarded as a driver of survivor quality in the post-downsizing phase.
In studying the types of downsizing contacts as drivers of survivor quality for survivors and their effects on the subsequent outcomes, Moore, Grunberg and Greenberg (2004, p. 8) argue that survivor quality may be directly affected when downsizing is accomplished by other forms of restructuring. For example, as organisations cut their workforces, they often relocate employees to different positions and areas in the organisation. This is an example of internal job movements. It usually results from decisions made by management and in some instances from union-negotiated labour contract. Such decisions and contracts enable senior employees in surplus positions to remove other workers with less seniority out of their positions. Once that happens, there are likely to be disruptions in social relationships, increases in role ambiguity, and heightened feelings of uncertainty about job security among the survivors. Hence, Moore, et al. (2003, p. 9) found that workers experiencing direct form of downsizing contact fared significantly worse on job security and several measures of motivation and commitment than did workers with indirect contact, who, in turn experienced poorer outcomes than did employees with no reported direct personal contact. Similarly, Kalimo, Taris and Shaufeli (2003, p. 107) found that certain forms of downsizing experiences, such as those that eliminate jobs directly, were associated with the poorest outcomes such as reduced work effort, commitment, and productivity. Such evidence shows that it is important to consider the varied types of contact downsizing survivors have had with the layoff events, particularly as this might affect they way in which they relate with each other or the organisation at large.

Trust in top management – Mutual trust between managers and employees is a critical factor in building effective work relationships: It is especially important when organisations undertake downsizing efforts, which entail much uncertainty and conflict (Appelbaum, et al., 1999, p. 541). The extent to which survivors trust management largely impacts on survivor quality. Survivors need to feel that management is concerned about their needs. They must feel that they are in control of their future, of their destiny, even if it means that there is a possibility that in future they may be laid off (Mone, 1997, p. 333).
According to Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995, p. 725) trust is defined as the willingness to be vulnerable to others, based on the prior belief that those others are trustworthy. Being vulnerable means that a significant potential for loss exists for an individual. In a downsizing context, this willingness to be vulnerable may be manifested in high performing survivors who remain with the organization, even though they might not have had the opportunity to get good jobs elsewhere. It may also be manifested by a belief in top management’s assurances that downsizing will improve the competitive advantage, despite initial evidence indicating the contrary. Survivors might make significant purchases (perhaps buying a house) after a promise that no additional layoffs will occur, only to have those promises broken and their jobs lost.

Scholars (e.g., Hart & Saunders, 1997, p. 37) have documented several key dimensions of trustworthiness, including a concern for others’ interests, competence, openness, and reliability. Each dimension contributes to a party’s trustworthiness. A belief that management is concerned about the best interests of survivors leads to less threatening appraisals, because survivors believe that top management is acting not only in its own interests (Spreitzer & Mishra, 2002, p. 707). Survivors who believe that top management is competent may also appraise the downsizing as less threatening because they view top management as capable of enhancing the organisation’s competitive position. Additionally, survivors who believe that top management is reliable may also be less threatened because they believe that top managers will keep their promises. Finally, survivors who believe that top management is being open and honest about what is happening may be less threatened because uncertainty is reduced (Hoogeveen & Oppelland, 2002, p. 3). The fact that trust may be violated in each of these instances reflects the vulnerability of the trust.

Because trust facilitates a less threatening appraisals of the downsizing by the survivors, it is likely to foster more constructive responses. In general, it allows survivors to cooperate with others because it reduces the threat of
malfeasance. Lazarus and Folkman (1984, p. 15) demonstrated that a belief that top management is concerned about the interests of survivors enhances constructive responses, because survivors presumably are willing to further their own interests. When top management is reliable in keeping promises and open in sharing information, it reduces uncertainty and ambiguity among the survivors. Lower ambiguity and uncertainty allow individuals (survivors) to work together more easily to deal with stressful encounter. A belief that top management is competent may also contribute to positive survivor quality in the sense that survivors feel comfortable supporting top management’s vision of the future. For these reasons therefore, higher levels of trust prior to downsizing are likely to lead to constructive survivor responses during the downsizing process. In other words, the subsequent levels of trust that evolve during downsizing will also affect survivor quality in terms of their responses. For example, a survivor may forego an interview with another organisation and cooperate during the implementation of the downsizing following the promise of no further layoffs. If another layoff is announced, initial levels of trust may erode, even if the survivor is not affected immediately. Research by Brockner, Tyler and Cooper-Schneider (1992, p. 250) has shown that there is a positive relationship between level of trust and employee commitment in an organisation Therefore; one can suggest that levels of trust have an influence on survivor responses (quality).

According to Burke and Greenglass (2001, p. 20) perceived fairness of decisions is vital to a successful downsizing. The criteria use for identifying redundant posts should be understood and applied consistently. Management posts must be subjected to the same kind of openness; so that no sector of the organisation appears immune from the process.

The time scale for downsizing is also important. The process should be thoroughly planned and all contingencies accounted for, and it should be accomplished in one shot as quickly as possible. This prevents the process from being drawn to and allows survivors to move on to the new challenges.
According to Brockner, Grover, Reed, DeWitt and O’Malley (1987, p. 534), procedural justice is about the fairness of the processes used to implement the downsizing. It has been generally been operationalised in terms of the decision rule used to determine who will be laid off and in terms of the advance notice given to victims. A decision rule based on merit contributes to the perception of procedural fairness. Survivors are more likely in this instance to appraise downsizing as predictable, hence less threatening; therefore in such a case, we expect survivors to respond more constructively thereby contributing to a positive survivor quality. In contrast, when survivors perceive the decision rule to be politically based or random, they are less likely to see the implementation of downsizing as fair and more likely to retaliate against the injustice of the system by engaging in dysfunctional behaviours. (Spreitzer & Mishra, 2002, p. 710). Advance notice allows individuals to respond positively, because the probability of an unexpected downsizing is minimised. Rather than feeling incapacitated by anxiety about future downsizings, with assurances of advance notice, survivors can lower their defenses because they will be given adequate time to prepare for downsizings in the future. Thus, advance notice can reduce assessments of threat, thereby increasing positive survivor quality responses (Lazarus & Folkman, 1994, p. 95).

Formulations of interactional justice focus on three verbal strategies used to justify downsizing. These are: (1) causal accounts based on credible mitigating circumstances for the downsizing, (2) ideological accounts that link downsizing to the vision of the organisation’s future, and (3) penitential accounts that focus on the interpersonal treatment of those who are affected by downsizing (Spreitzer & Mishra, 2002, p. 712). Research by Bies (1987, p. 298) has shown that offering explanations of why events must happen ameliorates negative reactions and promotes the belief that the decision makers’ acts were fair and are the result of good judgment.

Regarding the causal account, survivors will consider the rationale for the downsizing as fair if it addresses the mitigating external circumstances in the
environment, rather than the enrichment of top management or shareholders. Thus, survivors are less likely to be threatened if they can clearly understand how external factors necessitated the downsizing. Perceptions of intentionality can magnify perception of injustice; thus, increase the assessment of threat, which in turn decreases the probability of positive and constructive survivor quality behaviours. Regarding the social account, communicating a clear vision of how the downsizing will benefit all stakeholders also reduces dysfunctional behaviours and the downsizing exercise is viewed as less threatening. It makes survivors see hope for the future. When survivors have hope in the future of the organisation, they will be more likely to respond constructively because they can understand how downsizing can enhance the competitive advantage.

**Communication** - How an organisation communicates with its employees before or during the downsizing process is crucial to the success of the process and the quality of survivors thereof. The aspect of open and honest communication is crucial to the acceptance of the encouragement by management for employees to participate in the downsizing process. Thus, all employees must feel they are being informed accurately and in a timely fashion of the downsizing efforts (Appelbaum, *et al.*, 1999, p. 545). Employees often feel disrespected and undervalued when management announces downsizing immaturely and in an unconvincing manner. Studies by Appelbaum, *et al.*, (1999, p. 544) have shown that by sharing confidential financial and competitive information with survivors and by showing a willingness to communicate everything all the time, management establishes a greater sense of trust and honesty. In the downsizing context, this in turn encourages those who remain to cooperate and to help the organisation survive temporary and unhealthy situations that compromise the achievement of the new organisational goals.

Other studies (e. g., Bridges (1986, p. 30) have noted that the manner in which management communicates to employees the organisation’s commitment to retaining some high performers (survivors) who are likely to
succeed in the downsized organisation impacts on the quality of these high performers thereafter. Depending on the manner in which management decides to announce this information, grapevine and rumours must be avoided at all costs. Thus, having open communication and participatory systems enables survivors to both understand the organisation’s competitive position and be able to participate in processes to improve it. As a result, a positive environment where employees feel they are listened to and respected is created (Wright, et al., 2003, 24). Indeed, findings by Amundson, Bongen, Erlebach and Jordan (2004, p. 18) indicate that sufficient and timely communication could allay fears and convey respect for employees. Inadequate, contradictory, and vague communication increase confusion, anxiety and mistrust among both the victims and survivors. Further findings conclude that failure to communicate plans creates an impression that management does not know what they are doing or does not respect employees. What this means therefore is that before downsizing begins, all employees need to know the nature and the specifics of the downsizing process if those who would remain are to play any meaningful role in creating the new organisation.

4.3 DRIVERS OF SURVIVOR QUALITY DURING DOWNSIZING

*Job security and personal control* - According to Paulsen, *et al.*, (2005, p. 466) one driver of survivor quality during downsizing is the experience of job uncertainty among survivors. Downsizing announcements create stressful environments for survivors as they struggle with uncertainties surrounding the security of their positions in the organisation. During downsizing, there is an increase in uncertainty among survivors regarding certain aspects of their immediate work situation. Some of these aspects include job role tasks, promotion and opportunities. In a study done by Boxall and Purcell (2003, p. 113) to examine job insecurity and its correlates during downsizing, it was found that the adoption of a new service delivery model impacted on all staff, victims and survivors. There was a degree of uncertainty over the nature of tasks, future team structure and how much control employees had over the way in which jobs were to be implemented in the new service delivery model.
What this means is that downsizing accompanied by the introduction of new ways of doing business creates uncertainty among survivors. Uncertainty has been linked with reduced job satisfaction and commitment, and an increased desire to leave the organisation, elements that constitute survivor quality (Cameron, 1994, p. 195).

Contributing to the role of uncertainty as a driver of survivor quality, Fugate, et al., (2002, p. 920) argue that the anticipation of layoffs, that is, not knowing whether they have their jobs or not in the downsized organisation creates a highly uncertain environment for survivors. It also affects their ability to predict the nature of their working environment in the new organisation. The heightened levels of uncertainty lead to perceptions of lack of personal control over the future. Fugate, et al., (2002, p. 921) further found out that levels of personal control were lowest during the anticipation stages of a merger, where levels of uncertainty were high because employees were expecting job losses. Based on such findings, it seems reasonable to expect that employees experience highest levels of job uncertainty and lowest levels of personal control before downsizing. However, as downsizing progresses and some employees learn that they are remaining (survivors), levels of job uncertainty should decrease and personal control increase. Uncertainties among survivors about new or altered job responsibilities, changes in career paths and work group changes also determine their quality as remaining assets of the organisation.

Bordia, Hunt, Paulson, Tourish and Difonzo (2004b, p. 355) assert that survivor quality is sometimes driven by employees’ levels of adjustment during downsizing. Adjustment is related to job uncertainty. Thus, the survivors’ inability to predict his or her own environment is maladaptive because one cannot adequately prepare for, or deal with the unknown. Organisational change literature has also emphasised the psychological discomfort associated with uncertainty during downsizing. Writers such as Ashford (1988, p. 32) have found that uncertainty is related to anxiety, stress, tiredness, depression and nervousness during downsizing. These personal
feelings might affect survivors’ motivation and subsequent productivity levels.

Work setting changes - Changes in the culture, structural control, business functions and operating principles during the implementation/transition stage have been found to influence survivor quality. Carbery and Garavan (2004, p. 500) indicated that responses of employees in their study revealed significant shifts in the working culture during the transition period. Respondents indicated that the organisation had moved away from traditional industrial relations mindset allowing employees the scope to adjust their working hours by working from home, flextime, etc. By so doing, the organisation successfully gained employees’ commitment to move to a more customer focused operation. What this means is that if the organisation’s culture becomes focused, and the onus is on departments or units to take responsibility for their actions during downsizing, survivor quality is enhanced, since strategy and direction will filter through the operations.

Other related changes in the work setting that drive survivor quality are related shifts in work group composition and the physical environment. Jimmieson, Terry, and Callan (2004, p. 25) argue that survivors from different departments and offices are brought together as a result of downsizing. New work relationships may take time to develop as all the survivors start learning how to work together concurrently with new systems or hierarchies. Jimmieson, et al., (2004, p.26) showed that survivors’ motivation was greatly affected because they had difficulty meeting and working with new coworkers, frustration training new people, and frustration working with people who lacked skills. In the same study, the importance of the physical environment, including new buildings and office layout, helped in either facilitating or hampering coworker relationship and subsequently their commitment and attitudes toward their new jobs. The conclusion was that survivors who are physically separated on different floors or in different buildings have their sense of teamwork diminished. They may feel forgotten by the organisation and isolated from their new work team. This might also have an effect on their
commitment and motivation in the downsized organisation (Caudron & Hayward, 1996, p. 40).

**Skills training** - A central workplace practice that is important during organisational downsizing is employee training. The skills and learning that management considers very important and of value during the time of downsizing are also important. These skills are the ones needed to operate effectively in the new environment. They might include acquired technical skills (e.g., production process knowledge), prior experience and endemic knowledge (of organisational processes and procedures); and self-development skills (Carbery & Garavan, 2004, p. 500). The ability to adapt and learn, show initiative, creativity and problem solving are considered more important in determining the effort and motivation of survivors (Rayburn & Rayburn, 1999, p. 53).

Fisher and White (2000, p. 249) contend that survivor quality is influenced by whether specific training initiatives are provided by the organisation during downsizing. The authors found that organisations that had an over reliance on individual’s accumulated skills and experience to survive and develop during downsizing had survivors with low levels of motivation and high intentions to leave. On the contrary, organisations that had made employees (survivors) work closely with people with years of experience and those who were identified as having the ability to transfer knowledge effectively had survivor levels of high motivation and low intention to leave (Carbery & Garavan, 2004, p. 501). The important points to note here are that the newly created organisation and environment require management to impart new skills to the survivors in line with the new strategy and demands of the organisation. In addition, management should also receive training in supporting the surviving employees. The intention to train should also be clear to all survivors and they should be given the assurance that they will receive training to cope with the new tasks.
Changes to the psychological contract - According to Pate and Malone (2000, p. 162), during the implementation of downsizing, the way the organisation communicates, supports and encourages participation has a bearing on the subsequent relationship between the survivors and the organisation, in other words, their psychological contract. The psychological contract is mainly an explicit and unspoken contract between the person and the organisation. Some expectations in the contract are conscious, but others are not. It is an employees’ perception of the reciprocal obligation existing with their employer (Schalk, Campbell & Freese, 1998, p. 160). Obligations are belief held by an employee or employer, that each is bound by a promise or debt o action or course of action in relation to the other party (Rousseau, 1990, p. 396).

In the case of organisational change such as when a downsizing takes place, leading to changes in the psychological contracts of survivors, the attitudes and behaviours of these employees may be affected because a different set of mutual obligations is created, or as a consequence of the violation of the psychological contract (Shalk, et al., 1998, p. 157). Freese and Schaik (1996, p. 505) have shown that the psychological contract influences employee attitudes, such as organisational commitment. One can therefore assume that within the context of downsizing, different ways of supporting the change implementation process will have different effects on the psychological contracts of individual survivors. Changes in psychological contracts will affect individual survivor attitudes and, consequently, changes in individual survivor attitudes will affect their behaviour in the new organisation (Schalk, et al., 1998, p. 159).

Survivor empowerment - An important factor that has been cited in the literature as also important for survivor quality is the empowerment of survivors. Empowerment is not a personality disposition; rather, it is a dynamic construct that reflects individual beliefs about person–environment relationships (Marchington & Wilkinson, 2007, p. 210). In the context of downsizing, it would refer to part of the secondary appraisal done by survivors when they engage in the process of evaluating what, if anything can be done
to overcome or prevent the harm brought about by downsizing. According to Sutton (1990: 231), empowerment is a form or part of beliefs about personal control in a specific encounter. Empowerment therefore reflects a personal sense of control in the workplace as manifested in the following beliefs about person-work environment relationship: (1) meaning, (2) competence, (3) self-determination, and (4) impact (Chen & Chen, 2008, p. 2).

**Meaning** reflects a sense of purpose or personal connection about work. **Competence** indicates that individuals believe that they have the skills and abilities to perform their work well (Chen & Chen, 2008, p. 2). This sense of competence is consistent with Bandura’s (1989, p. 1178) notion of efficacy expectancy (i.e., the conviction that people can successfully execute behaviours and therefore need to produce outcomes). **Self-determination** reflects a sense of freedom about how individuals do their work, while **impact** describes a belief that individuals can influence a system in which they are embedded, which is consistent with Bandura’ (1989, p. 1179) notion of outcome expectancy (Savery & Luks, 2004, p. 97) Downsizing is likely to threaten survivors’ sense of control; therefore, factors that affect a sense of control during downsizing are important in mitigating the helplessness experienced by survivors (Chen & Chen, 2008, p. 6).

The four dimensions of empowerment mentioned above help to understand why empowerment, as a management practice influences survivor quality. The more management makes survivors believe that they have a sense of meaning, the more they can rely on their own sense of purpose and direction in coping with the ambiguity inherent in the downsizing process. On the other hand, the more they are made to believe that they have the competence necessary to perform their duties well in the changing environment, the more they see themselves as having personal resources to cope with changes in work associated with downsizing. In the event that survivors have a sense of self-determination, they see themselves a having choices about how to cope with the downsizing. When survivors are made to feel that they can have an impact on the downsizing implementation, they are likely to believe that they
have the personal power to cope with the outcomes associated with the downsizing. Hence, Lashley (1998, p. 3) argues that empowered employees feel greater control, have a greater sense of personal power together with the freedom to use that power, a personal sense of efficacy and self determination. They feel that they have power and can make a difference. They feel they have choices and exercise choice.

Empowerment claims to produce an emotional state among survivors from which positive attitude to the organisation, additional commitment and increased effort stem. For example, Marchinton and Wilkinson (2007, p. 245) propose that survivors who will work in the front line jobs in downsized organisations are expected to manage their emotions in meeting new customer needs for the new organisation. They do not only have to provide physical labour and the skills required for serving the customer, they must also supply the appropriate emotions and body language which will encourage customers to feel welcome, wanted and delighted. The provision of service has intensified, particularly as organisations continually adjust themselves to cope with the demands of the ever changing environment and have recognised that effective competitive strategy via service quality. Effective delivery of services after downsizing therefore requires survivors to genuinely feel committed to the organisation, and this requires them to manage their feelings so as to achieve the required state.

Based on the above analysis, Lazarus and Folkman (1984, p. 70) argue that empowered survivors are more likely to become active participants in implementing the downsizing, rather than passive recipients of a top management mandate. Other researchers (e.g., Chen & Chen, 2008, p. 5) further state that people fear and tend to avoid situations they believe exceed their skills whereas they get involved in activities and behave assuredly when they judge themselves capable of handling situations that would otherwise be intimidating. Without such sense of power, survivors will withdraw into a sense of helplessness, which will culminate in reduced work effort and less job satisfaction. When survivors are empowered, they do not feel as mere ‘cogs’
Survivors who possess a sense of self-determination and impact in the organisation can add certainty in a context of ambiguity. When they feel that they can influence events in the organisation, they are more likely to respond positively to stressful events during the downsizing event. Greenberg, Strasser and Lee (1988, p. 410) state that the competence dimension of empowerment should also facilitate more positive survivor quality responses. Feelings of competence provide the self-confidence required to take risks, try new things, persist in the face of obstacles, and be innovative. These are the attributes required of survivors in the post-downsizing period. The last factor or dimension that can drive or influence survivor quality under empowerment is meaning. Survivors who are made given strong personal connection to work would want to cope with the downsizing because their work is meaningful. Such survivors are likely to take an active role which shows their commitment and motivation toward completing tasks in the downsizing, because they are guided by their own purpose and direction. Thus, it can be argued that the provision of the four dimensions of empowerment to survivors should help them to cope with the demands of downsizing and able to adjust accordingly in the new work environment created thereafter.

Other researchers have argued that while it is important to understand that empowered employees contribute to the success of an organisation, it is also important to identify factors that influence the feelings of empowerment among survivors during a downsizing process. For example, Conger and Kanungo (1988, p. 479) state that there are contextual factors that influence the development of feelings of empowerment after downsizing in an organisation. These are relational factors and motivational factors. Relational factors stress the power relations between managers and employees. In the literature, this relates to issues of employee participation and democracy. (Lashley, 1998, p. 142). Empowerment as a motivational construct relies more on an understanding of empowerment through an employee’s internal needs for power and control and feelings of personal efficacy. Under this
factor, and in the context of downsizing, survivors would perceive themselves as having power during the implementation of the downsizing strategy when they are able to control events in their environment by making decisions (Lashley, 1998, p. 145). From a motivational perspective, power is intrinsic, based on a need for self determination and personal efficacy. During downsizing therefore, managers should adopt techniques which strengthen survivors’ needs for self determination and personal efficacy (Lashley, 1998, p.146). Jimmieson and Bordia (2005: 472) add that to be effective in generating feelings of empowerment, the empowered have to both value that which they have been empowered to do, and feel that empowerment encompasses meaningful actions.

Perceived feelings of control - The aspect of perceived control by survivors that is referred to in the above analysis is well explained using Lazarus and Folkman’s (1984) conceptualisation of stress. The model suggests that the perceived threat to well-being and perceived control during or in the post layoff work environment will interactively combine to influence survivors’ attitudes, for example organisational commitment. Brockner, et al., (1987, p. 537) drew a close relationship between perceived control and the concept of employee involvement. Brockner, et al. argue that employee involvement literature generally extols the virtues of giving employee greater control in organisational decision-making. For example, Herrbach and Mignonac (2004, p.85) presented findings that showed that higher levels of perceived control elicit more favourable work attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction and behaviours, such as job performance). These two outcomes are typical constructs of survivor quality behaviours.

Supporting the relationship between perceived control and employee involvement, Campbell-Jamison, et al., (2001, p. 54) found that perceived control was more related to organisational commitment in the presence than in the absence of layoffs. In contrast, some studies (Brockner, et al., 2004, p.78) have also indicated that perceptions of control had more of an impact on job performance when the threat to well-being was relatively high. One
interpretation of these findings was that work conditions that heighten the threat to well-being make it more important for survivors in a downsizing context to perceive that they have control, thereby magnifying the effect of perceived control on their survivor quality components (e.g., organisational commitment) and behaviours (e.g., motivation and job performance) (Brockner, et al., 2004, p. 79).

Promotion of participatory environment - The method which management of organisations that have downsized use to create a participatory environment is also a driver of survivor quality. Gilson, Hurd and Wagar (2004, p. 1059) bring in the possible role of unions, by suggesting that, through a closer relationship between management and unions, unions bargain for the strategy (incrementalism, transformational, collaborative or coercive) which best suits their members – in the authors view, the structure of the commitment organisation is the preferable structure for employees. Research by Gilson and Wagar (1996, p. 90) has found that downsizing is more likely in unionised workplaces. It may be that unions are one of the forms management uses to create a participatory environment, convey a rational justification to employees and present the new environment as one which is preferable for employees. In addition, if management incorporates union members in consultation procedures, it is most likely that employees will feel a key part of the decision-making process (Gilson, et al., 2004, p. 1060).

The relationship between performance and levels of employee participation indicates that participatory practices are a link with higher levels of productivity, lower levels of wastage and lower levels of conflict and resistance, elements which constitute the behaviours expected of survivors in a downsized organization (Gilson, et al., 2004, p. 1062). Other researches such as Wagar (2001, p. 857) dispute this rationale, stating that workplace reduction in union activity is associated with higher number of grievances, and a higher number of workplace conflicts - both of which can affect survivor quality.
**Organisational support** - Additional research and evidence by Knudsen et al. (2003, p. 278) show that perceived levels of organisational support during downsizing predict levels of survivor organisational commitment. This suggests that downsized organisations may have to develop ways to foster a sense among survivors that the organisation still cares about their well-being. As noted by Burke and Greenglass (2001, p. 106), organisational support is still an important factor or driver of survivor quality during or after downsizing. It can be facilitated using management’s policies and actions. For example, redesigning jobs with the aim of enriching them and implementing employee-empowerment strategies may represent ways to avoid survivors’ withdrawal of commitment during downsizing, because the managerial actions demonstrate organisational support. Much of the theoretical background underpinning research in this literature is an emphasis on an assumed exchange relationship between employers and employees.

In general therefore, the common thread in the downsizing research is that when employers provide survivors with a rewarding job and supportive environment, survivors reciprocate by becoming committed to the organisation. Lee & Cobett (2006, p. 178) showed that employees’ affective commitment to the organisation is strongly and consistently affected by work experiences that communicate the organisation’s supportiveness of employees. Such experiences include chances of promotion and supervisory support, fair treatment of employees, enhancement of the sense of personal importance and competence, and valuing the employees’ contributions to the organization through the allocation of challenging job, promotion of participatory management, and openness to new ideas and change.

### 4.4 DRIVERS OF SURVIVOR QUALITY AFTER DOWNSIZING

**Leadership role** – According to Hodson and Roscigno, (2004, p. 675), increased global competition has forced downsizing/downsized organisations to consider their broader organisational practices. In doing so, increased expectations for managerial competence, integrity, and benevolence in dealing with employees have become central to changes involving downsizing.
The prescribed mix of managerial or leadership characteristics that can drive survivor quality include a spirit of innovation coupled with high levels of organisational efficiency and concern for employees and their welfare (Zuboff & Maximin, 2002, p. 59). A number of the studies that have been undertaken on downsizing have paid little attention to the role of the top executives/leadership – those in charge of the downsizing process (e.g., Kets-de Vries & Balazs, 1997, p. 20).

A survey carried out in 1991 by Wyatt Company in the US indicates that the behavior of top executives – especially their treatment of surviving employees – is one of the main determinants of the quality of survivors after the downsizing. The way top executives handle layoffs has a significant impact on the degree of dysfunctionality in the survivors’ work behaviour and attitudes afterwards. The competence, knowledge, dynamism, and accessibility of leaders and their ability to clearly articulate a vision that provides motivation for the future are crucial to survivor quality. The vision, strategy and overall direction of the new organisation should be presented in a supportive, aggressive and confidence-building environment.

Amundson, et al., (2004, p. 15) found that the role of leadership in facilitating transition and influencing survivor quality is a significant one. In their study to find out about employees’ experiences of downsizing, they found out that ambivalence was expressed by survivors who felt that managers were pretending to look out for employee but ultimately, had their own best interests as priority. The study also revealed that when leadership failed to provide direction, support, and information that survivors needed, survivors’ trust was eroded. The results of the study also showed that survivors appreciated it when their supervisors were always present, proactive and demonstrated a positive attitude towards the change process.

This presence of senior leaders or managers indicates to survivors that top management is concerned about them. However, what sometimes makes the situation so difficult is the fact that executives who are involved in downsizing
are the ones that have to discard the values and belief systems that furthered their own advancement up the organizational ladder in the first place. Thus, many of them, to avoid and escape dealing with the personal conflicts that downsizing arouses, become detached, focusing on projected organizational outcomes. Adding to the stress of the process and its impact on survivor quality is the likely scapegoating of leaders and the withdrawal of leader credibility. This scapegoating, and the politicised environment that fosters it, causes many executives to distance themselves even further from their employees to avoid criticism and antagonism. They usually react to layoffs by withdrawing from the remaining workforce (Sadri, 1996, p. 57). Despite this withdrawal tendency by leadership, it is worth noting that after the implementation of the downsizing strategy, to truly increase trust and open, honest communication, it is not enough for managers to be present only; they must also be prepared to answer any questions that may arise. Survivors who feel top management is acting solely on self-interests, are likely to lash back and feel resentment toward top management and the organisation (Appelbaum, et al., 1999, p. 550).

From the above, it is clear that many senior executives in downsized organisations should sufficiently realise that the quality of those who remain after downsizing depends largely and to a significant extent on the apparently trivial details of the implementation of the downsizing process. Such details range from leadership integrity to the provision of support and vision in the newly created organisation. These implementation details affect survivors mainly because of their symbolic meaning. By ignoring such issues as well as the emotional states of survivors, executives promote self-destructive behaviour among the survivors. A non-supportive leadership after the downsizing exercise is bound to create resentment and may result in oppositional behaviour among the survivors. Oppositional behaviours are an indication that survivors are not showing any commitment to the organisation or are not satisfied with their jobs and hence, will not put any effort to increase productivity.
Organisational justice - A significant body of research by Brockner, et al., (1992, p. 257) has shown that perceptions of justice or fairness influence or drive survivor quality after a downsizing activity, particularly distributive justice. Distributive justice reflects the fairness of the outcomes resulting from downsizing (Spreitzer & Mishra, 2002, p. 710). Research (Spreitzer & Mishra, 1997, p. 14) focuses on how survivors perceive the outcome for victims (e.g., adequacy of outplacement assistance and severance pay). Because survivors identify themselves with victims, often viewing them as valued friends or colleagues, perceptions of distributive justice will influence the survivors’ responses after the downsizing exercise. If victims receive generous benefits, survivors can be expected to appraise the downsizing as less threatening and probably put more effort into their work, because they anticipate that they will receive similar benefits should they lose their own jobs (Spreitzer & Mishra, 2002, p. 719). An important element of distributive justice is the extent to which the burden of downsizing is shared across all levels of the organisation’s hierarchy. Resource allocation favouring top management at the expense of survivors or victims will result in poor survivor quality. Survivors are likely to believe that the allocation of scarce resources has been unfair and that they will suffer disproportionately. This will make them respond destructively, leading to lower levels of trust, motivation and commitment (Spreitzer & Mishra, 2002, p. 720). If the burdens shouldered by downsizing survivors are distributed fairly, survivors will feel less need to defend scarce resources and will be more likely to work constructively with management in the implementation of downsizing (Spreitzer & Mishra, 2002, p. 721).

Sharing the burden across the levels of the hierarchy creates the perception that everyone is ‘in this together’, thus reducing resistance to change and increasing survivors’ willingness to work harder. Anonymous (2002, p. 20) concurs by stating that the treatment of terminated employees is a factor in determining survivor quality. Continuing employees will look at the way their former colleagues have been dealt with and draw their own conclusions. If they see appropriate financial and counseling aid offered, then the trust and commitment of the survivors will be strengthened. If the treatment of the
downsized employees is perceived to be unfair or unethical, then the commitment of the survivors to the organisation is likely to be damaged.

After the downsizing process, if survivors are treated humanely and with dignity, it is likely that they will respond constructively through increased role positive behaviours, because they feel valued and appreciated. This type of account usually involves an apology and a public expression of remorse by management (Bies, 1987, p. 303). If survivors are ignored or blamed for the downsizing, they will be threatened by the downsizing and most likely respond through destructive behaviours, because they feel violated and threatened by top management. Much of the literature (e.g., Brockner, et al., 1997, p. 84) addressing affective downsizing practices acknowledge that trust and procedural and distributive justice are key factors in determining the effectiveness of any downsizing intervention and the subsequent quality of survivors. Brockner, et al., 1997, p. 86) explored the role trust plays as a factor influencing the quality of survivors and how it moderates the support the survivors give the organisation after downsizing. In doing so, they outlined three studies that have all explored this relationship. In the studies, one organisation had relocated; the other one had recently laid off workers and the third one there had had no recent change initiatives. The employees were all asked to rate the support they have for the organisation and the perceived outcome favorability. In all settings, the studies found that the more employees trusted the organisation and management, the more they were likely to support the organisation when outcomes were favourable and/or unpredictable. Brockner, et al., (1997, p. 85 argue that the level of perceived procedural fairness and organisational justice manifests this trust, an element that constitutes characteristics of survivor quality.

Other related studies have further noted the importance of trust, empowerment and justice as drivers of survivor quality. For example, Quinlan (2007, p. 14) focused on downsizing effectiveness and survivor quality as being determined by survivors. Quinlan’s study explained how the management of stress for example can help influence commitment levels of
survivors. In their theoretical paper, other researchers (e.g., Carswell, 2005, p. 61) posit that a number of other factors that impact on the quality of survivors and determine the effectiveness of downsizing as an intervention measure are how justly employees perceive the treatment of themselves and their colleagues; the level of empowerment employees feel after the implementation; and changes in work design which increase job variety and autonomy. These variables will be looked at further in the chapter.

**Layoff agent experience** - In a study to investigate the perceptions of organisational downsizing using the cognitive dissonance theory, Harmon-Jones, 1999, p. 18) as well as Scronce and McKinley (2006, p. 92) found that survivors with layoff experience perceived downsizing as more inevitable than their counterparts with no layoff experience. In addition, layoff agents (those with prior experience) perceived less contract breach than non-layoff agents. Respondents whom had past experience as layoff victims perceived downsizing as financially effective. Perceptions that downsizing is financially effective, inevitable and liberating for laid-off employees and not a source of implied contract breach may make downsizing seem acceptable, and even natural, among survivors.

If this reasoning is correct, any factor or variable that pushes perceptions of downsizing towards lower values on implied contract breach has the potential of enhancing the overall survivor quality among the survivors in terms of commitment, motivation and attitudes towards the new work environment (McKinley, 2006, p.459). Thus, as more employees acquire the experience of layoff agency by being thrust into that role at their workplaces, it would be expected that they would perceive downsizing as more inevitable and less of breach of an implied employment contract after downsizing. Both perceptions potentially serve to increase the quality of the survivors (McKinley, 2006, p. 461). Therefore, the increased growth of layoff agency can be regarded as the acceptance of organisational downsizing in the corporate world and therefore linked to increased work performance and productivity.
Repeated episodes of downsizing - As downsizing becomes part of the standard response of organisations to manage difficult economic conditions, there is evidence that many large organisations in the world are engaging in repeated episodes of mass layoffs. Organisations can now downsize a number of times within a year or over a number of years. As a result, survivors are continuing to experience downsizing and are threatened with the prospect of future downsizings (Moore, et al., 2004, p. 3). Gilson, et al., (2004, p. 1066) showed that repeat downsizing leads to repeat negative consequences, from employee satisfaction to workplace conflict to workplace performance. On the other hand, longitudinal studies by Moore, et al., (2004, p. 4) contend that exposure to different or similar downsizing experiences has an impact on the well being and work outcomes for survivors. Moore, et al. argue that, acute events, such as repeated contacts with downsizing, present a different situation than does a single episode or long-term, relatively constant level of threat. Repeated events may be associated with different types of coping responses, job reactions and health outcomes which will affect survivor quality.

The issue of coping with downsizing is given impetus by two contradictory theories. The first one is the stress-vulnerability or accumulation model which posits that repeated trauma taxes one’s coping resources and over time weakens the individual (Zapf, Dorman, and Frese, 1996, p. 158 ). On the other hand, the resilience or adjustment model argues that experiencing a trauma helps to ‘fortify’ the individual (survivor), preparing him to face the subsequent incidents effectively (de Jong & Hartog, 2007, p. 55 ). Thus, in addition to learning techniques that help the survivors to recover quickly, they might also become more desensitised to a given threat exposure. As a result, whether one becomes more resilient or thrives in the face of such adversity, the point here is that repeated downsizing contact may not necessarily result in negative work outcomes among survivors.

de Jong & Hartog, (2007, p. 56) further noted that evidence in favour of either a stress vulnerability or resilience model to date has been mixed,
especially in the aftermath and/or context of downsizing. For example, van der Ploeg, Dorrsteinjn and Kleber (2003, p 160) have found that a greater number of reported acute stressors among survivors were associated with higher levels of absenteeism, thereby supporting the stress-vulnerability model. In other words, there is a cumulative negative effect of multiple or repeated downsizing. Kalimo, et al., (2003, p. 106) found that experiencing multiple downsizing was correlated with several health and work outcomes. However, the study failed to find support for a cumulative effect of previous downsizing events in conjunction with the number of future anticipated downsizing events on either health or work outcomes. In other related studies, Armstrong-Stassen (1997, p. 380) reported that surviving managers who had experienced more downsizing exposure reported higher levels of continuance commitment, that is, higher costs associated with leaving the organisation. Specifically, Armstrong-Stassen (1997, p. 382) also found that surviving technicians who had been targeted for layoffs five times had higher levels of distributive justice and threat of job loss compared to technicians whom had been targeted only once. The technicians targeted several times, however, also had higher levels of direct coping and positive thinking. Thus, these technicians might have learned various coping strategies that they were able to implement more readily than those new to downsizing, thereby supporting the resilience model. From these studies, it can be concluded that an accumulation of varied types of downsizing events that are traumatic are able to perpetuate negative or positive work outcomes which might have an effect on survivor quality.

*Increased work overload and job autonomy* – Using the Lazarus theory of stress as the focal point Mishra and Spreitzer (1998, p 579) argue that the extent to which the design of survivors’ work is changed as a result of downsizing will influence their behaviour in the new organisation. Job design changes that enhance the intrinsic quality of the survivors’ work are likely to help survivors to feel more able to cope with the downsizing, and, thus increase the likelihood of more positive responses such as increased job satisfaction and motivation. The two elements that are studied in relation to
the intrinsic nature of job in the downsizing context are: (1) job variety and (2) job autonomy. Firstly, as a result of downsizing, survivors may be asked to take over the responsibilities of their former coworkers, thereby increasing the perceived variety of their work. Role overload reduces survivor beliefs that they can cope with the downsizing. Survivors may experience role overload as they struggle to complete the work formerly assigned to the victims of downsizing. If the new tasks require skills and competencies that survivors have not been trained for, they may be less confident in their ability to cope with the demands of the new organisation.

Research has shown that top management does not usually conduct systemic analysis of tasks and personnel before downsizing (Cameron, et al., 1993, p. 29). Therefore, to the extent that work demands exceed survivors’ physical (stamina) or psychological (skills) resources, survivors are likely to appraise their coping resources as limited. This might cause them to respond passively to the process of downsizing or put less effort in their work, resulting in low productivity. According to Sutton (1990, p. 245) mechanistic shifts in work design and reduced job autonomy are common in the aftermath of workforce reduction exercise. Through reduced autonomy, survivors may see themselves as having less discretion over how best to cope with the demands of downsizing. This will lead to passive survivor responses such as less initiative in executing the new strategic goals of the organisation.

With regards to increased job autonomy as a driver of survivor quality, Appelbaum and Donia (2001, p. 207) have shown that more job variety among employees increases their individual motivation about the job and, in turn facilitates more flexible and initiative qualities that are consistent with active survivor behaviours after downsizing. This means that survivor quality may also be driven by the autonomy given to the survivors. The survivor’s autonomy of the job increases if a concerted effort is made to drive down decision–making authority in conjunction with downsizing. Some downsizings reduce the number of layers of management, resulting in more decision-making discretion for survivors. When survivors have more autonomy in
decision making and have more choice on how to do their work, they are likely to feel obliged to remain with the organisation because believe that they also have an impact over the changes that are taking place. Some limited research suggests that if efforts to downsize go beyond layoffs to include lower level employees, survivors see more potential to effectively contribute to the new vision of the organisation (Cameron, Freeman, & Mishra, 1991, p. 69). Thus, it is possible that work redesign that is focused on increasing job variety and autonomy is an important factor in influencing more active survivor responses which reflect positive survivor qualities.

Based on the literature pertaining to the antecedents of organisational commitment among survivors, Knudsen, Johnson, Martin and Roman (2003, p. 267) found out that survivors of downsizing may have some unique needs with regard to their jobs in comparison to affected workers. They may need certain assurance before they are willing to maintain commitment towards their organisation. One of the reassurances seems to be related power over decision making or job autonomy. Results of the structural model used also indicated that job autonomy was an important predictor of commitment levels among the survivors. After surviving an event over which they had no control, survivors may need to regain some of the power to make decisions that affect the way they work which may have been lost the process of downsizing. This finding about job autonomy and organisational commitment highlights the need for an organisational response to help survivors after downsizing. What this means therefore is that downsized organisations may need to increase the autonomy and decision – making authority among survivors, perhaps facilitating greater participatory management, such as self-directed work teams.

From the above discussions, as indicated by Corbett, (2005, p. 189) we can state that the extent of workplace changes caused by downsizing may differ according to the varying degrees of the severity of the downsizing. The more severe the extents of downsizing, the fewer employees are available to do the same amount of work, and the greater the likelihood of poor survivor quality.
The argument is that if the daily experiences of employees are affected by the severity of downsizing, it will in turn have an impact on survivor quality such as affective commitment to the organisation indirectly. It is thus important to pay attention to survivors’ feelings of work overload and job autonomy after downsizing. Many organisations today believe that their success depends largely on the commitment of the survivors. It is therefore imperative that morale among the survivors is not compromised. Furthermore, survivors will act as they see appropriate according to how the organisation treats them. When survivors perceive that the downsizing was severe and that it had not been properly executed, they react negatively, either by not performing or by not feeling loyal to the organisation at all (Appelbaum, et al., 1999, p. 547).

Provision of new psychological contracts – The current debate on the issue of the psychological contract after organisational downsizing concerns the argument that the social contract between employers and employees changes immediately. While theorists argue that it does change, the results of a study by Knudsen, et al., (2003, p. 279) showed that employees have yet to completely internalise this new social contract. In the study, the relationships that emerged between job-level variables, organisational attributes, and organisational commitment suggested that those survivors who continue working in organisations that have downsized still expect certain working conditions if they are to be committed to the organisation. In a sense, survivors appeared to resist management’s attempts to change the terms of the social contract. This is an outcome that is very possible in situations of downsizing, especially when social contracts change without the consent of the survivors themselves.

Downsizing is an opportunity to initiate employees into a new employment contract. Therefore, an innovative organisation or one which is part of a change-driven industry is one that has probably already made this shift and its employees will have been encouraged to take responsibility for the management of their own careers. The provision of career management information, such as careers resource library, assessment and counseling,
and on line job postings have been found to benefit surviving employees (Price & D'Aunno, 1983, p. 425). Within the downsized organisation, survivors should be encouraged to take responsibility for identifying their own needs and career opportunities if they are to contribute to the achievement of the new vision and direction of the organisation.

Life after work has been found to influence survivor quality after downsizing. This is explained by the fact that workplace changes and personal lives affect each other. Armstrong –Stassen (1994, p. 600) found that after downsizing, friendly work policies, emotional support from spouses, families, and friends; distractions from work by children, and activities that provide relaxation and relief from stress have all been found to have an influence of how survivors become committed to the organisation. Thus, survivors who drew support from their families during downsizing found their new tasks in the new organisation interesting. Survivors who did not receive support in adjusting to the new increased workload because everyone in the organisation is stretched to the limit found their new tasks in downsized organisation not interesting to execute. Survivors also reported that without the support outside the work environment and some acknowledgement of the extra effort they were making by management, they found their total quality of working life miserable. With such feelings, productivity, organisational commitment and motivation to put more effort are greatly affected.

4.5 DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES AND SURVIVOR QUALITY

Research on the influence of demographic variables on the reaction of survivors of a downsizing process has not been given much attention in the downsizing literature. Much of the literature that is available has tended to trivialise the influence of demographhic variables, by either not examining their influence or controlling for their influence when investigated in conjunction with other variables (Spalter-Roth & Deitch, 1999, p. 464). Some of the findings from the few related studies that looked at downsizing and demographic variables are presented below.
In a study to examine whether previous learning experience and characteristic of the working environment were associated with positive attitudes towards organisational change, Svensen, Neste and Eriksen (2007, p.156) showed that after downsizing, survivors with leadership responsibilities were less positive to the process compared to those without leadership responsibilities. When controlled for the number of years in the company, older survivors were more positive than younger ones. Similar findings are confirmed by other researchers. For example, Ursin and Eriksen (2004, p. 590) found that the outcomes of survivors for those organisations that had experienced several previous downsizing were that the oldest employees were more positive to the organisational change. This is in contrast with the popular belief that younger employees want change and the older ones are conservative and are afraid of changes (Svensen, et al., 2007, p. 157). These studies seem to suggest that age can play a very important role in how survivors might react to downsizing. That being the case, however, the question that remains is whether age alone can influence survivors’ reaction or the influence is mediated by other variables within the downsizing context.

Henry and Jennings (2004, p. 223), studied the use of age as a discriminating factor in downsizing. The results showed that as older employees tend to earn higher wages, they are more likely to be laid-off in order to reduce labour costs and younger ones remain as survivors. Results of the same study also showed that age and full-time employment were significantly related. Thus, full-time employees who were older were more likely to be laid off. In addition to these two variables, older workers had a lower absenteeism record and felt they were experiencing less support from coworkers. These findings suggest that for most organisations that decide to downsize, age is used as a deciding factor for who will be laid off; this means that organisations are more likely to retain younger survivors. Whether younger age has an influence on survivor quality is still a grey area in the downsizing literature.

Research (Armstrong-Stassen, 2001, p. 234) on the reactions of employees based on age has also shown that older employees may be especially
negatively affected by organisational downsizing. Older employees have been found to be more vulnerable to job displacement than younger employees (Capelli, Bassi, Katz, Knoke, Osterman, & Useem, 1997, p. 72) suggesting that organisational downsizing may be particularly stressful for this group because of the serious threat of being laid-off. Similarly, other studies (Armstrong-Stassen, 2001, p. 239) on the effects of downsizing on the health of remaining Finnish employees found a significant association between downsizing and medically certified sick leave, and this effect was much stronger when the proportion of the workforce aged 50 years was high, compared to when the proportion aged over 50 was low. This suggests that downsizing may be especially detrimental to older survivors.

Age differences in commitment levels were also reported by Finegold, Mohrman and Spreitzer (2002, p. 672) who found that in comparison to those under 30, satisfaction with job security was more strongly related to the commitment of senior workers (ages 31-45 and those over 45) and to their desire to remain with the organisation. In contrast, satisfaction with work-life balance was more strongly related to the commitment of those under the age of 30. These results suggest that during or after downsizing, managerial attention should be devoted to individual differences among age groups. Other researchers, for example, Stronce and McKinley (2006, p.101) found that age increased the perception that downsizing is financially effective and reduced the perception that downsizing is inevitable. In addition, higher levels of education reduced the perception that downsizing is financially effective and increased the perception that downsizing constitutes a breach of the employment contract. These results are consistent with the notion that older, better educated employees are more skeptical about downsizing. In particular, older members may remember times when mass corporate downsizings were not institutionalized as they are today, and so they are always doubtful about the inevitability of downsizing.

Numerous studies (e.g., Armstrong Stassen, 2001, p. 236; Stronce & McKinley, 2006, p. 102) have examined gender differences in job attitudes, although most of these studies have not specifically focused on a wide range
of attitudes among survivors in an economically volatile environment. The job satisfaction of men and women has been the most frequently studied comparison. The results have been highly inconsistent. Some studies showed that women report significantly higher job satisfaction than men (Clark, 1996, p. 214), while other studies indicate that men are more satisfied with their jobs than women (Miller & Wheeler, 1992, p. 475), and still other studies finding no significant gender differences (Armstrong-Stassen, 2001, p. 240). Abraham and Hansson (1996, p. 663) compared the job satisfaction of men and women aged 40 to 69 and found that women in this age group reported significantly lower job satisfaction than men. There is also evidence that men tend to value job security more highly than women (Tolbert & Moen, 1998, p. 190). Armstrong-Stassen (1998, p.140) found that female technicians perceived greater procedural and distributive injustice than men. The evidence provided in all these studies on gender differences for organisational related reactions to downsizing is inconclusive. They however, point to the fact that intervention strategies designed to help survivors adjust to organisational downsizing should be tailored to meet the diverse needs of different age groups of survivors.

For organisational commitment, researchers have found that women expressed significantly higher commitment to the organisation than men (Loscocco, 1990, p. 175), significantly lower commitment than men (Marsden, Kalleberge & Cook, 1993, p. 387) and similar levels of commitment (Aven, Parker, & McEvoy, 1993, p. 70). In their study of predictors of commitment after downsizing, Glisson and Durick (1988, p. 66) reported that older, less educated men and women with a greater sense of competence had higher levels of organisational commitment. This suggests that, probably, given the same history and equal vulnerability, men and women react similarly to organisational downsizing. In a study to measure psychological distress and stress—inducing work demands after downsizing, Reissman, Orris, Lacey and Hartman (1999, p. 292) reported high stress levels among older, more educated workers who had longer company tenure. Singling educational level alone, Glisson and Durick (1988, p. 71) found that education was uncorrelated with role conflict, but highly correlated with skills variety. This indicates that,
after downsizing, more highly educated survivors assume job tasks requiring the use of a wider variety of skills, but they do not experience any more or less role conflict than the less educated ones.

Some studies (Iverson & Pullman, 2000, p.992) have found that age and tenure have a negative relationship with voluntary turnover. The finding supports the notion that tenure on the job can have a significant impact on individual’s job-related attitudes such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment. When an individual has been on the job in the same company for a long time, his/her investments in the organisation (sunk costs) may be greater than someone who has been on the job for a shorter period (Lim & Leo, 1998, p.337). Thus, in the context of downsizing, older employees might tend to believe that they have invested so much effort and time and therefore adjust their expectations and accept the fact that opportunities are limited. As a result, their commitment levels are likely to be very high. In contrast, younger employees might show high intention to leave, based on the explanation that they have reached a stage in their career where they have experienced frustrated ambitions and may perceive that they have acquired the work experience and skills which will make them employable elsewhere (Lim & Leo, 1998, p. 341).

Marshall and Bonner (2003, p. 289) also found that the total number of years the employee had been in the organisation and the extent of their ego involvement with the job were each positively related to commitment. However, the number of years the employee had been in the same position and the more the employee was favourably disposed to downsizing were each negatively associated with commitment. Overall, for the various types of organisations used in the study, age and tenure were generally reported to be positively associated with commitment.

Armstrong-Stassen, et al. (2004. p. 2032) investigated the effect of work-group membership stability and time on survivors’ reactions to downsizing. Survivors were in the intact, moderate, and minor-change groups. The results indicated that survivors in the moderate-change group reported a significant
increase in job satisfaction, job performance, and employee morale at the completion of the downsizing. Those in the intact group reacted negatively to the downsizing and reported low levels of job satisfaction, supervisor emotional support, job involvement and perceived justice. Both groups however, reported a decrease in informational support from immediate supervisors following the downsizing. Despite these differences, there were no significant reaction differences among all the groups based on their age, length of employment, gender and position in the organisation. This finding suggests that demographic characteristics do not have an effect on survivor quality when survivors find themselves in different work-group membership after downsizing.

There seems to be inconclusive evidence on the influence of demographic variables on reactions to downsizing. The available information is study-specific as indicated in the above reviewed studies. The most common researched demographic variables are age, gender, education and tenure or number of years in an organisation.

4.5 SYNOPSIS OF DRIVERS OF SURVIVOR QUALITY

Drivers that influence survivor quality begin at the organisational level with a focus on the organisation scanning the environment to downsize. The relevant organisational factors such as the economic conditions, competitor actions, and market demand are some of the drivers that necessitate change. The detection of environmental change and its meaning are internal phenomena. Variations in detection and interpretation across organisations are anticipated, hence the choice of targets and strategies for downsizing become differentiated across organisations. Some organisations may anticipate the antecedents of change in advance of normal detection, whereas others may lag well behind after others in the industry have attended to significant change. Thus, detected environmental antecedents can be regarded as perceived conditions or drivers that provoke refinements of existing business strategy using downsizing and guided by a particular method which will have an effect on the quality of those who remain (Jiang & Klein, 2000, p 39).
From a conceptual perspective, the relevant components of the downsizing process include target identification, strategy selection, and management of transition through intervention. Target refers to the segments of the organisation that will absorb downsizing. Strategies represent the specific mechanisms used to operationalise the reduction. Intervention management involves implementing policies, such as psychological counseling and vocational training to assist individuals (survivors) who are affected by the downsizing process (Jiang & Klein, 2000, p. 40). The various downsizing strategies, arranged in two major categories that reflect the trade-offs between maintaining employee well-being and maximising short-term cost savings for the organisation have a bearing on survivor quality. The two are indirect redeployment or layoffs and the direct redeployment, which entails reduction without assistance. Researchers such as Jacobs (1988, p. 11) have observed that a focus on short-term economic criteria entails hidden costs for the organization. These are rarely considered within the context of downsizing strategy. For example, severe strategies may have unintended effects on survivors, including low morale, lack of commitment, increased stress, and turnover. Research by Jiang & Klein (2000, p. 42) indicates that the approach may have an impact on the atmospheres within an organisation.

Models that address HR interventions as drivers of survivor quality generally indicate two primary goals. The first is to provide support for the personnel most directly affected by downsizing; displaced personnel. The second concerns survivors. Organisations need to regain the confidence, trust, and commitment of its survivors, and rebuild a positive image. Specific interventions that act as drivers of survivor quality include open communication between the organisation and the survivors, financial and morale support, career planning/counseling, resume development, ongoing training (Jiang & Klein, 2000, p. 43). These are meant to guard against negative survivor reactions of fear, rigidity, loss of commitment and motivation and failure to innovate which may happen when the organisation is most in need of employee support. It is therefore believed that the provision of these interventions will help to promote smooth transition of the downsizing process.
that will make the survivors want to meet the new challenges of the
organisation with a lot of enthusiasm. In other words, a guard against
negative survivor reactions influences group and organisational effectiveness
(Jiang & Klein, 2000, p. 40). HR practices can foster a collective level of
motivation or commitment in the workforce. The impact of HR practices on
survivors’ attitudes to the organisation can begin during selection and staffing
of the new organisation after downsizing.

When downsized organisations invest in selecting and retaining skilled
survivors and provide them with skills through continuous training and
development opportunities, survivors will find the new work environment a
positive work to be at. Survivors will focus on serving their own customers
successfully and doing their job well. Wright, et al. (2003, p. 26) concur by
stating that in addition to training and continuous development, the use of
performance management systems for survivors in downsized organisations
also helps survivors to see a more direct line of sight between their behaviour
and their personal outcomes. In a downsizing context, this creates a positive
work environment where survivors would feel fairly and equitably rewarded for
their efforts. It is possible therefore to argue that a new work environment
characterised by continuous training and a well performance management
system is one where survivors are unlikely want to leave; they identify with the
organisation personally and want to see it succeed. This describes the
construct of organisational commitment. Wright, et al., (2003, p. 32) found that
HR practices and organisational commitment were strongly and significantly
related to operating expenses. The measures of practice, that is, staffing and
selection, training, pay for performance and participation as well as employee
attitudes were found to be strong predictors of operational performance
measures that were used by the organisation under study to track the
business units’ performance. Thus, it seems that, when survivors in the
context of downsizing are managed with progressive HR practices, they
become more committed to their organisation and motivated to put more effort
into their performance. The motivated and committed survivors will end up
exhibiting proper role behaviours. Such behaviours are likely to lower
employee compensation costs and promote higher productivity. Survivors will not engage in dysfunctional behaviours that would, for example, result in poor survivor quality.

Concurring with the relationship between HR practice and survivor quality, Kase and Zupan (2005, p. 279) argue that downsizing moderates the relationship between high – involvement work practices and productivity. In their study, Kase and Zupan (2005, p. 270) hypothesised that continued investment in these work practices throughout the layoff periods maintains workforce productivity. Findings of the study indicated a negative relationship between high-involvement work practice and productivity in workplaces with high layoffs. However, workplaces that continued investments in high-involvement work practices were able to avoid productivity losses, as compared to workplaces that discontinue such investment after downsizing.

The literature pertaining to the relationship between survivor quality and demographic characteristics has indicated the presence of inconclusive findings. Some studies from developing countries have indicated that demographic characteristics can impact on the way survivors react to the whole downsizing process, and that such reactions have an influence on productivity, competitiveness and efficiency on the part of the organisation, while others reported the opposite. Characteristics that have been studied include, among others, age, marital status, educational level, experience, and placed of stay.

4.6 CONCLUDING REMARKS
The present chapter discussed the drivers of survivor quality before, during and after downsizing. The sources of the drivers are personal, organisational (HR practices) and environmental in nature. The next chapter will examine the best practices that can be used to managing survivor quality.
CHAPTER 5

STRATEGIES FOR MANAGING SURVIVOR QUALITY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter four gave an overview of drivers that are critical in determining survivor quality. The chapter highlighted that survivor reactions to downsizing are influenced by both organisation-level and individual-level factors/drivers before, during or after downsizing. The drivers include, among others, the presence of a plan to downsize, trust in top management, communication, a feeling of job security and personal control, and leadership. The identified drivers have been found to affect survivor attitudes, commitment and motivation. Knowledge of such drivers provided the bases upon which human resource strategies can be formulated in order to enhance the three constructs of attitudes, commitment and motivation among survivors. The reviewed literature also briefly suggest what management could do in order to achieve the objectives for which downsizing is carried out in the first place, that is, reducing costs, increasing efficiency and effectiveness as well as the need to remain competitive.

The present chapter examines the role of human resource management practices in the context of downsizing. The contribution of HR to the achievement of organisational results has become a serious consideration since most of the challenges of downsizing are people related issues that require effective HR interventions. According to Bellout and Balkin (2000, p. 35), the performance of organisations that have downsized continue to decline. One of the reasons for this decline is the manner in which the process is handled, especially people issues, and the subsequent detrimental effect it has on survivors who are expected to work and contribute at higher levels in a climate that does not guarantee security or long term employment (Hodson & Roscigno, 2004, p. 669).
A climate that does not guarantee security or future employment results in the development of survivor syndrome which presents itself in the form of low morale, decrease in psychological participation and involvement in the organisation’s goals. Commenting on the nature of the workplace after downsizing, Buss (2002, p. 33) states that a year or two after downsizing, survivors in the new workplace can be described as having the following feelings: a lack of executive commitment to their functions; confusion about the priorities of the organisation; increased workloads; confusion about their mandate; a sense of being betrayed by managers; a profound sense of distrust and being undervalued and unappreciated. These feelings translate into a number of problems. Some of the problems include, among others, internal competition for resources; individual survivors devoting less effort to working together and more attention to doing things that will protect themselves and decreased service levels and probably increased hostility (Buss, 2002, p. 34). Such problems call for strategic human resource intervention practices that will keep survivors focused and devote their energy to the new goals of the organisation.

The situation presents a unique set of challenges for human resource management in the downsizing context. Management in the downsizing organisations need to understand that the new era of downsizing requires it to re-focus and challenge conventional wisdom about structures, job design, organisational culture, employee expectations, motivation, commitment, and the related HR systems and processes that are required to implement new ways of working in the newly created organisations. The use of effective HR practices, in this sense, would provide the backbone upon which survivor quality can be enhanced before, during or after downsizing.

In the light of these observations, the present chapter is premised on the understanding that people management is an important part of the management process. Therefore, organisations should emphasise the fact that the employee and the organisation are synonymous. Downsized organisations need to understand that a well managed organisation sees the
worker as the root source of quality and productivity and gains. The chapter is also based on the understanding that the challenge for HR function after downsizing lies in managing the organisational contraction (Agbejule, 2006, p. 48). Thus, as organisations shrink (through downsizing), HR should become more focused and specialised, creating opportunities to devise strategies for managing human resources (survivors). Strenberg, Kaufman and Pretz (2004, p. 145) report that the effective management of survivors in the downsizing context is best done right from the time the organisation decides to embark on the process up until the period after the process is complete.

The focus of the present study is on the quality of survivors’ attitude, commitment and motivation after downsizing. The HR intervention strategies to be discussed in this chapter will, therefore, focus less on their use before and during downsizing and more on after downsizing.

According to Cascio (2001, p. 12), it is sometimes difficult to separate the strategies and/or practices and factors which can be used to manage individual survivor quality after downsizing owing to the interrelated nature of the strategies. This has led to the lack of use of the best strategies in the management of survivor quality after downsizing since. However, Cascio (2001) suggests that the management of survivors requires an integrated combination of a number of HR strategies. This is because the strategies cited in the literature have been found useful in enhancing all the survivor quality components, that is, attitude, commitment and motivation. From these observations, there seem to be no exclusive strategy(s) for the effective management of each component. In this regard, the sections that follow will discuss the strategies that have been found in the literature as useful in managing survivor quality in as far as they promote the development of a positive attitude, get survivors committed to the new organisation, and ensure that they are motivated to remain and put more effort in their new roles and tasks.

According to Isabella (1989) cited in Appelbaum and Donia (2002, p. 343) after downsizing, survivors have specific needs that must be met if they are to
have the confidence to focus on their work and task ahead. Specifically, survivors have performance-related needs and advancement-growth and stability needs. The strategies to deal with each of these needs are discussed below.

5.2 STRATEGIES FOR PERFORMANCE-RELATED NEEDS OF SURVIVORS

Performance–related needs of survivors are those that concern issues such as the availability of human and technological resources for optimum performance and productivity (Appelbaum & Donia, 2000, p. 334). More specifically, survivors become concerned about changes that affect them directly. For example, whether they will still have the same resources as before, whether there will be new standards of performance to be introduced, and whether the remaining supervisors will impact the survivors’ ability to continue performing competently (Appelbaum & Donia, 2002, p. 344). Management’s response to these needs does not necessarily start after downsizing, but even before and during the process. How management handles the process before or during the event is important in as far as it affects survivors. In addition to this, after downsizing, a response to the performance-related needs of survivors would mean management ensuring that they provide accurate information about the new organisation, empower survivors, provide an opportunity for survivor participation, institute a proper performance-management system, align employee effort with strategy and provide expert leadership. These strategies are discussed below.

5.2.1 Fairness during downsizing

A major factor influencing the reactions of survivors after downsizing is their perceptions of how fairly the decisions on terminations were made and how these were handled. This ultimately affects their levels of productivity and the quality of their job performance. Perceptions of fairness during downsizing and how they affect survivor quality of survivors after the process is best understood by examining the organisational justice theories. According to Nirmala and Akhilesh (2006, p. 137), the organisational justice theory propose
that people attend to the process used to determine outcomes as well as to
the end result in determining fairness. The remaining employees after
downsizing consider the way in which their coworkers were treated during the
downsizing process as well as the outcome (e.g., losing their jobs). If victims
received unfair treatment or compensation, survivors are more apt to exhibit
negative attitudes, reduced work performance, and lowered commitment.
However, if survivors believe that the organisation displayed some
responsibility towards displaced employees in the form of providing
counselling services, helping them to secure alternative employment,
production will increase. Greenberg (1990) cited in Nirmala and Akhilesh
(2006, p. 138) point out that survivors are in a good position to judge the
fairness of layoffs, both distributively and procedurally. Surviving employees in
his study were found to be more committed to the organisation when
management terminated victims and adequately compensated and equitably
treated them.

From these findings, we can conclude that layoff survivors can be expected to
exhibit more negative reactions (attitudes and behaviors) when they identify
with layoff victims, and feel the victims have not been well compensated or
treated. Survivors are therefore affected by how the layoffs are managed and
what is done for the individuals in those positions (www.scantron.com). In
addition, we can also argue that managerial behaviour dictates the attitudinal
changes of remaining employees. According to Nirmala and Akhilesh (2006,
p.138) these attitudinal changes or reactions among survivors are reflected in
their reduced work performance and lowered commitment to the organisation.
Downsized organisations can therefore proactively affect survivors’ attitudes
and behaviours in the post-downsizing period.

5.2.2 Communication with survivors

Much of the organisation change literature cites the need for communication
when implementing changes. This may be particularly important in the
downsizing situation, where pain and threat become part of the change
(Freeman, 2006, p. 214). When the organisation is implementing downsizing,
doing new things, and in general becoming different, it leads to a situation of increased ambiguity and uncertainty (Armstrong-Stassen (2008, p. 48). The need for management to communicate the new order becomes imperative. Communication before, during or after downsizing provides substantive information regarding the content of downsizing and its expected impact. Concrete information can reduce the incidence of rumours, which may depict a situation worse than fact. Communication with employees during and after downsizing is vital if those who remain are to become committed to the new values and principles of the organisation. Survivors need to understand the business reasons for layoffs and why they are remaining. They also need to understand how they will be managed. According to Kettley (2005, p. 3), breaks in communication after downsizing can be seen a sinister, and lead to rumours. The best way for management to handle this is to communicate honestly when dealing with the feelings of survivors.

Communication after downsizing is regarded as the most effective organisational ally in the creation and maintenance of trust, commitment and motivation among survivors. According to Appelbaum and Donia (2001, p. 203), in addition to communicating the new direction of the organisation and their role in it, management must ensure that survivors are aware of new opportunities available. This will prevent survivors from automatically assuming that the organisation has few opportunities to offer in terms of professional growth and development. Thornhill and Gibbons (1995, p. 10) suggest two main ways of preventing this from happening. First, the organisation should define and communicate the new behaviours it wishes to foster and once it has done so, it should publicise rewards for those already being carried out. Knowing that others have been rewarded for taking the necessary steps to help the organisation adapt to the layoffs will encourage other survivors to do the same (Appelbaum & Donia, 2001, p. 195). Second, career paths should be made explicit in light of the new sources of rewards in the organisation as well as the means of achieving these rewards.
Vecchio and Appelbaum (1995) cited in Appelbam and Donia (2000, p. 347) argue that feelings of fairness or equity, can serve as powerful stimuli to increase or decrease the effort and subsequent motivation among survivors. The equity theory proposes that survivors will compare their outputs (for example, promotion), given certain inputs (for example, longer working hours) to judge their outcomes as fair. As a result, it is most desirable to maintain the credibility and trust of survivors by communicating everything constantly and in detail so that their outcome (in this case the consideration and respect afforded by the organisation) is in equity with their input (in this case commitment and loyalty to the organisation) (Appelbaum & Donia, 2000, p. 340). This reassurance and sense of fairness are most efficiently provided when managers are accessible and frequently interacting with survivors, providing full information while being honest and straightforward about all the possible consequences (Appelbaum & Donia, 2000, p. 341). Not surprisingly, open and honest communication will not only secure survivors’ trust and commitment, but will also play a vital role in the development of positive motivation and advancement of an empowered workforce. Armstrong (2004, p. 35) posits that openness and honest communication after downsizing can be achieved through starting a dialogue with survivors so that they can air their grievances. Management can also organise structured team meetings to happen on a weekly basis to improve communication between management and the rest of the staff.

The organisation of structured team meetings is premised on the notion that, employees prefer to receive information face-to-face, and in particular, they prefer to receive information from their immediate supervisor (Appelbaum & Wohl, 2000, p. 286). In some cases, these conversations help to mitigate the tendency for rumours to over exaggerate issues. After downsizing, managers can determine survivors’ attitudes from team meetings where they hear directly, ask questions, and discuss implications and alternatives that will benefit survivors. Expanding these interactions can provide adjustment benefits, even if survivors do not provide input into planning and implementation. The open discussions may just provide an opportunity for
survivors to vent, to commiserate with others. Thus, organisations that
downsize need to consider not only how downsizing will affect the entire
organisation but also how to provide active communication and information
sharing throughout the organisation. Implications here are that a climate of
openness for both the supervisors and work groups needs to be adopted.

An important function of communicating with survivors after downsizing is to
ensure that they develop a positive community spirit, a kind of a social capital
which involves social relations which may be maintained by an individual or
group. From a managerial perspective, communication not only engenders
this positive general spirit among survivors, but also ensures that this spirit
falls within the new organisation’s goals and mission. What this means is that
an organisational supportive attitude (OSA), defined as a positive attitude
towards the organisation’s strategic direction, is crucial for the creation of the
desired community spirit (Ridder, 2004, p. 21)  Ridder (2004, p. 23) further
argues that indicators of positive attitudes created by communication among
employees after downsizing are commitment, trust in management, and
interpersonal trust in the general organisational context.

With communication, employees can develop a supportive attitude through
the belief that everything is functioning well; that is, they rely on other
(especially management) to ensure that events will follow a dependable
course. In the same vein, if survivors assume that management is competent
and upright through the way they communicate with them, they will be
supportive of the direction the management plots for the new work
environment. Mathieu and Zadjac’s (1990) meta-analysis cited in Ridder
(2004, p. 22) shows that communication has a fairly strong effect on
commitment. There is also considerable evidence to show that the accuracy
of the information provided is especially relevant in fostering participation and
commitment (Trombetta & Rogers, 1988, p. 511). What this means is
therefore, that the information provided by management to survivors after
downsizing on both the running and the policy of a business affects survivors’
commitment and trust.
After downsizing survivors sometimes find themselves with feelings of job insecurity, experiencing role ambiguity and role conflict caused by poor communication. This is supported by Baruch (2000, p. 32) who states that poor communication creates a misunderstanding of goals and strategic direction, as well as misconceptions about team relationships and individual responsibilities. It spurs anxiety and conflict, a sense of disenfranchisement leading to poor productivity and increased costs to the organisation (Appelbaum, Delage, Labib, and Gault, 1997, p. 278). As a result, as Sujansky (2003, p. 64) argues, in such ambiguous settings, positive and benign information can reestablish a survivors’ sense of control and predictability. Thus, managers can take steps to provide survivors in ambiguous roles and who are experiencing insecurity after downsizing with adequate information regarding likely future outcomes, thereby reducing their security.

Bean and Hamilton (2006, p. 337) further note that survivors in ambiguous roles after downsizing who use ‘control-oriented coping’ mechanisms such as meeting with their supervisors to discuss their situation have been found to experience less anxiety than did those who coped by trying to physically or mentally escape their situations. Given the benefit of control-coping mechanisms, organisational leaders could facilitate their occurrence by setting norms that prompt asking for information or problem-solving help and sharing worries and concerns. This method of managing survivor quality will be effective in reducing insecurity only if the information actually exists regarding likely outcomes and that the information is relatively benign.

5.2.3 Promotion of survivor participation
The change management literature unanimously declares that employee involvement during and after change is critical for success (Chalwa & Kelloway, 2004, p. 487). Employee involvement is a term which became popular in the 1980s and represents a movement which continues earlier initiatives for worker participation and industrial democracy.
The main principles include greater participation by lower level employees, job enrichment improve motivation and commitment to the organisation and willingness to share information with employees (Eslving, 2005, p. 135). The concept extols the virtues of employees’ greater control in organisational decision-making.

During and after downsizing, if employees are encouraged to participate and their input is consistently and genuinely enlisted, performance and commitment increase and there is reduction in resistance to change among those who remain (Chalwa & Kelloway, 2004, p. 488; Wanberg & Banas, 2000, p. 137). According to Parys (2003, p. 44) employee participation makes a distinction between decision–versus process-control. Decision-control is the control over decisions made whereas process-control is the opportunity to simply state one’s case (Chalwa & Kelloway, 2004, p. 488). Meta analysis findings by Chan, Tong-qing, Redman and Snape (2006, p. 1875) have supported the superiority of process-control participation in predicting employee reactions such a motivation, satisfaction and commitment. Therefore, survivors would tend to be highly committed to their jobs to the extent that they have a good chance taking control over they way they do their new jobs and are recognised for making important contributions.

Brockner, et al., (2004, p. 95) presented findings that show that high levels of perceived control of decisions to do with one’s work elicit more favourable work attitudes (e.g. job satisfaction) and behaviours (e.g., job performance). Their study also showed that perceived control was more strongly related to organisational commitment especially during layoffs. Other studies (Apepelbaum & Donia, 2000, p. 336) found that perceptions of control had more impact on the motivation to increase job performance when the threat to well-being was relatively high. Thus, providing work conditions that lessen the threat to well-being among survivors make them perceive that they have control, thereby magnifying the effect of their perceived control on their work attitudes such as organisational commitment and job performance (Appelbaum & Donia, 2000, p. 337).
Managers need to involve survivors in order to heighten their sense of perceived control. They should pay attention to survivors’ perceptions of control in the face of anticipated threat after layoffs. According to Appelbaum and Donia (2000, p. 339) actions that allow survivors to perceive the impact of their involvement may be particularly beneficial. For example, giving voice to the survivors, either in setting the direction toward which they should be moving or formulating plans on how to get there may heighten their perceived control. Also, during the process of downsizing, having survivors work on certain activities in which they are likely to succeed may serve as much needed antidote to the sense of loss and associated perceptions of the lack of control that they are likely to experience in the aftermath of layoffs. In a nutshell, involving survivors may be beneficial to increasing their job satisfaction, commitment to the organisation and motivation to increase their performance. Gonipath and Becker (2000, p. 78) suggest that survivors should be involved to the extent that they have the ability to provide meaningful input, and the successful implementation of downsizing depends on their commitment to the decision to downsize.

An important strategy that is closely linked to the notions of involvement, control and participation is the empowerment of survivors. Wellins, Berthal and Phelps (2007, p. 13) define empowerment as a feeling of job ownership and commitment brought about through the ability to make decisions, be responsible, be measured by results, and be recognised as thoughtful, contributing human beings rather than as a pair of hands doing what others say. It implies having authority to make decisions, follow through, and get things done. This provides them with a sense of control and the development of willingness to do things on their own.

Downsizing engenders a sense of powerlessness in survivors. That being the case and, using Lazarus and Folkman’s (1984) theory of stress as cited in Marchington and Wilkinson (2007, p. 71), we can argue that survivors experience the post-working environment as stressful with perceptions of high
threat and feelings of disempowerment or the lack of control over their work environment. Management in downsized organisations therefore needs to re-empower survivors. This can be done by placing the remaining employees in positions where they are able to be proud of the work they do. Using such good measures of motivational fit and job fit can ensure that organisations are preparing the survivors to find meaning in their work. After downsizing, empowering leaders should trust the remaining employees and provide them with the chance to participate in decision-making without micromanaging or taking the task over when things get tough. Thus, empowerment promotes greater job satisfaction and sense of control, which can help to achieve the desired results of better commitment and loyalty.

5.2.4 Institution of a performance management system

The essence of performance management in the post-downsizing phase, in so far as it relates to the promotion of survivor quality, is important. According to Armstrong (2000, p. 21), the essence of performance management systems is a shared process between managers and the people they manage based on the principle of a psychological contract. Philpott and Sheppard (2000:5) state that the purpose of performance management is to establish a culture in which individuals and groups take responsibility for continuous improvement of business processes and their own skills and contributions. Similarly, Marchant (2005, p. 64) asserts that performance is used as an employee development tool to identify areas of skill and ability deficiency to improve the focus of training and development, as the possession of appropriate skills and abilities are key elements in motivating individuals and improving their performance. This position is espoused by Herrbach and Mignonac (2004, p. 84) who outlined the importance of employees possessing requisite skills and abilities to perform their duties and how this is related to increased motivation and job satisfaction.

Brief and Weiss (2002, p. 300) further note that satisfaction with issues such as appropriate evaluation systems among employees, rather than with either pay or job security, is correlated with increased organisational commitment.
Thus, after downsizing, survivors need to be evaluated, rated and given feedback on how they are performing in the new tasks they are given. This enables the development of their skills and abilities needed to effectively function in the new work environment. Management needs to adopt a performance appraisal system which ensures that survivors feel that the new demands are realistic in terms of the reduced staff resource. Survivors need to be clear about what is expected of them in the new organisation if they are to be motivated and put an effort into their new tasks (Kettley (1995, p. 5). This assertion is supported by Welbourne (2003, p. 33) who points out that in order for employee motivation to be a success, organisations need to measure employee motivation frequently through performance appraisal systems. Therefore, performance appraisal can be regarded as the backbone to survivor motivation after downsizing. It can serve as a driver of survivor accountability and development and shows them that the organisation has a clear vision and direction.

According to Waldan and Spanger (1989) cited in Singh, Finn and Goulet (2004, p. 347) the expectancy theory suggests that an individual will perform and expend only as much effort as is necessary to reach a desired outcome, and the extent of the effort depends on the value of that outcome to them. In the context after downsizing, if survivors see that performance is not criteria for job survival, or even reward, they will have no incentive to be motivated to perform. Thus, survivors are likely to perform only when there are immediate consequences for performance. This implies that, management has to institute a performance management system that is tied to some positive consequences or rewards that are motivating to survivors. It also means that after workforce reduction, incentives and rewards need to be aligned with the achievement of personal, departmental and organisation goals among those who remain.

MacDermott (2002, p. 42) defines an incentive as a way of motivating employees to perform at a level that is above what is expected as normal.
As previously indicated, performance management is the primary means of evaluating employees and providing feedback to them. There is a close link between the employment relationship and employee motivation to achieve the goals of the organization. Given this assertion in the after downsizing context, the implication is that performance management practices need to be evident for survivor motivation and commitment to be at acceptable standards (Boyd & Sutherland, 2006, p. 14). In addition to using incentives to achieve survivor motivation, they assert that organisations that align the interests of employees’ with those of the organisation are able to secure their commitment levels. Many organisations can do this through introducing profit-sharing incentive plans. Such plans will no doubt be effective in enhancing organisational commitment even among survivors in a downsizing context.

An aspect of performance management that is also important after downsizing is goal setting. Goal setting by employees can also provide some motivation as individual employees negotiate desired outcomes with management. The employee who plays an integral part in the development of performance appraisal goals is more likely to perceive the outcome as being achievable and be committed to achieving them (Marchant, 2005, p. 67). In the downsizing context, management should be involved in helping survivors to set new performance goals that are in line with the corporate objectives. In addition, they need to provide survivors with challenging opportunities in order for survivors to use their current skills and abilities, as well as develop new ones. In this way, the acknowledgement of agreed upon goals and their achievement becomes important in reinforcing survivor quality among survivors in the aftermath of downsizing.

5.2.5 Talent attraction and retention

Given the emphasis placed on human capital in the new world of work, it is understandable that downsized organisations will begin to compete aggressively for new talent and prevent survivors from leaving (Boyd & Sutherland, 2006, p.6). According to Czaplewski, Ferguson and Milliman (2001, p. 16) when keeping or attracting new employees organisations should
be more concerned with peoples’ attitude because attitudes are more difficult to change whilst skills can always be taught. Employers of choice are those downsized organisations that outperform their competition to attract, develop, and retain people with business related talent (Boyd & Sutherland, 2006, p. 8). One major factor which employees highly appreciate and which influences whether they stay with an organisation or not is the existence of a congenial working environment, where they are happy to work with others. Teamwork, cooperation, friendship with colleagues and leaders, and mutual respect are some of the signs of good working environments which attract employees and retain them for longer. (Khan, 2007, p. 4). Management in downsized organisations can achieve this through innovative and compelling human resource programmes that benefit new employees and survivors and their organisations alike (Copeland, 2000, p. 5). Greatplacetowork (2008, p. 2) delineates five factors that are needed in order to create great work environment where positive attitudes could develop and retention of survivors achieved. These are credibility, respect, fairness, pride and camaraderie.

5.2.6 Aligning effort with strategy
Positive survivor quality after downsizing begins with survivors’ clear understanding of what they should be doing on the new jobs. Each survivor needs to be given a clear job description and a clear set of performance expectations. What this means is that aligning the survivors’ effort early with the new strategy will make them satisfied with their jobs. The Community Credit Report (2003, p. 103) in the USA argues that giving employees an orientation that clearly defines how their roles and the decisions they make into the organisation’ approach and philosophy is correlated with the improved bottom line. Thus, to attain his alignment within the downsizing environment, leaders need to help survivors understand their new roles. They also need to show how an individual survivor’s actions affect other departments and external customers.
Building a sense of alignment with strategy requires a good communication system and strong accountability (Wellins, et al., (2007, p. 13). Survivors should be kept informed about any other changes after downsizing so that they are not confused or surprised when those changes are introduced. The literature (e.g., Brandi, 2008, p. 5) shows that organisations that provide a clear sense of direction and keep employees well informed are able to convince employees to make the best use of their time and resources. After downsizing, this would culminate in the improvement of survivor quality.

Since the alignment of organisational strategy and employee efforts results in satisfied employees, it would be appropriate to conclude that the quality of employees improves. Employee quality is regarded as the primary source of competitive advantage. All other tangible assets of an organisation can be replicated, but the quality of its talent, passion and commitment is nearly impossible to replicate (Wellins, et al., 2007, p. 13). The quality of employees can best be fuelled through an engaged workforce. Employee engagement is defined as the extent to which employees commit to something in the organisation and how long they stay as a result of that commitment (Wellins, et al., 2007, p. 22). Other researchers (e.g., Burke & Collision, 2004, p. 47) define employee engagement as the state in which individuals are emotionally and intellectually committed to the organisation as measured by three primary behaviours: say, stay and thrive. Burke and Collision (2004, p. 50) further note that engagement can be regarded as the extent to which employees put discretionary effort in the form of brainpower, extra time and energy.

The above definitions point to the three important constructs under investigation in the present study, that is, attitude, commitment and motivation. They allude to the fact that the right work environment leads to a heightened sense of employee motivation, which, in turn, leads to enhanced or discretionary effort (Wellins, et al., 2007, p. 25). The definitions also point to the fact that engagement is the extent to which employees enjoy and believe in what they do and feel valued in doing it. There is evidence in the literature (e.g., Corporate Executive Board, 2004, p. 53) to show that the higher the
level of employee engagement, the higher the performance of the business. After downsizing, survivors are expected to be engaged so that they are able to drive the new organisation’s strategic goals. This means that management should ensure that survivors are totally engaged. Because employee engagement is linked to commitment, motivation and the development of positive attitude towards work and the organisation, leaders in downsized organisations have to understand that the ultimate ownership of engagement rests within the individual survivor. The question then is what should leaders in downsized organisations do to ensure that survivors are engaged?

The Towers Perrain Report (2003, p. 67) in the United States of America suggests that organisations can make employees engaged by having the right employees working in the right jobs. This means that employees with the right skills should be placed in jobs that tap into their personal motivators. Doyle (2002, p. 9) identifies the importance of fitting people to the role of ‘ambassadors for change’. After downsizing, the primary concern of management will be less with the acceptability of the change management and more with ensuring that high performance survivors are placed for their skills and qualities to manage in those operational roles critical to the achievement of the new strategic goals (Doyle, 2002, p. 13). The implication is that after downsizing, managing survivors is part of the operation and therefore what matters is having the right survivors in the right roles.

Evidence by Greenberg (1996, p. 103) shows that matching peoples’ interests to jobs where they can fulfill those interests makes them achieve high job satisfaction. Leaders can ensure a high fit by effectively deploying survivors’ talents through careful and systematic assessments of suitability in the different operational roles using psychological assessments when making placements decisions. Research (e.g., Trust, Soane & Edwards, 2006, p. 23) has repeatedly shown that when the job fit is high; an employee performs better and is more likely to stay with the organisation. Trust, et al. found that engagement is significantly correlated to factors such as attachment to the job, agreeableness, emotional stability, openness to experience, achievement
orientation and self-efficacy. These findings show that, in addition to assessing motivational job fit when placing survivors, leaders in downsized organisations can use cost-effective tests to identify survivors who are more likely to be engaged on their jobs in the new work environment. Another strategy for survivor engagement for the promotion of survivor quality is to ensure that leaders are also engaged.

### 5.2.7 Provision of quality leadership

Leadership is now recognised as a crucial factor influencing the way in which HR practices are enacted and employees treated within an organisation and there is a great deal of evidence to suggest that the quality of leadership is important after organisational change (Kiffen-Peterson & Cordery, 2003, p. 110). The type of leadership that might be adopted after downsizing might vary considerably, but one way of differentiating between such styles has been to distinguish between transformational and transactional leadership. Transformational leaders are described as charismatic individuals with whom employees identify emotionally. The leaders communicate a vision that brings employees together to accomplish important goals. Therefore, leaders need to immediately clarify after downsizing how the organisation is going to move forward, and give assurance to survivors of the roles they will play in the organisation's future.

According to Marchington & Wilkinson (2007, p. 89), commitment cannot be expected from people if they do not know what they are committed towards. In this view, leaders in the downsized organisations must provide a compelling vision of the future for survivors. Employees always act accordingly if they know and can visualise what they are supposed to achieve. As such, every downsized organisation should provide survivors with a vision. A good vision should be challenging, meaning something worth the extra effort on the part of survivors (Khan, 2007, p. 3). Challenging survivors to create standards of excellence produces powerful and positive results. Therefore, after downsizing, leaders should articulate a vision in simple and easy language to understand. According to Riggio (2003, p. 361), leaders who adopt the
transformational approach will always try to make the organisation’s vision compatible with the employees’ individual visions. In the downsizing context, this could be done through indication to the survivors how the achievement of the organisation’s new goals will contribute to their lives in the form of increased salaries, better working conditions and growth and development.

On the other hand, transactional leadership is associated with followers accepting or complying with the leaders in exchange for praise, rewards or avoidance of disciplinary action (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003, p. 210). Transformational and transactional leadership styles have been associated with employee satisfaction, commitment, and perceptions of leadership effectiveness (Guest, 2002, p. 345). Similarly, Conway and Monk (2008, p. 79) found that transformational leadership is positively associated with perceptions of fairness, trust and job security after downsizing. Thus, one of the ways in which leadership can influence commitment, motivation or job satisfaction is to promote fairness in dealing with post-downsizing survivor matters through encouraging them to join workers’ unions. This will result in a positive employment relationship or industrial relations (IR) climate. A more favourable IR climate is associated with improved employee relations and better increased performance, with greater levels of commitment among employees (Guest, 2004, p. 549). Armstrong (2004, p. 37) found that leaders who are accessible to trade unions make a difference regarding how smoothly survivors develop trust and commitment in them. Armstrong (2004, p. 38) further notes that, in addition to more formal organisation conferences and team meetings; senior managers must be seen attending workers’ union meetings and walking about in the organisation’s shop floor interacting with survivors.

In addition to management adopting the transformational leadership style and communicating the new vision of the organisation, Czaplewski, et al., (2001, p. 11) contend that management should also be champions of internal marketing. Internal marketing is an important way to obtain, develop, motivate, and retain skilled, energised employees who in turn provide high
quality service. Internal marketing depends on a variety of management activities done throughout the organisation which attempt to inform and educate the employees regarding the organisation’s mission, the benefits of the product or service being sold, and the expectations of the organisation’s customers (Daly, 2004, p. 7). Such activities are aimed at generating employee commitment and they are inherent in the concept of total quality management literature.

Baegrie (2003, p. 35) contends that internal marketing is a way of motivating employees to change their behaviours and thinking in order to achieve organisational goals. Employees who remain after downsizing are supposed to ensure that customers receive the highest standard of service due to their motivation to work and commitment to provide service quality. If these assertions are true, then leaders who provide internal marketing to survivors about the new organisation and its products after downsizing will serve the purpose of keeping them focused on the new organisational goals and hence, improved survivor quality.

An acceptable level of survivor quality among survivors is a function of how engaged they are in the post-downsizing context. As stated by Wellins, et al., 2007, p.27) this means that leaders in downsized organisations also have the influence and power to serve as catalysts for higher levels of engagement among survivors. A study done by Bernthal and Wellins (2003, p. 90) showed that changes in leader behaviour can have a real impact on employee engagement. The study noted that when leaders improved their skills through training, employees became more engaged. The study concluded that engaged leaders understand that their role is not to take charge of all decisions, but to be more like cheerleaders hence; they need to undergo some training.

The importance of leadership training in determining survivor quality after downsizing is well documented by Clair & Dufresne (2004, p. 1598) who argue that researchers often have less frequently investigated how those who
plan for and carry out downsizing – leaders or ‘downsizing agents’ deal with the aftermath of a downsizing. Clair & Dufresne (2004, p. 11600) further acknowledge that leaders suffer through the negative emotions associated with planning and executing a downsizing event. Therefore, knowing that agents can experience appreciable distress, managers or HR personnel in downsized organisations should provide them with training and support. This training should address that fact that it is natural and understandable for downsizing agents to experience negative emotional reactions towards the organisation and their work and, therefore, they need resources to help them cope with these reactions. In the event that the agents approach their work with dispassion, the training provided to them could highlight the negative effects on the organisation and to encourage them to take steps towards compassion when carrying out their duties in the aftermath of downsizing. Within the downsizing situation, this leadership behaviour is about recognition or a job well done; it is about giving survivors the room and encouragement to grow (Wellins, et al., 2007, p. 28).

There is empirical evidence for a positive linkage between delegation and both commitment and applicable or desirable work motivation. For example, de Jong and Hartog (2007, p. 53) found that leaders can influence innovation, commitment and motivation by granting their subordinates freedom and autonomy. They found that granting freedom and autonomy was positively related to various types of behaviours, including innovative ones. Similarly, attitudes such as job satisfaction can best be improved after downsizing through decentralisation of organisational power. Decentralisation is the degree to which the capacity to make decisions resides in several people as opposed to one or just a handful (Griffins, 1990. p. 291). With decentralisation of power, people are allowed to participate freely in the process of decision-making. In the context of downsizing, decentralisation contributes to the survivors’ feelings of job satisfaction because it makes them believe that that they can have some important contributions and effects in the new organization.
The above-cited strategies are important in as far as addressing the performance–needs of survivors after downsizing is concerned. In addition to addressing these specific needs of survivors, and providing them with tools for adequate performance of their responsibilities, downsized organisations must also be creative when doing so (Appelbaum & Donia, 2000, p. 346). Creative thinking and innovation are important in an environment of increasing scarcity in terms of tangible material rewards for performance. For example, given the fact that promotion and salary increase are increasingly becoming viable reward options to encourage employees’ success, and because job security is no longer an option, downsized organisations can adopt changes in authority and responsibilities by making work more meaningful such that survivors feel more like owners of the production process (Appelbaum & Donia, 2000, p. 347). Ownership of the production process has been found to be closely related to employees motivational and commitment levels (Appelbaum, et al., 1997, p. 280). Hence, we can conclude by saying that addressing survivors’ performance-related needs after downsizing does not only fulfill the ethical responsibility of management toward survivors, but also triggers responses that ultimately will need the attention of management. Some of the responses have to do with survivors’ need to be assured of stability, advancement and growth in their career.

5.3 STRATEGIES FOR SURVIVOR ADVANCEMENT - GROWTH AND STABILITY NEEDS

According to Appelbaum and Donia (2000, p. 349) advancement-related needs encompass employees’ concern with advancement within the organisation. In order to address these needs, downsized organisations must provide information about promotion opportunities and the value that the organisation attaches to various career paths, all the while making it clear to survivors the various choices they have and which paths are open to then in the new environment. While advancement-related needs focus on identifying the necessary tools for advancement, Appelbaum, Gandwell, Shapiro, Belisle and Hoeven (2000, p. 681) pointed out that growth and stability need to address the issue of opportunity for growth and stability. To address these
needs the organisation must provide survivors with information about alternatives available to them to continue to grow and contribute to the organisation. Survivors’ concerns will deal with issues such as the presence of opportunities for upward mobility within the organisation, opportunities for skill advancement, as well as financial and job security (Appelbaum & Donia, 2000, p. 349). Research (e. g., Buckingham & Coffman, 2001, p. 53) has shown that investing in people is a great way to get the best out of them. One way in which downsized organisations can invest in survivors and at the same time deal with their advancement and security-related needs as well as their sense of uncertainty about their future, is by training or retraining them in line with the new strategic goals.

5.3.1 Provision of adequate training for survivors
Employees value the opportunity to develop new skills and they often express frustration and anxiety when they do not receive adequate training to perform their jobs accordingly (Buss, 2003: 69). After downsizing, survivors are usually placed in jobs that require new skills. They should therefore receive adequate training in order to perform in their new jobs competently. Paulsen, Callan, Grice, Rooney, Gallois, Jones, Jimmieson and Bordia (2005, p. 29) found that insufficient support of survivors in the form of training left survivors open to criticism from their other colleagues. In their study, some survivors were fearful of serving clients because they lacked confidence in their new skills. Therefore, management that provides sufficient training for survivors gives them a sense of competence and the opportunity to develop in the new areas and this promotes their levels of motivation.

Tella, Yeni and Popoola (2007, p. 3) support the relationship between employee training and motivation by arguing that high productivity depends on the level of motivation and the effectiveness of the workforce and therefore staff training is an indispensable strategy for motivating staff even after downsizing. In addition to training, promoting the level of motivation and trust necessary to create alignment with organisational goals after downsizing can
also be established through making survivors feel that the organisation is helping them to upgrade their skill levels (Ascigil, 2003, p. 21).

Investment in the retraining and development of survivors is important because downsized organisations are able to demonstrate some immediate improvements in the bottom line after downsizing (Burke & Cunha, p.10). The reality after downsizing requires that new strategies and a new organisational culture be passed along to survivors through training and development efforts (Burke & Cunha, 2005, p. 23). It cannot be assumed that survivors will understand how to carry out their new jobs after downsizing. They will need new skills to tackle the work left behind by former colleagues and get along with the new organisational culture. Vinten and Lane (200, p. 435) suggested that education and training efforts should be integral in the provision of new skills and culture. The education could include, among others, job training, transition skills, personal change, and stress management. Training can help survivors to feel more competent and empowered in the midst of uncertainty (Burke & Cunha, 2005, p. 24). Through training, it appears that there is more potential for enhancing commitment through increasing opportunities for learning new skills. Investment in people through facilitating a work environment where they acquire new skills and update their knowledge base is more likely to create long-term engagement and commitment to organisational goals. Therefore, the development of knowledge and skills is a key resource for the regulation of identification with the organisation after downsizing (Ascigil, 2003, p. 21)

Retraining of survivors is also crucial because downsizing usually necessitates a movement away from the old employment contract that focuses on long-term employment tenure and co-dependency, to a new employment contract, which views employees as self-employed entrepreneurs (Appelbaum, Gandell, Proper & Jobin, 2000, p. 654). Rather than emphasising lifetime employment, the new psychological contract emphasises employability. Employees are trained in transferable skills.
Whereas long-term career planning is a part of the old psychological contract, the new environment requires career management programmes. (Burke & Cunha, 2005, p. 25). For the survivors, the focus will be on providing them with opportunities for growth and development rather than advancement. Providing survivors with growth opportunities that allow them to develop portfolios of transferable skills is an important support mechanism that management in downsized organisations should provide (Burke & Cunha, 2005, p. 27). It signals that the organisation believes in investing in its human resources.

Paulsen, et al., (2005, p. 487) report that issues of personal control and job security appear to be important in the aftermath of downsizing, as it is at this stage that the benefits of downsizing are apparent and the work environment is no longer as uncertain. Despite this assertion, a study by Paulsen, et al. (2005: 489) found that job uncertainty was significantly related to both emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction for employees assessed at this stage. These results support previous findings that uncertainty has a lingering effect on survivors’ emotional health after downsizing (Hellgren & Sverke 2003, p. 234). This means that while survivor attitudes might generally stabilise across the implementation and in the aftermath of downsizing, residual uncertainty remains an issue to be attended to since it has been found to be related to emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. Thus, uncertainty-management becomes an important task for management in the aftermath of downsizing. Management’s efforts to reduce survivors’ uncertainty about their jobs and to enhance their feelings of personal control over their work environment should not be restricted to the earlier stages of downsizing. They should be extended to the aftermath of downsizing. One strategy that could be used to reduce job uncertainty is effective (accurate, timely and helpful) job-related communication. Research (e. g., Kernan & Hanges, 2003, p. 925) has shown that providing quality communication and involving survivors in decision-making contributes to greater perceptions of certainty about their future and willingness to stay with the organisation for some time.
5.3.2 Promotion of team work and collaboration

For work to be done by any employee, the support and input of other workers is important. With the support and cooperation of their coworkers, employees are able to accomplish a number of tasks. They are also in a position to share ideas and able to come up with new and creative solutions for organisational success. Available evidence shows that downsizing disrupts established work teams in organisations as some employees are made redundant (Pfau & Kay, 2002, p. 3). The result is usually the creation of work competing teams that fail to realise the need to unite efforts toward a common goal. When that happens, downsized organisations are compelled to create work teams that collaborate and work in harmony with each other; team that have good relationships both within the work group and across work groups. Paulsen, et al., (2005, p. 17) assert that as the organisation takes in new employees to join the survivors, management should make the survivors feel welcome and grow their comfort with the new coworkers. This helps to build the trust that is needed to work together effectively. The efforts aimed at welcoming and introducing new employees in the organisation are therefore necessary and a helpful step towards promoting the relationship among employees.

Studies by Hoegel, Weinkauf and Gemuenden (2004, p. 45) have shown that teamwork and collaboration within and between groups can predict the organisational bottom line, long-term productivity and effectiveness. Hoegel, et al. further showed that the level of support and teamwork plays an important role in determining whether employees choose to leave or stay within an organisation in the long term. What then can downsized organisations do in order to develop and maintain high levels of cooperation and teamwork among survivors? The answer lies in creating a work environment built on trust. According to Roger (2004, p.134) trust can be built by leaders when their actions are consistent with their words ((integrity); when leadership is concerned about the welfare and interests of survivors apart from what they can do for the organisation; when the skills that survivors have developed over the years of their employment with the organisation are respected and valued, and acknowledging that each survivor uniquely matters
in the new workplace.

Amundson, et al., (2004, p. 10) advocated the provision of opportunities for survivors to support each other through the uncertainty of downsizing and finding ways to stay in touch with each other after downsizing. This advocacy is premised on the understanding that employees form close relationships among themselves. After downsizing, it would be appropriate for management to give survivors adequate opportunity to say farewell and grieve the loss of their coworkers. This signals that the organisation is handling the layoffs sensitively and carefully. It also shows respect for both victims and survivors. With regard to support, Amundson, et al., (2004, p. 11) further argue that there is need to acknowledge the mental strain survivors experience during downsizing. Through the use of workshops conducted for survivors where emotional reactions are discussed/addressed, management will show their concern for employees to work together and impress on the survivors that the organisation is both sensitive and proactive. Kettley (2005, p. 4) also highlights the need for management to provide organisation development initiatives in order to improve team effectiveness in the emergent organisation. These may include work to rebuild relationships between and among the newly created workgroups and departments, often through team building activities. As previously stated, enhanced access to training may be needed to help survivors adjust to the new job demands that require team collaboration. Synergy among teams has been associated with increased work effort and motivational level among employees (Saunders, 2003, p. 366).

5.3.4 Provision of growth & development opportunities
Deeper commitment, heightened motivation levels increased job satisfaction among employees are all given impetus by the growth opportunities provided by an organisation. Growth and development is regarded as an inborn need of human beings and reaching there is everyone’s desire (Boselie, Dietz & Boon, 2005, p. 71). How can organisations provide growth opportunities after downsizing in order to promote positive survivor quality among survivors?
Many ways exist but providing opportunities for assuming greater responsibilities, promotion, value-added jobs, meaningful and worthwhile jobs and a culture of learning enable survivors to grow. Research by Conway & Monks (2008, p. 74) has indicated that once employees recognise that the growth of the organisation will result in their own growth, they will be more than willing to put in committed effort.

The literature (e. g., Boselie, et al., (2005: p. 70-73) argues that employees leave their jobs for better growth and development offered by other organisations and that most employees want to keep their jobs by learning new approaches and building new skills (Bernthal & Erker, 2004, p. 338). After the layoff period, the propensity to leave, become demotivated, less involved and/ or engaged among survivors is likely to be high if they are not offered opportunities to grow and develop in the new work environment. Thus, the promotion of growth and development in the post-downsizing period is likely to lead to positive survivor quality. The leadership in organisations that have downsized has several actions that they can take to ensure that survivors grow and are developed. First, they should identify those survivors who are willing to learn and can adapt their behaviours to a changing work environment and place them in key strategic positions. Secondly, leaders need to work with survivors to understand their strengths and development needs, and provide opportunities to leverage or build skills and knowledge. Studies have shown that most employees want to use their best skills and will feel committed and motivated when organisations recognise and capitalise on their unique strengths, rather than placing emphasis on fixing weaknesses (Maurer, 2005, p. 2). Third, the leadership can provide meaningful development plans and opportunities that include programs such as succession management, special projects and assignments (Wellins, et al., 2007, p. 28).

These suggested actions reveal that the key to a successful development programme meant to promote positive survivor quality is to ensure that all survivors have plans for development and clear accountabilities for making
progress on their plans. (Wellins, et al., 2007, p. 30). The value of investing in a strong and diverse development programme is clearly demonstrated by Bernthal and Wellins (2003, p. 107) who found that investments in employee growth and development are significantly related to the financial success of the organisation as well as other non-tangible results such as increased job security, employee involvement, commitment and motivation.

The challenge of work experience has been shown to be one of the most significant factors in the development of commitment among employees (Hiltrop, 1996, p. 46). Given this strong influence and, in the context of downsizing, effort should be made to design tasks and structures which will enable the survivors to feel a sense of accomplishment, to express and use their talents and to exercise their own decision-making power (Hiltrop, 1996, 39). By designing jobs to increase the opportunity for challenge and self-development, a high commitment and identification with the organisation among the survivors is engendered. Also giving new entrants in the newly created jobs tasks that are challenging and that increase their growth and development is important as individuals begin their socialisation in the new organization (Hiltrop, 1999, p. 289).

**5.3.5 Provision of support, concern and recognition to survivors**

According to Khan, (2007, p. 7), the only way to gain or restore employees’ commitment, sense of security and motivation is to restore employers’ commitment. This means that in order to expect support from survivors, employers in downsized organisations should first initiate commitment in terms of leadership by example of self-commitment, being responsible to survivors’ needs and the sharing of benefits. As previously stated in this chapter, this also means support through the provision of proper tools and equipment, adequate training and other inputs needed by survivors to successfully perform their jobs. A study by Sadro (2006, p. 23) has shown that employees who feel that they are listened to, supported, and recognised for their contributions are likely to be satisfied with their jobs and get more involved in them.
Walker Information (2000, p. 98) supports the above assertion in reporting that a concern for employees is one of the most important factors influencing employee commitment. Similarly, the United States (US) Department of Labour (2003, p. 34) reports that lack of employee appreciation plays a critical role in employees’ decision to leave their organisations. Accordingly, de Bono & Heller (2008: 123) argue that the best way to motivate employees is to show that their contributions are valued. This means that, instead of treating survivors as pawns, management in downsized organisations should provide support to survivors by listening to them and responding to their ideas and concerns. This can be done through recognition for good work. Because most of the work done in organisations today is knowledge work and that people are employed to cope with good ideas, create solutions and innovate new products, recognition of survivors’ good ideas and seeking advice and opinions on important issues from them becomes a satisfying and motivating experience. Asking survivors for their input is one of the most powerful ways of showing them that their contributions are valued. Kinnie, Hutchinson, Purcell, Rayton and Swart (2005, p. 19) support this strategy by pointing out that asking employees for their thoughts on issues is very engaging. Employees then feel very involved. Ownership for action is more fully shared and they become more committed and enjoy their job because it is their plan.

Recognition in the post-downsizing environment should be a daily occurrence. It helps to build survivor self-esteem and hence, perceptions of control over the work environment. Indeed, Wyatt (200, p. 114) supports this argument in stating that when employees have input into how work gets done and can share ideas with senior leaders, there is a corresponding increase in the company’s market value if they are recognised for this input. The recognition can also come in the manner and rate at which survivors receive regular feedback about how well they are doing in their new roles. Research (e.g., Matthewman & Matignon, 2005, p. 31) has shown that employees need and expect enough feedback about how well they are doing. They need and expect feedback as a way of supporting their work and recognising their progress. It is therefore possible to conclude that among survivors, continuous
feedback serves as a motivator for action through the creation of focus and by shaping action.

Although the provision of formal recognition for employee contributions and ideas is done by many organisations, employees need informal recognition. In the post-layoff period, because survivors are most likely to find themselves in new work teams with new tasks and responsibilities that might present them with difficulties to articulate, the importance of day-to-day formal recognition and rewards for behaviours that support the goals of the new work environment cannot therefore be overemphasised. This argument is given formal support in a study to investigate the reaction of survivors after downsizing by Paulsen, et al., (2005, p. 27). The study found that respondents experienced increased workloads after downsizing. Survivors received no support in adjusting to this increased workload because everyone in the organisation was stretched to limit. Respondents also recognised that increased workloads were virtually inevitable in downsized organisations; what they wanted was some acknowledgement of the extra effort they were making. What this entails is that management should design a system of rewards and recognition for survivors who end up going the extra mile in doing their work after downsizing. As stated by Khan (2007, p. 8), the system of rewards and recognition should include both material as well as psychological rewards.

Rewards beget commitment and the bottom-line for any employee to work is to earn proper reward and recognition. Buss (2002, p. 34) argues that organisations that downsize should be determined to create a sense of mission for the remaining employees. Most importantly, organisations can do this by creating new incentive plans that offer every survivor the potential to earn quarterly cash bonuses as part of material rewards.

In addition, organisations can increase the amount of non-monetary recognition that it gives to survivors for ideas that boost productivity or improve operations. However, material rewards are effective in motivating
survivors if they are perceived to have high value among them, hence customising incentives to the personality and preferences of individual survivors becomes important. This is the main reason why everyone works and once they are properly rewarded, they will be motivated to invest more in their job(s) (Appelbaum & Donia, 2002, p. 343).

The balance between work and personal life is given prominence in the management literature as part of the support that can be given by management to employees in exchange for increased job satisfaction, commitment and motivation. Boselie, et al., (2005, p. 75) contend that helping employees to achieve a better balance between their work and personal lives is another key factor in encouraging motivation to work and get commitment to stay in the organisation. Buss (2002:36) found out that 55 percent of the employees in his study were likely to seek other job opportunities if their organisation laid off a significant portion of its workforce without offering any after work help, while 60 percent were unlikely to leave for another job if they were reassured of getting help to balance their personal and work life with their current employer.

These findings are in tandem with Brockner (1992) cited in Appelbaum and Donia (2002, p. 344) who found that the most immediate need of surviving employees following a layoff is knowing the extent to which they should worry about the possibility of future layoffs and the support they would receive from both their family and employer to alleviate such fears. When survivors cultivate the belief that more reductions in workforce are underway, and that they are not getting support from either their families or the organisation, they are likely to experience great insecurity. Feelings of insecurity could lead to the survivors diverting their energy from their work to the attempt to find a job elsewhere to preempt the possibility of being laid off.

It is thus worth mentioning that the balance between work and life is a concern among survivors after downsizing. In this instance, downsized organisations that provide survivors with opportunities to balance work and
family are likely to have a positive impact on survivors’ decision to stay with and exert their effort in achieving the new organisational goals.

Finally, groups have a strong influence on, and provide support for each other in times of change (Herrbach & Mignonac, 2004, p. 84). The reason for this is that in terms of stress or uncertainty, people often take cues from those around them to help determine what they should be thinking and doing. The immediate workgroup, because of its proximity, can play a major role in shaping the attitudes and behaviour of survivors during or after organisational change. For instance, if the group is optimistic and views downsizing as a means of strengthening the organisation and improving its competitiveness, survivors are likely to exhibit this attitude. Survivors often suffer from insecurity and this can lead to a number of negative outcomes. However, there is evidence that many of these negative outcomes can be reduced through social support (Herrbach & Mignonac, 2004, p. 84). Specifically, in the aftermath of downsizing, it has been found that friendly and supportive coworkers buffer survivors against job dissatisfaction, the intent to look for other employment opportunities and deviant job behaviours, such as exerting less effort, lateness, absenteeism, and workplace theft.

The above strategies for the management of survivor quality provide a useful framework for managers in downsized organisation to assist survivors in adjusting to the new challenges of the new organisation. The strategies however do not provide a step-by-step strategy that downsized organisations can follow in order to ensure that survivors develop the right attitudes towards management or their work, are committed to the organisation and motivated to perform. The step-by-step strategy can be used by management to develop and introduce programmes that form part of the human resource strategy aimed at facilitating the achievement of goals for the newly created organisation as well as managing future downsizing.

The next section will present the theoretical model that will explain the downsizing process which has implications for survivor quality.
5.4 PRESENTATION OF A THEORETICAL MODEL FOR ORGANISATIONAL DOWNSIZING

The purpose of this section is to present a theoretical model for the downsizing process. The model is based on the issues and arguments around the impact of downsizing on survivors and the importance of survivor attitude, commitment and motivation after downsizing (Chapters 2 and 3), the drivers of survivor quality (Chapter 4) and discussions on the various strategies for managing survivor quality. The model is designed to provide a structured approach to downsizing which will have a negative or positive impact on the quality of survivors. The model can also assist downsized organisations to establish whether the downsizing procedures and the interventions they adopt for managing survivor quality have achieved the intended objectives. This will help in decisions on whether to continue using the procedures and strategies, modify them or discontinue them. Armstrong (2007, p. 376) argues that today’s world competitiveness, coupled with the current global recession requires that organisations avoid embarking on downsizing just for the sake of doing it or because others are doing it. Those that decide to do so should be prepared to introduce survivor quality improvement measures during downsizing. Therefore, a systemic approach needs be followed to address the reactions of survivors during and after the downsizing process.

The six-phase theoretical model is presented in Figure 2, together with a discussion of the model. The model forms the basis for the development of an integrated survivor quality management model in this study.

5.4.1 Phase 1: Decide to downsize

The decision to downsize must be made with care. Employees often see downsizing as failure by top management to control costs and hiring in the first place. It also represents a failure to count employees as valued assets but rather to see them simply as costs (Mishra, Sprietzer, Mishra, 1998, p.17). Managers can show their concern by adopting a long term-goal focus such as increasing productivity and being competitive. In addition, managers can also show concern by exhausting all possible alternatives before deciding to
downsize. For example, during times of short-term declines in productivity, managers could place a moratorium on recruitment, restrict overtime institute pay cuts, eliminate bonuses, shorten weeks or encourage employee to go on unpaid vacation. Voluntary separations are not considered ideal because the organisation might lose people with key skills or competencies. Chew and Horwitz (2002, p. 34) suggests that only after the organisation offers other alternatives and voluntary separation should it consider forced

5.4.2 Phase 2: Design a termination plan
Value-added human resource practices are useful in layoffs. For example, the implementation plan must take into consideration all the organisation’s stakeholders’ needs. There should be room for the laid off and those who remain to trust that management cares for their needs, not only for those of shareholders. When that trust is gained and built, employees feel in control of their destiny, even if it involves lay-offs. Management should therefore, form a planning team to implement the downsizing. The team should represent all members’ interests so that employees see that management is looking carefully at everyone’s needs and concerns. layoffs. This approach shows employees that management is concerned about their interests and needs rather than just its own short-term needs to reduce costs. Chew and Horwtz (2002, p. 35) also argue that high level of profitability for an organisation that decides to downsize will be enhanced by human resource practices that include proper allocation of time and financial resources. Profit improvement could be enhanced by careful focus on setting financial targets for downsizing. While all these processes may take longer and incur some upfront costs, they will pay for themselves in the long term through survivors’ increased trust.
Form a cross-functional team; design fairness selection criteria; ensure fair treatment of victims; train managers in handling downsizing and on stress; provide best leadership practices; involve unions.

Notify in advance; time the announcement; explain business rationale for downsizing; communicate the new vision.

Help victims get jobs; offer counseling services to victims; provide generous benefits; continue communicating with survivors.

Assess processes & outcomes through determining survivors’ levels of attitudes, commitment and motivation.
A fair termination plan is associated with higher job security and higher commitment. This is consistent with the findings of Schaubroek, May and Brown (1994) cited in Armstrong- Strassen, Reavely and Ghanam (2004, p. 98) that fair treatment of employees results in more favourable levels of job security and commitment. Furthermore, compassionate treatment is associated with higher commitment. In adverse economic environments, remaining employees may react with relief that they were not laid-off, and are thus less likely to express dissatisfaction over selection criteria. The provision of outplacement services is also found to have favourable effects on employees, as does involvement of union representatives. This is associated with procedural justice.

All the above practices and strategies will depend on competent managers. They should be trained in effective lay-off management. The training should give managers who execute the lay-off skills and practice in telling employees that they will lose their jobs. As a result, they are able to explain and know how to communicate emphatically and convincingly and also deal with the stress of employees. Some laid-off employees and those who remain are unable to comprehend what is going on and will lash out at efforts to downsize. However, managers who are in a position and prepared to deal with the emotions of the laid-off and survivors in advance are able to feel confident in doing so. Because what they will be dealing with is a complex task, these managers would also provide counselling and support after they share the news with employees. This type of counselling helps them to deal with their own guilt and stress.

5.4.3 Phase 3: Announce the downsizing
Employees want to get the information about downsizing from the organisation itself, not the newspapers or television. Doing so makes the employees feel in control and provides them with an opportunity to plan for the future. Announcing the downsizing promotes employees’ trust in management’s willingness to share sensitive information. Therefore, it is important to communicate the downsizing plan at once to all the
constituencies that are affected. This shows the organisation’s concern for its employees (whether survivors or laid-off) as its greatest assets.

Employees give their best when the organisation is open and honest about the reasons for the downsizing and the implementation process. This helps to mitigate distrust. The strategies that can be used to do this include explaining the specific business rationale and communicating the new vision. According to Wagar (2000, p. 7) managers should explain to employees where the organisation is headed. Employees should therefore know why downsizing would help rejuvenate the organisation. Communicating a clear vision helps them trust management’s competence in turning the organisation around. If the see a larger vision, they will also feel more in control.

5.4.4 Phase 4: Implement downsizing
Saunders (2003, p. 366) suggests that at this stage management should just tell the truth and continue communicating. Organisations usually anticipate employees’ questions and they should be prepared answer them throughout the implementation phase. Listening to, and understanding employees’ concerns and needs should be a focus for management in this phase. Since this is the stage when some employees are being asked to leave, management has to be fair in implementing the separations and show a lot of generosity to the laid-off. The reason is that survivors make judgements about how they will interact with the organisation in the future based on how the organization handles the laid-off. Therefore, the selection process should be based on criteria such as performance. The criteria should fit with the organisation’s future vision.

Once the ones to be laid off are selected, the management should find ways to help them find jobs by either absorbing them into other parts of the business or using outplacement agencies to facilitate employment in new organisations. The organisation could also benefit by providing generous benefits to the laid-off so that they feel well treated. The use of outplacement services to provide counseling, stress management, skills assessment,
retraining reimbursement, and job placement assistance such as resume preparation and interview training is also important. Generous benefits are beneficial in the sense that they make survivors more positive about downsizing.

5.4.5 Phase 5: Establish survivor support plan

The decision to downsize is usually based on the concept that ‘lean is better’. This means that the downsizing organisation will be advocating remaining with a smaller number of employees who are competent and focused and who can help increase productivity and the competitive advantage. After coworkers have left, survivors need to be given all the necessary support if the organisation is to achieve its new objectives. Because survivors’ effectiveness depends partly on how the downsizing was conducted, management should further provide some support mechanisms for them. The literature alludes to the fact that there is an association between supporting survivors and productivity (Cascio, 2001, p. 13). Higher productivity outcomes after implementing downsizing are attributed to the careful consideration of the psychological and emotional states of survivors, bearing in mind the internal and external environment they will be working in.

During this stage, because some survivors find themselves with new positions and career paths, further job analysis to restructure roles and reallocate work is good for increased productivity. Because a well implemented downsizing focuses not only on removing employees but also on changes in work design, survivors should be involved in the restructuring of roles and work design. The assumption here is that survivors have ideas about restructuring their jobs and improving internal processes. After the roles have been clearly allocated, the organisation should embark on a survivor development initiative which might include the setting up of new performance expectations with survivors, and the drawing of new employment contracts which focus on the clarification of survivors’ career paths and employability.
The new performance expectations should go along with retraining or training of survivors in order to re-skill survivors for the new challenges in the roles that they have assumed. More often than not, an assumption is made that survivors already know how to execute their responsibilities after workforce reduction. In fact, they may feel overburdened by shouldering tasks of former co-workers that require different skills from what they possess. Training should therefore give them confidence to work in the new environment. Armstrong (2006, p. 11) supports this by stating that a comprehensive survivor development programme with training sessions to improve the work skills appears to have a positive impact on work commitment, productivity and work quality.

Survivors also need support in the form of counselling to remove perceptions of inequity they may have. Support could be given in the form of recognition for good work and comprehensive open continuous communication. An effective continuous communication programme has benefits in terms of survivors’ perceived security and organisational performance. Survivors need to receive news about what has happened to those who were made redundant and to immediately know that they will not be losing their jobs. They will also focus on the new organisational goals after knowing the support they will be given to adapt to the new demands placed on them (Thornhill, Saunders, & Stead, 1997, p. 55).

5.4.6 Phase 6: Evaluate the downsizing programme
The effectiveness of the human resource practices used in the downsizing process need to be evaluated, not only in the final stage, but at every phase of the whole process. Evaluation helps in the matching of corporate goals and outcomes. Most organisations downsize for the same reasons, which are cutting costs for improved productivity, competitive advantage, efficiency and effectiveness. What this entails is that in addition to gauging the tangible outcomes such as bottom line results in terms of profitability, management should also develop objective criteria for measuring the success of the downsizing by focusing on survivors’ attitudinal, commitment and motivational
levels as these are linked to improved organisational productivity and competitiveness. Depending on the business rationale for downsizing, an evaluation of the process will provide an indication of whether downsizing was an effective strategy for survival. If not, other alternatives would have to be considered.

The model discussed above has highlighted the effective human resource practices for downsizing based on the reviewed literature on strategies for managing downsizing. The next section will give a synopsis of the strategies for managing survivor quality.

5.5 SYNOPSIS OF THE STRATEGIES FOR MANAGING SURVIVOR QUALITY

From the discussion in the previous section, it can be seen that organisational layoffs do not only challenge management, but they can also negatively impact on the employees left behind. This is true of any organisation that has downsized where quality and worker performance are critical for business performance. Downsizing results in damage to the perceived contract of workplace trust, leaving the survivors with such negative feelings as fear, anger, depression and denial. If anger is added to an increased workload, managers will have to deal with low productivity and retention problems. Strategies are therefore needed by management to help survivors thrive in a new environment. All post-downsizing strategies should acknowledge that survivors are upset. The acknowledgement should be followed by refocusing on the new vision. Survivors need to be given good reasons to continue moving the organisation forward and given an explanation of both long- and–short-term goals while continuing to encourage them. Employees naturally fear any change that could happen in the future. Therefore, to keep anxieties from surfacing, management needs to continually communicate expectations.

When survivors understand their importance in the new environment, management should involve them in constructing and communicating a plan
for the new change. The participation of both survivors and management in anticipating and dealing with problems is very important. Once the plan is in place, communicating the plan to survivors becomes apparent as this ensures that responsibilities are clear and each person is fitted where they are most likely to be productive. Human resource practices that play to survivors strengths and correct their weaknesses include, among others, employee involvement, where survivors’ ideas are solicited; feedback, where management acknowledges the achievement of survivors by praising them when they do a good job; respect for survivors, where, as management focuses on making them produce more, they should also stay attuned to the survivors’ need for life balance between work and family; recognition and support, where management celebrates even small accomplishment since praise inspires people to increase productivity.

In addition to the above, training is another best practice after downsizing where management offers a variety of specific training for survivors to cope well in their new tasks. Similarly, the retention of survivors is best achieved through the correct person–job-fit by assessing survivors’ competencies for key operational roles. No organisation can afford to lose good employees after downsizing when survivors are stretched to the limit. Thus, small investments in survivors will go a long way when compared to heavy expenses incurred by turnover. Taking these steps will ensure that survivors have the resilience to bounce back and thrive in the new environment.

5.6 CONCLUDING REMARKS
In summary, the present chapter has touched on a number of human resource management practices that can be used by management to manage survivor quality. The chapter has also presented a step-by-step model of managing survivor quality. The next chapter will present the methodology of the study.
CHAPTER 6

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND ANALYSIS OF BIOGRAPHICAL DETAILS OF RESPONDENTS

6.1 INTRODUCTION
The previous chapter discussed the theoretical model that can be used by organisations to ensure effective functioning of survivors after downsizing. The drivers of survivor quality as discussed in chapter four and the strategies for managing survivor quality as discussed in chapter five were all used to develop the model. The information presented in the model in chapter five was used as the basis for the present study.

The main purpose of the current chapter is to provide a description of the logic behind using the selected methods and techniques for the present study. The chapter also provides a succinct description of the design of the study and the appropriate methodology for the chosen design. It is common practice in research to match research design and methodology so as to provide quality and significance of the procedures used to investigate the problem. The procedures and processes described in this chapter are meant to obtain information to answer sub-problems three to seven (see Section 1.5). An analysis of the biographical information pertaining to the respondents of the study is provided at the end of the chapter.

6.2 RESEARCH DESIGN
Researchers usually confuse the terms such as research, research design and methodology and how these are related. Therefore, before describing the research methodology of the present study, it will be worth differentiating among these three concepts. Research, according to Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2007, p.2) is a process that involves obtaining scientific knowledge by means of various methods and procedures. Bless and Higson-Smith (2000, p.3) define research as a systematic investigation of a question, or
problems using certain principles. The words in both definitions, that is, ‘scientific knowledge,’ and ‘systematic’ imply that the procedures and methods used in doing research do not rely on personal feelings and that specific methods are used at each stage of the research process (Spartz & Kardas, 2008, p. 37). In qualifying the above definitions, Welman, et al., (2007, p.5) distinguish research from information gathering and decision-making by the following interrelated characteristics:

- Research is based on an **open system of thought** because researchers continually test, review and criticise each other’s work;
- Research is **empirical**. This means that, since the purpose of research is to know reality, each, through either, collecting facts, explaining or making some prediction;
- Research is **systematic and logical**. This implies that the observations must follow a particular sequence. For example, researchers always find it prudent to provide an analysis or description of the key variables in the study through a survey of the related literature then use that information to formulate questions that will be answered by the respondents as part of data collection.
- Research is **reducible** meaning that it must be possible to repeat the research results. This implies that similar results should be obtained by other researchers, involving other research respondents in other circumstances. This should be independent of the original research yet must still be compatible with the same theory. In addition to replicability, research must be transmittable, meaning that the steps that are followed in the study can be described and communicated to transmit the acquired knowledge;
- Research is **reductive**. It is not always possible for a researcher to deal with all the complexities of reality in the social world. The need to reduce the complexity of reality entails that researchers often omit any other detail that has little influence or has nothing to do with the notion under investigation.
Researchers often confuse ‘research design’ and ‘research methodology’, but these are two very different dimensions of research (Denscombe, 2007, p.4). David and Sutton (2004, p.133) state that research design is a framework for the collection and analysis of data. It involves deciding how research strategy and methods will be implemented in the context of specific inquiry, while research methodology considers and explains the logic behind research methods and techniques (Babbie, Mouton, Vorster & Prozesky, 2005, p. 73). Babbie, et al., (2005, p.75) outline the differences between research design and research methodology as indicated below:

Research design focuses on the end-product through emphasising the type of study and the results that are aimed at. The aim (s) of the study and the research problem are the points of departure. It focuses on the logic of the research by questioning the type of evidence required to address the research question. On the other hand, research methodology focuses on the research process and the kinds of tools and procedures to be used. The point of departure includes specific tasks, for example, data collection and sampling. It focuses on the individual steps in the research process and the most objective procedures to be used (Babbie, et al., 2005, p. 77). According to Leedy (1997, p.9) research methodology controls the study, dictates the acquisition of data and arranges them in logical relationships. After collecting the raw data, specific and appropriate approaches are applied in order to derive meaning from the data. The meaning is meant to result in conclusions that add to the expansion of knowledge.

Based on the above definitions of research and the fact that the choice of research design depends on the kind of study and the nature of the research problem or question, the choice of research design for the present study was quantitative. The design was based on an identified main problem and eight sub-problems. The main problem was:
What factors influence survivors’ attitude, commitment and motivation after downsizing?

In an attempt to develop a manageable and appropriate strategy to deal with the main problem, eight sub-problems were developed. These were:

- What attitudes, commitment and motivational qualities are identified by the relevant literature as appropriate for survivors after downsizing?
- What factors are revealed in the literature as influencing the attitudes, commitment and motivation among survivors after downsizing?
- What strategies are used by management to manage survivor quality before, during and after downsizing?
- What attitudes, commitment and motivation do survivors have after downsizing?
- What is the relationship between survivors’ attitude, commitment, and motivation after downsizing?
- Do demographic characteristics have an influence on survivor quality?
- Do downsizing strategy and demographic characteristics have the same influence on survivor quality?
- How can the results obtained from the resolution of sub-problems one to four (above) be used to develop an integrated model or a set of strategies that can be used by organisations to improve the survivor quality of their employees after downsizing?

The following procedures were employed in order to solve both the main and the sub-problems:

(a) In order to resolve sub-problem one, a literature survey was conducted to determine the theoretical explanation of the concept of survivor quality after downsizing in chapter one. Reasons, approaches and strategies of downsizing and how these determine the quality of survivors are discussed in chapter two. Based on information from the first two chapters, a literature survey was conducted in chapter three
to determine the work attitudes, type of commitment and motivational qualities needed for survival after downsizing.

(b) In order to solve sub-problem two, literature dealing with drivers and management of survivor quality was surveyed. The drivers and strategies are discussed in chapters four and five, respectively. In chapter four, a literature study was conducted to determine drivers of survivor quality before, during and after downsizing.

In chapter five, literature was surveyed to examine the strategies that can be used to manage survivor quality before, during and after downsizing are discussed. From the literature surveyed, an analysis of the various strategies for managing survivor quality, as well as the empirical evidence of how these have been used was discussed in order to provide answers to sub-problem three.

Based on the literature surveys mentioned in steps (a) and (b) above, a theoretical model on downsizing was presented in chapter five. The model illustrates how the process of downsizing should be done in order to manage survivor quality. The manner in which downsizing organisations follow the process will impact negatively or positively on survivors in terms of their attitudes, commitment and motivation. The theoretical model presented in chapter five was used as the basis for constructing the survey questionnaire which was used to collect information in order to: (1) establish the extent to which management used the correct strategies and procedures during downsizing to promote survivor quality (2) determine the attitudinal, commitment and motivational qualities of survivors after downsizing, and (3) correlate survivors’ attitudes, commitment, and motivation and the perceived management strategies (4) determine the effect of demographic characteristics on survivor quality, and (5) establish whether downsizing strategies and demographic characteristics have the same influence on survivor quality.
The empirical part of the study was conducted by means of a survey using a questionnaire. Respondents were asked to determine the extent to which the organisation used appropriate strategies and procedures to downsize as indicated in the model. Respondents’ attitudes, commitment and motivation were also determined. An analysis of the responses from the respondents helped to make a comparison of the three survivor quality constructs, thus helping to resolve sub-problems three, four and five. Demographic characteristics which influenced survivor quality were delineated, and an analysis of whether their influence on survivor was the same as those of downsizing strategy was done.

(c) The responses obtained from the above analyses were compared with the theoretical model on downsizing used in the study. This information was used to develop an integrated model for survivor quality management which can be applied in similar contexts.

6. 3 CONDUCTING THE EMPIRICAL STUDY
Research studies can be categorised into different types. Some studies are exploratory, some are explanatory and others descriptive in nature. According to Babbie (2007, p.89) the major purpose of much social science research is to describe situations and events. The present study is categorised as descriptive since it used a survey questionnaire which is also categorised as non-experimental or descriptive research. Babbie (2007, p. 89) outlines that the major purpose of descriptive research is for the researcher to observe objectively the population of interest, collect data of what has been observed and then make some conclusions or inferences. In order to carry out the empirical study, the sample and populations of the study had to be determined, the questionnaire had to be developed and a pilot test done. The section that follows will discuss these aspects of the research, including the research responses of the study.
6.3.1 Sample

It is common research practice for the researcher to determine the population of the study. This consideration helps in deciding whether to use the entire population of elements to be studied or only a sample of elements of the population. Struwig and Stead (2001, p. 109) argue that obtaining information from a sample is often more practical and accurate than obtaining the same information from an entire universe or population. Using samples saves time, is less costly, and provides quality information, and play an important role in designing questionnaires. Selecting the sample, as Spatz and Kardas (2008, p.54) point out, should be done according to sound scientific guidelines. In other words, the entire population should be carefully framed so that the findings from the sample chosen can be generalised to the entire population. Ghauri and Gronhaung (2005, p. 155) assert that a sample should not only be selected, so as to be representative of the population from which it is drawn, but it should be large enough so that the researcher can be reasonably sure that if a different sample had been drawn, using the same procedure, similar results would be obtained. They point out that the type of data usually determines whether sampling is appropriate.

According to Kalo, Dan and Diertz (2008, p. 42), sampling done in other studies that do not involve organisations are often faced with the problem of specifying the population and the sampling frame. They argue that studies that involve organisations are often simple in terms of specifying populations and sampling frame because they do have membership lists which can serve as the sampling frame from which the sample can be selected. In this way data collected from the sample can be regarded as representative of all members in the organisation.

Taking into consideration the above statements, the Zimbabwe National Chamber of Commerce (ZNCC) and the Confederation of Zimbabwe Industries (CZI) were approached to provide a list of manufacturing organisations in Zimbabwe that had downsized through the workforce reduction strategy from the Zimbabwe’s major towns and cities of Harare,
Bulawayo, Mutare, Masvingo, Gweru, Chegutu, Kwekwe, Chinhoyi and Bindura. The total number of identified organisations was 21. More information regarding which manufacturing organisations had downsized from these towns and cities was obtained from the largest labour union in Zimbabwe, the Zimbabwe Congress of Trade Unions (ZCTU). The idea was to confirm that all organisations that met the criteria were included in the population.

The population of the study consisted of survivors from only those identified downsized organisations that employed more than 50 employees and had downsized in the previous year or two. This information was obtained from the ZNCC, ZCI and the ZCTU. Downsized organizations that employed 50 or more people were more likely to have clear organisational structures and therefore are assumed to have followed the correct procedures when downsizing in order to manage its impact on survivors. The reasoning behind using organisations that had downsized in the previous year or two was to ensure that survivors who participated in the study still had the memory of the events that took place during the downsizing exercise. Thirteen (13) organisations matched these criteria from the previously identified 21 downsized organisations. The total number of survivors from these 13 organisations, which formed the population figure for the present study, was 2667. The 13 organisations were from the following cities and towns: Mutare, Harare, Chegutu, Gweru and Bulawayo.

6.3.1.1 Sampling methods

The sampling theory in research has been developed to suggest ways of drawing scientific samples, that is, samples that are random and representative of the population and whose findings can tell us more about the population in general. Sangor (2007, p. 106) defines sampling as the selection of respondents to participate in a research project, usually with the goal of being able to use the respondents to make inferences about a larger group of individuals. Similarly, Durrheim and Painter (2007, p. 133) point out that sampling involves making decisions about which people, settings, events
or behaviours to consider during investigation. They further argue that the choice of sampling method is determined by the nature and objectives of the study.

There are a number of sampling methods used in research. Durrheim and Painter (2007, p. 134) assert that sampling using the random sampling method is the most ideal and effective way of achieving representativeness of the sample. Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1997, p. 134) concur that all surveys (including survey questionnaires) involve some sampling and the best method of portraying all the variety of a large heterogeneous population is clearly that of random sampling. In the current study, before the researcher decided on the correct sampling method, other sampling methods were considered. Spatz and Kardas (2008, p. 53) distinguish two main types of sampling, namely probability or random sampling and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling is when each element in the sampling frame has a known, calculable chance of being included in the sample. Thus, probability sampling represents procedures that randomly select elements from the population. The procedures are simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified random sampling and cluster sampling. These are briefly discussed below:

- Simple random sampling: Using this method, each member of the population has an equal opportunity of inclusion in the sample, and each sample of a particular size has the same opportunity of being chosen. All elements in the population can be allocated numbers and the numbers are randomly selected;

- Systematic sampling: This is similar to simple random sampling but requires that the defined target population be ordered in some way, for example, in the form of customer list or membership roster. Therefore, instead of relying on random numbers, it is based on the selection of elements at equal interval, starting with a randomly selected element on the population list;
• Stratified random sampling: Stratified sampling entails the division of the target population into different sub-divisions, called strata, and the selection of samples from each stratum. Stratified sampling is similar to segmentation of the defined target population into smaller, more homogenous sets of elements. Therefore, the method is particularly useful for ensuring representativeness when dealing with a population that is heterogeneous; and

• Cluster sampling: This sampling technique is used when it is not practical to compile an exhaustive list of the elements composing the population of interest. It involves dividing sampling units into mutually exclusive and collectively exhaustive subpopulations called clusters. Once the clusters have been identified, the prospective sampling units are selected for the sample by either using a simple random sampling method or canvassing all the elements within the defined cluster. Cluster sampling therefore involves repetition of two basic steps; listing and sampling, hence it is sometimes called multi-stage sampling.

Spatz and Kardas (2008, p. 53) as well as Struwig and Stead (2004, p.111) identified the other sampling type, namely non-probability sampling in which the probability of any particular member of the population being chosen is unknown. The researcher relies heavily on personal judgement and therefore the selection of the sampling units is arbitrary. The following are approaches used to conduct non-probability sampling:

• Convenient sampling: In this case, sampling is done purely on the basis of availability. Respondents are selected because they are accessible and articulate. Although the method is cheap and easy, it can only be used in special cases, mostly when the universe is sufficiently homogenous. Using this method presents the researcher with the problem of representativity;

• Quota sampling: In this method, respondents are selected according to their characteristics, for example, age, income, socio-economic status. The respondent has to comply with the criteria before qualifying for inclusion in the sample. The final sample has to have the same
proportions of the characteristics as the population. The major problem with this type of sampling is that it relies heavily on accidental choice instead of random selection; and

- Purposive sampling: This is the most important type of non-probability sampling. Researchers in this method rely on their experience, ingenuity and/or previous research findings to deliberately obtain units of analysis in such a manner that the sample they obtain may be regarded as being representative of the relevant population (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2003, p. 150). The method thus relies on the researcher’s judgement regarding the characteristics of the sample as well as his or her familiarity with the population from which the sample is drawn. Therefore, sample representatively is also a problem.

In addition to the above sampling methods, Maree (2007, p. 70) and Bless and Higson-Smith (2004, p. 93) mention other methods that can be used in sampling. These are sampling with or without replacement and independent versus related or depended sampling. When we sample with replacement, the two sample values are independent. Practically, this means that what we get on the first one doesn't affect what we get on the second. Mathematically, this means that the covariance between the two is zero. In sampling without replacement, the two sample values aren't independent. Practically, this means that what we get on the first one affects what we can get for the second one. Mathematically, this means that the covariance between the two isn't zero (Parker, 2008, p. 1). Independent samples are usually drawn when dealing with randomisation of groups, in which two or more samples may be selected in such a way that they become independent. Each unit is drawn randomly from the population and is also randomly assigned to one or the other group. Groups formed this way constitute independent samples. Alternatively, groups or samples can be related, usually when their elements have been matched on specific properties. In such cases, they are called related or independent samples.

From the above discussion on the sampling types and methods, the most appropriate sampling method for the present study was the simple random
sampling, and it falls under the probability sampling procedure. The choice of random sampling was based on the understanding that the survey’s results can be generalised to the defined target population with a pre-specified margin of error. The method also produces unbiased estimates of the population’s characteristics. Once a sampling technique has been determined, the issue of sample size is considered.

6.3.1.2 Sample size
According to Saunders, et al., (2003, p. 152), generalisations about populations from the data collected using any probability sample are based on probability. The larger the sample size, the lower the likelihood of error in generalizing to the population. Denscombe (2007, p. 28) recommends that the following points to be considered when determining the sample size;

- The accuracy of results: To achieve greater accuracy, the researcher might need to increase the size of the sample. Statistical procedures can be used to calculate what specific sample size will be necessary in order to achieve a given level of accuracy;
- Number of subdivisions likely to be made within the data: When calculating the number of respondents to include in the sample, the researcher needs to take into consideration the complexity of the data that are likely to emerge;
- The likely response rate: As far as sample size is concerned, the researcher should note that the number in the original sample may not equal the number of responses that are finally obtained and used in the research. The researcher needs to predict the kind of response rate he or she is likely to achieve, based on the kind of survey done, and build into the sample size an allowance for non-response;
- Resources available: In the social sciences, research in the real world does not take place with infinite time and resources. In practice, social research is tailored to meet the constraints of the time and money available for it. In survey researches, much of the cost will reflect the chosen size of the sample. This means that there is a general tendency to choose the minimum sample size that is feasible in light of the level
of accuracy demanded of the findings;

- The size of the population from which the sample is being drawn: In most cases, the smaller the target population, the relatively larger the sample should be to ensure satisfactory results. In addition, the general rule of thumb is that an increase in the sample size, in proportion to the size of the population from which it is drawn results in a decrease in standard error;

- Variability of the population characteristic under investigation: The greater the variability of the characteristic, the larger the necessary sample size; and

- Number of units of analysis: The number of units of analysis from which the researcher eventually obtains usable data may be much smaller than the one drawn originally. It may not be possible to trace some individuals, others may refuse to participate in the research, while still more may not provide all the necessary information or may not complete their questionnaire, so that their information will be discarded (Denscombe, 2007, p. 30). Therefore, it is advisable to draw a larger sample than the one for which complete data is desired in the end.

Saunders, et al., (2003, p.465) recommend that when groups are formulated, the ideal sample size should be finally calculated based on how confident the researcher needs to be that the estimate is accurate (level of confidence in the estimate), how accurate the estimate needs to be (margin of error that can be tolerated) and the proportion of responses that the researcher expects to have to a particular attribute. He further notes that a sample should not involve fewer than 30 respondents to allow for meaningful statistical analyses to be done. Within business studies, Hair, Wolfinbarger, Ortinau and Bush (2008, p. 139) point out that pertaining to the use of surveys and questionnaires, the idea is to increase the sample size to thirty to forty percent to allow for non-response as a result of refusal to respond, ineligibility to respond, inability to locate respondents and respondents located but unable to make contact.
Based on the above discussion, the sample size and the adjusted minimum sample size of this study were calculated using the following formulae, respectively:

\[ n = p\% \times q\% \times \left(\frac{z}{e}\right)^2 \]

where:
- \( n \) is the minimum sample size required
- \( p\% \) is the proportion belonging to the specified category
- \( q\% \) is the proportion not belonging to the specified category
- \( z \) is the \( z \) value corresponding to the level of confidence required
- \( e\% \) is the margin of error required

Saunders, et al (2003, p. 467) argue that where the population of the study is less than 10 000 as in the present study, a smaller sample size could be used without affecting the accuracy. This results in what is called the *adjusted minimum sample size*. For the present study, it was calculated using the following formula:

\[ n' = \frac{n}{1 + (n/N)} \]

where:
- \( n' \) is the adjusted minimum sample size
- \( n \) is the minimum sample size (as calculated above)
- \( N \) is the total population

Using these two formulae and, (1) based on the results of the pilot study which showed that 20 percent of the respondents did not falling within the specified category of survivors and 80 percent did fall, and (2) the population of the study which was 2667, the sample size for this study was determined as 246 and the adjusted sample size was 226. The sample size used is supported by de Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport (2006, p. 196) who indicate that a study population of less than 3 000 population can have a sample size percentage of 28 or 280 respondents.
6.3.1.3 Sampling error

According to Welman, et al., (2007, p. 94) it is impossible to select a sample that perfectly represents the population. Therefore, there is always error associated with using sample properties to estimate population parameters. Welman et al. describe sampling error as the lack of fit between the sample and the population. It is the difference between the characteristics of the sample and the characteristics of the population from which then sample is selected. The amount of variability in sample means or values gives an idea of the amount of sampling error. The larger the diversity of sample means, the less precise and representative the sample is. Bless and Higson-Smith (2004, p.94) make a distinction of sampling errors caused by chance factors and those caused by selection bias.

The following are errors associated with chance variations or selection bias:

- The researcher might inaccurately defined the population causing population frame error;
- The researcher might overlook a certain important criterion;
- There might be improper definition of the variables under study which results in inadequate description of the population. This culminates in the researcher designing a poor questionnaire and collecting the wrong type of data;
- The inability on the part of the researcher to identify all possible variables to describe the phenomena under investigation;
- The use of incorrect sampling methods which have nothing to do with the research question;
- The overrepresentation or, conversely, underrepresentation of some segments of the population in the sample;
- The social desirability effect where respondents want to please the researcher may provide answers in line with what they think are the expectations of the researcher. At the end, respondents provide wrong and inaccurate information;
- In some instances where interviews are used, interviewer bias occurs where the interviewer’s personal characteristics influence the
responses of the respondent. As a result, the results of the study may be slanted or skewed;

- The biases of the researcher based on his/her beliefs, political, social, racial and religious attitudes may play an underlying role in contributing to the sampling error, and
- Random error, where one element and not the other is selected in a particular sample. This error is inevitable and unless the entire population is surveyed it cannot be completely avoided.

In research, we can never make these effects disappear. For the present study, the researcher thought carefully about all the above-mentioned sources of sampling error in making decisions about the sample finally used.

6.3.2 Questionnaire

The primary research instrument in survey research is the questionnaire. Hair, Wolfinbarger, Ortinau and Bush (2008, p. 170) describe the questionnaire as a document consisting of a set of questions and scales to gather primary data. Good questionnaires enable researchers to collect reliable information. Because a questionnaire seeks a wide range of information in any particular study, their construction is best done when the review of related literature culminates in a conceptual model pertaining to the problem under investigation. Hence, Babbie, et al., (2005, p. 233) assert that survey questionnaire represent a common and concrete illustration of the operationalisation process of the variables under investigation. The downsizing model presented in chapter five served as the basis for the development of the questionnaire for the present study. The development of the questionnaire for this study is discussed below:

6.3.2.1 Development of the questionnaire

Before embarking on using a questionnaire, Saunders, et al., (2003, p. 281) assert that the researcher should ensure that it will collect the precise data that is required to answer the research question(s) and achieve his or her
objectives. Delport (2006) cited by de Vos, et al., (2006, p 159) point out that questionnaires vary depending on their design, structure, purpose, how they are administered and how the collected is analysed. Delport recommends that when designing a questionnaire, the aspects such as information needed the format of the questionnaire, the writing of the questions, pilot-testing the questionnaire, ways to ensure completion of the questionnaire, data analysis and response systems are to be considered.

Babbie (2007, p. 247) indicates that questionnaires are meant to collect accurate data from a sample of respondents. To ensure accuracy of information, the questionnaire should be unbiased, clear and easy to comprehend so that those who fill it develop an interest and are motivated. Boddens and Abbott (2005, p. 35) recommend the following principles for developing a questionnaire from which accurate data is solicited:

- Sentences should be brief and clear;
- Vocabulary and style of questions should be understandable and familiar to the respondents;
- The questions should be logically presented, beginning with non-threatening questions first, and more sensitive, personal questions later;
- Every question should contain one thought, therefore avoid ambiguous questions or double-barreled questions that refer to more than one object in the same sentence;
- Questions and response alternatives should be clear and not reflect the bias of the researcher;
- Avoid negative questions;
- Avoid leading questions;
- Make response categories easy to remember;
- See that the response categories offer a real range of alternatives;
- Use appropriate choice of answers. The Likert scale is the most commonly used scale to capture respondent’s answers. The scale comprises a five point verbal scale ranging from negatively worded response to a positively worded responses on either side of the
continuum, depending on the nature of the question. For example (1) very unlikely to (5) very likely or (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. This scale was used to capture respondents’ responses in Sections B to F of the questionnaire.

The analyses of respondents’ responses after data collection depends entirely on the type of question asked by the researcher and the data generated. McBurney and White (2007, p.79) note the existence of three distinguishable types or categories of data. These are (1) **nominal data** which are used to create mutually exclusive and exhaustive groups that are as homogenous as possible such as white/black (2) **ordinal data** which can be ranked according to some criterion, for example importance, urgency or seriousness, and (3) **interval-ratio data** which have order, sequence and units of measurement. As previously mentioned, the nature of the questions themselves will help the researcher anticipate the response expected. Thus, Karlof, Dan and Dietz. (2008, p.103) recommend that the format and structure of the questions be considered. In choosing the type of questions to include in the questionnaire, a researcher has a wide range of questions, depending on the nature of the problem under investigation. The commonly used ones are the scaled-response open-ended and the closed questions. Lancaster (2005, p.141) recommends that scaled questions such as Likert-type scale are preferable to other forms of questions as they are able to provide ordinal data.

A numerically scaled Likert–type questionnaire was constructed for the purpose of this study to meet the criteria recommended by de Vos, et al., (2006, p. 171). The questionnaire was divided into 13 sections. Statements were formatted according to a five point Likert-scale. The verbal scale utilised in each section differed according to how the main question was worded.

- **Section A** required respondents to provide biographical data relating to their position in the organisation, educational level, age, race, gender, language, years of experience with the organisation, and whether they had survived downsizing or not. Open-ended, multiple choice as well
as dichotomous questions were used to collect the data;

- Sections B, C, D and E of the questionnaire had items based on the theoretical model on downsizing developed in chapter five to determine the respondents’ perception of the downsizing strategy(s) used by management;

- Sections F, G and H contained items developed by Ashford, Lee and Bobko (2000, p.821) to measure respondents’ job security. Sections F and G measured perceptions of threat to various job features or characteristics and the probability that certain events might occur in one’s current job. Section H measured respondents’ sense of control of events within the organisation;

- Section I contained 22 items from the Job Descriptive Index (JDI), developed by Smith, Kendal and Hulin in 1969. The JDI is the most widely used instrument measuring employees’ job satisfaction within organisations (Schwepker, 2001, p.43). The JDI questions or items dealt with five distinct aspects of the job. These are nature and content of the job, pay, supervision, promotion and advancement, company policy and support, and relationship with co-workers;

- Section J contained 11 items that measured respondents’ job involvement. The items were developed by Reeve and Smith (2008, p. 105) after a revision of the original scale developed in 1965 by Lodahl and Kejner;

- Section K had three items related to respondents’ intention to leave the organisation or turnover intention (TI). The three-item Staying/Leaving Index was developed by Bluedorn (1982, p.137) and Lucas (1985, p.56) to tap withdrawal cognition among employees.

- Section L contained 13 positively worded items from the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Bagaim (2004, p.10). These items measured respondents’ affective, continuance and normative commitment.

- The last section, M, on the questionnaire contained ten items from the Employee Motivation Questionnaire(EMQ) developed from Herzberg's

In designing a questionnaire, researchers often consider the quality and meaningfulness of the data to be collected. Such issues are addressed by focusing on the reliability and validity of the questionnaire.

6.3.2.2 Validity, reliability and sensitivity of the questionnaire

Design problems in research include a variety of issues that can threaten the confidence a researcher has in the findings because he or she would have measured or observed the wrong things, or has not measured or observed variables accurately. Therefore, when conducting a study, a researcher must report the extent to which the instruments used to collect data are precise and accurate. This notion is supported by Salkind (2000, p.105) who argues that researchers more often than not formulate questions that at face value appear sound but are neither valid nor reliable. Failure to address the issues of precision and accuracy of the measuring instrument will influence wrong results and subsequently flawed conclusions and generalizations.

Validity

Kalof, et al., (2008, p. 156) state that validity is concerned with congruency, or 'a goodness of fit' between the details of the research, the evidence, and the conclusion drawn by the researcher. Babbie, (2004, p. 143) defines validity as the extent to which an empirical measure accurately reflects the concept it is intended to measure. In other words, as stated by Gravetter and Forzano (2003, p. 87), ‘the validity of a measurement procedure is the degree to which the measurement process measures the variable it claims to measure’. These definitions point to two issues: that the instrument actually measures the concept in question, and that the concept is measured accurately (Jacobs, 2009, p. 68). Validity is normally referred to in relation to the outcome of the study and therefore it is recommended that researchers think not of an instrument’s validity but validities. This is because validity refers broadly to the degree to which the instrument is doing what it is intended to do – and an
instrument may have several purposes which vary in number, kind and scope. de Vos, *et al.* (2006, p.160), Saunders, *et al.*, (2003, p.207), Struwig and Stead (2004, p.136) describe the various forms of validity that should be used by researchers to ensure accuracy of their research instruments. These are summarised below:

- **Content validity** refers to the sampling adequacy of the items of an instrument. It has to do with whether a measuring device covers the full range of meanings or forms that would be included in a variable being measured. Rubin and Babbie (2001, p. 194) mention that content validity is established on the basis of judgments; that is, researchers or other experts make judgements about whether the measure covers the universe of facets that make up the concept;

The research instrument is this study was subjected to 'jury opinion' using three human resources management subject experts and two human resources management industry experts to try and increase the instrument's content or face validity (See section 6.3.3).

- **Criterion validity** examines the relationship between two or more scores that appear to be similar. It is established when the measure or instrument differentiates individuals on a criterion it is expected to predict. This is done by establishing concurrent or predictive validity (Saunders, *et al.*, 2003, p. 102). Concurrent validity on the other hand is established when the scale distinguishes individuals who are known to be different. Predictive validity refers to the capacity of the instrument to differentiate among individuals on a future criterion;

- **Construct validity** refers to the degree to which an instrument measures the theoretical construct or abstract variable it was intended to measure. It refers to how well the results obtained from the use of an instrument fit the theories from which it was designed. Convergent, discriminant and nomological validity shed more light on construct validity. Convergent validity is realised when an instrument is shown to relate reasonably well
to other instruments that are considered to measure the same or similar constructs. Discriminant validity is achieved when based on theory and there is no statistical relationship between two measures that reflect different constructs. Nomological validity involves relating measurements to a theoretical model that leads to further deductions, interpretations and tests that allow constructs to be systematically interrelated;

- **Internal validity** refers to the degree to which changes in the dependent variable are indeed due to the independent variable rather than to something else. It is the extent to which the researcher bias and other factors influence the formation of conclusions of collected data;

- **External validity** refers to the generalisability of the conclusions made by the researcher in a particular study to the general populations, different settings and times.

In view of the forms of validity discussed above, special care was taken in the present study in formulating the validity of the instrument used so as to comply with content, face and construct validity, even though some of the sections of the instrument had standardized items. The idea was to adapt the instrument to suit the study (See section 6.3.3).

**Reliability**

In the abstract, reliability is a matter of whether a particular measuring instrument, applied repeatedly to the same object, yields the same results each time (Babbie, 2007, p. 143). How do researchers create reliable measures? Babbie (2007, p. 145) mention two techniques for cross-checking reliability of measures. These are test-retest and split-half reliability and these are summarised below:

- **Test-retest reliability** refers to establishing the reliability of the instrument by administering the instrument to the same respondents on two (or more) occasions and comparing the results;

- **Split-half reliability** refers to dividing the items in the instrument into two, say odd and even numbers to come out with two ‘half instruments’.
scores on these separate ‘half instruments’ are then compared by means of a correlation coefficient;

- **Internal reliability** also called internal consistency is the measure of the degree of similarity among items in an instrument meant to measure a certain construct. The measure that is used to determine internal reliability of an instrument is called *Cronbach’s alpha coefficient* \( (r) \). It is a statistical procedure that determines the relationship or correlations of each item in the instrument with the other. If the items are strongly correlated with each other, their internal consistency is high and the alpha coefficient will be close to one. If, on the other hand, the items are poorly formulated and do not correlate strongly, the alpha coefficient will be close to zero.

The present study used the cronbach alpha coefficient measure to determine the reliability of the instrument. Even though some of the items in the research questionnaire had known psychometric properties, it is common practice in research that their reliability be determined whenever they are used in a different study or context. Following this principle, the reliability of the items used to measure the overall downsizing strategy, job security, job satisfaction, job involvement, intention to leave, employee commitment and motivation for the present study were calculated. The downsizing strategy items had a reliability of \( r = 0.93 \), job security items had a reliability of \( r = 0.83 \), the JDI items had a reliability of \( r = 0.91 \), while the job involvement items had reliability of \( r = 0.75 \). The items measuring turnover intention index had a reliability of \( r = 0.87 \). The OCQ and the EMQ had reliabilities of \( r = 0.74 \) and 0.86, respectively. The reliabilities obtained were all of acceptable levels.

**Sensitivity**

The ability of an instrument to detect subtle differences in the attitudes being measured is often overlooked by researchers. Denscombe (2007, p.169) mentions that questionnaires that are not reliable will render it difficult for the researcher to tell whether the scores obtained reflect real differences or merely random fluctuations. What this entails is that measuring instruments
must be reliable first so that they become sensitive variations in responses that seem difficult to detect. The construction of the instrument used in the present study took into consideration the issues of validity, reliability and sensitivity as discussed above.

### 6.3.2.3 Questionnaire covering letter

Most self-administered questionnaires are accompanied by a covering letter. This is the first contact respondents will have with the questionnaire. The purpose of the covering letter is to win the co-operation of the respondents by explaining the purpose of the survey. Leedy (1997, p.192) further assets that the purpose of a covering letter is to address respondents’ concerns and conveying a sense of authority for the research project. Thus, some respondents ignore it, while others use it to decide whether to answer the accompanying questionnaire (Saunders, et al., 2003, p. 288). Dillman (2000, p.124) mentions that the messages contained in the self-administered questionnaire's covering letter will affect the response rate. Hence, he suggests that the following guidelines be considered when designing then covering letter of a research project:

- Good quality paper with letter head which is official;
- Full date or mentioning of the final stages of the research;
- Address the letter to the respondent, where necessary;
- State the purpose of the research and why it is useful;
- Indicate why respondent’s response is important, and offer a copy of the results;
- Indicate how long it will take to complete the questionnaire;
- Confidentiality must be indicated and how it will be maintained;
- Provide the name of a person to contact if there are any queries;
- Thank respondents for their willingness to participate and participation in the survey;
- Both researcher and supervisor must sign the covering letter(s). The supervisor’s signature provides credibility and/or authority to the research project.
Saunders, et al., (2003, p. 306) point out that for some research projects, the researcher may have to send a letter prior to administering the questionnaire. This will be used as a means of getting access to the respondent. The present study used two sets of covering letters. The first one was from the promoter or supervisor introducing the researcher to the prospective organisations and asking for permission or access to carry out the study. The second covering letter was part of the questionnaire for the respondents. In designing both letters used in the present study, the suggestions mentioned above were considered.

6.3.3 Pretesting the questionnaire
According to Saunders, et al., (2003, p. 308) prior to using a questionnaire to collect data it should be pilot tested. The purpose of the pilot test is to refine the questionnaire so that respondents will have no problems in answering the questions and there will be no problems in recording the data. In addition, pilot testing will enable the researcher to obtain an assessment of the questions’ validity and reliability of the data that will be collected. The whole idea is to remove ambiguous and vague questions that may lead to vague answers through some external evaluation. Pilot testing the instrument therefore gives an idea of how the respondents would interpret, understand and react to the questions. Feedback from pilot testing can be used to refine the questions that may cause ambiguity and lead to misinterpretations.

The number of pilot tests conducted is dependent on the research questions, objectives, size of the research project, time and money resources available and how well the questionnaire is initially designed (Spatz & Kardas, 2008, p. 361). Babbie (2007, p.257), Saunders, et al., (2003, p. 308-9) provide the following guidelines for the conduct of a pilot study for a research project:

- Ask an expert or a group of experts to comment on the representativeness and suitability of your questions, most probably through a one–on–one interview. This allows suggestions to be made on the structure of your questionnaire; this will help establish content
validity;
• Pretesting using the preferred administration methods will reveal issues pertaining to the administration of the questionnaire;
• Pilot testing should be conducted on a small group as similar as possible to the final population in your sample;
• The researcher’s colleagues can also be used for pretesting since they are likely to view it more critically than survey respondents.

Based on the above, the present study used the following approaches to pilot testing the questionnaire:

• The initial questionnaire was given to three academic staff (including the supervisor) who are experts in human resources management. One-on-one sessions were held to discuss the questionnaire;
• Feedback from these was used to amend and refine the questionnaire on issues such as question phrasing and content;
• After that, the questionnaire was taken to a statistician in an academic environment who ascertained the practicality of the instrument in terms response categories and items for statistical analysis purposes;
• The questionnaire was emailed to two industry experts in human resources whose organisations had downsized to also check for face and/or content validity;
• The amended questionnaire was emailed back to the two industry experts so that they could distribute it among a sample of respondents similar to the ones used in the empirical study. 15 respondents, seven from one organisation and eight from the other, took part in completing the pilot questionnaire. Fink (1995b, p.45) recommends that the number chosen for pilot testing be sufficient to include any major variations in the population that the researcher feels are likely to affect responses. He recommends that for most student questionnaires, this means that the minimum number for a pilot is 10. The industry experts were asked to request that the respondents complete and evaluate the questionnaire by commenting on the following:
  o How long the questionnaire took to complete;
o The clarity of instructions;
o Which, if any, questions were not clear;
o Which, if any, questions respondents felt uneasy to answer;
o Whether in their opinion there were any major topic omissions; and
o Whether the layout was good.

Feedback from the industry experts in terms of administration of the questionnaire and feedback from the small sample of respondents who completed the questionnaire were used to further refine the questionnaire before it was finally distributed to the target population.

6.3.4 Administration of the questionnaire

As previously mentioned, the names of all the manufacturing organisations that had downsized in the major towns and cities of Harare, Bulawayo, Mutare, Masvingo, Gweru, Chegutu, Kwekwe, Chinhoyi and Bindura were obtained from the Zimbabwe National Chamber of Commerce (ZNCC), the Confederation of Zimbabwe Industries (CZI) and the Zimbabwe Congress of Trade Unions (ZCTU). The target population comprised of survivors who were in those organisations that had downsized in the past year or two and had 50 or more employees, yielding a total of 2667. The total population was included in the study.

Saunders, et al., (2003, p.311) recommend a pre-survey contact with respondents or people who will give the researcher access to respondents. In the present study, the human resources managers or officers from each of the 13 manufacturing organisations that participated in the study were identified by the researcher and were e-mailed both covering letters, one from the supervisor and the other one attached to the questionnaire. This process was done four months before the actual data collection commenced. The purpose was to get permission from these manufacturing organisations and also to give management time to inform the target population about the study. Respondents were employees who remained (survivors) when the
organisation downsized using the workforce reduction strategy and who also had witnessed the whole process of downsizing unfolding in the previous year or two. The rationale for selecting this category of survivors is because it is assumed that they still remembered vividly the events that took place during the downsizing exercise. The researcher adhered to the guidelines relating to the development of the questionnaire and the covering letter as discussed previously.

In administering the questionnaire for the present study, the following procedure was followed:

- The researcher discussed telephonically the administration of the questionnaire with the human resources person from each organisation. 95 per cent of them wanted the questionnaires left with them to be distributed. The idea was that if the researcher had distributed the questionnaires, there would have been disruptions in the production process. The human resources officials knew the appropriate time to administer the questionnaires to the respondents. Saunders, et al (2003, p. 314) mention that questionnaires that are completed during normal work hours can achieve a response rate as high as 98%;

- Visits were made to each organisation by the researcher and/ or his assistant to leave the questionnaires with the HR officials. A total number of 500 questionnaires was distributed: 100 in each town/city. Discussions were held with the human resource official to stress the anonymity and confidentiality of the information to be provided and how each official was expected to stress these issues to the respondents as well;

- To achieve a possible high response rate, it was agreed that the data collection period be a maximum of three months;

- A follow-up strategy was discussed with the respective human resources managers. It was agreed that the human resources managers would make internal follow ups every other week and the
researcher or his assistant would collect the completed questionnaire every month.

6.3.5 Response rate

The covering letter and questionnaires were left at each rethe various organisations between the 22\textsuperscript{nd} of September and the 1\textsuperscript{st} of October 2008. The geographical dispersion of the organisations, the number of respondents, and the number of questionnaires distributed in each town or city are shown in Table 1.

Table 1
NUMBER OF ORGANISATIONS, RESPONDENTS, AND QUESTIONNAIRES DISTRIBUTED

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOWN/CITY</th>
<th>NUMBER OF ORGANISATIONS</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
<th>NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS</th>
<th>QUESTIONNAIRES DISTRIBUTED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Harare</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>38.46%</td>
<td>1052</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mutare</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>23.08%</td>
<td>423</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulawayo</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>23.08%</td>
<td>714</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chegutu</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.69%</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gweru</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.69%</td>
<td>248</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>13</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.00%</strong></td>
<td><strong>2667</strong></td>
<td><strong>500</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: List of downsized organisations sourced from the ZNCC, CZI, ZCTU and the surveyed organisations.

Table 1 shows that the majority of the organisations and respondents surveyed were located in Harare. An equal number of questionnaires was distributed across all the organisations surveyed. This was to ensure that the final sample had respondents from all the five geographical areas surveyed.

Table 2 indicates the number of responses received monthly during the three-month data collection period.
Table 2
NUMBER OF RESPONSES PER MONTH DURING THE THREE-MONTH PERIOD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOWN/CITY</th>
<th>1st MONTH</th>
<th>2nd MONTH</th>
<th>3rd MONTH</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Harare</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>25.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mutare</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>43.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulawayo</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>12.68%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chegutu</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gweru</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>42</strong></td>
<td><strong>64</strong></td>
<td><strong>44</strong></td>
<td><strong>150</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows that there was a marked increase in the total response rate from the first month 42(18.6%) to the second month 64(28.3%). The increase can be attributed to the numerous calls made by the researcher and/or his assistant to the organisations, the return of other respondents from annual shutdowns and leave, and an increased internal frequency of follow ups by the human resources officials. At the end of the data collection phase, the total number of the completed questionnaires was 150. Given that the sample size of the study was 226, Table 2 shows that the actual response rate of the study was 66.4%. Babbie (2007, p. 262) asserts that the overall response rate the researcher obtains should be high to represent the representativeness of the sample respondents. If a higher response is achieved, there is less chance of significant response bias than with a low response rate. Conversely, a low response rate is a danger signal, because the non-respondents are likely to differ from the respondents in ways other than their unwillingness to participate in the survey (Saunders, et al., 2003, p.320).

Controversy among researchers centres on what constitutes an acceptable response rate percentage. Babbie (2007, p. 262) reports that a view of published social research literature suggests that a response rate of 50 percent is adequate for analysis and reporting, one of 60 percent is good, and a response rate of 70 percent is very good. According to Saunders, et al.
(2003, p.158) sometimes estimating the likely response rate from a sample to which you will be sending a questionnaire is more difficult. One way to obtain this is to consider the response rates achieved from similar surveys/studies that have already been undertaken and base your estimate on this. Neuman (2000, p.121) recorded a response rate of about 50 percent for postal surveys and 75 percent for questionnaire survey, while Saunders, et al., (2003, p. 159) achieved a response rate of between 41 and 100 percent, with similar samples. A response rate of 66.4 percent obtained in this study was therefore considered high enough to be acceptable.

6.4 ANALYSIS OF BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

This section presents results of the analysis for the demographic variables used in the study.

Table 3
RESPONSES ACCORDING TO EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Frequency</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>‘O’ Level</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>43.45</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>43.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘A’ Level</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>17.24</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>60.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>31.04</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>91.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>95.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honours/Masters</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Frequency Missing = 5

Table 3 shows that the largest number of respondents, 63(43.45%) had ‘O’ level education, 25 (17.24) had ‘A’ levels, 45(31.04%) had diplomas, while 12 (8.28%) had degrees. Only five respondents did not respond to this item.
Table 4
RESPONSES ACCORDING TO AGE DISTRIBUTION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Frequency</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20-25 years</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.33%</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30 years</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10.00%</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-39 years</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>51.33%</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>64.67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 years +</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>35.33%</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table 4 it can be seen that the largest number of respondents 77(51.33%) were between the ages of 31 and 39. 53(35.33%) were above the age of 40 while 15(10%) were between the 26 to 30 age group. Only 5(3.33%) were between 20 and 25 years.

Table 5
RESPONSES ACCORDING TO RACE OF RESPONDENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Frequency</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>93.96%</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>93.96%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.70%</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>98.66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colored</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.67%</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>93.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.67%</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Frequency Missing = 1

The majority of the respondents 140(93.96%) who participated in the study were blacks. 7(4.70%) white participated in the study, while the smallest number of respondents were coloured and Indians. Only one respondent did not indicate his or her race.
Table 6
RESPONSES ACCORDING TO GENDER OF RESPONDENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Biological sex</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Frequency</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>82.43</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>82.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>17.57</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Frequency Missing = 2

Table 6 indicates that 122 of the respondents were males (82.43%), while 26 (17.57%) were females. Two respondents did not indicate their gender.

Table 7
RESPONSES ACCORDING TO LANGUAGE OF RESPONDENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Frequency</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>20.95</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>20.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shona</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>74.32</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>95.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ndebele</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.73</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Frequency Missing = 2

As shown in Table 7, there were 110(74.32%) Shona speaking respondents who participated in the study. 31(20.95) were English speaking, while 7(4.73%) were Ndebele speaking. Two respondents did not indicate their home language.
Table 8
RESPONSES ACCORDING TO YEARS OF EXPERIENCE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th># of years</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Frequency</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 – 3 years</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10.74</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 – 7 years</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.42</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>24.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 – 10 years</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.42</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>37.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 years +</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>62.42</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Frequency Missing = 1

From Table 8 it can be seen that 93 (62.42%) of the respondents had spent 11 or more years with their respective organisations. 40 (26.84%) had spent between 4 and 7 years as well as between 8 and 10 years, respectively. There were 16 (10.74%) respondents who had been with their organisation for at least 3 years. Only one respondent did not indicate his or her length of service with the organisation.

6.5 CONCLUDING REMARKS
This chapter discussed the research methodology for the study and the biographical details of the respondents. The chapter has indicated that the design of the present study was quantitative in nature. The sampling method for the study was simple random sampling and the reliability of the instrument used was of an acceptable standard. The next chapter discusses how the data collected were analysed and interpreted.
CHAPTER 7

ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

7.1 INTRODUCTION
The preceding chapter described the specific approach that was used in the present study. The adopted approach was used as a basis for selecting the sample and the sampling procedure, as well as for deciding on the data collection techniques that would to answer the research questions of the study.

This chapter presents the results of the study based on the empirical analysis of the data solicited from the research respondents. The presentation proceeds with an analysis of the descriptive statistics on the variables under investigation. To facilitate the conduct of the empirical analysis, the results of the descriptive analyses are presented first, followed by the inferential statistical analysis. The presentation of the inferential statistics is based on the hypotheses generated from the objectives of the study.

7.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS
The descriptive statistics for the sample are provided in the sections that follow. That is, data pertaining to the variables included in the study, as collected by the measuring instrument used, are presented and summarised by means of tables and the calculation of descriptive measures. In this manner, the properties of the observed data clearly emerge and an overall picture thereof is obtained.

7.2.1 SAMPLE DESCRIPTION SUMMARY
This study was based on a random sample of 150 employees who survived downsizing exercises in different manufacturing organisations in Zimbabwe. Close to 95% (140) of the respondents were black and 122 (82.4%) were males. About half of the respondents were in the 31-39 years age group followed by about 35% (53) being older than that. The respondents were not
equally distributed according to educational level with 133 (91.7%) who had at most diploma level education. Five respondents did not provide their educational levels. The majority 93 (62.4%) of these respondents had at least 11 years experience with the organisation while 16 (10.7%) had less than three years and the rest had between 4 and 10 years experience.

7.2.2 RELIABILITY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE AND VARIABLE DERIVATION

The Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was used to determine the reliability of the questionnaire as well as the possibility of deriving single constructs from various variables. As shown in Table 9, the within section Cronbach’s alpha coefficients were quite high with the lowest being 71% detected for the job involvement section (Section J of the questionnaire). This is evidence that each section clearly dealt with a single issue/aspect. A cross section reliability analysis was also used to determine the possibility of deriving a single variable out of sections F to K. A Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of 0.80 was found for this analysis. This provides evidence that these sections represent one construct, namely, survivor attitude. The variables were then derived as the average of the responses within a section or combination of sections. Therefore, survivor attitude, commitment and motivation were derived from the original variables generated from the questionnaire based on results of a reliability analysis of the instrument/questionnaire. The central variables of interest were then defined as follows:

- **Communication**
  - Opinions of survivors on the dissemination or communication of downsizing information.

- **Organisation**
  - Opinions of survivors on the planning and dedication of time and resources to dissemination and/or communication of downsizing information.
Table 9
WITHIN-SECTION RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Cronbach's alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Organisation</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Support</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Reorganisation</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Impact</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Security</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>Involvement</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>Future plans</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **Victim support**
  Opinions of survivors on the amount of support given to victims of the downsizing exercise

- **Survivor support**
  Opinions of survivors on the amount of support given to survivors of the downsizing exercise. 

- **Attitude**
  Opinions of survivors on job satisfaction, security and involvement. Captures sections F-K. (Negative to Positive).

- **Commitment**
  Measured through continuance, normative and affective commitment. Captures section L (Disagree to Agree).

- **Motivation**
  Survivors’ opinion on the work relations and environment. Captures section M (Non-descriptive to Descriptive).
The other variables were the biographical characteristics of respondents, namely, age, race, gender, educational level, position and experience.

7.2.3 HYPOTHESES FORMULATION
The following hypotheses, based on the objectives of the study and the derived variables were formulated:

- **H1** Survivors’ attitude, commitment and motivation remain unchanged after downsizing.
- **H2** There are no associations/correlations among the variables survivor attitude, commitment and motivation.
- **H3** Survivor attitude, commitment and motivation are independent of pre and post downsizing activities.
- **H4** Survivor attitude, commitment and motivation are independent of the biographical variables.
- **H5** Survivior attitude, commitment and motivation are not affected by pre and post downsizing activities and biographical variables.

7.2.4 MEASURES OF CENTRAL TENDENCY AND DISPERSION
Seven constructs were derived from the questionnaire, namely, communication, organisation, victim and survivor support, survivor attitude, commitment and motivation. These derived variables of interest are measured on a continuous scale within the interval [1; 5] while all biographical variables are categorical. One way frequency distribution tables for the original variables were generated for purposes of describing the sample as well as getting the patterns of responses for the derived variables.

In order to establish the strategies perceived by survivors as having been used by management to downsize (objective 1) as well as determine the attitude, commitment and motivation levels of survivors after downsizing (hypothesis 1), measures of central tendency and dispersion for the responses of each variable were computed. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 10. The results show that survivor support had the lowest
mean score of 1.9 which suggests that survivors received little or no post downsizing support. These results contradict the literature reviewed, which indicates that the support of survivors in the form of increased participation after downsizing, provision of adequate training and regular feedback are vital for the post - downsizing success (Chalwa & Kelooway, 2004, p.487; Buss, 2003, p.69; Wyatt, 2002, p.114). The mean scores for organisation and victim support variables suggest that the survivors were moderately satisfied with how the downsizing was planned as well as the support given to the laid-offs. These results are somewhat similar to those of Belout and Balkin (2002, p.45) which indicated that the use of a downsizing plan and the treatment given to victims of downsizing mitigates against the negative responses on behalf of the remaining employees. The results support the organisation justice theory in terms of procedural justice, meaning that survivors in the current study regarded management’s procedures in dealing with those laid off as fair.

**Table 10**

**MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND CONFIDENCE INTERVALS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std Dev</th>
<th>Lower 95% CL for Mean</th>
<th>Upper 95% CL for Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>2.9572</td>
<td>1.0791</td>
<td>2.7819</td>
<td>3.1325</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>2.4877</td>
<td>0.8071</td>
<td>2.3493</td>
<td>2.6262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victim support</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>2.2716</td>
<td>0.8789</td>
<td>2.1258</td>
<td>2.4174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survivor support</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>1.9336</td>
<td>0.8577</td>
<td>1.7938</td>
<td>2.0735</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survivor attitude</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>2.8924</td>
<td>0.3935</td>
<td>2.8156</td>
<td>2.9694</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survivor commitment</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>3.3201</td>
<td>0.7189</td>
<td>3.1944</td>
<td>3.4458</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survivor motivation</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>3.4187</td>
<td>0.7976</td>
<td>3.2849</td>
<td>3.5525</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The perceived moderate support for victims by survivors also support the organization justice theory in terms of distributive justice and indicate the existence of moderate participation of employees or fair distribution of resources to victims in the whole downsizing process. They also indicate a level of trust on the part of management by the survivors. Lazarus and
Folkman (1984, p. 15) argue that high levels of trust prior to downsizing are likely to lead to constructive survivor responses during and after the process. Little to moderate downsizing information was communicated to employees in advance of the actual downsizing process. This finding sharply contradicts the literature reviewed. Communication at every stage of the downsizing process is regarded as the most effective organisational ally in the creation and maintenance of trust, commitment and motivation among survivors (Appelbaum & Donia, 2001, p. 203). At every stage in the downsizing process, it is the amount of downsizing information and its relevance that matter most. Failure to communicate plans creates an impression that management does not know what they are doing and does not respect employees.

The mean survivor motivation score of 3.4 was the highest, while survivor commitment and motivation were found to be average to satisfactory as reflected by 95% confidence intervals of the mean scores contained within [3.1,3.5]. Survivor attitude on the other hand was average as shown by a central 95% confidence interval of the mean score of [2.8, 3.0]. These means and confidence intervals clearly show that the survivors were moderately happy with the handling of the downsizing process in their organisations. Because survivors perceived the process of downsizing satisfactorily done, this probably had an impact on their commitment and motivation levels. This assertion is supported by previous studies which point out that there is a positive relationship between justice perceptions and continuance commitment (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001, p. 320), affective commitment (Hendrix, et al., 1998, p. 620) and motivation (Brockner, 1992, p.110) after downsizing.

In line with the above identified relationships, survivors in the present study who were strong in continuance commitment, and who might have felt that they had made investments in their organisations were less likely not to be committed since they always perceived that decisions to downsize were made by management with an attempt to be fair.
Similarly, because affective commitment develops from antecedents such as an employee’s experiences with the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p. 70), survivors’ level of commitment reflected concerns with other issues that they were not happy with in the downsizing process. Alternatively, because these survivors were now operating in the new social order, some social pressures such as the need to engage in extra economic activities to supplement their meagre salaries might have contributed to these results.

With regard to the average level of motivation shown by survivors in the present study, motivational studies (e.g., Brockner, et al., 1992, 414) related to lay-off survivors would explain it as having been influenced by survivors’ perception of the outcome-input ratio. Thus, the moderate levels of motivation probably reflect survivors’ effort to reduce the feelings of inequity they had experienced when the process of downsizing was unfolding.

Survivors showed average to satisfactory levels of attitude, meaning that after downsizing, they were moderately satisfied with their jobs, moderately involved with their jobs, and felt moderately secure in their current positions. The literature (Kinicki, et al., 2002, p.30) argues that downsizing makes survivors develop affective and cognitive feelings about their organisations and jobs. The combination of a survivor’s thought concerning the organisation and how the survivor feels about the organisation determines their satisfaction, job involvement and job security levels. The present findings indicate that the antecedents of such thoughts and feelings, such as ensuring that all procedures and interactions are fair during and after downsizing might have been addressed, but survivors had a lot of other reservations about the whole process in an environment full of uncertainty.

7.3 INFERENTIAL STATISTICS AND HYPOTHESES TESTING

This section outlines the inferential statistics used to test hypotheses of the study. The results of the tested hypotheses are shown in the causal model as presented in Figure 3.
7.3.1 CORRELATION ANALYSIS

H2: There are no correlations among the variables survivor attitude, commitment and motivation

Using Spearman’s correlation coefficient, pair wise correlations among the variables survivor attitude, commitment and motivation were computed to determine the strength, direction and statistical significance of correlations (see Appendix 1). This measure was found suitable for the data because the variables though continuous in [1; 5], assume only a few of the values in that interval. The results, presented in Table 11 show that only the correlation between survivor motivation and commitment was statistically significant (r=0.40, p<0.0001). This means that high values of one variable are associated with high values of the other. Specifically, highly committed survivors were also highly motivated. This finding confirms the results of Section 7.2.4 which show that survivors had moderate levels of both commitment and motivation. Indeed, the reviewed literature has shown that both commitment and motivation are affected by variables such as perceptions of justice (Campbell-Jamison, et al., 2002, p. 41), training provided to survivors (Tella, Ayeni & Popoola 2007, p. 3) and clarity and adequacy of information given throughout and after the downsizing process (Appelbaum & Donia, 2001, p. 203). All these variables are concerned with support for the survivor before, during and after downsizing and they seem to have been satisfactorily provided for during the downsizing process.

Survivor attitude had no correlation with motivation and commitment of survivors. Contrary to this finding, research indicates that highly satisfied survivors have been found to be those who exert much effort in their work and achieve high performance (Greenberg, 1996, p.99). Similarly, other studies have found that job involvement after downsizing is affected by, among others, situational characteristics, and the differential treatment of men and women during and after downsizing (Aryee, 1994, p.206).
Table 11
CORRELATIONS OF SURVIVOR QUALITY COMPONENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitude vs Commitment</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.7438</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude vs Motivation</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.2767</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation vs Commitment</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Armstrong-Stassen (2001. p. 238) found that compared to management and non-management survivors after downsizing, non-management survivors reported significantly lower levels of job satisfaction, perceived threat of job loss and lower levels of morale. Despite this evidence, lack of correlation between attitude and both commitment and motivation in the present study might therefore suggest that variables that affected survivor attitudes may not have been the same as those that affected their commitment and motivation, while those that affected commitment and motivation were likely to be the same as shown above. This can be true, in an environment where survivors are faced with new organisational pressures in terms of performance and new societal pressure for survival.

H3: Survivor attitude, commitment and motivation are independent of pre and post downsizing activities

Correlation analyses of each of the variables attitude, commitment and motivation with each of the variables of the downsizing strategy, namely, communication, organization, victim support and survivor support were carried out. The results of the analysis are presented in Tables 12, 13 and 14. Table 12 shows that survivor attitude was not correlated with all the downsizing strategy variables. This means that the way communication was handled, the way the downsizing was planned and whether victims or survivors were given support had no effect on the attitudinal levels of survivors after downsizing. These findings contradict the literature reviewed which indicates that providing sufficient and timely communication before downsizing establishes a sense of
trust (Appelbaum, et al., 1999, p. 544) and a sense of job security (Boxall & Purcell, 2003, p. 113), both of which are elements of survivor attitude.

Table 12
CORRELATION OF SURVIVOR ATTITUDE AND DOWNSIZING STRATEGY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survivor Attitude vs</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.1322</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.2490</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victim Support</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.2513</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survivor Support</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.4237</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similarly, Fisher and White (2000, p. 249) found that specific attitudes such as job security and satisfaction in general are influenced by such factors as coworker supervisory support. The fact that the key variables cited in the literature as having an influence on certain aspects of survivor quality have not been found to have an effect in the present study leaves us with a question, “What then contributed to the moderate levels of attitude found among survivors?”. Reasons that are provided in the literature, and that could be relevant are survivors’ personal characteristics and layoff experience (Sconce & McKinsely, 2006, p. 92) increased task demands (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998, p. 579) and workgroup membership (Armstrong-Stassen, et al., 2004. p. 2040).

Table 13 shows that commitment was significantly positively correlated with all the downsizing variables, that is, communication (r=0.29, p<0.0011); organisation (r=0.28, p<0.0024); victim support (r=0.28, p<0.0018) and survivor support (r=0.22, p<0.0136). These correlations indicate that the moderate level of commitment shown by survivors was directly influenced by the downsizing strategy. The literature supports this finding. For example, Kase and Zupan (2005, p. 243) provide evidence to show that an important decision in downsizing which affects survivor commitment is ‘organisation’,
that is, some choice of the downsizing strategy.

### Table 13

**CORRELATION OF SURVIVOR COMMITMENT AND DOWNSIZING STRATEGY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survivor Commitment vs</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.0011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.0024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victim Support</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.0018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survivor Support</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.0136</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The common ones that have been reported are re-deployment and workforce reduction strategies. How these are instituted/implemented, together with the criteria for deciding who goes and who remains, as well as intervention measures meant to achieve success in the downsizing process, have been found to affect employee commitment (Iverson & Pullman, 2000, p. 979).

Research has shown that positive experiences by employees during the process of downsizing can impact on survivors’ perception of how fairly they were treated by the organisation. This, in turn, influences how they demonstrate their affective commitment to the organisation by, for example, displaying unwillingness to leave (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p.12). Similarly, as part of strategy, the creation of a good organisational climate was found to be linked to commitment in the management literature (Gowen 111, *et al.*, 2005, p.768). A specific aspect of organisational climate such as communication, especially its adequacy during downsizing, was found by Shah (2000. p.106) to negatively affect levels of commitment to the organisation when the process was complete. After downsizing, the provision of support is reported to be important in maintaining trust and morale among survivors (Armstrong, 2001, p. 241).
Table 14 shows that motivation was significantly positively correlated with all the downsizing variables, that is, communication ($r=0.26$, $p<0.0021$); organisation ($r=0.25$, $p<0.0054$); victim support ($r=0.34$, $p<0.0001$) and survivor support ($r=0.23$, $p<0.0069$). These correlations show that the moderate levels of motivation shown by the survivors were influenced by the downsizing strategy. Similar results have been confirmed in studies cited in the reviewed literature.

Table 14
CORRELATIONS OF SURVIVOR MOTIVATION AND DOWNSIZING STRATEGY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survivor Motivation vs</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>$r$</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.0021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.0054</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victim Support</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survivor Support</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.0069</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For example, Brockner, (1992, p. 12) reported that perceptions of fair judgments before, during or after the downsizing process determines the amount of effort exerted by survivors in the new environment. Similarly, perceptions of powerlessness, control and input into decision concerning future jobs during the initial stages of downsizing have also been linked to motivation and feelings of personal efficacy (Jimieson & Bordia, 2005, p. 472) after downsizing. This finding is also consistent with Waters (2002, p. 22), who argues that the conditions under which people become unemployed or remain in the organisation after downsizing are important, because they determine the level of control and effort shown in the aftermath.

Further correlation analysis was done to determine whether the downsizing variables were correlated among themselves. The rationale was to ensure that all these variables actually represented the concept ‘downsizing strategy’. Table 15 shows that downsizing strategy variables were found to be highly
significantly positively correlated among themselves; communication vs organisation (r=0.6719, p<0.0001); communication vs victim support (r=0.3207, p<0.0001); communication vs survivor support (r=0.3037, p<0.0002); organisation vs victim support (r=0.5550, p<0.0001); organisation vs survivor support (r=0.5103, p<0.0001), and victim support vs survivor support (r=0.06315, p<0.0001). These correlations suggest two major constructs, one that combines communication and organisation aspects of downsizing and the other combining victim support and survivor support aspects.

Table 15
CORRELATIONS OF DOWNSIZING STRATEGY VARIABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication vs Organisation</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>0.6719</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication vs Victim Support</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>0.3207</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication vs Survivor Support</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>0.3037</td>
<td>0.0002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation vs Victim Support</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>0.5550</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation vs Survivor Support</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>0.5103</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victim Support vs Survivor Support</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>0.6315</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

That these variables could have had an effect on survivor quality is tested using regression analysis and the results are discussed in the Regression Analysis section (Section 7.3.3).
7.3.2 ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

H4: Survivor attitude, commitment and motivation are independent of the biographical variables

The derived measures of attitude, commitment and motivation were compared with biographical characteristics. A non-parametric analysis of variance (Kruskal-Wallis test), which is a version of the classical Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) as well as the classical ANOVA itself, was used for testing for the significance of the differences in survivor attitude, commitment and motivation by biographical qualities. The non-parametric analysis was chosen because the data do not satisfy the assumptions for the classical ANOVA. In any case, non-parametric tests are more exact than parametric ones. The statistical test was carried out at a 5% level of significance. It was not statistically reasonable to test if those derived measures differed by race, gender, language and organisation’s downsizing status because the sample used was already biased on these variables. The sample was made up of approximately, 93% blacks, 81% males, 73% Shona language speakers and 93% from downsized organisations. This left educational level, age and experience as the only potentially interesting biographical variables. The results for the two tests are shown in Table 16.

Table 16 shows that based on both the Kruskal-Wallis and the classical ANOVA, all the three components of survivor quality, that is attitude, commitment and motivation did not depend on survivors’ age, educational level, and number of years (experience) with the organisation. These results are not supported by previous researches that found some relationships between selected demographic variables and survivor quality (Svensen, et al., 2004, p.590). However, this finding provided an interesting dimension for further analysis in the present study, since the other variables of interest correlated significantly with survivor quality.
Table 16
KRUSKAL-WALLIS TEST RESULTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age vs</th>
<th>ANOVA F</th>
<th>ANOVA p</th>
<th>KW Chisq</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>KW p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>0.1654</td>
<td>0.9194</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.7851</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>0.6068</td>
<td>0.6118</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.4919</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>0.1704</td>
<td>0.9162</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.8408</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experience vs</th>
<th>ANOVA F</th>
<th>ANOVA p</th>
<th>KW Chisq</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>KW p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>1.6336</td>
<td>0.1865</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.2680</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>2.4199</td>
<td>0.0693</td>
<td>6.46</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.0912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>0.8507</td>
<td>0.4686</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.3811</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education vs</th>
<th>ANOVA F</th>
<th>ANOVA p</th>
<th>KW Chisq</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>KW p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>0.2188</td>
<td>0.9274</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.7866</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>2.0382</td>
<td>0.0934</td>
<td>6.18</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.1863</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>0.1330</td>
<td>0.9700</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.8974</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.3.3 REGRESSION ANALYSIS

H5: Survivor attitude, commitment and motivation are not affected by pre and post downsizing strategies and biographical variables

A number of significant correlations were detected from the correlation analyses done thus far. The significance of a correlation suggests the possibility of a causal relationship between the variables. From the significant correlation analyses, it was reasonable to consider the downsizing strategy variables as potential predictors of survivor attitude, commitment and motivation. The no intercept multivariate multiple regression analysis was used to test for the significance of the effects of these pre and post downsizing activities and biographical variables on survivor attitude, commitment and motivation. The no intercept model was chosen because the variables under study cannot meaningfully take on value zero. As such the
intercept does not have any meaningful statistical interpretation, hence the choice of the no intercept model. The no intercept multivariate multiple linear regression of survivor attitude, commitment and motivation on downsizing strategy and biographical variables was fitted (see Appendix 2). The results are presented in Table 17 below.

Table 17
RESULTS OF MULTIVARIATE MULTIPLE LINEAR REGRESSION ANALYSIS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Model F</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Rsq</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>323.00</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>244.93</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>214.11</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 17 shows that the responses attitude, commitment and motivation significantly depended on the downsizing strategy and biographical variables. High model F values and very small p-values supported by coefficients of determination greater than 0.95 provide evidence of the significance of the regressions. However, this does not give us the effects of the individual predictors. This information was determined through estimating the model parameters. The parameter estimates for each of the responses are given below.

7.3.3.1 PARAMETER ESTIMATES FOR SURVIVOR ATTITUDE

As indicated in Table 18, approximately 96% of the variation in attitude was explained by the downsizing strategy variables. Specifically, the only variables that showed significant effects on survivor attitude were age (t=3.86, p<0.0002) and educational level (t=5.74, p<0.0001) of the respondents. The effects are such that an increase in age or educational level will result in an increase in the survivor attitude score.
Table 18
REGRESSION OF SURVIVOR ATTITUDE ON ALL PREDICTORS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Std Error</th>
<th>t Value</th>
<th>Pr &gt;</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.0798</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>0.3124</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.1266</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>0.2645</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victim support</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.0967</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>0.2308</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survivor support</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.1112</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.7891</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.0911</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>0.0002</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.0465</td>
<td>5.74</td>
<td>&lt;0.0001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.0765</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.3495</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ F_{7, 89} = 323.00 \ (<0.0001) \]
\[ R^2 = 0.9662 \]
\[ R^2 = 0.9622 \]
\[ n = 86 \]

This means that, given the same educational level, the attitude score would increase by 0.35 from one age group to the next. Similarly, given the same age group, the attitude score would increase by 0.27 from one educational level to the next. It also means that older and more educated survivors were likely to have a more positive attitude than younger and less educated survivors. However, most survivors who participated in the study were within the 31-39 age group with lower secondary education. The same results were found when biographical variables were considered alone as shown below.

As shown in Table 19, the regression of survivor attitude on biographical characteristics alone showed that only educational level (t=7.56, p<0.0001) and age (t=5.61, p<0.0001) have significant effects on survivor attitude and variations in these variables explain 96% of the variation in survivor attitude. It is interesting to note that this value is higher than that for downsizing variables alone (92%) and slightly lower than that for the model containing both downsizing strategy and biographical information. This suggests that educational level and age alone were good predictors of survivor attitude. As indicated, the respondents’ age had a higher effect than their educational level based on the magnitude of the parameter estimates.
Table 19
REGRESSION OF SURVIVOR ATTITUDE ON BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES

| Variable     | DF | Coefficient | Standard Error | t Value | Pr > |t| |
|--------------|----|-------------|----------------|---------|------|---|
| Education    | 1  | 0.35300     | 0.04670        | 7.56    | <.0001 |
| Age          | 1  | 0.50614     | 0.09023        | 5.61    | <.0001 |
| No. of yrs   | 1  | 0.14256     | 0.07613        | 1.87    | 0.0643 |

$F_{3,91} = 672.90$ ($<0.0001$)  \quad R^2 = 0.9569  \quad R^2 = 0.9554  \quad n = 94

This means that in the absence or presence of downsizing strategy, age and educational level had a statistically significant effect on survivor attitude. This means that the effects of age and education on survivor attitude did not depend on the effects of the downsizing strategy, while those of the downsizing strategy depended on those of age and education.

The above results presented in Tables 18 and 19 pertaining to the effect of age and education variables on survivor attitude is the most interesting finding of this study and demonstrate an added value in the literature on the impact of demographic variables on survivor quality. The findings are supported by previous research that found that, for those organisations that had experienced previous downsizing, older employees were more positive to the organisational change than younger ones (Ursin & Eriksen, p. 590). Similarly, Kanter and Mirvis (1989, p. 34) found that older workers were more cynical than middle-aged workers, and one of the consequences of the cynicism attitude was less job involvement and satisfaction. The present findings might hold true of older workers in the present study, given the fact that older employees have more work experience and might have experienced downsizing sometime in their working lives. In this case, they were more conservative than the younger ones who always want change. This assertion might however, be disputed, considering the fact that there was no pre-downsizing assessment done before to determine older and younger
employees’ attitudes and downsizing experience. Regarding educational level, the results showed that older and less educated survivors contributed more to the moderate attitude level obtained. This finding contradicts Svensen et al. (2007, p.156) who reported that during the early stages of downsizing, when controlled for number of years working in the company, older and more educated employees are more positively involved in their jobs and perceive less threat to their jobs in the future than the younger ones.

Table 20
REGRESSION OF SURVIVOR ATTITUDE ON DOWNSIZING STRATEGY

| Variable          | DF | Coefficient | Standard Error | t Value | Pr > |t| |
|-------------------|----|-------------|----------------|---------|-------|---|
| Communication     | 1  | 0.34        | 0.11345        | 2.96    | 0.0040|   |
| Organisation      | 1  | 0.29        | 0.18944        | 1.52    | 0.1312|   |
| Victim support    | 1  | 0.28        | 0.14232        | 2.00    | 0.0490|   |
| Survivor support  | 1  | 0.17        | 0.16401        | 1.03    | 0.3050|   |

\[ F_{4, 84} = 238.85 < 0.0001 \quad R^2 = 0.9192 \quad \bar{R}^2 = 0.9153 \quad n = 88 \]

When survivor attitude was regressed on downsizing strategy, it was found that only the communication (t=2.96, p<0.0040) aspect of downsizing had a significant effect. The variations in the downsizing variables alone explain about 92% of the variation in survivor attitude. This is a fairly high value which suggests that survivor attitude can be adequately predicted using only the downsizing strategy. It is worth noting that in the presence of biographical characteristics (Table 20) the downsizing strategy loses its effect on attitude. This finding is in line with the notion that managers cannot assume that the good intentions that underlie any particular episode of downsizing will be enough to ensure widespread understanding, support and compliance of employees (Tourish, Paulsen, Hobman and Bordia, 2004, p. 485). What this means is that the communication needs of survivors and victims should be considered right from the onset when the decision to downsize has been made. Studies (e.g., Appelbaum, et al., 1999, 550) have shown that by sharing confidential financial and competitive information with survivors, as
well as showing a willingness to communicate everything at all times, managers establish a greater sense of trust, honesty and control. This, in turn, has a likelihood of influencing the reduction of perceived threat to survivors’ jobs.

7.3.3.2 PARAMETER ESTIMATES FOR SURVIVOR MOTIVATION

Table 21
REGRESSION OF SURVIVOR MOTIVATION ON ALL PREDICTORS

| Variable          | Coefficient | Std Error | t Value | Pr > |t| |
|-------------------|-------------|-----------|---------|-----|---|
| Communication     | 0.21        | 0.1184    | 1.77    | 0.0803 |
| Organisation      | 0.05        | 0.1879    | 0.24    | 0.8079 |
| Victim support    | 0.44        | 0.1435    | 3.06    | 0.0030 |
| Survivor support  | -0.08       | 0.1650    | -0.51   | 0.6101 |
| Age               | 0.16        | 0.1351    | 1.22    | 0.2275 |
| Education         | 0.32        | 0.0690    | 4.58    | 0.0001 |
| Experience        | 0.19        | 0.1134    | 1.69    | 0.0959 |

\( F_{7.79} = 214.11 \) (<0.0001) \( R^2 = 0.9499 \) \( R^2 = 0.9455 \) \( n = 86 \)

The results in Table 21 indicate that approximately 95% of the variation in survivor motivation was explained by the variation in the explanatory variables. Thus, survivor motivation depended on other variables different from attitude and commitment. Specifically, educational level still was a significant predictor of motivation \( (t=4.58, p<0.0001) \) just as in the other cases. Age had no effect on motivation. However, how survivors felt about victim support \( (t=3.06, p<0.0030) \) turned out to have a significant effect on survivor motivation as well.

Most of the respondents who participated in the study had lower secondary education. This is considered to be less educated in the context of the study, yet survivors with this educational level had the highest contribution on the
level of motivation obtained. The results are original and striking. They contradict current evidence regarding educational level and motivation in the context of downsizing. Previous known research indicated that both young and older workers with higher levels of education felt that downsizing was unjust and they reported mistrust of management after downsizing (Chu & Ip (2003, p. 164). Other research indicated that when controlled for age, educational level did not have a significant effect on the morale of employees (Glisson & Durick, 1988, p.71), which is closely linked to increased work effort and productivity (Greenglass & Burke, 2000, p. 385).

Table 22
REGRESSION OF SURVIVOR MOTIVATION ON DOWNSIZING STRATEGY

| Variable          | DF | Coefficient | Standard Error | t Value | Pr > |t| |
|-------------------|----|-------------|----------------|---------|------|---|
| Communication     | 1  | 0.47        | 0.13695        | 3.44    | 0.0009|
| Organisation      | 1  | 0.17        | 0.22868        | 0.72    | 0.4718|
| Victim support    | 1  | 0.59        | 0.17181        | 3.41    | 0.0010|
| Survivor support  | 1  | 0.06        | 0.19798        | 0.28    | 0.7772|

R² = 0.9204, \( R^2 = 0.9166 \) n = 88

The regression of survivor motivation on downsizing strategy shows that communication \( (t=3.44, p<0.0009) \) and victim support \( (t=3.41, p<0.0010) \) aspects were the only ones with significant effects. Victim support had a higher effect than communication and the model on downsizing variables explains 92% of the survivor motivation. The findings on the effect of perceptions of victim support are consistent with Mohyeldin & Suliman (2006, p. 299) who found that survivors who perceived that greater dignity and respect was afforded to the victims, had more positive outcomes such as increased motivation to expend energy in the new work environment. In tandem with the perceptions of the informational justice as explained by the organisational justice theory (Greenberg, 1987, p. 19), findings on the effect of
communication on motivation show that the amount of information provided to victims and survivors increases the perception of lay-off as just and fair. Perceptions of fairness in treating victims have been reported by Robinson (2004, p. 45) as good predictors of motivation and work performance.

### Table 23

**REGRESSION OF SURVIVOR MOTIVATION ON BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES**

| Variable   | DF | Coefficient | Standard Error | t Value | Pr > |t| |
|------------|----|-------------|----------------|---------|-------|---|
| Education  | 1  | 0.46        | 0.07255        | 6.30    | <.0001|   |
| Age        | 1  | 0.39        | 0.14019        | 2.78    | 0.0066|   |
| No. of yrs | 1  | 0.36        | 0.11828        | 3.06    | 0.0029|   |

\[ F_{3,91} = 401.87 \quad (<0.0001) \quad R^2 = 0.9298 \quad R^2 = 0.9275 \quad n = 94 \]

The regression on biographical variables as indicated in Table 23 shows that all the biographical characteristics significantly affect survivor motivation. Variation in survivor motivation was explained by variation in education (t=6.30, p<0.0001), age (t=2.78, p<0.0066) and years of experience in the organisation (t=3.06, p<0.0029). This model explains 93% of survivor motivation. Although the relationship between educational level and survivor motivation has not received that much attention in the downsizing context, related evidence shows that educated employees are more likely to be motivated to assume job tasks requiring the use of a wider variety of skills (Glisson & Durick, 1998, p. 71). In the context of downsizing, this can be interpreted as meaning that survivors see this as an opportunity to do other tasks previously done by the laid-off, thus enhancing their career. However, respondents in the present study were less educated (lower secondary education) and the observed motivation levels might not be a reflection of how motivated they were to put effort in their work. With regard to the effect of age on motivation, the American Management Association (1996, p.) provided evidence to show that downsizing has an immediate effect on older survivors’ trust and morale. On the other hand, Svensen et al. (2007, p. 157) concur with
the present finding when they found that the employment period had an effect on the development of positive attitudes and motivation to a change process.

7.3.3.3 PARAMETER ESTIMATES FOR SURVIVOR COMMITMENT

Table 24
REGRESSION OF SURVIVOR COMMITMENT ON ALL PREDICTORS

| Variable          | Coefficient | Std Error | t Value | Pr > |t| |
|-------------------|-------------|-----------|---------|------|---|
| Communication     | 0.14        | 0.1063    | 1.31    | 0.1947 |
| Organisation      | 0.14        | 0.1687    | 0.83    | 0.4107 |
| Victim support    | 0.20        | 0.1288    | 1.54    | 0.1281 |
| Survivor support  | 0.07        | 0.1482    | 0.45    | 0.6542 |
| Age               | 0.36        | 0.1213    | 2.99    | 0.0037 |
| Education         | 0.21        | 0.0619    | 3.34    | 0.0013 |
| Experience        | 0.11        | 0.1019    | 1.1     | 0.2759 |

$F_{7,79} = 244.93 (<0.0001)$  $R^2 = 0.9560$  $R^2 =0.9520$  $n = 86$

When survivor commitment was regressed with all the selected explanatory variables, Table 24 shows that a similar pattern of dependence was detected. The results indicate that 96% of the variation in commitment was explained by variation in the explanatory variables. Most importantly, age ($t=2.99$, $p<0.0037$) and education ($t=3.34$, $p<0.0013$) had significant effects on survivor commitment. The only difference with other models is that age had a slightly higher effect on commitment (0.36), while education had a slightly lower effect on commitment (0.21) than on attitude (0.27). The influence of age on commitment is supported by the reviewed literature. For example, Finegold, et al. (2002, p. 262) found that compared to those under 30, satisfaction with job security was more aligned to the commitment of older employees and to their desire to remain in the organisation (normative commitment). Similarly, Lim & Thompson, (1998, p. 337) found that older survivors have high commitment to the organisation as a result of the
perceptions of investment of their time and effort in the organisation. The finding on the influence of education is also consistent with previous research. Glisson & Durick (1998, p. 36) reported that older, less educated men and women with a greater sense of competence had higher levels of organisational commitment.

Table 25
REGRESSION OF SURVIVOR COMMITMENT ON DOWNSIZING STRATEGY

| Variable       | DF | Parameter Estimate | Standard Error | t Value | Pr > |t| |
|----------------|----|--------------------|----------------|---------|-------|---|
| Communication  | 1  | 0.40               | 0.13072        | 3.07    | 0.0029|   |
| Organisation   | 1  | 0.28               | 0.21827        | 1.25    | 0.2147|   |
| Victim support | 1  | 0.39               | 0.16398        | 2.40    | 0.0185|   |
| Survivor support | 1 | 0.20               | 0.18897        | 1.03    | 0.3042|   |

\[ F_{4,84} = 246.31 \ (<0.0001) \quad R^2 = 0.9214 \quad R^2_\text{adj} = 0.9177 \quad n = 88 \]

Regression of survivor commitment on the downsizing strategy alone showed that only communication \((t=3.07, p<0.0029)\) and victim support \((t=2.40, p<0.0185)\) had significant effects on survivor commitment. The downsizing strategy explained 92% of survivor commitment. This shows that in the absence of biographical variables, survivor commitment can be predicted from the downsizing strategy. Consistent with these findings, a vast amount of literature on downsizing has stressed the importance of communication as an ally in the creation of positive attitudes (Tourish, Paulsen, Hobman & Bordia, 2004, p. 503) motivation (Applebaum & Donia, 2000, p. 347) and commitment (Trombetta & Rogers, p. 511). What this means is that keeping survivors informed of changes can reduce negative consequences to downsizing. The literature also points to the findings that perceptions of organisational support and its availability and sufficiency, are critical for identification with an organisation, and consequently productive employees (Wiesenfeld, Raghuram, & Garud, 2001, p. 225). According to the organisation support
theory, employees form perceptions concerning an organisation’s appreciation of individual contributions to the organisation (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001, p. 48). The individual acts reciprocally, by contributing and caring at the same level as they perceive has been exhibited by the organisation. The contribution can be exhibited in the form of high levels of commitment to the organisation.

Table 26
REGRESSION OF SURVIVOR COMMITMENT ON BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES

| Variable   | DF | Coefficient | Standard Error | t Value | Pr > |t| |
|------------|----|-------------|----------------|---------|-------|---------|
| Education  | 1  | 0.32        | 0.06270        | 5.13    | <.0001|         |
| Age        | 1  | 0.55        | 0.12115        | 4.58    | <.0001|         |
| Experience | 1  | 0.25        | 0.10222        | 2.49    | 0.0147|         |

\[ F_{3,91} = 499.36 \text{ (<0.0001)} \]
\[ R^2 = 0.9427 \]
\[ R^2 = 0.9408 \]
\[ n = 94 \]

Table 26 illustrates that all the biographical characteristics had statistically significant effects on survivor commitment and that they explained 94% of survivor commitment. Based on that criterion, biographical characteristics can be regarded as better predictors of survivor commitment compared to the downsizing strategy. Age had the highest effect of all the biographical characteristics \((t=4.58, p<0.0001)\). Considering the fact that most of the survivors in the present study had lower levels of education, previous research findings contradict these results. For example, the finding that higher levels of education increase the perception that downsizing is financially effective and reduces the perception that downsizing is inevitable has been reported by Sronce and McKinley (2006, p. 101). However, results on the significance of age and tenure are in concurrence with previous research findings. For instance, Marshall and Bonner (2003, p. 289) found that the number of years a survivor has been in the organisation as well as the age,
regardless of whether old or young, was positively associated with commitment.

7.3.3.4 SPLIT ANALYSIS OF SURVIVOR COMMITMENT
Survivor commitment as given in the literature is made up of three individual components, namely, continuance, normative and affective commitment. Although not hypothesised, the same regression analysis as above, of the predictors (downsizing strategy and biographical variables) with each component of commitment was carried out to find out if they were affected differently from when they were combined (see Appendix 2).

The results of the model with all predictors show that continuance commitment significantly depended on education \((t=2.68, p<0.0086)\) and age \((t=2.84, p<0.0055)\) of respondents with age having a higher effect. The model explained 93\% of the continuance commitment of survivors. Normative commitment was found to have depended equally on the age \((t=2.15, p<0.0342)\) as well as the experience \((t=2.35, p<0.0209)\) of the respondents. This finding is confirmed in the literature (Lim & Thompson, 1998, p.337). Affective commitment was also dependent on age \((t=3.26, p<0.0015)\) and victim support \((t=3.29, p<0.0014)\) with victim support having a higher effect. This suggests that victim support was of greater concern to the survivors than any other aspect of the downsizing. According to Meyer and Allen (1997, p. 70) affective commitment can develop from antecedents such as experiences in the organisation, which include how victims were treated during the downsizing process.

The regression of the commitment components on downsizing strategy shows that all of them depended on the communication aspect of downsizing. However, affective commitment also depended on victim support. Victim support \((t=3.82, p<0.0002)\) had a higher effect than communication \((t=2.48, p<0.0145)\), once more, showing survivors’ concern over victim support. The concern for victim support is supported by previous findings (Vermeulen, 2005, p. 45) and has been shown to be linked to perceptions of fairness and
subsequent commitment. The regression of the commitment components on the biographical characteristics showed that all the components depended on age, education and experience of survivors. Age had the highest effect on all three components and education and experience had almost the same magnitude of effects. This finding is the same as when all the components of commitment are combined as previously discussed.

7.4 INTERGRATED MODEL FOR THE MANAGEMENT OF SURVIVOR QUALITY

This section presents an integrated model for the management of survivor quality. The model is premised on the results obtained after the hypotheses of the study were tested. The purpose of designing the integrated model is to provide a structured approach to managing survivor quality based on the observed relationship among variables of interest in the present study. The model is meant to provide help to organisations that find themselves in volatile environments and are planning to downsize to evaluate the usefulness of certain important issues, practices, procedures, and the interventions for managing survivor quality.

The integrated model is presented in Figure 4. It consists of six phases. A brief discussion of the model is presented in the sections that follow.

7.4.1 Phase 1: Decide to downsize

The decision to downsize is usually made in the face of increased costs and competition, as well as decreased efficiency and effectiveness. Organisations operating in volatile economic environments usually downsize to reduce costs and remain viable. The decision to downsize therefore should focus on using the involuntary strategy to avoid loss of tacit knowledge. This should be complimented by a lot of communication, focusing on providing a rationale for downsizing (Carbery & Garavan, 2005, p. 498), benefits that will ensue thereafter as well as allowing employees’ voices to be heard. Greater communication efforts and improved staff participation in the initial stages of downsizing have been found to have beneficial effects on improved survivor
attitudes and behaviours (Murphy, 1994 in Tourish, et al., 2004, p. 489).

7.4.2 Phase 2: Organise, plan and prepare
This stage involves the organisation making a decision as to who is going to be laid-off and who is going to remain. This is a critical stage in a volatile environment where opportunities for re-employment for the laid-off are scarce. Perceptions of employees about the downsizing process depend on how the downsizing process is managed and communicated. Therefore, information that provides employees with the opportunity to participate in downsizing activities, especially the determination of the criteria for layoffs, promotes positive attitudes among those who remain. Studies have shown that a fair termination plan is associated with higher job security and higher commitment (Armstrong-Stassen, et al., 2004, p. 98). The present study has shown that in an environment that is volatile, in addition to providing adequate communication; age, education and experience of survivors have significant effects on their attitudes, commitment and motivation after downsizing. Therefore, the criteria for deciding who will be laid-off should consider these demographic variables. It would be beneficial if the organization would consider laying-off younger employees and retain with the older, uneducated survivors whose commitment to the organisation is based on consideration of sunk costs.

7.4.3 Phase 3: Implement downsizing
The present study has shown that victim support has a significant effect on survivor attitudes, commitment and motivation. When organisations finally decide on who will be going based on demographic variables and other criteria, attention should be paid to those laid off. Support for the victims has been shown to affect survivors in terms of their commitment, attitudes and motivation to put effort in the new environment (Brockner, et al., 1992, p. 257). Thus, survivors’ perception of victims’ treatment as fair will make them less likely to treat management as an adversary and will respond more positively through increased obligation (normative commitment) and increased work performance (motivation). Support for the victims can take the form of counselling services, training in job search skills, further training opportunities
and provision of job referral services. Communication at this stage should be tailor-made to suit the needs of the victims. The extent to which management communicates to, and, with victims has been reported as predictive of future levels of commitment and trust on the part of survivors (Gopinath & Becker, 2000, p. 74-75).

7.4.4 Phase 4: Provide survivor support
Downsizing affects survivors’ view of the organisation as whole. After the process, the focus of management should be on how survivors are or become focused on the new goals and objectives in the new environment. In the context of a volatile environment as in the present study, survivors want assurance that their jobs are not at risk of being terminated and that they have control over what happens to them in future. Survivors also want to feel that they have the skills, competences and knowledge to operate in the new environment. Because downsizing violates old psychological contracts, new ones have to be drawn based on the new environment and its circumstances. Therefore, management’s role at this stage will be to (1) continue communicating with survivors on the progress of the downsizing (2) informing survivors on the new structure, role, responsibilities and expectations, and (3) providing training for optimum performance in the new environment. The provision of such information to survivors has been associated with the alleviation of job loss fears (Johnson, Bernhagen, Miller & Allen, 1996, p. 144) and increased productivity (Cascio, 2001, p. 13). Such actions are likely to lead to increased job satisfaction, job security, job involvement, as well as decreased intentions to leave. It is important to note that the provision of survivor support should not overlook their demographic characteristics as they have been found to impact on how they behave in the new environment.
Phase 1  
Decide to downsize

Communicate need do downsize

Phase 2  
Organise, plan, and prepare

Communicate criteria to employees; consider survivor age, education and no. of years in organisation

Phase 3  
Implement downsizing

Communicate & provide adequate victim support

Phase 4  
Provide survivor support

Communicate; Redesign work roles, provide skills & training.

Phase 5  
Evaluate benefits of downsizing

Measure efficiency, competitive advantage, effectiveness, and productivity.

Phase 6  
Determine survivor quality

Establish survivor attitudes, commitment & motivation

Figure 4: An Integrated Model for the Management of Survivor Quality
7.4.5 Evaluate benefits of downsizing

Studies have shown that downsizing has benefits for the organisation (Farell & Mavondo, 2005, p. 98; Stavrou, et al., 2006, p.151; Applebaum & Patton, 2002, p. 131). Therefore, after giving survivors adequate support, the next stage is to evaluate the benefits of downsizing in terms of the intended objectives. This is usually done a year or two after downsizing. The organisation should be able to gauge whether there has been improved efficiency, effectiveness, productivity, reduced costs, and in some instances, improved communication and competitive advantage. Whether the benefits are positive or negative, the organisation will benefit a lot by assessing the associated attitudinal, commitment and motivational levels that are associated with the observed status quo. The process should involve survivors and the results should be communicated to them.

7.4.6 Phase 6: Determine survivor quality

Positive survivor attitudes and motivation are regarded as the key drivers in ensuring that objectives for downsizing are achieved. The literature in the human resources management field shows that survivor quality determines why the objectives for downsizing such as increased productivity, improved competitive advantage, reduced costs and improved efficiency were achieved or not achieved (Ulrich, 1998, p.24); McKeown (2001. p. 1) & Pete, Martin & Staines (2000, p. 481). An assessment of survivor quality at this stage will provide an opportunity to management in terms of revisiting the survivor support mechanisms, discarding those that are not working and adopting new ones. Communication should continue even at this stage, with management paying attention to the concerns of survivors in terms of what they would want best in order to be effective in the new environment. The organisation will also have an opportunity to make an informed decision on whether downsizing was the best strategy to adopt in the face of economic instability.

The model discussed above, based on the empirical results of the study, is a shift away from the previous models in that it emphasises the aspects of demographic variables and communication throughout the process of
downsizing.

7.5 CONCLUDING REMARK

The aim of this chapter was to present information on how the collected data was analysed, interpreted and discussed in line with the study objectives as well as the formulated hypotheses. The chapter also presented an integrated model for the management of survivor quality based on the empirical results of the study. The next chapter will present the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study.
CHAPTER 8

SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed how the collected data was analysed in order to test the formulated hypotheses and answer the research questions. This chapter provides the limitations and problems of the study, the summary of the study, as well as practical recommendations and future research directions.

This study was based on the premise that downsizing takes place to improve productivity, competitive advantage, efficiency and effectiveness. The decision to downsize is usually precipitated by an economically unstable environment, although in some instances it does take place in stable economies. Once the decision to downsize has been adopted, management should be sensitive to the needs and emotions of those who survive. These employees need reassurance from the beginning about their own future and an understanding of the strategic goals behind the downsizing. Such assurances can only be achieved when management chooses to use appropriate strategies and consider a number of other factors that make survivors feel positive about the organisation, optimistic about their future and committed to working towards a better life. Based on this premise, it should be recalled that the present study investigated the factors that influence survivor quality among manufacturing organisations that had downsized in an economically volatile environment. Specifically, the study sought to achieve the following objectives:

- To establish the strategies perceived by survivors as having been used by management to downsize;
- To determine the attitude, commitment and motivation among the survivors after downsizing;
• To determine whether there is a relationship among survivors’ attitude, commitment and motivation;
• To determine whether there is a correlation between survivors’ attitude, commitment, motivation and the perceived strategies;
• To establish the demographic characteristics that influence survivor quality after downsizing;
• To determine whether there is a correlation between survivors’ attitude, commitment, motivation and demographic characteristics;
• To integrate the results obtained and develop a model which can help organisations planning to engage in downsizing so that survivors remain effective

Based on the information from the analyses done, a model was developed. A comparison of this model with the one used to construct the questionnaire for the present study shows that demographic variables and downsizing strategy emerged as key factors that drive survivor quality in the context of the study.

8.2 PROBLEMS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The uniqueness and strength of this study is its focus on investigating the key factors that influence the constructs of survivor quality in a single study in an unstable environment. There are, however, limitations to and problems with the present study. The study was designed to collect information from those employees whose organisations had downsized at least two years previously. There was no guarantee for the researcher that some of the survivors still had the organisational memory of what really took place. Those who participated in the study were mostly males. This unequal distribution with regards to gender might be problematic since some other factors relevant to females might have been omitted. Studies have shown that women of a certain age tend to have continuous work histories and are therefore not vulnerable to lay-off (Kozlowski, et al., 1993, p. 278).
The study was conducted in an environment that was unstable in terms of economic growth. Though this was a unique feature of the study, the context raises questions of the generalisability of the results in contexts other than those from where the sample was drawn. In addition to this, because the variable ‘volatile or unstable environment’ was not measured within the study, the results might not be a true reflection of survivors’ reactions as influenced by the observed factors, but some other factors.

As part of good research practice, it would have been proper, and more interesting results could have emerged, if the researcher had obtained the levels of survivors’ attitude, commitment and motivation before the actual downsizing took place and then compare them with levels of these constructs after downsizing. Data were collected from manufacturing organisations involved in different business activities. Assuming that each organisation had developed its own personality and culture, the results could be a reflection of feelings and perceptions of survivors from one organisation or organisations in the same sector which had more respondents than the others. This means that the results’ applicability might also present some problems.

The questionnaire used in the study had some sections adapted from questionnaires with known psychometric properties. Although this is good research practice, there was a limit in terms of the number of demographic characteristics considered in the study. The conceptualisation of attitude as given in the literature, and how the analyses was done and reported raises some questions. For example, attitudes as depicted in the study entail job security, job involvement, intention to leave and job satisfaction. There is a possibility that different results could be obtained if the effect on these attitude variables were delineated rather than clustering them together as done in the study. Instruments in research are designed to have a number quality that reflects some aspects if truth different kinds of environment. This truth could have been enriched with qualitative research to get a more nuanced perspective on what influences survivor quality dimensions.
8.3 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

This study focused on the identification of factors that influence survivor quality after downsizing among manufacturing organisations in an economically volatile environment. The results of the study show that survivor attitude, commitment and motivation are significantly affected by the educational level of the survivor. The more educated the survivor, the more positive the attitude and commitment and the more descriptive their working environment and relations. Age was also found to have significant effects on survivor attitude and commitment but not on motivation. Victim support was found to determine the motivation of survivors but it does not affect their attitude and commitment.

The separate regression analysis of survivor attitude, commitment and motivation on the downsizing strategy alone and the demographic variables showed that the downsizing strategy only has significant effects on survivor quality in the absence of demographic characteristics. However, demographic characteristics, that is, age, education and years of experience in the organisation, affect survivor quality in the absence and in the presence of downsizing strategy. This means that after downsizing in an unstable environment, the demographic characteristics have independent effects on survivor quality while the downsizing strategy effects depend on the absence or presence of demographic characteristics.

Of the downsizing strategy aspects, communication and victim support turned out to be the most important predictors of survivor quality in the present study. Similarly, results also show that all demographic characteristics used in the study are important predictors of survivor quality, with age being the most important, followed by educational levels.

The coefficients of determination for all the models are higher than 80% which suggests the models fitted to the data are equally good. These results suggest that in an environment where the economy is unstable, survivor
quality can be adequately predicted based on either demographic characteristics only or on downsizing strategy only or their combination. It is also shown here, that the effects of demographic variables do not change with the inclusion of the effects of the downsizing strategy while those of downsizing strategy change with the inclusion of biographical characteristics. The study therefore demonstrated that whatever information the downsizing strategy variables carry is or might also be contained in the demographic characteristics of the survivors after downsizing.

8.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

This study has implications for human resources management. Generally, the results supported a managerial knowledge of the environment in which downsizing takes place, an understanding of the positive effects of demographic and downsizing strategy factors on employee attitudes, commitment and motivation. The analysis done helped to distinguish the different effects of each of the demographic and downsizing factors on survivor quality, so that management in downsized organisations may be more effective in deciding the criteria, processes and procedures, they use to downsize. In particular, the results offer leads for differential and careful treatment of employees of different age, education and experience when downsizing, so that the negative effects of attitudes, commitment and motivation may be minimized.

Differential treatment during and after downsizing might lead to the strengthening of commitment towards the new organisational order. However, it might also lead to strengthening negative perceptions of deepening discrimination among the survivors. The managerial challenge, then, is to navigate carefully through the downsizing process and maintain a balance among those who leave (victims) and those who remain (survivors). In other words, the elements of downsizing need to be managed with sensitivity to ensure positive psychological outcomes for the survivors and positive economic outcomes for the organisation. Unfortunately, today many managers lack the people management skills necessary to ensure that
downsizing is handled sensitively and justly. Fortunately, industrial psychologists and human resources management professionals can provide the necessary support and advice that management need in order to gain an understanding of the strategic and demographic factors involved in downsizing in an unstable economic environment. Such support can benefit the departing and the remaining employees as well as the organisation.

8.5 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The findings of this study make an initial, yet important contribution to our knowledge of the influence of downsizing strategy factors – communication and victim support, as well as demographic factors – age, education and years of experience in an organisation on survivor quality after downsizing in an economically volatile environment. In addition, information about the unique contribution of these variables on survivors found among downsized organisations in an unstable economic environment enriches our understanding of the need to draw separate profiles of factors that influence survivor quality after downsizing in different contexts. Clearly, this study needs to be repeated with much larger and more representative samples in a similar context. It is also important that researchers turn their attention not only to investigating the demographic and downsizing factors that influence survivor quality after downsizing in an unstable environment but also to identifying those other variables within that specific context that might also contribute to survivor quality.
REFERENCE LIST


Brockner, J., Tyler, T. R. & Cooper-Schneider,R. (1992). The influence of commitment prior to an institution on reaction t perceived unfairness: The higher they are, the harder they fall. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 37(2), 241-261.


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Retrieved 2009/08/18


**Websites**


http://www.peerpapers.com/essays/Need/186814.html; Retrieved 2009.04/26
10 August 2008

To whom it may concern

This letter serves to confirm that Crispen Chipunza (Student No: S20708118) is a Doctoral student finalising his studies at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU) in South Africa. He is conducting research on employees’ attitudes, commitment and motivation in the context of downsizing through workforce reduction.

The aim of the study is to establish the factors that influence the attitudes, commitment and motivation of survivors in selected manufacturing organisations that have downsized in the past year or two in Zimbabwe.

It will be greatly appreciated if you could help him to collect his data from your company. The results might benefit your company in terms of future planning for downsizing.

Please do not hesitate to contact me on David.Berry@nmmu.ac.za, if you need any further clarification.

I thank you in advance.

Yours Sincerely

___________________

Professor D. M Berry

(Promoter)
August 2008

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

I am a student finalising my Doctoral studies in Human Resources Management at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University in Port Elizabeth, South Africa.

The focus of my study is on the experiences of employees who remain in an organisation (survivors) after downsizing through workforce reduction strategy. The reduction might have taken place in the past 1 - 2 years ago.

The specific aims of the study are:

1. To establish the factors that influences the attitudes, commitment and motivation of survivors; and

2. Develop an empirically tested model for downsizing through workforce reduction that can be used by organisations operating in economically volatile environments.

I was wondering if your organisation could allow me to collect some of the data I need for my research. I am more than willing to share my findings with you.

Benefits of the study

In the context of downsizing through workforce reduction, organisational survival largely depends on those who remain. Their psychological state is of paramount importance, especially their commitment, attitudes towards the new work environment and motivation to perform. The results of the study might shed some more light for your organisation in terms of future downsizing exercise, as well as others who might find themselves in similar circumstances and who might need to take into consideration the issue of survivor quality.

I have attached an introductory letter from my Promoter for your attention, as well as the questionnaire that I will use to collect the data so that you have a look at the information that I am looking for.

Thank you very much in advance and waiting to hearing from you.

Yours Sincerely

C. Chipunza
APPENDIX 2

COVERING LETTER

I am a student finalising my doctoral studies at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU). I am conducting research on the experiences of employees after downsizing, particularly in terms survivors’ attitudes, commitment and motivation. It will be greatly appreciated if you could assist by completing the attached questionnaire.

The aim my study is to establish what influences the attitudes, commitment and motivation of survivors in selected manufacturing organisations that have downsized within Zimbabwe in the last two years.

There are two sections to be completed. Firstly, the biographical section and secondly, the section on employees’ experiences, which is divided into small other parts.

It should take approximately 15 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Please note that there are no right or wrong answers.

Please be assured that all responses will remain confidential; all the respondents will remain anonymous and only grouped data will be presented.

Thank you for your willingness to complete this questionnaire.

Regards

……………………………………
Crispen Chipunza
BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Please complete the following details for the purposes of the research by marking the box (with an X) that is appropriate for you.

1. Your present position in the organisation

2. Highest level of education
   Grade 8-11  Grade 12  Diploma  Degree  Honours/Masters

3. Age
   20-25yrs  26-30yrs  31-39yrs  40yrs +

4. Race
   Black  White  Coloured  Indian

5. Gender
   Male  Female

6. First Language
   English  Shona  Ndebele  Kalanga  Venda

   If other, please specify, ......................

7. Number of years with the organisation
   0-3yrs  4-7yrs  8-10yrs  11yrs +

8. Has your organisation retrenched/downsized staff and you remained?
   Yes  No
Section B
Using the scale listed below, please indicate the amount of information given to all employees in relation to the downsizing that took place (Please circle the number of your answer)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>None at all</th>
<th>A small amount</th>
<th>To moderate amount</th>
<th>A great amount</th>
<th>Completely informed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. How much information was given to all employees of the organisation’s need to downsize?

1 2 3 4 5

10. How much information was given to all employees of how the downsizing process was to be conducted?

1 2 3 4 5

11. How much information was given to all employees of the company’s explanation for deciding who was to stay and who was to go?

1 2 3 4 5

Section C
Using the scale below, please indicate how much each of the following practices was used during the time your organisation downsized (Please circle the number of your answer)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>None at all</th>
<th>Just a little</th>
<th>A moderate amount</th>
<th>Quite a lot</th>
<th>A great deal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

12. How much time was used to plan the downsizing?

1 2 3 4 5

13. How much were employees involved in the design of the organisation’s downsizing process?

1 2 3 4 5

14. How much did management support employees before the downsizing intervention?

1 2 3 4 5

15. How much did management support employees after the downsizing intervention?
16. How much information was used to decide which employees should go as a result of organisational downsizing?

12345

17. How much trust was there between managers and other employees during the downsizing process?

12345

18. How much respect was there shown to those employees made redundant as a result of organisational downsizing?

12345

19. How much concern was there shown to the interests of the wider community during the planning of the downsizing process?

12345

---

**Section D**

Using the scale below, please indicate the number of employees who received support in each of the following measures *(Please circle the number of your answer)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>None</th>
<th>A small number</th>
<th>A moderate number</th>
<th>Large number</th>
<th>All those who lost their jobs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

20. One to one counselling services?

12345

21. Worker skills assessment?

12345

22. Training in job search skills?

12345

23. Use of job referral services?

12345

24. Provision of job search support services? (e.g. phones, secretarial support)

12345
25. Redundancy payment?

1 2 3 4 5

26. Further training opportunities?

1 2 3 4 5

---

Section E
In this section, use the scale below to indicate the number of remaining employees who received support in each of the indicated measures (Please circle the number of your answer)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>None</th>
<th>A small number</th>
<th>A moderate number</th>
<th>Large number</th>
<th>All those who lost their jobs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

27. Invited to attend social events to mark the end of the downsizing event?

1 2 3 4 5

28. Encouraged to give feedback on how they were finding the changes?

1 2 3 4 5

29. Offered additional training opportunities?

1 2 3 4 5

30. Increased access to company information?

1 2 3 4 5

---

Section F
Using the scale below, which of the following characteristics about your job is likely to be negatively affected in future? (Please circle the number of your answer)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Negative change unlikely</th>
<th>Negative change unlikely</th>
<th>Negative change neither likely or unlikely</th>
<th>Negative change likely</th>
<th>Negative change very likely</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

31. Geographic location.

1 2 3 4 5
32. The status that comes with your position in the organisation.
1 2 3 4 5

33. The freedom to schedule your own work.
1 2 3 4 5

34. The freedom to perform your work in the manner you see fit.
1 2 3 4 5

35. Access to resources (e.g., people, material, information) in the organisation.
1 2 3 4 5

36. The physical demands your job places on you.
1 2 3 4 5

37. A job where you do a variety of tasks.
1 2 3 4 5

38. A job where you do an entire piece of work from start to finish.
1 2 3 4 5

39. A job in which you can tell how well you are doing as you do it.
1 2 3 4 5

40. The importance of your job.
1 2 3 4 5

Section G
Again thinking about the future, how likely is it that each of these events might actually occur to you in your current job? (Please circle the number of your answer)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Very unlikely</th>
<th>Unlikely</th>
<th>Neither likely nor unlikely</th>
<th>Likely</th>
<th>Very likely</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

40. You may lose your job and be moved to a lower position within the organisation.
1 2 3 4 5
41. You may lose your job and be moved to another job at the same level within the organisation.

1 2 3 4 5

42. The number of hours the company can offer you to work may change from day to day.

1 2 3 4 5

43. You may be laid off for a short while.

1 2 3 4 5

44. You may be laid off permanently.

1 2 3 4 5

45. You may be moved to a different job at a higher position in your current location.

1 2 3 4 5

46. You may be moved to a different job at a higher position in another geographic location.

1 2 3 4 5

47. Your department or division’s future may be uncertain.

1 2 3 4 5

48. You may be fired.

1 2 3 4 5

49. You might be forced to accept early retirement.

1 2 3 4 5

Section H
Indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements (Please circle the number of your answer)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Don’t know</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

50. I have enough power in this organisation to control events that might affect my job.

1 2 3 4 5
51. In this organisation, I can prevent negative things from affecting my work situation.

1 2 3 4 5

52. I understand this organisation well enough to be able to control things that affect me.

1 2 3 4 5

Section I
Using the scale below, please indicate whether each statement is an **accurate description** of your present or most recent job *(Please circle the number of your answer)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mostly non-descriptive</th>
<th>Non-descriptive</th>
<th>Somewhat descriptive</th>
<th>Mostly descriptive</th>
<th>Very descriptive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

53. I am interested in and feel good about my job.

1 2 3 4 5

54. I have the chance to try my own methods of doing the job.

1 2 3 4 5

55. I have a certain degree of authority in my work.

1 2 3 4 5

56. I have the chance to take part when decisions are made.

1 2 3 4 5

57. I have the chance to use all my talents and skills in my job.

1 2 3 4 5

58. My salary is satisfactory in relation to what I do.

1 2 3 4 5

59. I earn the same or more than other people in a similar job.

1 2 3 4 5
60. The way pay issues are handled in this company makes one to work very hard.

1 2 3 4 5

61. I sometimes feel it is better to work under a different supervisor.

1 2 3 4 5

62. My supervisor supports me if there are problems.

1 2 3 4 5

63. My supervisor is trustworthy.

1 2 3 4 5

64. I am working under a warm-hearted supervisor.

1 2 3 4 5

65. I can be promoted within the next two years in my present job.

1 2 3 4 5

66. Everyone has an equal chance of being promoted in this organisation.

1 2 3 4 5

67. Staff is promoted in a fair and honest way.

1 2 3 4 5

68 I am praised regularly for my work.

1 2 3 4 5

69. I get credit for what I do.

1 2 3 4 5

70. I am told that I am making progress.

1 2 3 4 5

71 My working hours are reasonable.

1 2 3 4 5
72. I am never overworked.
1 2 3 4 5

73. My benefits are good.
1 2 3 4 5

74. I never have problems with arrangements for leave.
1 2 3 4 5

Section J
Using the scale below, please indicate your degree of agreement with each of the statements (Please circle the number of your answer)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Don’t know</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

75 I will stay overtime to finish a job, even if I am not paid for it.
1 2 3 4 5

76. The major satisfaction in my life comes from my job.
1 2 3 4 5

77. The most important things that happen to me involve my work.
1 2 3 4 5

78. Sometimes I lie awake at night thinking ahead to the next day.
1 2 3 4 5

79. I would probably keep working even if I didn’t need the money.
1 2 3 4 5

80. I have other activities more important than my work.
1 2 3 4 5
81. I live, eat and breathe my job.
1 2 3 4 5

82. To me, my work is only a small part of who I am.
1 2 3 4 5

83. I am very much involved personally in my work.
1 2 3 4 5

84. Most things in life are more important than work.
1 2 3 4 5

85. I used to care more about my work, but now other things are more important to me.
1 2 3 4 5

---

**Section K**

Choose the most answer that describes your thoughts *(Please circle the number of your answer)*

86. I will probably look for a new job in the next year.
1. [ ] Not likely 2. [ ] Less likely 3. [ ] More likely 4. [ ] Most likely 5. [ ] Extremely likely

87. I will probably leave this organisation in the next one – two years
1. [ ] Not likely 2. [ ] Less likely 3. [ ] More likely 4. [ ] Most likely 5. [ ] Extremely likely

88. I often think about quitting my job
1. [ ] Not at all 2. [ ] Less often 3. [ ] Sometimes 4. [ ] More often 5. [ ] Most often

---

**Section L**

Using the scale below, please indicate your degree of agreement with each of the statements below *(Circle the number of your answer)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Don’t know</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

89. It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now even if I want to.
1 2 3 4 5
90. It would cost me a lot if I leave my organisation now.
1 2 3 4 5

92. Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
1 2 3 4 5

93. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation.
1 2 3 4 5

94. Jumping from organisation to organisation does not seem at all unethical to me.
1 2 3 4 5

95. If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel it was right to leave my organisation.
1 2 3 4 5

96. I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organisation.
1 2 3 4 5

97. I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation.
1 2 3 4 5

98. I am proud to tell others that I work for this organisation.
1 2 3 4 5

99. I feel emotionally attached my organisation.
1 2 3 4 5

100. I would be happy to work for this organisation until I retire.
1 2 3 4 5

101. My organisation deserves my loyalty.
1 2 3 4 5
102. I feel like part of a family at this organisation.

1  2  3  4  5

**Section M**

Using the scale below, please indicate whether each statement is an **accurate or inadequate description** of your present job (*Please circle the number of your answer)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mostly non-descriptive</th>
<th>Non-descriptive</th>
<th>Somewhat descriptive</th>
<th>Mostly descriptive</th>
<th>Very descriptive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

103. I have almost complete responsibility for deciding how and when the work is to be done.

1  2  3  4  5

104. I have chance to do a number of different tasks, using a wide variety of different skills and talents.

1  2  3  4  5

105. I do a complete task from start to finish. The results of my efforts are clearly visible and identifiable.

1  2  3  4  5

106. What I do affects the well-being of other people in very important ways.

1  2  3  4  5

107. My manager provides me with constant feedback about how I am doing.

1  2  3  4  5

108. The work itself provides me with information about how well I am doing.

1  2  3  4  5

109. I get to use a number of skills on this job.

1  2  3  4  5

110. My job gives me considerable freedom in doing the work.

1  2  3  4  5
111. Many people are affected by the job I do.

1 2 3 4 5

112. My job provides me with the chance to finish completely any work I start.

1 2 3 4 5

Thank you for participating.
## APPENDIX 3

### CORRELATION ANALYSIS

**Spearman Correlation Coefficients - (N = 150)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SURVSAT</th>
<th>IMPACT</th>
<th>SEC</th>
<th>CONF</th>
<th>ATTSAT</th>
<th>ATTINV</th>
<th>COMCON</th>
<th>COMNOM</th>
<th>COMAFF</th>
<th>MOTIVTN</th>
<th>DWNSZSTR</th>
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<tbody>
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**Key:**
- **SURVSAT** – Survivor attitude
- **IMPACT** – Impact of downsizing
- **SEC** – Job security of survivors
- **CONF** – Confidence of survivors
- **ATTSAT** – Attitude-satisfaction dimension
- **ATRTINV** – Attitude-involvement dimension
- **COMCON** – Continuance commitment
- **COMNOM** – Normative commitment
- **COMAFF** – Affective commitment
- **MOTIVTN** – Motivation
- **DWNSZSTR** – Downsizing strategy
### Spearman Correlation Coefficients, N = 150

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### CORRELATION ANALYSIS

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APPENDIX 4

MULTIVARIATE MULTIPLE LINEAR REGRESSION RESULTS

ATTITUDE-COMMITMENT-MOTIVATION

REGRESSION ON ALL PREDICTORS

Dependent Variable: ATTITUDE

No intercept in model. R-Square is redefined.

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<tr>
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Root MSE 0.56184  R-Square 0.9662  
Dependent Mean 2.90283  Adj R-Sq 0.9632 
Coeff Var 19.35487

| Variable                | DF | Parameter Estimate | Standard Error | t Value | Pr > |t| |
|-------------------------|----|--------------------|----------------|---------|-------|
| Communication           | 1  | 0.08116            | 0.07982        | 1.02    | 0.3124|
| Organisation            | 1  | 0.14228            | 0.12662        | 1.12    | 0.2645|
| Survivor Support        | 1  | 0.11677            | 0.09669        | 1.21    | 0.2308|
| Reorganisation          | 1  | 0.02985            | 0.11123        | 0.27    | 0.7891|
| Education               | 1  | 0.26696            | 0.04648        | 5.74    | <.0001|
| Age                     | 1  | 0.35121            | 0.09106        | 3.86    | 0.0002|
| Experience              | 1  | 0.07196            | 0.07646        | 0.94    | 0.3495|
**Dependent Variable: COMMITMENT**

No intercept in model. R-Square is redefined.

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| Root MSE | 0.74850 | R-Square | 0.9560  |
| Dependent Mean | 3.34496 | Adj R-Sq | 0.9520  |
| Coeff Var  | 22.37681 |          |         |

| Variable            | DF | Parameter Estimate | Standard Error | t Value | Pr > |t| |
|---------------------|----|--------------------|----------------|---------|------|-----|
| Communication       | 1  | 0.13907            | 0.10634        | 1.31    | 0.1947|
| Organisation        | 1  | 0.13951            | 0.16868        | 0.83    | 0.4107|
| Survivor support    | 1  | 0.19807            | 0.12881        | 1.54    | 0.1281|
| Reorganisation      | 1  | 0.06663            | 0.14819        | 0.45    | 0.6542|
| Education           | 1  | 0.20678            | 0.06192        | 3.34    | 0.0013|
| Age                 | 1  | 0.36268            | 0.12131        | 2.99    | 0.0037|
| Experience          | 1  | 0.11176            | 0.10187        | 1.10    | 0.2759|
**Dependent Variable: MOTIVATION**

No intercept in model. R-Square is redefined.

### Analysis of Variance

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- Root MSE: 0.83356
- R-Square: 0.9499
- Dependent Mean: 3.47558
- Adj R-Sq: 0.9455
- Coeff Var: 23.98343

### Parameter Estimates

| Variable          | DF | Parameter Estimate | Standard Error | t Value | Pr > |t| |
|-------------------|----|--------------------|----------------|---------|-------|---|
| Communication     | 1  | 0.20982            | 0.11843        | 1.77    | 0.0803|
| Organisation      | 1  | 0.04583            | 0.18785        | 0.24    | 0.8079|
| Survivor support  | 1  | 0.43946            | 0.14345        | 3.06    | 0.0030|
| Reorganisation    | 1  | -0.08449           | 0.16503        | -0.51   | 0.6101|
| Education         | 1  | 0.31602            | 0.06896        | 4.58    | <.0001|
| Age               | 1  | 0.16433            | 0.13510        | 1.22    | 0.2275|
| Experience        | 1  | 0.19120            | 0.11344        | 1.69    | 0.0959|
REGRESSION ON DOWNSIZING STRATEGY

Dependent Variable: SURVIVOR ATTITUDE
No intercept in model. R-Square is redefined.

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|                       |     | Root MSE       | R-Square    |          |
|-----------------------|-----|----------------|-------------|
| Root MSE              | 0.85224 | R-Square     | 0.9192     |
| Dependent Mean        | 2.90155 | Adj R-Sq     | 0.9153     |
| Coeff Var             | 29.37202 |              |            |

| Variable             | DF | Parameter Estimate | Standard Error | t Value | Pr > |t| |
|----------------------|----|--------------------|----------------|---------|------|
| Communication        | 1  | 0.33591            | 0.11345        | 2.96    | 0.0040|
| Organisation         | 1  | 0.28875            | 0.18944        | 1.52    | 0.1312|
| Survivor support     | 1  | 0.28426            | 0.14232        | 2.00    | 0.0490|
| Reorganisation       | 1  | 0.16926            | 0.16401        | 1.03    | 0.3050|
## Dependent Variable: COMMITMENT

No intercept in model. R-Square is redefined.

### Analysis of Variance

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| Root MSE | 0.98195 | R-Square | 0.9214 |
| Dependent Mean | 3.35038 | Adj R-Sq | 0.9177 |
| Coeff Var | 29.30876 |          |        |

### Parameter Estimates

| Variable        | DF | Parameter Estimate | Standard Error | t Value | Pr > |t| |
|-----------------|----|--------------------|----------------|---------|------|---|
| Communication   | 1  | 0.40171            | 0.13072        | 3.07    | 0.0029 |
| Organisation    | 1  | 0.27290            | 0.21827        | 1.25    | 0.2147 |
| Survivor support| 1  | 0.39387            | 0.16398        | 2.40    | 0.0185 |
| Reorganisation  | 1  | 0.19536            | 0.18897        | 1.03    | 0.3042 |
**Dependent Variable: MOTIVATION**

No intercept in model. R-Square is redefined.

### Analysis of Variance

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| Root MSE       | 1.02881 | R-Square | 0.9204 |
| Dependent Mean | 3.46932 | Adj R-Sq | 0.9166 |
| Coeff Var      | 29.65446 |         |        |

### Parameter Estimates

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REGRESSION ON BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES

Dependent Variable: SURVIVOR ATTITUDE

No intercept in model. R-Square is redefined.

### Analysis of Variance

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<tr>
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<td>94</td>
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- Root MSE: 0.61731
- R-Square: 0.9569
- Dependent Mean: 2.89683
- Adj R-Sq: 0.9554
- Coeff Var: 21.30975

### Parameter Estimates

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
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<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>t Value</th>
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</table>
Dependent Variable: COMMITMENT

No intercept in model. R-Square is redefined.

<table>
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- Root MSE: 0.82885
- R-Square: 0.9427
- Dependent Mean: 3.33717
- Adj R-Sq: 0.9408
- Coeff Var: 24.83696

| Variable    | DF | Parameter Estimate | Standard Error | t Value | Pr > |t| |
|-------------|----|--------------------|----------------|---------|-------|
| Education   | 1  | 0.32174            | 0.06270        | 5.13    | <.0001|
| Age         | 1  | 0.55438            | 0.12115        | 4.58    | <.0001|
| Experience  | 1  | 0.25429            | 0.10222        | 2.49    | 0.0147|
**Dependent Variable: MOTIVATION**

No intercept in model. R-Square is redefined.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
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<th>Mean Square</th>
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<th>Adj R-Sq</th>
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<td>0.95911</td>
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<th>Parameter Estimates</th>
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<tr>
<td>Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>Age</td>
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<tr>
<td>Experience</td>
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NORMATIVE AFFECTIVE CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT 
REGRESSION ON ALL PREDICTORS

Dependent Variable: CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT
No intercept in model. R-Square is redefined.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>DF</th>
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<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F Value</th>
<th>Pr &gt; F</th>
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<tbody>
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Root MSE 0.91368  R-Square 0.9341
Dependent Mean 3.34685  Adj R-Sq 0.9297
Coeff Var 27.29960

| Variable          | DF | Parameter Estimate | Standard Error | t Value | Pr > |t| |
|-------------------|----|--------------------|----------------|---------|------|---|
| Communication     | 1  | 0.16030            | 0.11094        | 1.44    | 0.1515 |
| Organisation      | 1  | 0.14063            | 0.16925        | 0.83    | 0.4079 |
| Survivor support  | 1  | 0.09268            | 0.14304        | 0.65    | 0.5185 |
| Reorganisation    | 1  | 0.15880            | 0.15344        | 1.03    | 0.3031 |
| Education         | 1  | 0.18815            | 0.07021        | 2.68    | 0.0086 |
| Age               | 1  | 0.34499            | 0.12167        | 2.84    | 0.0055 |
| Experience        | 1  | 0.13821            | 0.10681        | 1.29    | 0.1986 |
Dependent Variable: NORMATIVE COMMITMENT

No intercept in model. R-Square is redefined.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
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<tr>
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| Root MSE | 0.99686 | R-Square | 0.9136 |
| Dependent Mean | 3.13814 | Adj R-Sq | 0.9078 |
| Coeff Var | 31.76611 |         |        |

| Variable            | DF | Parameter Estimate | Standard Error | t Value | Pr > |t| |
|---------------------|----|--------------------|----------------|---------|------|  
| Communication       | 1  | 0.11583            | 0.12104        | 0.96    | 0.3408 |
| Organisation        | 1  | 0.10929            | 0.18466        | 0.59    | 0.5553 |
| Survivor support    | 1  | 0.06275            | 0.15606        | 0.40    | 0.6885 |
| Reorganisation      | 1  | 0.12636            | 0.16740        | 0.75    | 0.4521 |
| Education           | 1  | 0.14323            | 0.07660        | 1.87    | 0.0643 |
| Age                 | 1  | 0.28484            | 0.13275        | 2.15    | 0.0342 |
| Experience          | 1  | 0.27341            | 0.11654        | 2.35    | 0.0209 |
Dependent Variable: AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT
No intercept in model. R-Square is redefined.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
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<th>Mean Square</th>
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Root MSE 0.90672
R-Square 0.9407
Dependent Mean 3.48048
Adj R-Sq 0.9367
Coeff Var 26.05152

| Variable      | DF | Parameter Estimate | Standard Error | t Value | Pr > |t| |
|---------------|----|--------------------|----------------|---------|-------|
| Communication | 1  | 0.03543            | 0.11010        | 0.32    | 0.7482|
| Organisation  | 1  | 0.23415            | 0.16796        | 1.39    | 0.1663|
| Survivor support | 1 | 0.46753            | 0.14195        | 3.29    | 0.0014|
| Reorganisation | 1 | -0.12341           | 0.15227        | -0.81   | 0.4195|
| Education     | 1  | 0.14315            | 0.06967        | 2.05    | 0.0424|
| Age           | 1  | 0.39329            | 0.12074        | 3.26    | 0.0015|
| Experience    | 1  | 0.11644            | 0.10600        | 1.10    | 0.2745|
REGRESSION ON DOWNSIZING STRATEGY
Dependent Variable: CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT

No intercept in model. R-Square is redefined.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Source</th>
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<th>Mean Square</th>
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</table>

Root MSE: 1.11178  R-Square: 0.8993
Dependent Mean: 3.34430  Adj R-Sq: 0.8956
Coeff Var: 33.24418

| Variable           | DF | Parameter Estimate | Standard Error | t Value | Pr > |t| |
|--------------------|----|--------------------|----------------|---------|------|---|
| Communication      | 1  | 0.43622            | 0.12361        | 3.53    | 0.0006 |
| Organisation       | 1  | 0.26089            | 0.20117        | 1.30    | 0.1974 |
| Survivor support   | 1  | 0.25990            | 0.16897        | 1.54    | 0.1269 |
| Reorganisation     | 1  | 0.29607            | 0.18016        | 1.64    | 0.1032 |
Dependent Variable: NORMATIVE COMMITMENT

No intercept in model. R-Square is redefined.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
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<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F Value</th>
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<td>Coeff Var</td>
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| Variable              | DF  | Parameter Estimate | Standard Error | t Value | Pr > |t| |
|-----------------------|-----|--------------------|----------------|---------|------|
| Communication         | 1   | 0.43624            | 0.13403        | 3.25    | 0.0015|
| Organisation          | 1   | 0.18514            | 0.21813        | 0.85    | 0.3978|
| Survivor support      | 1   | 0.26432            | 0.18321        | 1.44    | 0.1520|
| Reorganisation        | 1   | 0.28828            | 0.19534        | 1.48    | 0.1429|
Dependent Variable: AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT

No intercept in model. R-Square is redefined.

### Analysis of Variance

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<tr>
<th>Source</th>
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</table>

Root MSE 1.12408  R-Square 0.9072
Dependent Mean 3.50292  Adj R-Sq 0.9039
Coeff Var 32.08969

### Parameter Estimates

| Variable            | DF | Parameter Estimate | Standard Error | t Value | Pr > |t| |
|---------------------|----|--------------------|----------------|---------|------|---|
| Communication       | 1  | 0.31042            | 0.12497        | 2.48    | 0.0145 |
| Organisation        | 1  | 0.35440            | 0.20339        | 1.74    | 0.0842 |
| Survivor support    | 1  | 0.65256            | 0.17084        | 3.82    | 0.0002 |
| Reorganisation      | 1  | -0.00373           | 0.18215        | -0.02   | 0.9837 |
**REGRESSION ON BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES**

**Dependent Variable: CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT**

No intercept in model. R-Square is redefined.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Source</th>
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<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F Value</th>
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</table>

Root MSE | 0.99002  
R-Square | 0.9190  
Dependent Mean | 3.33943  
Adj R-Sq | 0.9169  
Coeff Var | 29.64625

| Variable | DF | Parameter Estimate | Standard Error | t Value | Pr > |t| |
|----------|----|--------------------|----------------|---------|-------|
| Education| 1  | 0.35853            | 0.06568        | 5.46    | <.0001 |
| Age      | 1  | 0.45267            | 0.11951        | 3.79    | 0.0002 |
| Experience| 1  | 0.33327            | 0.10019        | 3.33    | 0.0012 |
Dependent Variable: NORMATIVE COMMITMENT

No intercept in model. R-Square is redefined.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
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<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F Value</th>
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| Root MSE          | 0.99777 | R-Square | 0.9079 |
| Dependent Mean    | 3.10569 | Adj R-Sq | 0.9056 |
| Coeff Var         | 32.12724 |         |        |

| Variable        | DF | Parameter Estimate | Standard Error | t Value | Pr > |t| |
|-----------------|----|-------------------|----------------|---------|------|
| Education       | 1  | 0.26741           | 0.06620        | 4.04    | <.0001|
| Age             | 1  | 0.39433           | 0.12044        | 3.27    | 0.0014|
| Experience      | 1  | 0.38761           | 0.10097        | 3.84    | 0.0002|
Dependent Variable: AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT

No intercept in model. R-Square is redefined.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Mean Square</th>
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| Root MSE | 1.05749 | R-Square | 0.9155 |
| Dependent Mean | 3.47154 | Adj R-Sq | 0.9134 |
| Coeff Var | 30.46157 |        |        |

| Variable  | DF | Parameter Estimate | Standard Error | t Value | Pr > |t| |
|-----------|----|--------------------|----------------|---------|------|----|
| Education | 1  | 0.34877            | 0.07016        | 4.97    | <.0001 |
| Age       | 1  | 0.48811            | 0.12765        | 3.82    | 0.0002 |
| Experience| 1  | 0.34932            | 0.10702        | 3.26    | 0.0014 |