

**The role of effective change management and psychological capital on
organisational behaviour during organisational restructuring: a cross-
sectoral study**

by

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Abstract

The study set out to assess the impact of organisational restructuring (OR), the independent variable on organisational behaviour (OB), the dependent variable, in private and public sector organisations as well as state-owned enterprises (SOEs) in South Africa. OB, for the purposes of this study, consists of turnover intention, resistance to change, commitment to change and job security. It further aimed to evaluate whether the various types and magnitude of OR impact on employees in the different sectors. OR was delineated into three factors, that being Restructuring (Type), Restructuring (Leadership) and Restructuring (Frequency), before being further regressed into sub-factors, that being Restructuring (Type_Count), Restructuring (Leadership_Count) and Restructuring (Frequency_Count), for the purposes of using it as categorical variables and indexing it.

The study assessed whether effective change management (ECM) mediated the relationship between OR and OB, across sectors. ECM is underpinned by effective change management processes, leader-member exchange (LMX) and perceived organisational support (POS). Finally, it aimed to assess whether employees' psychological capital (PC), comprised of self-efficacy, hope, optimism and resilience, moderated the relationship between ECM and OB. The study found that OR does, indeed, impact on the OB of employees in different sectors. It has also confirmed the mediating role of ECM and that PC moderated the relationship between ECM and OB.

The study found that the unidimensional construct, effective change management, coupled with PC, another unidimensional construct, has indeed been able to attenuate the impact of OR on OB. In the case of this study, it was primarily the employees of large organisations, such as SOEs, which are affected, while employees of private and public organisations were also affected. Recommendations to organisational leaders and practitioners are provided, with the aim of assisting with the successful implementation of

organisational change and restructuring initiatives, while at the same time reducing the impact thereof on the organisational behaviour of employees.

Keywords: Organisational restructuring, organisational behaviour, turnover intention, resistance to change, commitment to change, job (in)security, effective change management, leader-member exchange, perceived organisational support, psychological capital.

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Finally, I would like to thank my Supervisor, Prof Anton Grobler, for his insight, guidance and support.

Declaration

I, Gavin Gabriel Isaacs, hereby declare that *The role of Effective Change Management and Psychological Capital on Organisational Behaviour during Organisational Restructuring: A Cross-Sectoral Study* is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

I further declare that I have not previously submitted this work, or part of it, for examination at the University of South Africa (UNISA) for another qualification or at any other higher education institution.

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II. List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

Abbreviation / Acronym	Description
AGFI	Adjusted goodness-of fit index
ANOVA	Analysis of variance
AVE	Average variance extracted
CC	Commitment to change
CFA	Confirmatory factory analysis
CFI	Comparative fit index
CM	Change management
CM_INV	Employee Involvement during organisational restructuring
CM_LINE	Communication by line management during organisational restructuring
CM_MAN	Communication by management during organisational restructuring
CM_TR	Trust in Management during organisational restructuring
CMIN	Normed chi-squared test
CMV	Common method variance
DF	Degrees of freedom
ECM	Effective change management
EFA	Exploratory factor analysis
GFI	Goodness-of-fit test
JS	Job (in)security
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Test
LLCI	Lower limit confidence interval
LMX	Leader-member exchange
OB	Organisational behaviour
OR	Organisational restructuring
PC / PsyCap	Psychological capital
PCA	Principal components analysis

Abbreviation / Acronym	Description
PCQ-24	Psychological Capital Questionnaire
POS	Perceived organisational support
Prob.	Probability
PSYRES	Psychological Health and Well-Being in Restructuring
RC or RTC	Resistance to change
Restructuring_Frequency	Frequency of organisational change as experienced by change recipients
Restructuring_Frequency_Count	Number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations
Restructuring_Leadership	Change of leadership during or as a result of restructuring
Restructuring_Leadership_Count	Number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring
Restructuring_Type	Type of restructuring
Restructuring_Type_Count and	Number of different types of organisational restructuring
RMSEA	Root mean square error of approximation
SD	Standard deviation
SEM	Structural equation modelling
SOE or SOEs	State-owned enterprises
SPOS	Survey of perceived organisational support
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SRMR	Standardised root-mean-square index
TFI	Tucker-Lewis index
TI	Turnover intention
T-LMX	Transactional leader-member exchange
ULCI	Upper limit confidence interval
UNISA	University of South Africa

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Chapter 1

1. Introduction

Globalisation, boundaryless trade, business expansions, mergers and acquisitions (M & A), repositioning or diversification are not uncommon terms in organisations today, nor are the terms vertical integration buy-outs or take-overs. Business process re-engineering (BRP), business revitalisation or realignment projects have also become commonplace in organisations. These terms all refer to the processes which are closely associated with what has become commonly known as organisational change and/or organisational restructuring.

Organisational restructuring projects are exciting projects in the majority of organisations although such projects also often generate high levels of anxiety at all levels within the organisation. Organisational restructuring is usually a result of factors either external or internal to the organisation, which require both a change in operations and a shift in mind-set to take place. External factors usually include the introduction of new products or markets, or downsizing resulting from economic decline, whereas internal factors may include the realignment of operations in the interests of optimising resources, creating efficiencies and general cost saving. Be that as it may, organisational restructuring initiatives are inherently designed to bring about a change which is often negatively perceived as a disruption to an organisation's day-to-day operations, activities and processes and directly affecting its employees.

Employees, albeit individuals or groups of people, are the recipients of the change initiatives and organisational restructuring processes. When confronted with and exposed to organisational change or restructuring programmes people are set apart from one another by their ability to cope with and adapt to change. The ability to accept, deal with and adapt to organisational change is directly influenced by the type, magnitude and frequency of the change, as well as the

organisational support made available during such change. The perceived consequences of organisational restructuring processes, albeit positive or negative, further determine the capacity of the employees to accept and cope with the change. The literature reviewed in Chapter 2 of the study focuses on the personal resources of individuals and attempts to illustrate how these resources contribute to the ability to cope with change.

The purpose of this study was to assess the impact of organisational restructuring, as a delineation of organisational change, on the organisational behaviour of employees. The literature referred to will demonstrate that employees, for example, often experience physical and psychological setbacks as a result of the uncertainties and insecurities created by organisational restructuring programmes. In addition, relevant literature indicates that certain factors, such as effective change management and psychological capital, may be used to determine the impact of organisational restructuring processes on the organisational behaviour of employees. The roles of effective change management and psychological capital are included in the research objectives of this study.

This study considered the role played by effective change management as a unidimensional construct in mediating the relationship between organisational restructuring and the organisational behaviour of employees during change events. This study further aimed to determine whether an individual's psychological capital moderates the relationship between effective change management and organisational behaviour. The study further aimed to provide evidence of the use of a *mediated moderation* model, which will be discussed later in the study.

A review of the existing literature on the constructs used in the study was conducted. However, the main focus of this study was on the relationships between the constructs as experienced in public sector organisations, private sector organisations and state-owned enterprises (SOEs) in South Africa. The results obtained per sector were analysed and compared in order to determine

the impact of organisational restructuring as experienced by employees from the different sectors.

2. Background to the Research

Organisational change refers to the planned modifications to an organisation's organisational components in an attempt to revitalise and improve the organisation's effectiveness (Cawsey, Deszca & Ingols, 2016). Organisational restructuring, as a delineation of organisational change programmes, is the focus of this study. The study aimed to assess the different levels at which organisational restructuring impacts on the organisation, for example, the operational and/or departmental levels, and how the organisational restructuring affects the organisation's employees, especially across the various sectors. In addition, the study assessed the role of leadership during restructuring and how organisational restructuring may lead to or result in a change in the leadership of organisations, and the impact of such changes on employees.

Relevant literature provides a plethora of empirical findings related to the pervasive nature of change programmes in organisations. Organisational change programmes, processes or initiatives come in different forms, the most common of which is the restructuring of the organisation. The reasons for organisational change are as varied as the different ways in which organisations may effect change and include economic imperatives and global competition as the main reasons for change. Severe and often unexpected economic pressures may also be powerful triggers of change (Holbeche, 2006).

Bourne (2015) states that organisational change today is happening more rapidly than it did in the past and that it is not uncommon for a major organisation to be involved in the implementation of between twenty to twenty-five initiatives ongoing simultaneously. In a survey conducted in 2007, 82% of human resources professionals admitted that their organisations had designed or been engaged in major change initiatives in the preceding two years (Bourne, 2015). A study conducted in 2006, which involved 1400 participants, revealed

that 82% of the participants had reported that the rate of change in their respective organisations had increased during the preceding five years while 69% of the same sample indicated that their organisations had experienced major change in the previous year (Bourne, 2015).

As is clear from the above information, it has become imperative that organisations “be organised for constant change” (Gupta, 2003: 260). By adapting to the change, or by being able to adapt to the change, organisations avoid compromising their organisational performance (Holbeche, 2006). The decades prior to this study have seen the pace of organisational change increase substantially due to environmental factors such as consumer demand, globalisation, liberal trade and technological advancements (Mehta, 2016).

According to Probst (2003), restructuring processes are pervasive throughout most organisations and, thus, an understanding of their impact on employees has become increasingly important. Organisational change and, more specifically in terms of this study, organisational restructuring, have a profound effect on employees as it is the employees who are required to cope with the uncertainty, stress and increased work demands associated with such changes (Bordia, Restubog, Jimmieson & Irmer, 2011). The results of Probst’s (2003) study found that organisational restructuring has a profound impact on the organisational behaviour of employees as well as other negative outcomes, such as an increase in job insecurity and lowered organisational commitment. Employees are assets to the organisation and the most important component in the successful implementation of change programmes. It is, therefore, of paramount importance to understand the factors related to organisational change that affect employees (Bordia et al., 2011).

The information discussed thus far has alluded to the ubiquitous nature of change and, more specifically, organisational change. Existing literature also refers to the fact that organisational leaders and organisations are reconsidering the use of populist processes such as Lewin’s three-step model of ‘unfreeze, change, refreeze’ as studies have indicated that the “speed, magnitude and unpredictability of change” have increased significantly in the last few years

(Parry, Kirsch, Carey & Shaw, 2014: 100). Organisations which have at their disposal the required competencies and capabilities to manage change and obviate the obstacles hindering success and organisational performance, possess and are able to retain their competitive advantage (Parry et al., 2014). A need to investigate alternative ways to attenuate the effects therefore, had to be considered, which led to the introduction of positive organisational scholarship.

Positive organisational scholarship was first introduced in 2003 as a new field of study in the organisational sciences. The field encompasses a variety of approaches used in organisational studies, each of which incorporates the notion of 'the positive' (Cameron & Spreitzer, 2012: 2). Youssef and Luthans (2012: 17), Luthans, Avolio, Avey and Norman (2007a: 542) and Luthans, Norman, Avolio and Avey (2008: 220) define positive organisational behaviour as "the study and application of positively oriented human resources, strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement". According to Cameron and Spreitzer (2012), people naturally tend to seek out positive stimuli while, at the same time, making every effort to avoid negative stimuli. There is empirical evidence that suggest that both organisations and individuals respond in a similar way to positive influences (Cameron & Spreitzer, 2012).

Psychological capital utilises positive organisational behaviour as a point of departure, and then uses the associated research by expanding and applying such research (Luthans, Youssef-Morgan & Avolio, 2015). Sufficient evidence from across industries and global cultures exists, which proves that psychological capital may be "validly measured" and "is a higher order construct" (Luthans et al., 2015: x). This implies that, as a construct, psychological capital may be used to predict desired outcomes more effectively than each of its individual components (Luthans et al., 2015: x).

Research suggests that psychological capital is positively related to "desirable employee attitudes" (Avey, Reichard, Luthans and Mhatre, 2011: 132), such as

commitment to the organisation and psychological well-being, and “negatively related to undesirable employee attitudes” (Avey, Reichard, Luthans and Mhatre, 2011: 132), such as cynicism, stress and anxiety. The research of Wiezer et al. (2011) proved that employees with good personal resources, coping mechanisms and high levels of self-efficacy were able to better manage the organisational changes than those who had lower levels of the aforementioned.

Accordingly, this study aimed to assess whether the introduction of psychological capital into the relationship between effective change management (the mediator) and organisational behaviour (the dependent variable) moderates this relationship.

3. Research Problem

3.1 Problem Statement

Although there is existing research that assessed the impact of organisational restructuring on employees, these studies were conducted primarily on a small scale and used selected constructs only. Such studies are often conducted in selected organisations or, in rare cases, focus on a few of the same organisations or industries in a given geographical location. The studies reviewed had not assessed the impact of organisational restructuring across different sectors, as was the case with this study. The majority of the research consisted of studies that were conducted abroad, for example, in the United States of America, Europe and Scandinavia. However, this research study created the opportunity to assess the impact of organisational restructuring on employees in South African organisations, in the South African context and across South African sectors.

The fundamental purpose of this study was to address the impact of organisational restructuring on the organisational behaviour of employees in private and public organisations, and SOEs in South Africa. The research aimed to illuminate the advantages of understanding the impact of restructuring on

employees and the benefits of employing effective change management during organisational restructuring. It is also important that organisational leaders and managers are able to gauge their employees in terms of their saturation level in relation of excessive change programmes.

Given the above, it has become critical to identify the mechanisms which are able to attenuate the impact of organisational restructuring on organisational behaviour and also to understand how these are perceived and experienced in South African organisations and in the different organisational sectors in the country. It is in this context that the mediating role of effective change management may contribute significantly to the existing body of knowledge. The study further aimed to contribute to this body of knowledge by illustrating how an individual's psychological capital is able to moderate the relationship between effective change management and organisational behaviour, as well as how psychological capital may contribute to employees' ability to deal with organisational restructuring and organisational change. Finally, the research endeavoured to provide managers, organisational leaders and practitioners with the information required to be able to attenuate the negative factors associated with organisational restructuring.

The impact of organisational restructuring on the behavioural outcomes of individuals has been previously assessed by De Jong, Wiezer, De Weerd, Nielsen, Mattila-Holappa and Mockałło (2016), Widerszal-Bazyl and Mockałło (2015) and Wiezer et al. (2011) in research conducted in Poland, the Netherlands, Denmark and Finland. Their research found that various types of organisational restructuring and, more specifically, restructuring programmes that lead to staff reductions, have a profound impact on the behavioural outcomes of different individuals, including the well-being of individuals.

The research of Wiezer et al. (2011) found that organisational restructuring processes affect employees in various ways, including their physical and psychological well-being. The same researchers also found that the impact of organisational restructuring was experienced domestically and had even

extended beyond the borders of the primary countries in which the research originated. It has also been found that organisational restructuring has an impact on the attitudinal and behavioural outcomes of employees, and that it was also able to affect organisational performance (Wiezer et al., 2011). The fact that organisations are forced to adapt to globalisation and boundaryless trade has also resulted in the frequency of organisational restructuring increasing.

Based on the above, this sectoral study aimed to assess the impact of the types of organisational restructuring and its impact on the organisational behaviour of individuals in private organisations, public organisations and SOEs in South Africa. It is also important to understand if, and how the type and magnitude of organisational restructuring, the change and involvement of leadership during and as a result of organisational restructuring, as well as the frequency of organisational restructuring, have an impact on the organisational behaviour of employees.

The mediating and moderating roles of effective change management and psychological capital, respectively, were tested and assessed. It was envisaged that a comparison of the sectoral results would assist practitioners and organisational leaders in developing guidelines that will contribute to mitigating the effects of organisational restructuring on employees.

3.2 Research Questions

Research Question 1

Does organisational restructuring impact on the organisational behaviour of employees, and how does it affect employees across different sectors in South Africa?

Research Question 2

Do the type, magnitude and frequency of organisational restructuring and its outcomes impact on the organisational behaviour of employees and, if so, how do these compare between employees across different sectors in South Africa?

Research Question 3

Does effective change management mediate the relationship between organisational restructuring and the organisational behaviour of employees?

Research Question 4

Does an individual's psychological and personal resources (in the form of psychological capital) moderate the relationship between effective change management and organisational behaviour?

3.3 Research Objectives

The following research objectives were formulated for this study:

Research Objective 1

To assess whether organisational restructuring have an impact on the organisational behaviour of employees and to determine if the impact differs across the various sectors in South Africa.

Research Objective 2

To determine whether the type, magnitude and frequency of organisational restructuring have an impact on the organisational behaviour of employees, and to determine if the impact differs across the various sectors in South Africa.

Research Objective 3

To determine whether effective change management mediates the relationship between the organisational restructuring and organisational behaviour.

Research Objective 4

To determine whether an individual's psychological capital moderates the relationship between effective change management and organisational behaviour.

The following constructs were included in this study:

Independent Variable

Organisational Restructuring

Organisational restructuring includes the type and magnitude of the organisational restructuring, the change and involvement of leadership during and as a result of the organisational restructuring and the frequency of change programmes as experienced by the employees. Figure 1 is a graphic representation of the independent variable.

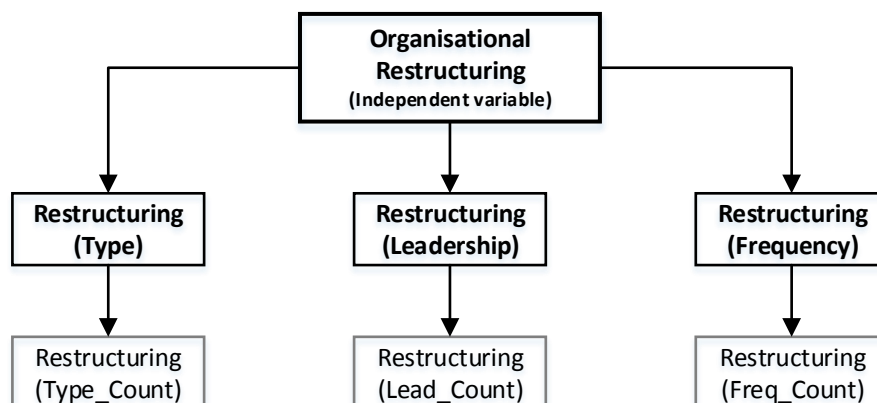


Figure 1: Independent variable

Dependent Variable

Organisational Behaviour

Organisational behaviour includes turnover intention (TI), resistance to change (RC), commitment to change (CC) and job (in)security (JS). Figure 2 is a graphic representation of the dependent variable.

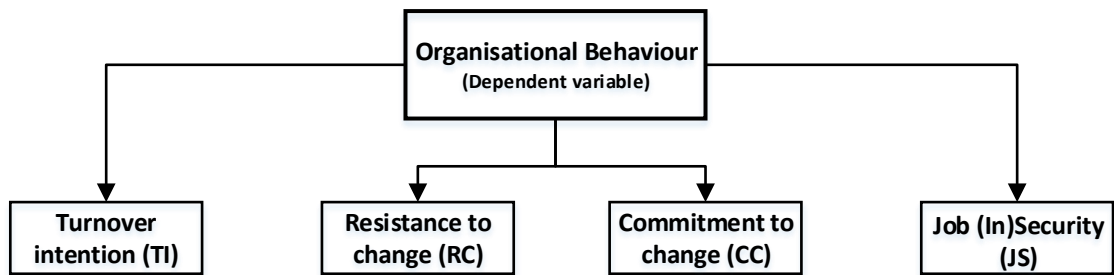


Figure 2: Dependent variable

Mediator

Effective Change Management

Effective change management includes effective change management processes, communication during the restructuring, employee and leadership involvement during organisational change programmes, trust in management and leadership (during organisational restructuring), and, specifically, leader-member exchange (LMX) and perceived organisational support (POS). Figure 3 is a graphic representation of the mediator.

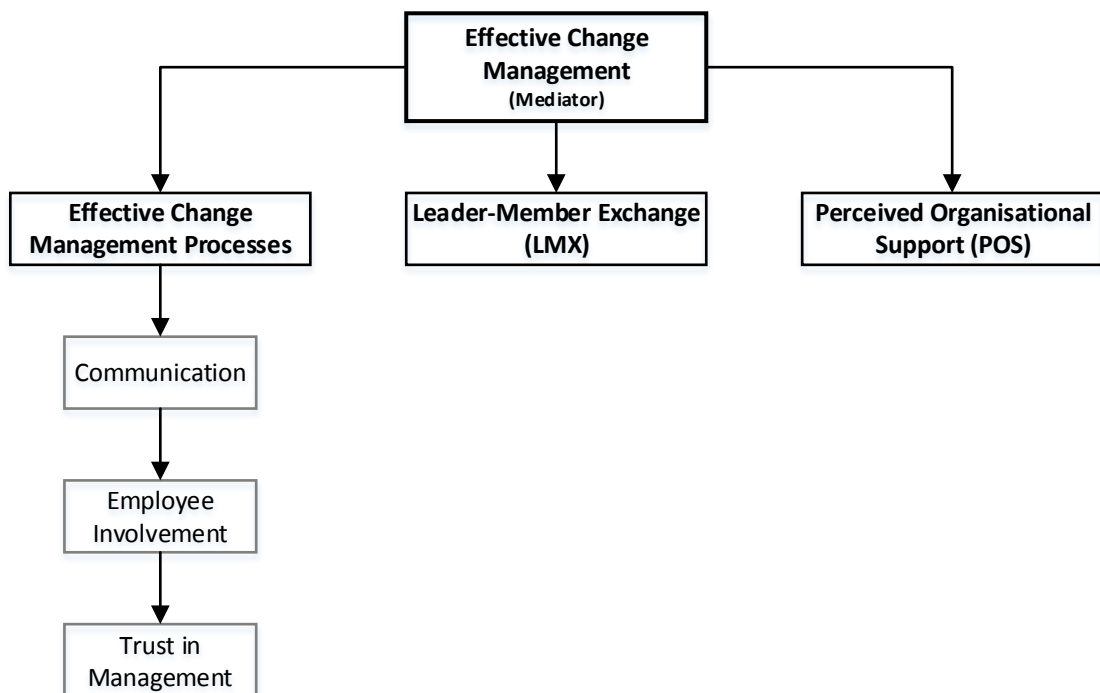


Figure 3: Mediator

Moderator

Psychological capital encompasses self-efficacy, hope, resilience and optimism. Figure 4 is a graphic representation of the moderator.

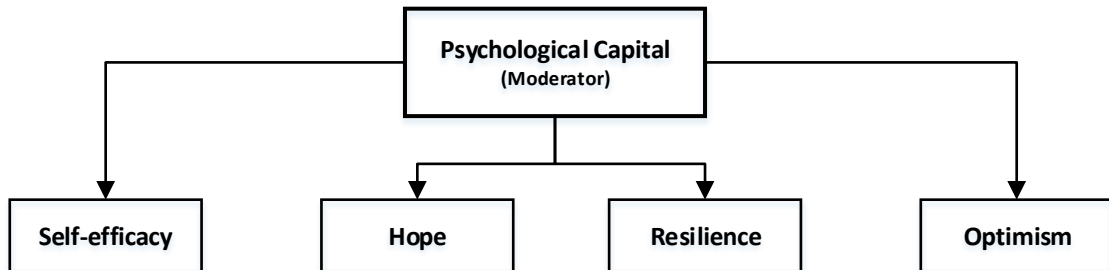


Figure 4: Moderator

The variables that were tested were based on the existing literature and previous research conducted in the areas in question. The constructs were measured using existing instruments adapted for the purposes of the study. The validity of the constructs was assessed as the instruments used originated primarily in the United States, Europe and Scandinavia and it was essential that the investigation conducted in this study applied an etic approach in the South African context. Instrument transportability (in terms of the etic position) should thus be validated by investigating the psychometric properties of the instrument when used on a South African sample due to the country's unique history, composition in terms of the rich diversity of languages and cultures (Grobler 2017).

4. Research Design and Research Model

The instrument used consisted of various existing instruments and formed part of a larger study conducted by the primary researcher. Secondary access to the primary data was applied for after all the internal UNISA processes had been completed and approved. An objectivist epistemological approach to the research was applied as previous research in this area has been conducted although not in the same context as this study. Data was collected from several organisations through random sampling of intact groups within these organisations. The data was collected from the instruments that were

administered at a specific point in time, thus indicating a cross-sectional design. For the purposes of the study, only quantitative data was collected and analysed.

The instrument consisted of 118 items and was distributed to 47 participating organisations in the private sector, public sector and SOEs, and thus intended to yield 2820 responses. The data was screened, analysed and assessed to determine the impact of organisational restructuring (independent variable) on the organisational behaviour of employees (dependent variable) and to assess whether effective change management (mediator) mediates the relationship between the independent and the dependent variables. The data was analysed to assess whether psychological capital moderates the relationship between the mediator and the dependent variable. In addition, the results were further analysed to draw comparisons between the above outcomes across the identified sectors in South Africa. The proposed research model is depicted in Figure 5.

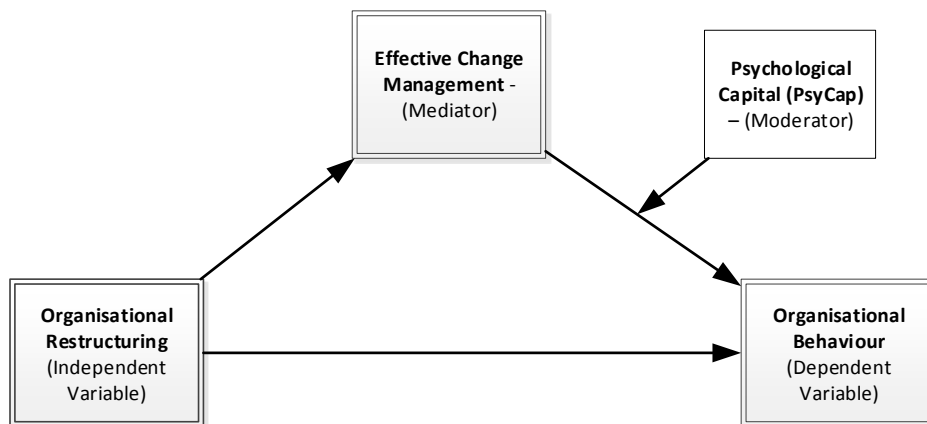


Figure 5: Research model

5. Significance of the Study

This study focused on the impact of organisational restructuring and its impact on the organisational behaviour of employees. Organisational restructuring and organisational change initiatives are becoming increasingly common in

organisations and it has thus become increasingly necessary to assess the impact of such initiatives on the organisational behaviour of employees. The prevalence of these initiatives and its subsequent impact on employees, provided the impetus for this study. The study was extended so as to assess the mediating role of effective change management in the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. In addition, the moderating role of psychological capital was evaluated. The study culminated in a comparison of the results across the various sectors in South Africa.

The significance of the study lies in the comparison of the sectoral results and how the consideration and implementation of effective change management and the optimisation of the psychological capital of individuals may be utilised by managers, organisational leaders and practitioners to attenuate the impact of organisational restructuring on employees.

6. Graphic representation of the delineation of the study

Figure 6 below, is a graphic representation of the delineation of this study and its individual chapters. It graphically portrays the outline of the research and areas to be covered during the course of this study.

The next chapter comprises the literature review, which consists of research findings of previous studies, and which relates to this study. The literature review will focus specifically on research conducted on organisational restructuring and its impact on organisational behaviour, as well as the role of effective change management and psychological capital, in attenuating the impact of organisational restructuring on employees.

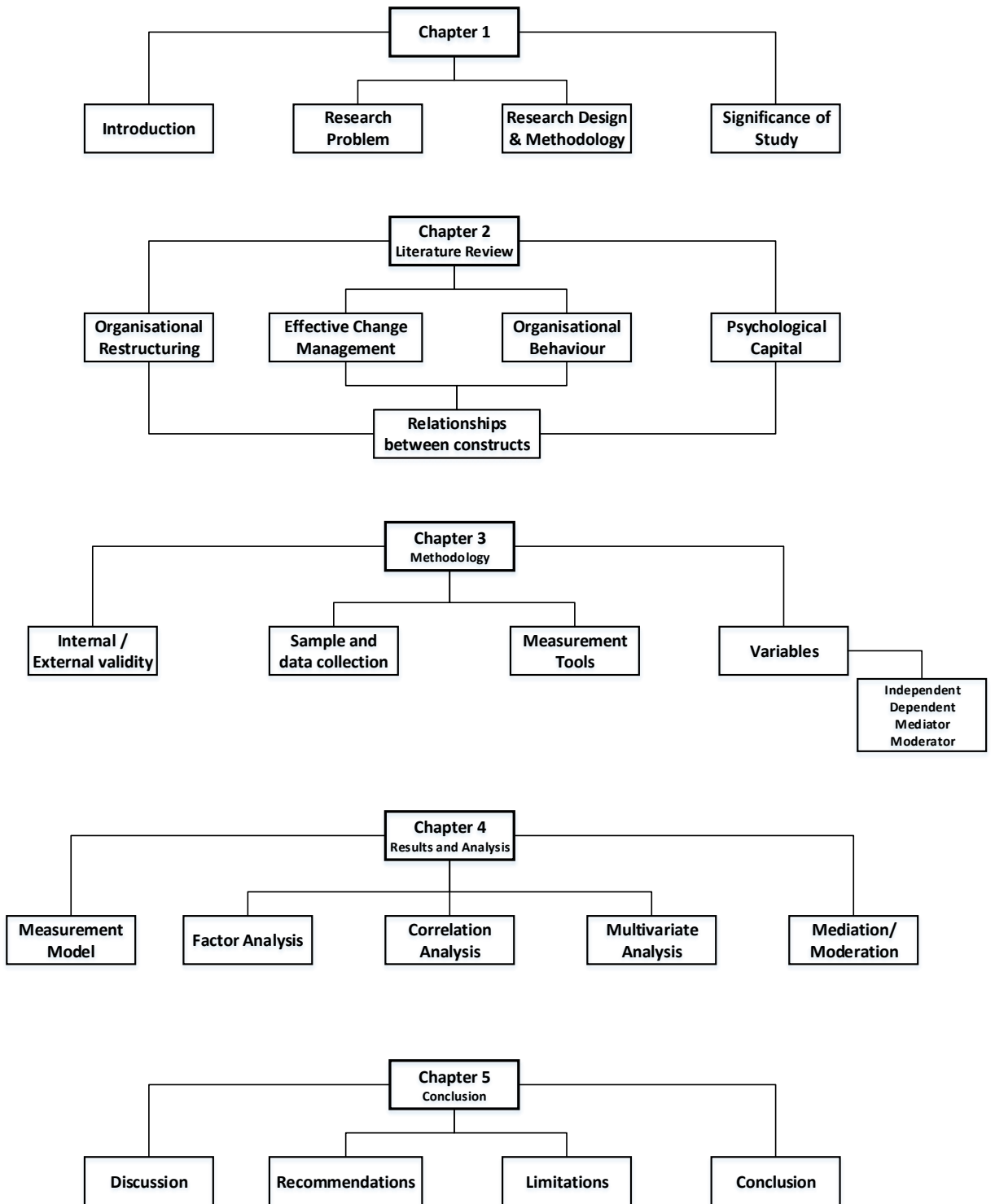


Figure 6: Graphic representation of the delineation of the study

Chapter 2: Literature Review

1. Organisational Restructuring

Organisational restructuring, for the purposes of this study, is operationally defined to include the type and magnitude of the organisational restructuring processes, the change of leaders and involvement of leadership during and as a result of organisational restructuring and the frequency of change experienced by employees as a result of organisational restructuring. Figure 7 depicts the delineation of the chapter and the constructs to be discussed.

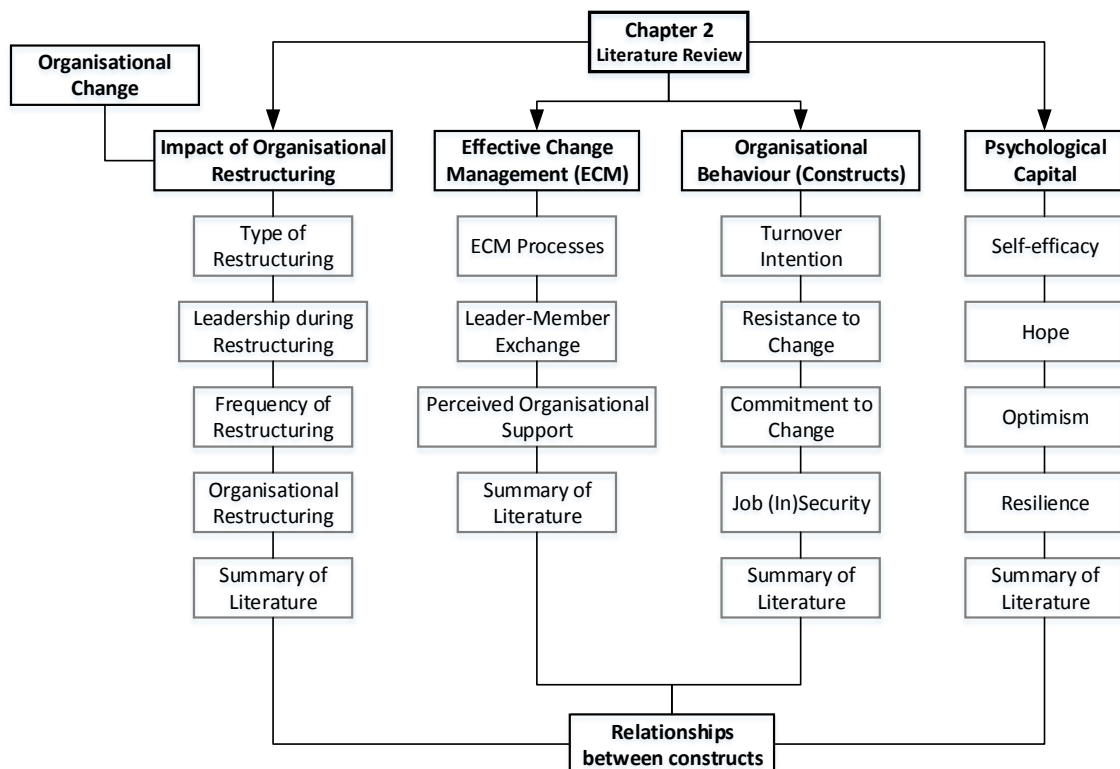


Figure 7: Graphic delineation of the chapter

Restructuring has been defined as “a change to an existing organisational structure” or as “the restoration of a structure” and is considered as “one of the key developments in the changing world of work” (Köper & Richter, 2014: 2, 8). Wiezer et al. (2011: 17) define the concept of organisational restructuring as “an

organizational change that is much more significant than commonplace change” and intimates that these changes have the potential to impact organisations.

Organisational restructuring implies a change or disruption to the work environment of employees. It has been shown that these changes have a significant impact on the perceived well-being of employees (Böckerman & Maliranta, 2013). Restructuring has generally been used as a tool to increase production and reduce costs, or else to reduce staffing (and increase productivity at the same time), thereby also reducing costs (Köper & Richter, 2014). Probst (2003) states that, although all types of restructuring processes are pervasive throughout most organisations, an understanding of their impact on employees has become increasingly important. It is rare that organisational restructuring programmes are as meticulously implemented as they are planned and unfortunately the impact of such programmes on employees is seldom taken into account (Köper & Richter, 2014). Restructuring may cause uncertainty in the workplace and this may result in employees distrusting the future intentions of the organisation, thus potentially impacting on job satisfaction and trust.

Organisational restructuring, in general, has been found to negatively affect trust in both managers and the organisation (Marais & Hofmeyr, 2013) and increased employee intentions to leave the organisation (Wiezer et al., 2011). In addition, it has been found that mergers affected employee commitment to the organisation while also leading to increased job insecurity in general and, in particular, among older workers (Widerszal-Bazyl & Mockało, 2015; Wiezer et al., 2011), decreased job satisfaction (Wiezer et al., 2011) and increased adverse psychological effects and stress (Probst, 2003). Sufficient research exists to indicate the negative impact of restructuring on the well-being of employees, including those employees who lost jobs as well as those who remained with the organisation (De Jong et al., 2016; Widerszal-Bazyl & Mockało, 2015).

Excessive change increases emotional exhaustion, thereby negatively affecting

employee support for change (Johnson, 2016). It has also been found that frequent poor change management implementations result in a loss of trust within the organisation and its ability to manage change, thus resulting in increased cynicism regarding organisational change (Bordia et al., 2011). Despite the absence of specific design recommendations, certain fundamental principles, such as fairness and transparency, communication and social support, have been shown to be beneficial to both transformation and change processes. However, it is usually the uncertainty about their futures brought about by the changes, more than the changes themselves, that affect employees (Köper & Richter, 2014). Leadership styles may contribute to decreasing staff turnover and increasing perceived organisational support both before and during organisational change and thus contributing to positive appraisals of the change in question (Wiezer et al., 2011)

2. The Impact of Organisational Restructuring on Organisational Behaviour

Restructuring is a permanent feature in our economy. Anyone working in the current job market will sooner or later experience restructuring in some form. We know that restructuring can have a profound effect on the psychological health and well-being of employees. It is therefore important to have more insight into the relationship between restructuring and the psychological health and well-being of employees. We not only need to have insight into what the effects are, we also need to know how employees' well-being is affected (Wiezer et al., 2011: 7).

Studies related to the impact of organisational restructuring processes on employees and organisational behaviour were conducted by De Jong et al. (2016); Wiezer et al. (2011) and Widerszal-Bazyl and Mockało (2015). Further studies relating to the impact of the types of organisational restructuring on employee behaviour and attitudinal organisational outcomes were conducted by Aalbers, Dofsma and Blinde-Leerentveld (2014), Arnolds, Stofile and Lillah

(2013), Böckerman and Maliranta (2013), Bordia et al. (2011), Celikel-Esser, Hurley, Storrie, Gerogiannis and Broughton (2015), Köper and Richter (2014), Hansen (2016), Maksimovic, Phillips and Prabhala (2011), Marais and Hofmeyr (2013), Probst (2003) and Ramsey and Barkhuizen (2011). The outcomes of these research studies are summarised below.

In their study, Wiezer et al. (2011) set out to assess the effects of different organisational restructuring processes on employees and the factors that contributed the most in influencing these effects. There are various forms of organisational restructuring. Although not an exhaustive list, the list includes mergers and/or acquisitions, organisational downsizing or reorganisation/re-engineering processes, relocation/offshoring, outsourcing, closure, internal restructuring and business expansion (Wiezer et al., 2011). However, not all of these will be included in this study.

Wiezer et al.'s (2011) study tested for the relationship between employee well-being and the type of restructuring. The study was conducted in four countries, namely, Denmark, Poland, Finland and the Netherlands. Wiezer et al. (2011) made use of both longitudinal and cross-sectional data and assessed the impact of the type of restructuring in each the four countries, in four different types of organisations and using four different types of restructuring processes.

Widerszal-Bazyl and Mockałło (2015) conducted their study in Poland, using seven organisations specifically involved in business expansion. They set out to assess the impact of the different types of restructuring and their effects (positive and negative) on employee well-being. They used the full version of the Psychological Health and Well-Being in Restructuring (PSYRES) instrument. The study measured the appraisal of restructuring, psychosocial working conditions (including job insecurity), and employee well-being.

2.1 The Impact of the Types and Magnitude of Organisational Restructuring on Organisational Behaviour

From their study, Wiezer et al. (2011) concluded that the different types of restructuring had different effects on employees and, in addition, that the magnitude of the changes, which is based on the type of restructuring, also had an effect on the employees. Through their study, Wiezer et al. (2011) found that organisational restructuring affects the well-being of employees, nationally and across borders. Their study also revealed that an employee's well-being is determined by the magnitude and significance of a change but that minor changes will have less impact than major changes, on the well-being of employees (Wiezer et al., 2011).

The study by Widerszal-Bazyl and Mockało (2015), which focused on business expansion as a type of restructuring, further proved that different types of organisational restructuring processes does indeed have different effects on organisational behaviour and, more directly, on the employees who are the recipients of the organisational change process. It was found that not all organisational changes are negative and that some even have a positive impact on the well-being of employees and related outcomes (Arnolds et al., 2013; Böckerman & Maliranta, 2013; Widerszal-Bazyl & Mockało, 2015; Wiezer et al., 2011). This was found to be the case when employees' jobs or positions improved as a result of the restructuring. It also found that positive changes affect employees differently compared to those that are perceived to be negative. In addition, the study also found that an employee's positive appraisals of changes contributed to increased engagement, and also decreased work-related and emotional stress and the employee's intention to leave the organisation (Wiezer et al., 2011).

Marais and Hofmeyr's (2013) research found that organisational restructuring had an impact on organisational trust, leading to either an increase or a decrease in the employees' scepticism about restructuring. A decrease in trust (in the organisation) will usually result in a decrease in employee engagement and, ultimately, affect the organisation's performance (Marais & Hofmeyr, 2013). The following sections will briefly discuss the characteristics of some types of organisational restructuring programmes, such as mergers and

acquisitions, business expansions and outsourcing and organisational downsizing.

2.1.1 Mergers and Acquisitions (M&As)

Mergers and/or acquisitions refer to the merging of at least two companies or the acquisition of one company (or more) by another. Both may involve a change of management (Wiezer et al., 2011).

According to Maksimovic et al. (2011), organisations usually resort to mergers and acquisitions in order to grow their asset portfolios quickly while, in most cases, companies also often resort to shedding parts of the acquired firms' assets, thus possibly resulting in staff reductions. Research by Arnolds et al. (2013: 4) has found that "organisational commitment increases organisational effectiveness and reduces staff turnover". Arnolds et al. (2013) are of the opinion that organisational commitment to the merged higher education institutions in the case of their study, are required to ensure the transformation strategy and agenda of the South African Government but that merger-related issues in terms of workload may affect the commitment of employees.

The outcomes of mergers and acquisitions are not all negative with higher education institution (HEI) mergers having some positive responses where, for example, HEI mergers in Australia increased their student enrolments and number of graduates as well as creating a multibillion-dollar overseas student market (Arnolds et al., 2013). The negative aspects of mergers in HEIs usually resulted from protracted decision-making or indecision, as well as a lack of effective communication (Arnolds et al., 2013). Employees who perceived a decline in their positions or responsibilities during or as a result of the merger often suffered from "reduced well-being" and vice versa (Wiezer et al., 2011: 37). The study of Wiezer et al. (2011) also revealed that staff who experienced improved job positions as a result of the merger demonstrated better well-being than their counterparts who had not experienced such improved job positions.

In their study Wiezer et al. (2011) found that the organisational commitment of the employees of merged institutions may be increased if they perceive that the merger has achieved that which it set out to achieve. Their study also found that the organisational commitment of employees is significantly positively related to their perceptions of workload fairness and that, if left unattended, issues relating to workload fairness may negatively affect organisational commitment. In addition, it was found that employees with low personal resources and low perceptions of employability were more vulnerable as compared to those with high levels of (job) autonomy (Wiezer et al., 2011). Restructuring often led to an increase in stress (resulting from job insecurity) and to increased accounts of absenteeism, especially among older employees; possibly due to their decreased possibilities of employability (Wiezer et al., 2011). During the mergers, employees with good personal resources reported increased well-being and job positions but often because they had received support from the organisation prior to the organisational change. The study found that employees' well-being during the processes of organisational change was aided by strong personal and organisational resources (Wiezer et al., 2011).

2.1.2 Business Expansion

Business expansion is a form of organisational restructuring which is aimed at extending the activities of the existing business and acquiring a new or additional workforce (Köper & Richter, 2014; Wiezer et al., 2011). Of the 54.77% reported restructuring cases in Europe and Germany during the period 2002 to 2011, business expansion was the second most prominent form of restructuring (Köper & Richter, 2014). It is, however, important to note that business expansion is not aimed at reducing staff but that it actually strives to increase staff totals (Celikel-Esser et al., 2015; Köper & Richter, 2014).

The results of the study conducted by Widerszal-Bazyl and Mockałło (2015) supported their hypotheses as they have found that business expansion demonstrated a larger variance in terms of the appraisal of benefits, compared to the organisations that had experienced a change of ownership or leadership

only, as experienced by employees. Cases of pure business expansion had the highest appraisal in terms of benefits and losses, followed by business expansion that included other changes, such as (staff) reductions and a change of ownership. The study found that all types of restructuring delivered results indicating poorer working conditions as compared to organisations that had not undergone restructuring. In addition, the companies not involved in business expansion and which focused on (staff) reductions only, demonstrated higher job demands, job insecurity and work-family conflict as well as lower control, social support, and task clarity. It also found that the organisations involved in pure business expansion produced a positive indicator in terms of well-being, namely, innovative behaviour, whereas the others had negative indicators (Widerszal-Bazyl & Mockało, 2015).

The study concluded by stating that business expansion, although considered a form of organisational restructuring, may have more positive payoffs in the long term (Widerszal-Bazyl & Mockało, 2015). Psychosocial working conditions, for example job insecurity, mediated the relationship between restructuring and employee well-being where restructuring has been found to increase job demands, job insecurity and work-family conflict, while decreasing task clarity and, ultimately, negatively affecting employee well-being (Widerszal-Bazyl & Mockało, 2015). The personal benefits and losses following a restructuring event may have a greater impact on the perceived job characteristics than the restructuring itself. The studies conducted by Widerszal-Bazyl and Mockało (2015) confirmed that there is a better perception of business expansion in terms of personal benefits as compared to other types of restructuring.

2.1.3 Outsourcing and Organisational Downsizing

Relocation or outsourcing, also referred to as delocation, refers to the strategic decisions made by companies to “move or place tasks in either external companies in other countries or internal subsidiaries abroad” (Hansen, 2016: 2). The study by Böckerman and Maliranta (2013) focused on outsourcing as a type of restructuring and its relationship to employee well-being in terms of

employees who remained after the restructuring process. The study that was conducted in Finland confirmed that workers are affected by different types of restructuring (Böckerman & Maliranta, 2013).

“Downsizing is a planned set of organisational policies and practices to reduce the workforce with the goal of improving firm performance and it is a more narrow term compared to reorganisation” (Aalbers et al., 2014: 451). Organisational downsizing is one of the most researched of all forms of organisational restructuring processes, with the focus primarily on the effects of being a layoff survivor and the experiences of job insecurity (Probst, 2003). One of the most likely outcomes of downsizing is mistrust between employees and managers and mistrust in the organisation as a whole (Marais & Hofmeyr, 2013). The effects of downsizing may have negative consequences for employees and the organisation at large, including decreased job satisfaction, increased levels of ill health and adverse psychological effects (Probst, 2003).

2.2 Organisational Restructuring and Leadership

Organisational restructuring processes may result in a change of leadership, but a change of leadership may also ensue following organisational restructuring processes such as mergers and or acquisitions (Cameron & Green, 2004). The importance of leaders, leadership styles and the involvement of leadership and their support for organisational change during organisational restructuring is considered herein.

Studies on the impact of the role of leaders and the impact of leadership and leadership styles during organisational change processes were conducted by Avolio and Mhatre (2012), Holten and Brenner (2015), Mekpor and Darty-Baah (2017), Nastiezaie, Bameri and Salajage (2016), Robbins and Judge (2013), Dunphy and Benn (2013) and Van der Voet (2014). A summary of their findings is presented below.

“Major organisational transformations require two separate leadership roles: one that sponsors and champions the change and another that plans and implements the process” (Appelbaum, Mitraud, Gailleur, Iacovella, Gerbasi & Ivanova, 2008: 24). The former refers to transformational leadership and the latter to transactional leadership. Leadership, according to Van der Voet (2014), is the key driver in the implementation of organisational change and, hence, a large portion of change management literature is devoted to change leadership.

Transformational leadership refers to the leadership theory that places the greatest emphasis on organisational change (Van der Voet, 2014). In his research, Van der Voet (2014: 375) hypothesised that “a higher degree of transformational leadership will increase the effectiveness of a planned process of change, but it will not increase the effectiveness of an emergent process of change”. In concluding his study, conducted in the public sector, he indicated that both planned and emergent approaches to change are effective in bringing about change and that transformational leadership is crucial in emergent processes but only in non-bureaucratic organisations, such as private organisations.

During organisational change processes, transactional and transformational leadership are complementary, with transformational leadership supporting the change process through the development of follower trust (created through integrity) and transactional leadership providing the concrete platform that managers will require to actively and constructively engage employees during the implementation of the change process (Robbins & Judge, 2013). Although transformational leadership increases follower motivation and performance to a greater extent than does transactional leadership, effective leaders choose to use a combination of both types of leadership (Luthans, 2011). Transactional leaders reward their followers’ behaviour through reward systems which are linked to compliance of the organisation’s policies and the organisation’s goals. It is in this way that transactional leaders are able to foster their followers’ trust in the organisation (Dunphy & Benn, 2013).

Transformational leaders are attentive to the concerns and needs of their followers. It is by building on transactional leadership that transformational leadership is able to ensure levels of follower effort and performance beyond what the transactional leadership would have been able to do on its own. Transactional leaders without transformational qualities are not often good leaders with the best leaders being both transactional and transformational (Robbins & Judge, 2013). Research also shows that transformational leadership correlated strongly with lower turnover rates, employee stress and burnout as well as higher productivity and employee satisfaction (Robbins & Judge, 2013). Transformational leaders have the ability to increase follower self-efficacy and they are also able to “engender commitment on the part of followers and instil greater trust in the leader” (Robbins & Judge, 2013: 384).

It is, however, important to note that transformational leaders are not equally effective in all situations. Transformational leaders perform differently in organisations of different sizes (Robbins & Judge, 2013). The size of the organisation determines the magnitude of the organisational restructuring, bringing to the fore the role and importance of leadership involvement and support for organisational change, leadership styles and leadership in general, during organisational change. This also determines how employees respond to organisational restructuring, in terms of their organisational behaviour.

Transactional leadership is required to support engagement behaviour, such as communicating the change and impact thereof (Holten & Brenner, 2015). The research conducted by Holten and Brenner (2015) concluded that leadership styles and transformational and transactional leadership, in the case of their study, related positively to the management engagement elements, namely, participation, information delivery and commitment and that the followers' appraisal of change is, indeed, influenced by the level of manager engagement. Their research also conclusively established that leadership styles had a significant and direct impact on the followers' appraisal of change. During the latter stages of the change process, it was found that the active engagement in the change (enacted values) of the managers were more important than the actual leadership styles.

Mekpor and Darty-Baah (2017), in their research in the Ghanaian banking sector, investigated the impact of leadership styles (transaction and transformational) on employee organisational citizenship behaviour. Their research found a significant, positive relationships between transactional leadership and organisational citizenship behaviours but also that the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational citizenship behaviour was more significant and pronounced than the former relationship. A similar study was conducted by Nastiezaie, Bameri and Salajage (2016) in the Medical Sciences Faculty of Iranshahr (Iran). The study tested for employee organisational commitment and trust based on ethical leadership styles. Their research found that employees tend to place more trust in managers who apply an ethical leadership style, thereby increasing employee commitment to the organisation (Nastiezaie et al., 2016).

A study conducted by Seo, Taylor, Hill, Zhang, Tesluk and Lorinkova (2012) found that transformational leadership is particularly relevant in the context of organisational change and also that it is instrumental in predicting followers' affective commitment to change. The same research study found that it was possible to identify transformational leadership in the leadership behaviours of first-line and middle-level managers, and even in executive leaders. Transformational leadership has consistently been cited as an important factor in employee psychological and behavioural outcomes and is considered to be particularly important during times of organisational change. In addition, transformational leadership has been found to be positively related to affective commitment to change. It may therefore be concluded that the transformational leadership style exhibited by direct managers will influence the affective reactions of their direct reports, as well as their commitment to change, which finally will affect their long-term behavioural reactions to change (Seo et al., 2012). Authentic leaders possess positive core values, such as honesty, fairness, accountability and optimism, with these values playing an extremely important role in the leaders acting fairly in the interest of both the organisation and the followers, thus resulting in the establishment of special relationships,

characterised by mutual trust and respect, between leaders and followers (Yukl, 2013).

Research has found that “employee perceptions of authentic leadership were the strongest single predictor of employee job satisfaction, organisational commitment and work happiness” (Avolio & Mhatre, 2012: 779). Further studies have revealed that “collective psychological capital and trust mediated the relationship between ratings of authentic leadership and group citizenship behaviour and group performance, after controlling the effects of transformational leadership” (Avolio & Mhatre, 2012: 780).

2.3 The Impact of the Frequency of Organisational Restructuring on Organisational Behaviour

Organisational change research has been criticised for “neglecting the role of history in the study of change” (Bordia et al., 2011: 211) and has resulted in studies assessing the effects of poor change management history on employee attitudes, with reference to trust, turnover intention and openness to change, among others (Bordia et al., 2011). The study delivered significant results and found that a history of poor change management, as experienced by employees, was negatively related to trust and the turnover intention of employees. This implies that employees tend to lose faith in the organisation’s ability to care for its employees if they are subjected to poor change management. This may then translate into employees considering leaving the organisation or actually leaving it (Bordia et al., 2011). Similar results were found in studies conducted by Johnson (2016) and Wiezer et al. (2011).

Research tends to focus primarily on employee reactions to given change episodes and not on the role that past events play or may play in shaping employee responses (Bordia et al., 2011). A review of the change literature revealed that it has largely ignored time and history as “important contextual forces that influence the occurrence of change in organizations” (Bordia et al., 2011: 192) and it is thus recommended that future research take into account

organisational history during organisational change processes. The history of change management in organisations is “carried forward in the human consciousness and exerts a strong influence on the acceptance of subsequent change” (Bordia et al., 2011: 192). The research of Bordia et al. (2011: 193, 212) found that “a previous history of poor change management led to pessimism about the successful implementation of future changes in the organisation and undermined confidence in the ability of managers to implement change” (Bordia et al., 2011: 193).

Organisational change requires a personal transition that is mainly psychological, time-bound and project-based (Holbeche, 2006). The impact of organisational change on individuals, however, is not time-bound and often takes longer to process. Consequently, it may not be synchronised with the organisation’s change project timelines (Holbeche, 2006). Incremental change, even on a large scale and under the right conditions, is absorbed by employees with relative ease while “step changes, such as mergers, acquisitions and re-engineering initiatives” (Holbeche, 2006: 69), have a far greater impact on individuals than do incremental changes. However, not all individuals experience this process at the same rate, and may also experience it at different places, at different times and at different intensities (Holbeche, 2006), as can be seen in the following sections.

The research of Wiezer et al. (2011) found that prolonged restructuring processes had a negative effect on the well-being of employees. However, they were not able to establish whether an employee’s previous experiences or exposure to restructuring processes provided any protection against the effects of restructuring. It was found though, that the well-being of employees who had previously experienced a form of organisational restructuring differs significantly from that of those employees who have never experienced any form of organisational restructuring. Wiezer et al. (2011) found that the former had “higher work-related stress, lower job-satisfaction, lower work ability and higher sickness absence” (Wiezer et al., 2011: 41). It was also found that, after some time, “the negative effects on health and well-being may no longer be

detectable, but the feelings of job insecurity remain strong” (Wiezer et al., 2011: 37), and that these feelings of insecurity remain years after the restructuring process has been completed.

Johnson (2016) investigated the three major dimensions of excessive change, namely, frequency, extent (magnitude) and impact. The study was conducted in the healthcare administrative industry, in Canada, that were undergoing mergers. The study found that excessive change is, indeed, positively related to emotional exhaustion and employee intentions to quit while it is negatively related to employees’ behavioural support of change due to the higher demands on emotional resources as a result of the excessiveness of the change (Johnson, 2016). The study is significant as it aimed to highlight the importance of realising the point at which employees become saturated with organisational change processes, especially those processes resulting in organisational restructuring. As will be seen later in this study, Johnson (2016) also found that the top-down implementation of change is no longer acceptable as the impact of change through organisational restructuring is perceived and, more especially, it is experienced differently by employees as compared to the way it is perceived by organisational leaders. The role of perceptions and how and what employees perceive the outcomes of organisational restructuring to be, significantly impacts their support and commitment for organisational change initiatives.

2.4 The Role of Perception in Organisations

It is important to understand that perception is a “unique interpretation of the situation” (Luthans, 1992: 55; Luthans, 2011: 135) and it is, in fact, not a precise or exact recording of it. According to Luthans (1992: 55 & 2011: 135), “perception is a very complex cognitive process that yields a unique picture of the world that may be quite different from reality”. Perception, in the context of organisational behaviour, is important because people’s behaviour is based on their perception of what reality is, and not on reality itself (Luthans, 2011). Since perceptions are learnt, and since individuals are unique, the perceptions of

individuals differ (Luthans, 2011). The application of perception most relevant to organisational behaviour is the person perception, or the perception people form about each other (Robbins & Judge, 2013). When people observe other people, they attempt to explain why people behave in a certain way.

2.5 Summary of the Literature Review: Organisational Restructuring

Probst (2003: 433) found that individuals who were affected by the restructuring had significantly lower perceptions of job security as compared to those who were not affected while they also demonstrated increased intentions to leave the organisation. Probst's (2003) study also showed that the impact of organisational restructuring increased negative affections, and adversely affected the employees' organisational commitment. The study also indicated that significant longitudinal effects suggest that both mental and physical health may decline as a result of organisational restructuring, among others (Probst, 2003).

The research of Wiezer et al. (2011) and Widerszal-Bazyl and Mockała (2015) also concluded that the types of restructuring had different effects on employees while the magnitude of the changes impacting on individuals also had an effect on employees, albeit positive or negative. Prolonged restructuring and a history of poor change management were shown to have a negative effect on the well-being of employees, as well as on their organisational behaviour (Johnson, 2016; Wiezer et al., 2011).

Restructuring, according to Widerszal-Bazyl and Mockała (2015), increased job demands, job insecurity and work-family conflict and was, therefore, found to reduce employee well-being. The study of Böckerman and Maliranta (2013) confirmed that workers are affected in various ways by the type of restructuring.

The literature review above provided evidence that organisational restructuring does, indeed, have an impact on employees, with this impact manifesting itself (usually negatively) in job dissatisfaction, cynicism, exhaustion, feelings of

stress and job insecurity. Organisational restructuring has been shown to affect employee trust in managers, management and the organisation as a whole. Organisational restructuring tends to create work-related stress in older employees and this is increased by job insecurity, a perceived lack of organisational support, and perceived unfairness. Employees with good personal resources, coping mechanisms and high levels of self-efficacy are better equipped to manage the changes as compared to those with lower levels of the abovementioned (Wiezer et al., 2011). This indicates that it is possible that an individual's psychological resources may moderate the relationship between organisational restructuring and behavioural outcomes, although this was not tested for in the study of Wiezer et al. (2011). Organisational restructuring has also been found to affect the well-being of employees, nationally and across borders.

The literature reviewed above provides sufficient evidence that organisational restructuring does, indeed, have an impact on the attitudinal, affective and psychosocial organisational behaviour of employees.

3. Effective Change Management

3.1 The Development of Change Management

Effective change management, in the context of this study, is operationally defined to include components of change management, leadership and organisational support. For the purposes of this study, effective change management comprises three factors: firstly, change management processes, secondly, leader-member exchange and lastly, perceived organisational support. Effective change management is a product that has been derived from multiple disciplines and practices as a result of responses to the changing needs of organisations (Jones & Recardo, 2013).

The majority of change management textbooks do not provide clear and accurate definitions of change management, with most textbook authors merely referring to it as an activity designed to support a change initiative aimed at positive results and improved operational processes. In contrast to the

aforementioned, several researchers and change management practitioners provide such elaborate definitions of the concept and its many and varied interpretations that this tends to create confusion among readers (Kang, 2015). However, change management has been adequately defined as “the utilisation of the basic structures and tools to control any organisational change effort” (Jones & Recardo, 2013: 2). Other definitions for change management have also been formulated by a variety of researchers, some of which are presented below.

Change management is often understood in terms of transformative change and is defined by Kang (2015: 27) as “the process of continually renewing an organisation’s direction, structure, and capabilities to serve the ever-changing needs of external and internal customers” or as “a process whereby organisations and individuals proactively plan for and adapt to change” (Kang, 2015: 28). Change management is also defined as “a structured approach to transitioning individuals, teams and organisations from a current state to a future desired state” (East, 2011: 3). During a PROSCI survey, it was found that “more than 80 percent of respondents experienced at least some confusion with the concepts of change and change management” with the lack of “common and sufficient understanding of change management” being ascribed to the fact that the concept is not universally defined (Jones & Recardo, 2013: 1)

Organisational change, delineated to include organisational restructuring, has long been recognised as an important factor in the success and survival of organisations and this has given rise to the development of a variety of methodologies with which to manage organisational change (Mills, Dye & Mills, 2009). The earliest attempts at developing planned and systematic approaches to managing change were evident in the work of Kurt Lewin with many researchers using Lewin’s work as a foundation in which to expand the discipline (Mills, Dye & Mills, 2009). Lewin is considered and has been described by many as an important figure in the creation and development of organisational change as a discipline and has often been referred to as the

“creator of the planned approach to organisational change” (Mills, Dye & Mills, 2009: 42).

Organisational change comes in many forms and may be categorised as planned change, unplanned change, emergent change, incremental change or quantum change (Mills et al., 2009). Organisational change may be effected at various levels within the organisation and, as such, organisational change may take place at the organisational level (usually aimed at restructuring or reorganising), at the group level, and at the individual level (change attempts to alter behaviour, attitudes and perceptions) (Mills et al., 2009). Incremental change is aimed at restructuring divisions or departments or even problems which have been within the organisation while quantum change affects the entire organisation and is aimed at renewing the organisation in terms of structure, policy and even leadership (Mills et al., 2009). For most organisations, although change is not part of their strategic plan, many suddenly find themselves in the midst of change processes, primarily as a result of external factors threatening the survival of the organisation (Mills et al., 2009).

3.1.1 Planned and Unplanned Change

Planned change is contemplated change, is consciously undertaken by the organisation but has its limits in that the change is predictable. In addition, no single model fits another situation (Holbeche, 2006; East, 2011). Aslam, Ilyas, Kashif and Rahman (2016) claim that up to 70% of planned change initiatives prove to be unsuccessful. Planned organisational change should be an intentional, goal-oriented activity which seeks to improve the organisation's ability to adapt to changes stemming from its environment. Unplanned or unintended change usually occurs as a reaction to an external force on the organisation while, unlike in the planned approach where the manager must impose order, in emergent change approaches the manager must create conducive situations for change to occur (Holbeche, 2006).

Since the 1980s, there has been much criticism levelled at the existing models of planned change, including that of Kurt Lewin (Burnes, 2009). Despite the vast array of new approaches to change, it may be accepted that emergent change has overtaken planned change as the dominant approach (Burnes, 2009). The first principle of the emergent approach is that change is not linear and, instead, it is a continuous and open-ended process that aims to align the organisation with the ever-changing environment (Burnes, 2009).

Researchers also did not spare John Kotter and his Eight Stage process designed to manage organisational change. A review of the research literature by Appelbaum, Habashy, Malo and Shafiq (2012) revealed that most of Kotter's data had been compiled by Kotter himself, following his career as a consultant to numerous organisations; and that, in essence, "Kotter validated Kotter" (Appelbaum, et al., 2012: 776). It would appear that his change management model gained popularity because of its useable format rather than scientific consensus on the results (Appelbaum et al., 2012). Challenges with Kotter's Eight Steps include the fact all steps must be followed as it is a linear, sequential process; and that omitting a single step may create problems for the change process – this was acknowledged by Kotter himself (Pollack & Pollack, 2015).

Despite the plethora of change processes available, in a survey conducted in 2008 with over 3000 executives, two-thirds of them revealed that their organisations had not been able to successfully implement and sustain the intended change programmes (Rafferty, Jimmieson & Armenakis, 2013). Barriers to the successful implementation of planned change have been identified as including employee attitude to change and change readiness (a positive attitude towards change) (Rafferty et al., 2013: 111).

3.1.2 Change Readiness

Change Readiness is defined as "an individual's beliefs, attitudes, and intentions regarding the extent to which changes are needed and the

organisation's capacity to successfully undertake those changes" (Rafferty, et al., 2013: 113). Change readiness comprises the individuals' readiness for change, consisting of cognitive and affective components in relation to change readiness, individuals' collective readiness for change, comprises workgroup change readiness, namely, cognitive beliefs and affective responses, and also organisational readiness for change which consists of cognitive beliefs and affective responses (Rafferty et al., 2013).

The antecedents of change readiness may be categorised into three broad categories, namely, external organisational pressures, including industry changes, internal context enablers, such as participation and communication processes, as well as personal characteristics at the individual level and group composition characteristics at the collective level (Rafferty et al., 2013).

Based on the research of Rafferty et al. (2013), it was found that positive change attitudes are usually associated with the effective implementation of change management processes with employee involvement contributing directly to the employees' feelings of empowerment and effective communication during change programmes increasing both the acceptance of the change and the commitment to change. It was found that ineffective communication increased cynicism about the change as well as fostering rumours which often exaggerated the negative aspects and impact of the change (Rafferty et al., 2013). Research conducted by Adil (2016), conducted in the private and public commercial banks, found that employees' readiness for change is significantly impacted by leadership (which affects commitment) and commitment.

The propensity to change includes the desire to change and is applicable to all individuals within the organisation as well as to the organisation itself. In order to ensure the propensity to change, an understanding of the organisation and its needs is essential. Understanding the reason why individuals have to prepare and be ready for change, and why change needs to happen (in the event that it does), will reduce the inclination to want to resist the change. This may be achieved by increasing employees' commitment to the organisation through increased levels of trust in the organisation (Luthans, 2011). Trust in the

organisation may be increased with increased employee engagement (through perceived organisational support) practices (Wiezer et al., 2011). An increase in employee engagement (through organisational citizenship behaviour) is usually a direct result of increased and high-quality organisational (change) communication (Chan & Lai, 2017).

3.2 Effective Change Management: Processes

A key implication of the emotional impact of organisational change through organisational restructuring on individuals is that it may have adverse effects on organisational performance in both the short and the long term. The negative effects of organisational change may be minimised with engagement, which refers to the involvement of engaged leaders and management, coupled with employee involvement, in decisions that will affect them (Marais & Hofmeyr, 2013) and communication, which must be conducted in a two-way manner and must be open, transparent and well-timed. The latter implies that engagement and communication must be conducted in a timely manner so as to eliminate the grapevine talk which exacerbates uncertainties and, ultimately, lead to anxiety and resistance to the change (Cawsey et al., 2016). In addition, organisational change is enhanced through participative leadership, (Yukl, 2013), as well as the participation and support of leadership during organisational restructuring.

3.2.1 Employee Involvement and Participation of Leadership and Employees during Organisational Restructuring

“Participative leadership involves the use of various decision procedures that allow other people (usually employees and lower level managers) some influence over the leader’s decisions. Other terms commonly used to refer to aspects of participative leadership include consultation, joint decision making, power sharing, decentralisation, empowerment, and democratic management” (Yukl, 2013: 106). Participative leadership style allows other persons, such as followers, to influence the leader’s decisions, and results in increased follower

performance and satisfaction (Yukl, 2013). By its very nature, participative leadership is dynamic and changes over time. An effective leader will opt to use participative leadership consistently as a way of reducing resistance to change and enhancing both organisational commitment and commitment to change through high-quality communication (Rogiest, Segers & Van Witteloostuijn, 2015). The four potential benefits associated with participative leadership include higher quality of decisions, higher decision acceptance by change participants, greater satisfaction with decision process, and increased decision-making skills (Yukl, 2013).

Research conducted on participative leadership in the Ghanaian Banking sector found that employee involvement in the entire change programme was dependent upon clear and accurate information about the change process with such clear communication and participation, indeed, influencing organisational change programmes (Osei-Bonsu, 2014). Rogiest et al. (2015) found that employee participation in change processes increases the opportunity for control over the outcome of the change, while high-quality change communication reduces uncertainty about the change. Employee participation during organisational change processes is positively related to higher employee readiness for change and overall acceptance and support for the change (Rogiest et al., 2015). The study of Rogiest et al. (2015) could not, however, find any significant contribution by employee participation to affective commitment to change but did conclude that employee participation reduces affective commitment to change in a highly formalised environment. The abovementioned results could be attributed to the researchers' operationalisation of employee participation (Rogiest et al., 2015).

3.2.2 Organisational Communication during Change

Organisational communication is defined as “a process through which information about the workplace and employee’s job itself is transmitted by the organisation to its employees” (Jiang & Probst, 2014: 562) and also with the aim of timeously disseminating crucial organisational information to employees,

especially if the information refers to their jobs or the future of the organisation. Communication and decision-making in organisations are requisite processes which are essential for the success of the organisation but which also have the potential for failure (Lewis, 2011). Research conducted found that communication is considered the “most effective tool through which to inform employees of the benefits of change” (Visagie & Steyn, 2011: 116). Companies that require increased organisational commitment tend to implement programmes designed to improve communication. These types of communication practices are considered to be antecedents to communication satisfaction (Chan & Lai, 2017).

Communication satisfaction “refers to the degree to which employees perceive satisfaction in information and work relationships amid the total communication environment” (Chan & Lai, 2017: 1) and differs from leader-member exchange (LMX) which focuses on the exchange between an employee and supervisor. The result of satisfactory organisational communication is organisational effectiveness which in turn predicts outcomes such as job performance and organisational citizenship behaviour (Chan & Lai, 2017). Organisational communication and satisfaction with communication, in particular, are said to be an antecedent to organisational citizenship behaviour, with less dissatisfied employees being less likely to engage in organisational citizenship behaviours (Chan & Lai, 2017). The research of Chan and Lai (2017) looked specifically at the way in which communication satisfaction affects Chinese workers’ involvement in organisational citizenship behaviours as well as their perceptions of organisational justice.

In line with existing literature, the research conducted by Chan and Lai (2017) found that communication satisfaction does, indeed, affect organisational citizenship behaviour and that it also contributes towards instilling positive attitudes in employees (Chan & Lai, 2017). The same research also confirmed the positive impact of communication satisfaction on organisational effectiveness indicators, for example, productivity, job performance,

organisational commitment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour (Chan & Lai, 2017).

Organisational change may create both uncertainty and anxiety (about the change) and high-quality communication will reduce this by increasing employee participation and providing opportunities for employees to contribute in respect of the expected outcomes of the change (Rogiest et al., 2015). High-quality change communication can be defined as “accurate, timely and complete information addressing employee concerns”, and together with participative decision-making, can be used as strategies to increase employee involvement during change, and which will in turn affect employees’ commitment to change (Rogiest et al., 2015). It is argued in Rogiest et al. (2015) that high-quality communication contributes to reducing the uncertainties created by organisational change by increasing employees’ affective commitment to the organisation. The results of their research confirmed that quality change communication does, indeed, significantly contribute to employees’ affective commitment to change. The researchers recommend first focusing on high-quality communication, and then employee participation when implementing organisational change processes (Rogiest et al., 2015).

Change leaders and organisational leaders, by engaging employees in the different leadership styles, have the responsibility to ensure that all stakeholders, including employees, are provided with all the information that affects both them and their jobs. This may be achieved by developing communication strategies and action plans that will enhance trust in the organisation and management and thereby reduce mistrust, thus enhancing employee commitment to the change (Rafferty et al., 2013). It is also essential to measure all the change processes and communicate such measurements to all the stakeholders. It is critical to communicate the success and failures of the processes to promote transparency and increase trust (Köper & Richter, 2014).

3.3 Effective Change Management: The Role of Leadership and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)

Robbins and Judge (2013: 368) define leadership as “the ability to influence a group (of employees) toward the achievement of a vision or set of goals”. The domains of leadership include the leader, the follower and the relationship between leader and follower. The leader is the primary focus in the leader-based domain, the follower in the follower-based domain and the dyadic relationship between the two in the relationship-based approach, with each of these domains being in combination with the others (Graen & Uhl-Bein, 1995).

The most effective leaders apply a combination of transformational leadership and authentic leadership (Luthans, Youssef & Avolio, 2007b) but, in view of the fact that transformational leadership is complementary to transactional leadership during organisational change, it may be assumed that the most effective leader will use a combination of the transformational, transactional and authentic leadership styles (Holten & Brenner, 2015). An effective leader is trusted (Mishra & Mishra, 2012) and applies a transformational leadership style, as this style influences employee attitudes, enhances the support for change (Rafferty et al., 2013) and reduces resistance to change (Anderson, 2015), the latter which was found to be positively related to affective commitment to change (Seo et al., 2012).

An effective leader also requires the transactional leadership style as this style is essential in increasing follower resilience (Luthans et al., 2007b) and increasing workplace support (Newman, Ucbasaran, Zhu & Hirst, 2014). Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) posit that transactional leadership may be directly compared to transactional leader-member exchange (T-LMX), or low-quality leader-member exchange. Transactional leaders control the economic rewards of their followers and make requests based on their hierarchical status within the organisation while follower compliance is based on the intrinsic economic reward (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). A study conducted by Buch, Thompson and Kuvaas (2016), assessed the moderating role of leader-political skill in the relationship between T-LMX and follower work performance. According to Buch et al. (2016), leaders who are politically skilled possess the ability to read people and negative situations in the workplace. The researchers use existing

instruments in their study but classified high-quality leader-member exchange as social leader-member exchange relationships and T-LMX relationships as low-quality relationships. They based their study on the assumption that these two relationships, a “bipolar construct” (Buch et al., 2016: 459), represent “opposite poles on a single continuum” (Buch et al., 2016: 459). Their results supported existing literature in that they found weaker and negative relationships between T-LMX and work performance (Buch et al., 2016). Effective leaders also require authentic leadership qualities as these play a role in increasing job satisfaction, organisational commitment and subjective well-being while also enhancing both trust (Avolio & Mhatre, 2012) and follower resilience (Luthans et al., 2007b).

There is controversy in organisational and leadership literature about whether leadership should be defined as an organisational process or as individual behaviour (Appelbaum, Degbe, MacDonald, & Nguyen-Quang, 2015). It is for this reason that the distinction between management (as managers) and leadership be clearly defined. Research has found that leadership style has a significant, direct impact on the followers’ appraisal of change (Van der Voet, 2014). “Leading change is one of the most important and difficult responsibilities for managers and administrators” (Yukl, 2013: 76) while, for some theorists and researchers, it is “the essence of leadership” (Yukl, 2013: 76). Leading organisational change processes involves “guiding, encouraging, and facilitating the collective efforts of members to adapt and survive in an uncertain and sometimes hostile environment” (Yukl, 2013: 76). Although major change in organisations is initiated and led by the organisation’s top management structures, it is, in fact, possible for all members of the organisation to contribute to the success of the change.

The theory of leader-member exchange describes the “role-making process between a leader and each individual subordinate and the exchange relationship that develops over time” (Yukl, 2013: 222). Mehta (2016: 47) states that this theory of leader-member exchange posits that “leaders develop differential relationships between leaders and their subordinates through reciprocal exchanges involving role expectations, rewards and resources over

time, resulting in dyadic relationships of varying quality” and adds that the quality of the LMX has been associated with a number of organisational outcomes including commitment, stress and performance. Leader-member exchange theory is premised on the fact that leaders develop exchange relationships with each of their subordinates but with each of the two parties mutually defining the subordinate’s role (Yukl, 2013).

Liden and Maslyn (1998: 43) maintain that “Leader-Member Exchange theory suggests that leaders do not use the same style in dealing with all subordinates, but rather develop a different type of relationship or exchange with each subordinate”. Research has shown that leader-member exchange “is negatively related to turnover and to turnover intention and positively related to organisational commitment, to satisfaction and supervision, to supervisory ratings, job performance, to autonomy, satisfaction with work and frequency of promotions” (Liden & Maslyn, 1998: 43).

3.4 Effective Change Management: The Role of Perceived Organisational Support (POS)

Perceived organisational support refers to “the degree to which employees believe the organisation values their contribution and cares about their well-being” (Altunoğlu & Gürel, 2015: 176; Ming-Chu & Meng-Hsiu, 2015: 178; Robbins & Judge, 2013: 76). Perceived organisational support is based on the principle of reciprocity and implies that employees who believe that they are receiving the desired or high levels of support from their organisation will reciprocate by means of increased performance (Altunoğlu & Gürel, 2015). According to the social exchange view, an employee’s commitment to the organisation is strongly influenced by the employee’s perception of the organisation’s commitment to him/her (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986).

Research conducted by Eisenberger et al. (1986) found that perceived organisational support reduced absenteeism in the workplace. It was also found

that perceived organisational support could be increased by leaders praising and expressing their approval of employees. The research further revealed that employees tended to reciprocate perceived organisational support by “altering their efforts to meet organisational goals, as indicated by absenteeism” (Eisenberger et al., 1986: 506). In addition, the researchers found that employees held global beliefs in terms of what they perceive the organisation’s commitment to them to be and that this affected the absenteeism of individuals with strong exchange ideologies (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

The aim of the study by Altunoğlu and Gürel (2015), which was conducted amongst several technopark employees in Denizli (Turkey), was to prove, and which it successfully did, the relationship between organisational innovation, leader-member exchange (LMX) and perceived organisational support. Altunoğlu and Gürel (2015) reported a positive relationship between perceived organisational support and work-related attitudes. It was found that individuals with strong perceived organisational support perceptions were more likely to demonstrate high(er) levels of organisational citizenship behaviours as compared to their counterparts with lower perceptions (Robbins & Judge, 2013).

3.5 Summary of the Literature Review: Effective Change Management

Effective change management, as operationally defined for the purposes of this study, consists of three factors: namely, effective change management processes, inclusive of participative leadership, employee participation, and effective communication during change. Effective change management is further supported by leader-member exchange and perceived organisational support, which exhibit direct relationships with employees’ work-related attitudes.

Research has shown that combinations of transformational and authentic leadership styles lead to the effective leadership required for change processes and that high-quality organisational change communication may increase

organisational commitment and employees' commitment to change (Luthans et al., 2007b; Rogiest et al., 2015).

4. Organisational Behaviour

Organisational behaviour is defined as a field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups and structure have on behaviour within organisations and how their behaviour affect the organisation's performance (Robbins & Judge, 2013). Luthans (2011: 20) defines organisational behaviour as "the understanding, prediction, and management of human behaviour in organisations".

The study of organisational behaviour applies the knowledge acquired to improving an organisation's effectiveness and, ultimately, its performance. Organisational behaviour further focuses on other work-related issues, including, but not limited to jobs, work, absenteeism, employment turnover, productivity, human performance (including well-being) and management. Organisational behaviour also covers other core topics such as motivation, leader behaviour and power, interpersonal communication, group structure and processes, learning, attitude development and perception, change processes, conflict, work design and work stress (Robbins & Judge, 2013). In other words, organisational behaviour focuses on the three determinants of behaviour in organisations, namely, individuals, groups and structure (organisational) (Robbins & Judge, 2013).

An organisation may be defined as a "consciously coordinated social unit, composed of two or more people that functions on a relatively continuous basis to achieve a common goal or set of goals" (Robbins & Judge, 2013: 5). For organisations to ensure both their current and future existence, it is essential that they are able to adapt to their ever-changing environments by acquiring or updating their change capabilities, now considered a "core managerial competence" (Cawsey et al., 2016: 5). If organisations and their employees do not possess the requisite change management skills, they will not be able to

operate effectively, if at all, in today's fluid organisations (Cawsey et al., 2016). Organisational change and organisational restructuring processes are planned programmes aimed at improving organisational effectiveness and performance. The ultimate goal of the new organisational designs is to create leaner, more agile, focused and more flexible organisations, as was previously the case.

Emotions and Moods

Emotions refers to the intense feelings which one individual directs at someone else or at something (Robbins & Judge, 2013). According to Luthans (2011), emotions or desires represent the ways in which an individual experiences his or her values. In elaborating on this definition one may say that emotions are the expression of one's values.

Moods, on the other hand, are also feelings but they are less intense than emotions. Experts believe that emotions are more fleeting than moods and that such intense emotional feelings usually abate rather quickly (Robbins & Judge, 2013: 98). However, because moods and emotions are both characterised by the personality component, this implies that most people possess the inherent ability to experience certain moods and emotions more frequently than others. It is also possible for different people to experience the same emotions (even at the same time) but at different intensities (Robbins & Judge, 2013). Robbins and Judge (2013) categorised a mixed set of emotions, which may comprise both positive and negative states, which form moods. These have been labelled by Robbins and Judge (2013) and fellow researchers as positive affect and negative affect and they are considered to be the two most widely recognised attitudes in the context of organisational behaviour (Luthans, 2011).

It is important to understand these concepts as they present themselves in the workplace and elsewhere while they have also been found to be important antecedents to work-related attitudes, such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviours. It is worth noting the fact that positive and negative emotions exist and are experienced differently in

different cultures and that positive moods also influence the levels of motivation of employees (Robbins & Judge, 2013).

Emotions enable us to understand and interpret the world around us. There are some experts who argue that, when emotions and rationality (or rational thought) are in conflict, emotion could result in irrational behaviour. In contrast, research has provided evidence that emotions are, in fact, critical to rational thinking (Robbins & Judge, 2013).

The relationship between emotion and moral attitudes has recently also received some attention from researchers and experts. It was previously believed that the majority of ethical decisions were based on higher-order cognitive processes, but research into moral emotions has brought this perspective into question (Robbins & Judge, 2013). The fact that moral emotions, such as sympathy or guilt, are based on feelings instead of cold cognition only allows us to infer that individuals are able to act ethically, based on their emotions and feelings (Robbins & Judge, 2013). This information is valuable in terms of organisational behaviour as it could affect our decision-making abilities, either as employer or employee.

Attitudes

Attitudes are evaluative statements, which are either favourable or unfavourable, about objects, people or events (Robbins & Judge, 2013). The three main and closely related components of attitudes include the cognitive component, which is a description about or a belief in the way things are, the affective component, which is the component that relates to the emotional or feeling segment and the behavioural component, which describes the intention to behave in a certain manner (Robbins & Judge, 2013).

Attitudes, especially the behavioural component, are important in the organisational context. When people refer to employee attitudes, they are actually referring to the outcomes of work-related attitudes, such as job

satisfaction which describes one's positive feeling about a job and which is a result of an assessment of the job's characteristics (Luthans, 2011). Related to job satisfaction are job involvement and organisational commitment. Attitudes can lead to job dissatisfaction or other forms of undesirable or workplace behaviour, often leading to emotive responses by employees.

Work events trigger either positive or negative emotional reactions. Employees' different personalities then predispose them to respond accordingly. Emotions may also influence a number of performance or satisfaction variables, which include organisational citizenship, organisational behaviour and organisational commitment. An employee's organisational commitment also includes an employee's level of effort, his/her intention to quit (turnover intention) and workplace deviance; the latter includes absenteeism and tardiness (Robbins & Judge, 2013). The conservation of resources theory emphasises the role "of peer and supervisor support as valued social resources in stress, turnover intention, and low commitment" (Mehta, 2016: 47). The conservation of resources theory focuses on the negative behavioural and attitudinal outcomes which arise when there is an actual or perceived loss of valued resources or less than expected returns (Mehta, 2016). Social support is considered to be one of the key resources, such as peer and supervisor support, and may be placed under strain due to work pressures and stressful events, such as change (Mehta, 2016).

The constructs to be discussed in this study and which links the literature provided above, are turnover intention, resistance to change, commitment to change and job (in)security. A brief analysis is provided hereunder.

4.1 Turnover Intention

Turnover intention, an ultimate outcome in studies on organisational behaviour, refers to an individual's intention to leave the organisation (Brashear, Boles, Bellenger & Brooks, 2003). Previous research, as referred to in Brashear et al. (2003), has confirmed the existence of a negative relationship between

organisational commitment and turnover intention. The findings of the aforementioned research indicate that commitment mediates both job satisfaction and turnover intention (Brashear et al., 2003).

Brashear et al. (2003: 192) defined organisational commitment as “an individual’s attachment to, or identification with, an organisation and willingness to exert additional effort to maintain organisational goals and values”. They also acknowledged the numerous debates about the relationship between job satisfaction and commitment and subsequently modelled satisfaction as an antecedent to commitment, successfully hypothesising that job satisfaction is “related to organisational commitment” (Brashear et al., 2003: 193).

4.2 Resistance to Change

“Resistance is a natural reaction to change and it is part of the human psyche” (Dunican & Keaster, 2015: 36). Resistance to change may be defined as “the act of refusing to comply or participate in a change initiative” (Appelbaum, et al., 2015: 76). Although most of the approaches to resistance to change have focused specifically on situational antecedents, recent studies have started to explore concepts thought to be related to resistance to change from an individual difference perspective (Oreg, 2003).

Research conducted by Anderson (2015) found significant relationships between resistance to change and job satisfaction, intentions to quit and transformational leadership. It was found that, where high transformational leadership was present, individuals with high resistance to change tended to decrease their levels of resistance (Anderson, 2015). The resistance to change scale, developed by Oreg (2003) and discussed later in this study, is a useful tool to use for personnel selection and training to identify change-resilient employees and also in fields to measure consumer behaviour. The research of Sofat, Kiran and Kaushik (2015) also found resistance to change is enhanced if change recipients had previously experienced negative relationships with change leaders and/or the change champion.

Mills et al. (2009) maintain that, as compared to their older counterparts, younger workers are more used to the constant rate of change and are more adept at change, as they actually expect to be moving forward constantly. However, Cawsey, et al. (2016: 218) indicate that the inverse applies when they state that “age was found to be negatively related to resistance”, thus implying that “resistance decreased as age increased”, therefore suggesting that older people are more receptive to change as compared to their younger counterparts. Bourne (2015), in contrast, found that older workers are more prone to resist change and also that organisations are inclined to propose or implement organisational changes with little to no regard for the years of service of many of their employees (Bourne, 2015). Given the contesting views above, it is evident that organisational change and restructuring initiatives affect employees in different ways and that employees of different ages, as in the cases cited above, do not experience change in the same manner or with the same intensity.

4.3 Commitment to Change

Organisational commitment is defined as “the strength of an individual’s identification and involvement in an organisation” (Allen & Meyer, 1990: 2; Bluedorn, 1982: 137). There are also other definitions for organisational commitment, for example, that it is “a force [mind set] that binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more targets” (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002: 475) or which describe “commitment *to change* as a force (mindset) that binds an individual to a course of action deemed necessary for the successful implementation of a change initiative” (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002: 475). An employee’s commitment *to change* refers to an individual’s degree of “willingness and desire to support change” (Seo et al., 2012). Establishing employees’ propensity for change is critical for organisational change processes and change leaders as a lack of commitment (to change) is considered one of the most prevalent factors contributing to failed change projects (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002).

It has been stated by Aamodt (2010: 366), Allen and Meyer (1990), Appelbaum, et al. (2015), Herscovitch and Meyer (2002), McCormick and Donohue (2016), Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnytsky (2002), Ortiz and Lau (2011), Sofat et al. (2015: 72), and Visagie and Steyn (2011) that organisational commitment comprises the following three motivational facets, namely, affective commitment, which refers to the extent to which an employee wants to remain with the organisation, continuance commitment, which refers to the extent to which an employee believes that he or she must remain with the organisation due to the time and other resources already committed to the organisation, as well as the difficulty in finding alternative employment, and normative commitment, which refers to the extent to which the employee feels obligated to the organisation and, as a result of this, will remain with the organisation.

Research conducted by Sofat et al. (2015) concluded that, of the three types, the normative commitment of employees is the highest. The antecedents of affective and normative commitment to change include role scope, perceived organisational support, perceived personal importance (highest and most important) and role ambiguity (affective commitment to change and socialisation, which refers to normative commitment to change) (McCormick & Donohue, 2016; Ortiz & Lau, 2011).

Seo et al.'s (2012) study had a number of different objectives, of which three are now presented. Firstly, the study aimed to examine both the short and the long-term influence of employee emotion on their commitment and behavioural chain of reactions, noting that resistance to change should preferably not be confused with a lack of support for change. The second objective of their research was to propose and empirically examine the psychological processes that emerge as employees experience a range of either positive or negative emotions during organisational change. The study also sought to examine how employees develop affective and normative commitment to the change response and then manifest supportive, resistant and/or creative change behaviours (Seo et al., 2012: 123). The researchers decided on these

objectives as they believed it to be vitally important for organisational leaders to fully comprehend all the related processes in order to effectively and successfully implement change. The third objective of their research aimed at examining how employee affective and behavioural reactions to change raises questions associated with effective leadership during organisational change initiatives, especially leadership which recognises and manages employee emotional experiences.

Furthermore, the study of Seo et al. (2012) investigated the distinct dimensions of commitment to change with the results of their longitudinal study showing that the positive and negative experiences of employees during the initial phases of organisational change were strongly related to the employees' behavioural responses during the later phases of the change. The same study produced evidence indicating that the transformational leadership styles of managers were directly related to the employees' positive affective reactions and inversely related to the employees' negative affective reactions (Seo et al., 2012). Various sources from existing literature suggest that the intense negative emotions experienced by employees lie at the very heart of their low commitment to change (Seo et al., 2012). A relationship between commitment and turnover was also found, implying that those employees who are strongly committed (to the organisation) are the ones who are the least likely to leave the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

4.4 Job (In)Security

Job insecurity, the inverse of job security, is defined as the "perceived powerlessness to maintain desired continuity in a threatened job situation" or as a "concern about the future existence of a job" (Borg & Elizur, 1992: 13). Research has found job insecurity to be a direct consequence of organisational restructuring and experienced by both the victims and survivors of organisational restructuring processes (Swanson & Power, 2001). Organisational restructuring usually leads to increased job demands, which has been shown to impact negatively on the physical and psychological health of

employees (Köper & Richter, 2014; Swanson & Power, 2001; Widerszal-Bazyl & Mockało, 2015; Wiezer et al., 2011).

Changes affecting job security or employment security are evident in many organisations and often manifest in the form of rapid organisational restructuring processes, mergers and acquisitions and other forms of organisational restructuring. Significant relationships have been identified between job insecurity (JI) and reduced work effort, a greater propensity to leave the organisation (turnover and turnover intention), increased resistance to change, lower levels of job involvement, lower levels of organisational commitment, increased psychological withdrawal, lower levels of job satisfaction and lower levels of trust in management (Borg & Elizur, 1992).

4.5 Summary of the Literature Review: Organisational Behaviour

It is evident that organisational restructuring processes have an impact on organisational behaviour, individual employees' health and well-being, and that they may eventually affect overall organisational performance (Widerszal-Bazyl & Mockało, 2015). Organisational restructuring may increase distrust in the organisation as it may infringe on the psychological contract, resulting in increased job insecurity, turnover intention, deviant behaviour, resistance to change and negatively affecting employee well-being (nationally and across borders) (Böckerman & Maliranta, 2013; Marais & Hofmeyr, 2013; Widerszal-Bazyl & Mockało, 2015; Wiezer et al., 2011). Organisational restructuring also reduces job satisfaction and organisational commitment with different types of restructuring impacting in different ways on different individuals (Widerszal-Bazyl & Mockało, 2015; Wiezer et al., 2011). However, it has also been found that some forms of organisational restructuring, such as mergers or acquisitions, may have positive outcomes for certain employees (Arnolds et al., 2013).

There has been sufficient research conducted on the constructs associated with organisational behaviour and the constructs used in this study. Organisations

and institutions consist of individuals and are controlled or managed by individuals. It is, thus, essential that the synergy between these levels of individuals is understood. In order to ensure that organisations are efficient and perform optimally, an understanding of their inner workings become vital for future sustainability.

A careful consideration of the values and affective and demographic variances in individuals is key to a better understanding of how employees interpret or perceive events, interactions, treatment and fairness in the organisation. A significant amount of research has established both positive and negative relationships of organisational change initiatives and organisational behaviour, and how these initiatives impact on organisational supportive and attitudinal behaviour of individuals. For example, research has found the trust employees have in the management of organisations may determine their level of commitment to the organisation as well as their intentions either to stay with or leave the organisation (Cropanzano & Molina, 2015). Research has also found how the affective moods (positive or negative) of employees are important antecedents to work-related attitudes, such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviours (Luthans, 2011).

The turnover intention of employees are significantly increased when perceived organisational injustice (unfairness) is high or decreased when the perceived organisational injustice is low. The latter usually manifests itself in the form of delinquent work behaviour such as absenteeism (Zagladi, Hadiwidjojo, Rahayu & Noermijati, 2015). According to Swanson and Power (2001), it has been determined that job insecurity is a direct consequence of organisational restructuring, and that job insecurity increases employees' turnover intention, resistance to change and their psychological withdrawal (Borg & Elizur, 1992).

In short, it is imperative that organisational leaders, managers, supervisors and human resources divisions are cognisant of the human element during organisational change processes as research has determined the effects of

organisational restructuring on individuals. If behavioural outcomes affect individuals, this will in return affect organisational performance.

5. Psychological Capital and Personal Resources

Positive Organisational Behaviour and Positive Organisational Scholarship

Positive organisational scholarship is an “umbrella concept used to unify a variety of approaches in organisational studies, each of which incorporates the notion of ‘the positive’” (Cameron & Spreitzer, 2012: 1). Positive organisational scholarship was first introduced in 2003 as a new field of study in the organisational sciences (Cameron & Spreitzer, 2012). Positive organisational behaviour as a construct was initially defined as “the study and application of positively oriented human resources strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement” (Luthans, 2002: 59; Luthans, 2011: 199; Luthans et al., 2007a: 542; Luthans et al., 2008: 220; Luthans et al.; 2007b: 10; Youssef & Luthans, 2012: 17).

Positive organisational scholarship and positive organisational behaviour are parallel organisational behavioural movements which originally emanated from two research groups with positive organisational scholarship emerging from the research of Cameron, Dutton and Quinn (2003) and positive organisational behaviour from that of Luthans (2002) and Luthans et al. (2007b). Positive organisational scholarship and positive organisational behaviour, although parallel constructs, are complementary constructs with positive organisational scholarship focusing more on the macro or organisational level and positive organisational behaviour on the micro and individual level (Cameron & Spreitzer, 2012; Luthans et al., 2007b; Verleysen, Lambrechts & Van Acker, 2015; Youssef & Luthans, 2007).

Positive organisational behaviour distinguishes itself from positive organisational scholarship in that it “exclusively focuses on psychological resource capacities that are state-like” (Youssef & Luthans, 2007: 775) whereas other positive approaches and constructs rely on “stable, more trait-like characteristics that tend to be developed over time” (Youssef & Luthans, 2007: 776). The critical difference between the two is that the latter construct does not lend itself to the increased pace of change, time constraints and dwindling financial resources, which are characteristic of today’s organisations (Youssef & Luthans, 2007).

In order for positive organisational scholarship to be included in the positive organisational behaviour construct, it must meet the following defined positive organisational behaviour criteria; which require that it must be based on theory and research, that it have valid measures, it must be state-like and open to development and it must be managed in the interests of performance improvement in order to demonstrably improve human performance in the workplace in respect of all human resources capacity (Luthans, 2002; 2011).

Research supports the positive states, for example, emotions and self-efficacy, where relationships were found to impact on organisational behaviours and organisational outcomes (Youssef & Luthans, 2007). In view of the fact that positive organisational behaviour is state-like and it may be developed, the positive psychological resources of hope, efficacy, resilience and hope may collectively be used, either by the individual employee or the organisation’s human resources division in order to impact directly on work performance and in turn on relationships, and ultimately, on health and well-being (Luthans, 2011).

5.1 Psychological Capital

Psychological capital, also referred to PsyCap, uses positive organisational behaviour as a point of departure and expands and applies the positive organisational behaviour research. Positive organisational scholarship and

positive organisational behaviour created the foundational perspective for psychological capital (Luthans et al., 2015: 12). According to Aliyev and Tunc (2015), Hansen, Buitendach and Kanengoni (2015), Hicks and Knies (2015), Lorenz, Beer, Pütz and Heinitz (2016), Ming-Chu and Meng-Hsiu (2015), Youssef and Luthans (2012), the four psychological resources of hope, efficacy, resilience and optimism have been proved to be measurably reliable as well as a valid higher-order, latent multidimensional construct of psychological capital.

Luthans, Youssef and Avolio (2007b: 3) and Youssef and Luthans (2012: 18) defined the construct of psychological capital as “an individual’s positive psychological state of development” that is characterised by having the confidence (self-efficacy) required to attempt and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks, making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding in the present and in the future, persevering toward goals (hope) in order to succeed and, when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resiliency) in order to attain success.

“The underlying theoretical mechanism shared among Psychological Capital’s four constituent psychological resources is a cognitive, agentic, developmental capacity representing one’s positive appraisal of circumstances and probability for success based on motivated effort and perseverance” (Youssef & Luthans, 2012: 19). There is sufficient evidence from across industries and global cultures which proves that psychological capital may be validly measured and is a higher order construct, thus implying that psychological capital may predict desired outcomes better than each of the individual components thereof (Luthans et al., 2015: 30; Preface: x).

Change in organisations is ubiquitous and thus an organisation’s human and social capital needs require continuous adjustment to ensure that the organisation remains current, competitive and relevant (Luthans et al., 2015). The ability to continually adjust and adapt has paved the way for psychological capital as a means of sustainable competitive advantage by augmenting the human and social capital of employees, as well as optimising all the capital resources available (Luthans et al., 2015).

Luthans et al. (2015) refer to a meta-analysis of 51 studies which provided evidence of the significant relationships between an employee's psychological capital and a range of work outcomes, such as positive relationships with performance, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, psychological well-being and organisational citizenship behaviour as well as negative relationships with cynicism, turnover intention, stress, anxiety and counterproductive work behaviours (Luthans et al., 2015).

The study of Lorenz et al. (2016: 12) aimed to develop and validate "a German compound measure for PsyCap, with the general claim of being applicable to all domains for life". The study found that psychological capital may, indeed, be used as general construct and not only in the context of positive organisational behaviour. By excluding items from the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24) with specific work-related connotations, the instrument could be used in different areas, such as sport and education or in small or volunteering organisations (Lorenz et al., 2016).

Görgens-Ekermans and Herbert (2013) refer to research which indicates that psychological capital has been proven to positively influence or contribute to increased work engagement, reduced stress, increase job performance as well as health-related and workplace outcomes. In addition, sufficient research has been conducted which emphasises the role of psychological capital as a predictor of employee well-being and employee psychological well-being over time (Görgens-Ekermans & Herbert, 2013). Psychological capital has also been proven to be state-like and may be changed and developed (Görgens-Ekermans & Herbert, 2013).

A growing number of studies have explicitly demonstrated that psychological capital does, indeed, have an impact on desired outcomes in the workplace, such as employee performance and satisfaction (Hansen et al., 2015; Lorenz, et al., 2016; Youssef & Luthans, 2012). Luthans et al. (2008: 233) confirmed in

their research that “psychological capital was found to be positively related to performance, satisfaction and commitment”.

According to Youssef and Luthans (2012), psychological capital is negatively related to organisational cynicism, employees’ intention to quit, counterproductive workplace behaviours and job search behaviour, among others (Youssef & Luthans, 2012). Lorenz, et al. (2016: 3) explicitly states that “people high in psychological capital also report higher job satisfaction”. This statement is also supported by Youssef and Luthans (2012: 20) who indicated that psychological capital focuses primarily on positivity at an individual level and that it has also been supported “as a mediator of the relationship between a supportive organisational climate and employee performance and between authentic leadership and intact work groups’ performance and citizenship behaviour” (Youssef & Luthans, 2012: 21).

The studies of Newman et al. (2014) focused on psychological capital’s previously ignored role as a mediator and also assessed the moderators, such as age, in the relationship between psychological capital and its outcomes in the workplace. Their research found that psychological capital has a more significant influence on certain individuals at the individual level than it has on other individuals. Although it was found that psychological capital may benefit certain individuals, such as minority groups although, in situations when clearer communication is practised during the change, it may, in fact, negatively influence job performance (Newman et al., 2014). At the team level it was found that more participative and authentic leadership practices may advance psychological capital in individuals. Newman et al. (2014) advised that more research be carried out at the organisational and industry levels to assess how participative and authentic leadership practices moderate the impact of psychological capital on work outcomes.

Although in the past psychological capital was always studied at an individual level, recent studies have started considering it as a team and organisational level construct (Newman et al., 2014). In addition, it has also been posited that

employees who “perceived higher levels of supervisor support had higher levels of PsyCap, which in turn predicated higher levels of performance” (Newman et al., 2014: 125).

Research has also revealed positive relationships between psychological capital and employee perceptions of external prestige, the strength of an individual’s ethnic identity, leadership behaviour (transformational and transactional) and authentic leadership. The existence of positive relationships were established between the leaders’ psychological capital and the followers’ psychological capital. It was also found that psychological capital positively influences employees’ intentions to stay with an organisation as well as their organisational commitment, and also that it was positively related to cynicism, and extra-role behaviours, such as organisational citizenship behaviours, lower levels of absenteeism, individual job-performance, financial and manager-rated performance (service industry) and job performance in non-US cultures, such as China. Psychological capital, the unidimensional construct, has been found to be positively related to team-level performance while organisational-level psychological capital was strongly related to the subsequent financial performance of the organisation (Newman et al., 2014). In addition, it was also found that individuals high in psychological capital were more empowered than others and this in turn reduced their turnover intention (Newman et al., 2014).

5.1.1 Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is the first and most theoretically developed and researched construct of positive organisational behaviour. It has a widely acclaimed foundation which is based in theory, largely due to the psychologist, Alfred Bandura (Luthans, 2002; 2011), who also provided the following formal definition of self-efficacy, stating that it is “how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations” (Luthans, 2002: 60; Luthans, 2011: 203). A broader definition of self-efficacy states that it “refers to an individual’s conviction (or confidence) about his or her abilities to mobilise the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to successfully execute a specific task within a given context” (Luthans, 2002: 60; Luthans,

2011: 203). Self-efficacy may improve performance which in turn improves self-efficacy, and so on (Luthans, 2011). Although both successful and unsuccessful experiences may affect self-efficacy, self-efficacy may also affect successful and unsuccessful experiences (Aliyev & Tunc, 2014). Psychological endurance is a component of psychological capital and is referred to as the psychological capacity of an individual to overcome negativity, obscurity or change when such is experienced (Aliyev & Tunc, 2014).

The personal qualities of individuals are an important factor in psychological capital (Hicks & Knies, 2015). An individual's ability to adapt and remain flexible amid organisational change has been found to be critical in organisational adaptability and success. Organisations with the capacity to respond effectively and swiftly to changing (internal and external environmental) circumstances will be able to survive and even thrive. Organisations are ubiquitous, and change is the only constant, in both governmental organisations and institutions, while no private sector organisation is really immune to it (Hicks & Knies, 2015).

Psychological capital efficacy is defined in Luthans et al. (2015: 50) as "one's belief about his or her ability to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action necessary to execute a specific action within a given context". Self-efficacious people are distinguished by the following five important characteristics: they "set high goals for themselves and self-select into difficult tasks, they welcome and thrive on challenges, they are highly self-motivated, they invest the necessary effort to accomplish their goals and, when faced with obstacles, they persevere" (Luthans et al., 2015: 51).

Whereas individuals with low efficacy may be devastated by negative feedback or criticism, it would not have as much of an impact on individuals with high levels of self-efficacy (Luthans et al., 2015). Luthans (2002) states that self-efficacy best meets the remaining three positive organisational behaviour criteria of valid measurement, ease of development and the potential for performance improvement, while research has found that it has a significant impact of work-related performance. In fact, one study recorded a 28% increase

in work-related performance as a result of self-efficacy (Luthans, 2002). Research has also indicated that a leader's efficacy will impact strongly on the followers, enhancing both their efficacy and their performance (Luthans, 2002).

5.1.2 Hope

Hope is defined as “a positive motivational state that is based on an interactively derived sense of successful agency (goal-directed energy) and pathways (planning to meet goals), where ‘agency’ represents willpower and pathways represent waypower (Luthans et al., 2015: 83). Hope is state-like and it may be developed through training and development, thereby improving both job performance and staff retention. Research on hope is closely associated with clinical psychology and, as a result, the relevancy of hope in the workplace has been identified (Luthans et al., 2015).

Research found a positive relationship between organisational leaders' level of hope and the “profitability of their units and the satisfaction and retention of their employees” (Luthans et al., 2015: 84) while earlier research found that managers with “higher hope levels had correspondingly higher performing work units, better retention rates and more satisfied employees” (Luthans, 2011: 217). In a study of over a 1000 managers and employees, it was proved that their hope levels were “positively related to their performance, job satisfaction, work happiness and organisational commitment” (Luthans et al., 2015, 84). It was also found that the employees' level of hope was related to their job satisfaction, organisational commitment and performance, among others (Luthans, 2011).

Hope is “positively related to increased levels of self-esteem, positive thoughts, optimism, psychological well-being, physical health and resilience, and negatively linked with depression and externalising behaviours” (Satici, 2016: 69). Research conducted by Carlsen, Landsverk Hagen and Mortensen (2012) found that high levels of hope are positively related to physical health, psychological adjustment and psychotherapy while such high levels have also been associated favourably with outcomes in organisations. The research

suggests an association between employees' high levels of hope and organisational profits. This assertion is supported by psychological capital research which has linked hope and job satisfaction as well as organisational commitment and performance (Carlsen et al., 2012).

5.1.3 Optimism

Optimism is defined as “an attributional style that explains positive events in terms of personal, permanent, and pervasive causes and negative events in terms of external, temporary, and situation-specific ones” (Youssef & Luthans, 2007). “Optimists are people who expect good things to happen to them; pessimists are people who expect bad things to happen to them” (Carver, Scheier & Segerstrom, 2010: 879). However, optimism, unlike self-efficacy, is a trait and, therefore, fairly stable over time.

According to Luthans et al. (2015: 129), “optimism has been depicted as both dispositional and trait-like and, thus, relatively fixed, but also state-like, that is, ‘learned optimism’”. Optimism, by definition, is inversely related to hopelessness and is a risk factor in depressive disorders although it may also produce resilience during stressful situations or life events (Carver et al., 2010). The scientific definitions of optimism and pessimism focus on “expectancies for the future” (Carver et al., 2010: 880). Optimists are less reactive than pessimists to the stresses of life and, thus, they experience less physical wear on the body, maintaining or increasing physical health and longevity (Carver et al., 2010). Employees who are optimistic are more inclined to embrace change as opposed to employees who are pessimistic. As with resiliency, self-awareness in managers who engage in authentic leadership, will increase both their and their followers' levels of optimism (Luthans et al., 2015). Organisational leaders high in psychological capital optimism focus on developing their followers, thereby creating more leaders by developing their optimism. Research indicates that optimism is significantly linked with desirable manager (leader) and follower characteristics, including happiness, perseverance, achievement and health and also that it is significantly linked to leaders and leadership (Luthans, 2002).

Research support “the beneficial effects of optimism and hope on well-being. Specifically, both optimism and hope are positively related to indicators of psychological and physical health” (Alarcon, Bowling & Khazon, 2013: 822). Optimism and hope are finite, as is the case with other resources, and may become depleted when used in excess (Alarcon et al., 2013). Research has concluded that both optimism and hope are associated with beneficial outcomes and positively related to the indicators of well-being (Alarcon et al., 2013). The two constructs are distinct constructs and may be distinguished from each other empirically (Alarcon et al., 2013). Optimism is associated with increased emotional well-being, more effective coping strategies, increased physical health and improved interpersonal relationships (Carver et al., 2010).

5.1.4 Resilience

Resilience, as a component of positive organisational behaviour, has been defined as “the developable capacity to rebound or bounce back from adversity, conflict, and failure or even positive events, progress, and increased responsibility” (Luthans, 2011: 218; Youssef & Luthans, 2007: 778). Resilience may be used either as a reactive recovery mechanism or as a proactive tool to be utilised for learning and growth through conquering challenges (Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Positive psychology defines resilience as “a class of phenomena characterised by patterns of positive adaptation in the context of significant adversity to risk” (Luthans, 2011: 218).

Several definitions of ‘resilience’ exist, and they have been taken from across disciplines. Resilience has also been defined as “the ability to bend and not break” (Caza & Milton, 2012: 896) or “a relatively stable personality trait characterised by the ability to bounce back from negative experiences and by flexible adaptation to the ever-changing demands of life” (Caza & Milton, 2012: 896). Other definitions describe resilience as “a general state of being that allows living organisms to positively adapt to adversity” (Caza & Milton, 2012: 896) or “the ability to maintain psychological stability and experience fewer mental health problems when presented with a threat” (Caza & Milton, 2012:

896). These definitions all make provision for or allow individuals to be responsive to ongoing change and uncertainties that would otherwise present themselves as a source of psychological strain and psychical well-being over a period of time. Resiliency has moved from being a desirable characteristic possessed by a few to an “essential attribute of today’s employees, managers, organisations and even countries” (Luthans, 2011: 218).

Resilience, too, is state-like, it may be developed through training and it may be reliably measured (Luthans et al., 2007). Research conducted by Luthans et al. (2007) concluded that a positive relationship between resiliency and workplace performance outcomes exists, as well as between resilience and bottom-lines gains. Their research also found that resiliency increases job satisfaction and organisational commitment, among others. A change in perspective, namely, viewing resiliency as proactive rather than reactive, may result in sustainable positive gains for the organisation (Luthans et al., 2007).

In addition to the above, leadership too has been found to be a significant contributor to enhancing the resilience of employees (Luthans et al., 2007; Luthans et al., 2015). It was found that authentic leadership enhances the resilience in followers as it allowed for open and honest communication and enhanced self-awareness in managers, thereby increasing their own resilience. Luthans et al. (2015) state that authentic leadership enhances follower resilience, with the most powerful leadership combination being that of transformational and authentic leadership (Luthans et al., 2015).

5.2 Summary of the Literature Review: Psychological Capital

Positive organisational scholarship and positive organisational behaviour are concepts that are both parallel and complementary. They concerned themselves with ‘the positive’ (Cameron & Spreitzer, 2012; Luthans, Youssef & Avolio, 2007b; Verleysen et al., 2015; Youssef & Luthans, 2007c) and, ultimately, gave rise to the composite construct of psychological capital (Luthans et al., 2015). Psychological capital consists of four sub-constructs,

namely, hope, optimism, self-efficacy and resilience. It has been found to be a latent, multidimensional and valid higher-order construct, capable of being reliably measured. The composite and sub-constructs of psychological capital all meet the positive organisational behaviour criteria for inclusion. It is to be noted that only hope and optimism, of the four facets of psychological capital, are focused on the future whereas self-efficacy and resilience, focuses on the past.

Research has reliably concluded that emphasising the positive over the negative allows both individuals and organisations to flourish (Cameron & Spreitzer, 2012). The research of Luthans et al. (2015) further established relationships between psychological capital and efficacy, performance and team effectiveness, as well with organisational commitment and job satisfaction while efficacy was found to be negatively related to job withdrawal.

Research has also found that persons high in psychological capital demonstrated better overall well-being and performed better than those with lower levels of psychological capital. The unidimensional construct, psychological capital, was found to be positively related with both team performance while organisational-level psychological capital was strongly related to the organisation's subsequent financial performance. Individuals high in psychological capital exhibited reduced levels of turnover intention while leaders high in psychological capital influenced their followers' psychological capital (Newman et al., 2014).

Research has found that psychological capital as a unidimensional construct better and more accurately predicted related outcomes as compared to each of its individual facets (Luthans et al., 2007; Luthans et al., 2015; Youssef & Luthans, 2012). It has also been found that psychological capital is related to the more desirable employee attitudes, such as organisational commitment, psychological well-being and, especially, employee performance and correlates negatively with undesirable attitudes, such as cynicism, turnover intention and stress (Avey et al., 2011). Research has also found positive correlations

between psychological capital and desirable employee behaviours such as organisational citizenship behaviours and employee performance and undesirable employee behaviours, such as deviance (Avey et al., 2011).

The introduction of 'the positive' into the workplace by means of positive organisational scholarship, positive organisational behaviour and, ultimately, psychological capital came about at an opportune time as the majority of organisations were already experiencing the negative impact of organisational change processes. It is, therefore, more than worthwhile for organisations, organisational leaders and change leaders to invest in understanding the importance of emphasising the positive rather than the negative in their organisations.

6. Relationships between Constructs

6.1 Relationship between Organisational Restructuring and Organisational Behaviour, across Sectors

6.1.1 Relationship between Organisational Restructuring and Turnover Intention

The negative impact on the organisation of the intention to leave, even if it has not yet been converted into the decision to leave the organisation, is widely known and usually manifests in the form of absenteeism or delinquent workplace behaviour (Zagladi et al., 2015). Previous research, as referred to in Brashear et al. (2003), confirms that a negative relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intention exists. The findings of the abovementioned research have indicated that commitment mediates both job satisfaction and turnover intention (Brashear et al., 2003).

Bluedorn (1982) refers to research which confirms that organisational commitment is significantly and consistently related to turnover. The results of Zagladi et al.'s (2015) research revealed that organisational justice (or fairness) has a significant negative effect on turnover intention, that job satisfaction is able to mediate the effect of organisational justice on turnover intention, and

that individuals' perception of injustice (unfairness) increases their desire to exit the organisation. The research also found that organisational justice increases job satisfaction and reduces turnover intention and also that low power distance is not able to alter the effect of organisational justice on the turnover intention of employees (Zagladi et al., 2015).

6.1.2 Relationship between Organisational Restructuring and Resistance to Change

Individuals often see change as threatening. Employees who are negative about the change often express this through absenteeism and resignations while, at the same time, draining the organisation of the energy needed for the change (Robbins & Judge, 2013).

The research of García-Cabrera and García-Barba Hernández (2014) revealed that job security is negatively related to both resistance and resistant thinking about change. The research of Hasanaj and Manxhari (2016) found that, in their study, demographics did not influence the employees' resistance to change although the level of cognition played a role as less educated employees were more resistant to change as compared to their educated counterparts. Hasanaj and Manxhari (2016) recommended that change management focus on providing more training to less educated employees, thereby alleviating the negative attitudes they so often displayed towards organisational change.

6.1.3 Relationship between Organisational Restructuring, Organisational Commitment and Commitment to Change

Effective organisational change is essential for organisational competitiveness although it does depend on the organisation's ability to foster its employees' active support for the change programmes (Battistelli, Montani, Odoardi, Vandenberghe & Picci, 2014).

It is possible that organisational change may have negative effects on employees, manifesting in the form of low morale, stress, anxiety or a lack of commitment (Sofat et al., 2015). Employees who demonstrate higher levels of commitment will have higher levels of job satisfaction and a continual presence

at work whereas the inverse is applicable to employees with lower levels of commitment. Further findings indicate that there is a positive association between organisational change initiatives and organisational commitment (Sofat et al., 2015).

Seo et al. (2012: 122) point out that various sources from literature suggest that the intense negative emotions experienced by employees are at the very heart of their low commitment to change and may even lead to posttraumatic stress and affect the emotional well-being of employees. According to Seo et al. (2012), a measure of indirect evidence exists indicating that the outcome of intense emotional experiences during organisational change may persist for some time. However, whereas negative emotions may lead to the development of posttraumatic stress, positive emotions may also result in the accumulation of enduring personal resources (e.g. physical, intellectual, social and/or psychological) in respect of effective coping and personal well-being (Seo et al., 2012). Seo et al. (2012) state that an employee's early affective experiences during organisational change will impact on the employee's affective and normative commitment to change. This may occur in both the early and late phases of change. According to Paolilo, Platania, Magnano and Ramaci (2015: 1697), "commitment is considered one of the most important factors involved in employees' support for change initiatives".

The psychological experiences of employees during change may dramatically affect successful change initiatives (Battistelli et al., 2014). Battistelli et al. (2014: 952) identified a variety of change-related attitudes and perceptions at the individual level. These variables encompass the psychological states which employees undergo during critical organisational change processes (Battistelli et al., 2014), and include attitudes toward change, disruptions in sense-making, ambivalence towards change, openness to change and commitment to change.

Battistelli et al. (2014) also identified employees' concerns about change as a potential barrier to the implementation of successful change programmes. Their study aimed to measure employees' concerns about change and its

(employees' concerns) relationship with commitment to change. "Concerns about change are conceptualised as including an affective component, namely, the arisen state of fear and worry; and a cognitive component, indicated by the specific object related to the change" (Battistelli et al., 2014: 953). They indicated that the concerns about change, in fact, differ from commitment to change, where the latter is focused on the individual's determination to comply with the change (Battistelli et al., 2014). Concerns about change may then affect one's commitment to change with research indicating that high levels of concerns about change may result in a decrease in the employees' support for the change while resistance to the change increases (Battistelli et al., 2014). In addition to affective and normative commitment to change, there is the continuance commitment to change which is based on the recognition either that there are no costs associated with failure to support the change (Aamodt, 2010; Battistelli et al., 2014) or the employee's recognition of the costs associated with leaving the organisation (Ortiz & Lau, 2011; Paolilo et al., 2015).

A negative link was found to exist between cognitive resistance to change and continuance commitment. Battistelli et al. (2014: 956, 973) highlighted that employees' worries and fear about change may be negatively related to their desire to work toward the change (affective commitment) as well as their sense of duty to support it (normative commitment). Accordingly, all components of concerns about change "are highly conducive to affective, normative and continuance commitment to change" (Battistelli et al., 2014: 973).

6.1.4 Relationship between Organisational Restructuring and Job (In)Security

Job insecurity has been shown to be a direct consequence of organisational restructuring which is experienced by both the victims and survivors of organisational restructuring processes (Swanson & Power, 2001). Organisational restructuring usually leads to increased job demands, which may impact negatively on both the physical and the psychological health of

employees (Köper & Richter, 2014; Swanson & Power, 2001; Widerszal-Bazyl & Mockało, 2015; Wiezer et al., 2011).

Research has found evidence of relationships between job insecurity and increased turnover intention and resistance to change and psychological withdrawal (Borg & Elizur, 1992). Relationships have also been found between job insecurity and lowered work effort, job involvement, organisational commitment, job satisfaction and trust in management (Borg & Elizur, 1992). Dachapalli and Parumasur (2012) investigated the susceptibility of employees to experience job insecurity. The study found that the overall biographical profile (including gender, age, tenure, race, number of years in current position and region) of employees “significantly influence overall job insecurity” (Dachapalli & Parumasur, 2012: 40) thus providing evidence of the link between the biographical profiles of employees and susceptibility to job insecurity.

6.2 Relationship between Organisational Restructuring and Effective Change Management

6.2.1 Relationship between Organisational Restructuring and Change Management Processes

As found in the study conducted by Wiezer et al. (2011) organisational restructuring impacts on the well-being of employees. However, it is possible for these effects, which are usually negative, to be alleviated or even obviated. If a change programme is to be successfully implemented it is essential that there is communication at all levels, including dialogue between the stakeholders, employee participation in the change processes, and support from the supervisors and/or line managers (Wiezer et al., 2011).

According to Köper and Richter (2014), the impact of restructuring is evident. They found that honest and timely communication during change programmes may reduce uncertainties and enhance job satisfaction and commitment. Increased fairness and trust (in the organisation) and perceived social support (from both supervisors and the organisation) are significant social resources

upon which employees may draw during turbulent moments of change (Köper & Richter, 2014).

The majority of the literature on change is focused on the increase in stress during change initiatives. However, little has been said about the reduction of stress as a result of change, either as a result of management's deliberate efforts to do this or as a by-product of achieving other organisational objectives (Smollan, 2015). Work-related stress is exacerbated by psychological demands, such as job insecurity, perceived lack of support or unfairness (organisational injustice) and even further by organisational change. Many of the respondents in relevant studies have indicated that their stress levels increased during times of change, especially those respondents who had been identified as being affected by the change. Research conducted by Adil (2016) and Smollan (2015) has confirmed that organisational change does, indeed, have negative consequences for employers and employees.

In research conducted with the employees of restructured health care institutions in Britain, it was found that it was only in cases where changes involved increased amounts of work and job insecurity that such changes had impacted adversely on the well-being of these employees (Widerszal-Bazyl & Mockało, 2015). On the other hand, the availability of training and developing initiatives had the inverse effect and resulted in employees experiencing positive psychological and physical well-being (Widerszal-Bazyl & Mockało, 2015).

A study conducted by Van der Voet and Vermeeren (2017) with 6 066 employees in the Dutch public sector aimed to assess the impact of cutbacks on the organisational commitment and work engagement of employees, and how change management may mitigate the impact. The study found that cutbacks reduced the employees' organisational commitment but found that communication, participation and social exchange relationships had the inverse effect (Van der Voet & Vermeeren, 2017).

6.2.2 Relationship between Organisational Restructuring and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)

The three domains of leadership, namely, leader, follower and relationship, as posited by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995), demonstrate that leader-member exchange incorporates an “operationalisation of a relationship-based approach to leadership” (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995: 225). This implies that when mature relationships between leaders and followers are formed, effective leadership processes are possible.

Previous research examined the relationship between leader-member exchange and outcomes such as subordinate work-related attitudes and performance. The research found that favourable downward exchange relationships resulted in higher satisfaction, stronger organisational commitment, increased citizenship behaviours and subordinate performance, among others (Altunoğlu & Gürel, 2015; Yukl, 2013). The research also found that leaders who establish favourable relationships with line managers tend to have favourable relationships with their subordinates (Yukl, 2013). It has also been found that, when leaders direct a certain behaviour at selected individuals, this increases self-efficacy of these individuals. The quality of the exchange relationship between leader and follower usually involves mutual trust and respect, support and a degree of loyalty (Yukl, 2013). Mehta (2016) conducted a study to assess the different types of employee reactions to continuous change as well the social exchange variables that influence employee reactions to change. It was suggested that low leader-member exchange would increase employee turnover intention as it negatively affects employee feelings and cognition (Mehta, 2016).

6.2.3 Relationship between Organisational Restructuring and Perceived Organisational Support (POS)

The study by Altunoğlu and Gürel (2015) set out to prove the existence of a relationship between organisational innovation, leader-member exchange and perceived organisational support. A positive relationship between perceived organisational support and work-related attitudes, as well as the fact that

perceived organisational support is an antecedent for employee creativity, was found (Altunoğlu & Gürel, 2015). It was also found that individuals with strong perceived organisational support perceptions are more likely to demonstrate high(er) levels of organisational citizenship behaviours as compared to their counterparts with weak perceived organisational support perceptions (Robbins & Judge, 2013).

The results of Wiezer et al.'s (2011) research supported the role of perceived organisational support and personal resources, which contributes to predicting the change in the job positions of individuals as a result of mergers. Employees who experience perceived organisational support are more likely to engage psychologically (Fuchs & Prouska, 2014).

The research of Fuchs and Prouska (2014) found that employee participation in change projects mediated the relationship between an employee's perceived organisational support and his/her positive evaluation of the change. Their results also indicate that an employee's perception of supervisor and co-worker support positively affects the employee's evaluation of change. More importantly, the results showed that perceived organisational and supervisor support create positive change evaluations (Fuchs & Prouska, 2014).

The results of research conducted by Afsar and Badir (2016) and Afsar, Badir and Khan (2015) revealed that perceived organisational support mediates the relationship between person-organisation fit and organisational citizenship behaviour and also that this occurs when an employee's beliefs, skills and values match those of the organisation.

Kurtessis, Eisenberger, Ford, Buffardi, Stewart and Adis (2015) conducted a meta-analytical study of the results of 558 studies in order to assess employee perception about the extent to which their organisations care about them. The study found that perceived organisational support to be positively related to social exchange and negatively related to economic exchange with employees high in perceived organisational support demonstrating more trust in their organisations as compared to those low in perceived organisational support.

Their research also found that employees high in perceived organisational support manifested greater normative commitment towards the organisation while perceived organisational support was found to be related to the behavioural outcomes which contribute to organisational citizenship behaviour. The study also found that perceived organisational support increased employee engagement in organisational citizenship behaviours (Kurtessis et al., 2015).

The research of Wayne, Shore and Liden (1997) concluded that unique antecedents of leader-member exchange and perceived organisational support exist but that they are related in different ways to outcome variables. Their research supports the importance of both types of exchanges, namely, leader-member exchange and perceived organisational support and found that the two exchanges are empirically related although conceptually distinct. The study was conducted with over 20 000 employees throughout the United States (Wayne, Shore & Liden, 1997). Research has shown leader-member exchange to be a predictor of perceived organisational support with perceived organisational support being closely associated with leader support (Wayne et al., 1997). The research also found that leader-member exchange and perceived organisational support are, indeed, two separate constructs and are measured as such, with each of the constructs influencing different outcomes. The most important aspect of their research was the finding that the quality of leader-member exchange had a stronger effect on perceived organisational support, thereby concluding that leader-member exchange is a key determining factor in employees' perceptions of organisational support (Wayne et al., 1997). In line with previous research, these researchers also found that leader-member exchange influenced perceived organisational support and that the quality of perceived organisational support may affect the quality of leader-member exchange (Wayne et al., 1997). The research concluded that leader-member exchange was positively related to organisational citizenship behaviour and performance, and perceived organisational support to affective commitment and turnover intention (Wayne et al., 1997).

Chen, Wen, Peng and Liu (2016) proved the existence of the mediating role of leader-member exchange between workplace loneliness and turnover intention

in a study conducted with ten state-owned or private companies in China, covering different industries, such as food, communications, retail and transportation. Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti and Van der Heuvel (2015) studied the effect on leader-member exchange on the job performance of followers, mediated by both work engagement and job resources. The study was conducted with 847 Dutch police officers and found that followers with high-quality leader-member exchange relationships are in more resourceful work environments, which enhances work engagement and employee job performance (Breevaart et al., 2015).

The research of Walumbwa, Mayer, Wang, Wang and Workman (2011), conducted in the People's Republic of China, tested for the link between ethical leadership and performance and the mediating role of leader-member exchange. The research found employees may perceive greater leader-member exchange from an ethical leader and that self-efficacy and leader-member exchange are important factors in the "intervening variables in the ethical leadership-performance relationship" (Walumbwa et al., 2011: 210). Ming-Chu and Meng-Hsiu (2015) conducted a study, which aimed at assessing the link between perceived organisational support and resistance to change and how this as well as employees' positive resources link with successful organisational change. Their study found that perceived organisational support may reduce the adverse consequences of organisational change, such as loss of control. It also found a significant negative correlation between readiness for change and resistance to change. In addition, readiness for change was found to mediate both the relationship between psychological capital and resistance to change as well as the relationship between perceived organisational support and resistance to change (Ming-Chu & Meng-Hsiu, 2015). The research also found that employees with high psychological capital will induce positive affect and trigger positive organisational change. However, the research also found that the relationships between psychological capital and resistance to change is a neglected area of research, with little available information (Ming-Chu & Meng-Hsiu, 2015). In addition, readiness for change was found to mediate the

relationship between positive psychological capital and resistance to change (Ming-Chu & Meng-Hsiu, 2015).

The study of Garg and Dhar (2014), conducted in the hospitality industry in India, found that leader-member exchange and perceived organisational support positively influenced organisational commitment, thereby arguing for the increased efforts from leaders and managers in an attempt to increase organisational commitment and, thereby, performance.

6.3 Relationship between Effective Change Management and Organisational Behaviour

6.3.1 Relationship between Effective Change Management and Turnover Intention

A study conducted with child welfare workers confirmed that increases in the turnover of child welfare workers was caused primarily by a stressful work environment resulting from high caseloads, insufficient organisational support, low income and/or inadequate or no training (Kim & Barak, 2015). Job turnover is therefore deemed to a coping mechanism for reducing role stress (Kim & Barak, 2015). The study found that higher role stress was directly linked to lower quality leader-member exchange and lower perceived organisational support while lower quality leader-member exchange and lower perceived organisational support were found to be directly connected to higher turnover intention. In addition, the study also found that turnover intention, which denotes a negative attitude towards the organisation, is a result of decreases in leader-member exchange and lower perceived organisational support, was caused by high role stress. The study further found that turnover intention was increased when perceived organisational support was decreased and supports the negative relationship between a change in perceived organisational support and a change in turnover intention. It also found that an increase in role stress was associated with decreases in leader-member exchange and lower perceived organisational support and that the decreases were associated with an increase in turnover intention for six months. The research also found that lower perceived organisational support had a stronger indirect effect on the

relationship between role stress and turnover intention as compared to leader-member exchange because perceived organisational support is more directly involved with an individual's perceptions of the organisation's support compared to leader-member exchange. A positive relationship between role stress and turnover intention was found as higher role stress was strongly associated with higher turnover intention. This finding was consistent with results from previous studies. The study also found that direct-service workers are more likely to experience stress than their supervisors, thus suggesting that role stress may be affected by work-client interactions (Kim & Barak, 2015).

The study by Kumar and Jauhari (2016), which investigated the relationship between employee participation and turnover intention, found that employee participation in decision-making does not have a direct impact on the turnover intention of employees but that it does not necessarily reduce turnover intention. The perception and inclusion of trust and fairness better mediates the relationship between employee participation and turnover intention (Kumar & Jauhari, 2016). Cooper (2003: 83) maintains that the elements of the communication process are "associated with employee affective and/or continuous commitment" and that instrumental communication has a positive impact on job satisfaction but a negative impact on turnover.

The study by Islam, Khan, Ahmed, Ali, Ahmed and Bowra (2013) revealed that perceived organisational support was found to influence affective and normative commitment positively and turnover intention negatively. The researchers also found that both affective commitment and normative commitment were negatively related with employee turnover intention, and that employees high in commitment are less likely to leave the organisation as compared to their counterparts who are low in commitment. The study also found that both perceived organisational support and commitment are required to reduce turnover intention (Islam et al., 2013).

6.3.2 Relationship between Effective Change Management and Resistance to Change

Hasanaj and Manxhari (2016) emphasised the importance of employee participation during change programmes stating that “the difficulty in managing change is often exacerbated by the mismanagement of employee resistance” (Hasanaj & Manxhari 2016: 9). Timely communication with employees may decrease uncertainties about the change initiatives and it is, thus, imperative that clear and accurate information be communicated to all employees as consistently and as frequently as allowed (Hasanaj & Manxhari, 2016). The research also found that demographics in the study did not influence the employees’ resistance to change (Hasanaj & Manxhari, 2016). However, the study found that the level of cognition played a role as less educated employees were more resistant to change as compared to the more educated employees.

Research has found significant relationships between resistance to change (affective, behavioural and cognitive resistance) and job satisfaction and employee intentions to quit the organisation (Battistelli et al., 2014). It has been shown that dispositional resistance to change is moderated by transformational leadership, with individuals high in resistance to change showing lower levels of resistance when transformational leadership is high (Battistelli et al., 2014). Research has also found that a previous negative relationship with the change leader or change champion exacerbates resistance to change (Sofat et al., 2015). In addition, it has also been found that leadership style impacts on resistance to change (Appelbaum, Degbe, MacDonald & Nguyen-Quang, 2015). Oei-Bonsu (2014), in his research, found a negative relationship between employee resistance to change and trust in management. This highlights the importance of leadership and leadership styles during organisational restructuring processes.

Oreg and Berson (2011) found that leaders’ dispositional resistance to change was positively related to their followers’ intentions to resist the change, thus implying that, if the change leaders indicate any resistance to the change they are supposed to implement, so too will their followers. Employee attitude to change (readiness to change) was found to be an antecedent to resistance to change and is impacted upon by commitment (affective and normative),

perceived benefits of change, and involvement during change (Oreg & Berson, 2011).

Research has also shown that well-managed change may reduce both conflict and resistance (Smollan, 2015). The research of Jones and Van de Ven (2016), conducted in 40 health care clinics in the United States of America, also found that the lack of effective leadership support increases employees resistance to change.

Research has confirmed that communication during organisational change remains a key component in reducing employee resistance to organisational change (Appelbaum, Karelis, Le Henaff & McLaughlin, 2017). The research found that the organisation that had received more frequent and accurate information about the pending merger eventually outperformed the organisation that had not (Appelbaum et al., 2017). This was despite the fact that the early announcement of the merger had had a minimal impact on either organisation, thus highlighting the importance of utilising communication as a tool to mitigate resistance to change pending a merger or acquisition (Appelbaum et al., 2017).

Researchers have studied resistance to change from the cognitive, emotional and behavioural perspectives and concluded that constructive communication about the change, prior and during the change process, may help individuals to understand the process and to generate positive thoughts and, thus, positive feelings about the change, as does employee involvement and participation in the change process (García-Cabrera & García-Barba Hernández, 2014). The research of García-Cabrera and García-Barba Hernández (2014) also found a negative relationship between communication and resistant thought but not necessarily resistant behaviour.

6.3.3 Relationship between Effective Change Management and Commitment to Change

The importance of effective communication during change programmes and how such effective communication increases both the acceptance of change and the commitment to change has been highlighted by Rafferty et al. (2013).

Rafferty et al. (2013) add that ineffective communication increases cynicism about the change as well as promoting rumours which often exaggerate the negative aspects and impact of the change. Change should not be communicated as a crisis but, instead, change should occur through attraction with individuals being attracted by the opportunities change will bring (Holbeche, 2006). The implementation of successful change management processes is directly related to positive change attitudes (Rafferty et al., 2013).

The research of Hanaysha (2016), conducted at higher education institutions in Malaysia, and which focused on the effects of employee empowerment and training on organisational commitment, found that employee empowerment has a significant effect on organisational commitment. His findings are in line with previous research, which indicated that employee empowerment was a significant factor in determining the organisational commitment of employees.

Adil (2016) researched the impact of change readiness on the commitment to change of employees in the manufacturing industries in Pakistan. The study found that, if employees were able to determine that the change would be for the betterment of the organisation, this would engender affective commitment toward the organisation. Employees who display affective commitment are more likely to comply with the change efforts than those who do not (Adil, 2016).

Employee commitment and employee motivation are key factors in the success of change initiatives, and may be achieved through the antecedents to (affective) commitment to change, namely, high-quality change communication and employee participation (Rogiest et al., 2015). High-quality change communication and participative decision-making may be used as strategies to increase employee involvement during change with such involvement affecting employee commitment to change (Rogiest et al., 2015).

In a study conducted with homeland security managers in Turkey, the researchers, Yilmaz, Ozgen and Akyel (2013), set out to assess the way in which managerial methods used during organisational change may have a

positive impact on employee attitudes and influence them in favour of the change. The study found that, when employees were informed (communicated with) and included (consulted and participated in the change process), this resulted in a positive disposition on the part of the employees towards the change (Yilmaz et al., 2013). The results of the study found that not one of the respondents had been consulted about the change with this directly correlating to the 69.1% of them who were averse to the change, thereby proving that communication, consultation and participation of employees during organisational change lead to commitment for the change (Yilmaz et al., 2013). In their study, Gupta, Shaheen and Reddy (2017) found that perceived organisational support moderates the relationship between work engagement and organisational citizenship behaviours.

Wang, Ma, Liu and Liu (2014) conducted a study with 212 employees from a Chinese air transportation organisation. The aim of the study was to assess the mediating role of perceived organisational support in the relationship between job security, extrarole behaviour and turnover intention. The study revealed that employee perception of job security resulted in an improved employer-employee social exchange relationship, thereby affecting the employees' attitudinal and behavioural outcomes (Wang et al., 2014). The results further indicated that high levels of perceived job security reduced employee turnover intention and gave employees the confidence to invest in present and future relationships with the organisation (Wang et al., 2014). The researchers also found that employees may even perceive job security as a form of organisational support in itself, with this invoking feelings of obligations to remain with the organisation (Wang et al., 2014).

6.3.4 Relationship between Effective Change Management and Job (In)Security

Another key factor in change is on the nature of the psychological contract, which is a tacit agreement between the employer and the employee and which refers to the mutual obligation between the two parties (Holbeche, 2006). It has been stated that the psychological contract increases both control and

predictability in the employment relationship in that it reduces job insecurity through the establishment of agreed-upon conditions of employment; it shapes employee behaviour based on the belief that behaviour may lead to future reward, and it gives the employee a sense of influence in the organisation as the employee is party to an agreement (Holbeche, 2006). Two types of psychological contracts have been identified. Firstly, there is the relational contract, which is socially based and generates long-term commitment, based on trust and loyalty. Employees who have concluded this contract will demonstrate a stronger commitment to the organisation and stronger organisational citizenship behaviour than those without such a contract. Secondly, there is the 'transactional' contract which is based on economics, with a short-term quid-pro-quo arrangement. Employees with such contracts will perform in accordance with their perceived reward and will be less loyal to the organisation should better opportunities arise (Holbeche, 2006).

A study commissioned in 1997 by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) revealed that 52% of workers in the United States of America (USA) were insecure about their jobs, thus only 48% were satisfied with their job security. A subsequent study conducted in 2010 by the American Psychological Association confirmed similar statistics in relation to job insecurity (Jiang & Probst, 2014). The aim of the study by Jiang and Probst (2014) was to assess the way in which positive organisational communication efforts could buffer employees in times of job insecurity. The study found consistently, negative relationships between job insecurity, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, trust in management, job involvement, turnover and employee health and well-being as well as positive relationships between organisational communication, job satisfaction and affective commitment (Jiang & Probst, 2014).

The study by Jiang and Probst (2014) also concluded that organisational communication was able to attenuate the negative relationship between job insecurity and forms of organisational restructuring processes, such as mergers or downsizing. Thus, in common with the findings of other studies, this study confirmed that it may be beneficial to identify and implement organisational

interventions that may reduce or combat the negative effects of job insecurity, with effective and enhanced organisational communication being one such intervention (Jiang & Probst, 2014).

Effective change management is supported by constructs such as perceived organisational support and leader-member exchange, which demonstrate direct relationships with constructs such as organisational commitment, commitment to change, turnover intention and job security. Research has confirmed that organisational restructuring is directly responsible for job insecurity (Swanson & Power, 2001).

6.4 Relationship between Psychological Capital and Effective Change Management

6.4.1 Relationship between Psychological Capital and Change Management Processes

Costantini, De Paola, Ceschi, Sartori, Meneghini and Di Fabio (2017) conducted a study with 54 members of a family in a family intervention during which the Italian version of the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24) was used. The study aimed to assess whether improved or improvements in psychological capital was capable of enhancing the work engagement of public sector employees. Their study found that the four facets of psychological capital were positively related to work engagement, both before and after the intervention, with hope being the significant predictor of the overall index of work engagement (Costantini et al., 2017).

Kirrane, Lennon, O'Connor and Fu (2017: 52) conducted their study using a scientifically-focused public sector organisation in Ireland. At the time of the study the organisation was undergoing an organisation-wide restructuring process. A sample of 1 172 employees was able to participate in the research. The researchers investigated the mediating role of psychological capital in the relationship between perceived management support and employee readiness for change. The study found both a significant positive relationship between perceived management support for change and readiness for change and a positive relationship between psychological capital and readiness for change.

The study also revealed that, although the introduction of psychological capital as a mediator reduced the impact of perceived management support on readiness for change, this impact was nevertheless still significant (Kirrane et al., 2017).

Research by Hicks and Knies (2015: 47) found evidence that the survivors of the global financial crisis (GFC) demonstrated a “strong relationship between their self-efficacy, hope, resilience and optimism (psychological capital) and their engagement, their ability to cope with organisational change, and their self-perceived adaptation”. Görgens-Ekermans and Herbert (2013) as well as Hicks and Knies (2015) have shown that psychological capital is indeed state-like as opposed to trait-like in that it was enhanced with training and development initiatives, which focused specifically on the four facets of psychological capital.

6.4.2 Relationship between Psychological Capital and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)

Goertzen and Whitaker (2015) conducted a study to assess the impact of leadership training (through online delivery) on psychological capital. They found that such training impacted on psychological capital development, ascribing this to the fact that psychological capital is state-like and may be developed. The study also found that psychological capital regressed in some of the respondents due to the challenging nature of the course presented at the time (Goertzen & Whitaker, 2015).

In a study by Liao, Hu, Chung and Chen (2017), conducted with 319 employees of financial and electronic manufacturing industries based in Taiwan, and designed to assess the mediating effect of psychological capital on leader-member exchange and employee satisfaction, it was found that good leader-member exchange increases the employees' psychological capital. The study found that leader-member exchange has a positive effect on the employees' psychological capital and also that psychological capital fully mediates the relationship between leader-member exchange and the life and job satisfaction of employees. The study concluded that there is a positive relationship between leader-member exchange and psychological capital and the researchers

recommended that leader-member exchange relationships be addressed by organisational leaders at a very early stage or as early as possible in the relationship (Liao et al., 2017). The study highlighted the important role of leadership style in building and increasing employee psychological capital and, thereby, other organisational citizenship behaviours, such job satisfaction and life satisfaction (Liao et al., 2017).

6.4.3 Relationship between Psychological Capital and Perceived Organisational Support

Shaheen, Bukhari and Adil (2016) conducted a study to test for the moderating role of psychological capital between in perceived organisational support and organisational citizenship behaviours. The study was conducted with 325 employees in private and public-sector banks in Pakistan. The researchers used hierarchical multiple regression analysis to assess the effect of perceived organisational support and psychological capital on organisational citizenship behaviours, as predictors. All the variables in the study were found to be significantly positively related to each other. The interaction between perceived organisational support and psychological capital was found to be significant and added a unique variance of 2.00% in terms as a predictor of organisational citizenship behaviours. The interactive terms however, did not explain a significant variance in organisational citizenship behaviours towards individuals. The study was able to demonstrate that the psychological capital moderated the relationship between perceived organisational support and organisational citizenship behaviours towards the organisation in such a way that it dampened the relationship. In terms of this study the moderating effect of psychological capital on the relationship between perceived organisational support and organisational citizenship behaviours was not supported, with a possible reason being that individuals high in psychological capital do not usually require perceived organisational support to engage in extra role behaviours, such as organisational citizenship behaviours. The study also confirmed, in line with previous research, the existence of a significant relationship between perceived organisational support and psychological capital as well as a significant positive relationship between perceived organisational support and organisational

citizenship behaviours. In addition, the study found that psychological capital positively predicted organisational citizenship behaviours and the dimensions of such behaviours (Shaheen et al., 2016).

6.5 Relationship between Psychological Capital and Organisational Behaviour

6.5.1 Relationship between Psychological Capital and Turnover Intention

Schulz, Luthans and Messersmith (2014) conducted a study among truck drivers in the United States to test how psychological capital and the work-related attitudes of the drivers contributed to their intentions to quit. The research found that psychological capital was positively related to job satisfaction, organisational commitment and what is perceived to be a relative salary, but negatively related to truckload drivers' intentions to quit (Schulz, et al., 2014). When psychological capital was entered as a third variable, it was found that it was significantly correlated with the drivers' intention to quit, thus implying it is more possible for psychological capital to address turnover intention through intervention programmes than may be perceived relative to salary. The research also found that, as compared to drivers low in psychological capital, drivers high in psychological capital were more likely to demonstrate positive attributions, they are more satisfied with their work and they display greater commitment to the organisation (Schulz et al., 2014).

6.5.2 Relationship between Psychological Capital and Resistance to Change

Jones and Van de Ven (2016: 499) found that relationships with resistance to change differed "within an individual over time". Research conducted by Beal, Stavros and Cole (2013) found that resistance to change lowers employee morale by reducing the optimism and hope which are important for positive organisational change. Research conducted by Klonek, Lehmann-Willenbrock and Kauffeld (2014) concluded that resistance to change may be interpreted as an organisational resource as dialogue is crucial for understanding such resistance.

According to Ming-Chu and Meng-Hsiu (2015), managers' priority prior to a change programme is to reduce employee resistance to change as it is regarded as an obstacle to successful organisational change. According to Ming-Chu and Meng-Hsiu (2015: 178), "employees' positive behaviour, emotional capability and positive organisational capital play critical roles in the organisational change process". They define positive organisational capital as "a 'state' that has scalability and plasticity, and can be developed through training" which is in line with the state-like characteristics of psychological capital (Ming-Chu & Meng-Hsiu, 2015: 178).

6.5.3 Relationship between Psychological Capital and Commitment to Change

The study by De Waal and Pienaar (2013) investigated the relationship between psychological capital and employee work engagement. The study was conducted with 1003 permanent employees of a large chemical manufacturer (De Waal & Pienaar, 2013). The study recorded a positive relationship between psychological capital and work engagement and also that engagement was able to predict psychological capital. There has been limited research conducted on collective efficacy although sufficient evidence does exist to prove its relationships to "group attainment of performance outcomes of groups, team effectiveness and motivation, transformational leadership, potency and high unit performance, problem-solving vigilance and group members' organisational commitment and job satisfaction. It was found to be negatively related to job and work withdrawal" (Luthans et al., 2015: 63).

6.5.4 Relationship between Psychological Capital and Job (In)Security

Previous research conducted found that managers with "higher hope levels had correspondingly higher performing work units, better retention rates and more satisfied employees" compared to their counterparts with lower hope levels (Luthans, 2011: 217). Other research has concluded that the employees' level of hope is related to their job satisfaction, organisational commitment and performance, among others (Luthans, 2011).

Summary

The preceding section reported on the relationships between the constructs analysed in this study, and how these compare and contrast as reported, and referenced in previous research.

The following chapter summarises the research methodology used in this study. It provides an analysis of the instruments used, how these were developed and constructed as well as how it was used to collect data. A sample of the instrument is included. It further provides more succinct information regarding the sample and provides a comprehensive analysis thereof. The chapter provides information on the variables (independent and dependent) as well as on the mediator and moderator, and the methods employed in preparation for the collection and ultimately, the analysis and reporting of the data.

Chapter 3: Methodology

1. Introduction

This study focused on organisational restructuring and its impact on the organisational behaviour of employees. In addition, the study aimed to assess whether change management, underpinned by leader-member exchange and perceived organisational support, mediates the relationship between organisational restructuring and organisational behaviour. The study also assessed whether psychological capital moderates the relationship between effective change management and organisational behaviour.

The constructs that were to be assessed were clearly defined and researched in-depth and the research objective and research questions formulated in accordance with the abovementioned. The study aimed to assess the relationship between the constructs in question, and their roles as variables, mediators and moderators, thus making use of the positivist paradigm or quantitative methodology in conducting this cross-sectional study.

An objectivist epistemological approach to the research was applied as previous research in this area has been conducted although not in the same context as this study. Previous research conducted in this area focused on the relevant constructs in a disparate manner while the organisations used as samples were based primarily in the United States, Europe, Asia or the Scandinavian countries. The majority of the studies conducted were on a smaller scale as compared to this study and investigated certain constructs and certain relationships within a single company and/or a selection of organisations in a geographical area or a selected industry only. This study applied an etic approach and was a cross-sectoral study conducted in public organisations, private organisations and state-owned enterprises (SOEs) in South Africa. It was envisaged that the study would add to the existing body of knowledge from

a South African perspective. The results were analysed per sector and compared.

It was anticipated that the value of this study would contribute in that it would enable organisational designers and developers, change managers, project managers and especially organisational leaders to consider the impact of organisational restructuring programmes on employees as change recipients within their organisations and across the various sectors. It was also anticipated that the results of the study will allow change champions and organisational leaders and leadership to consider the impact of organisational restructuring and proactively employ measures to attenuate the effects. Figure 8 is a graphic representation of the delineation of the chapter.

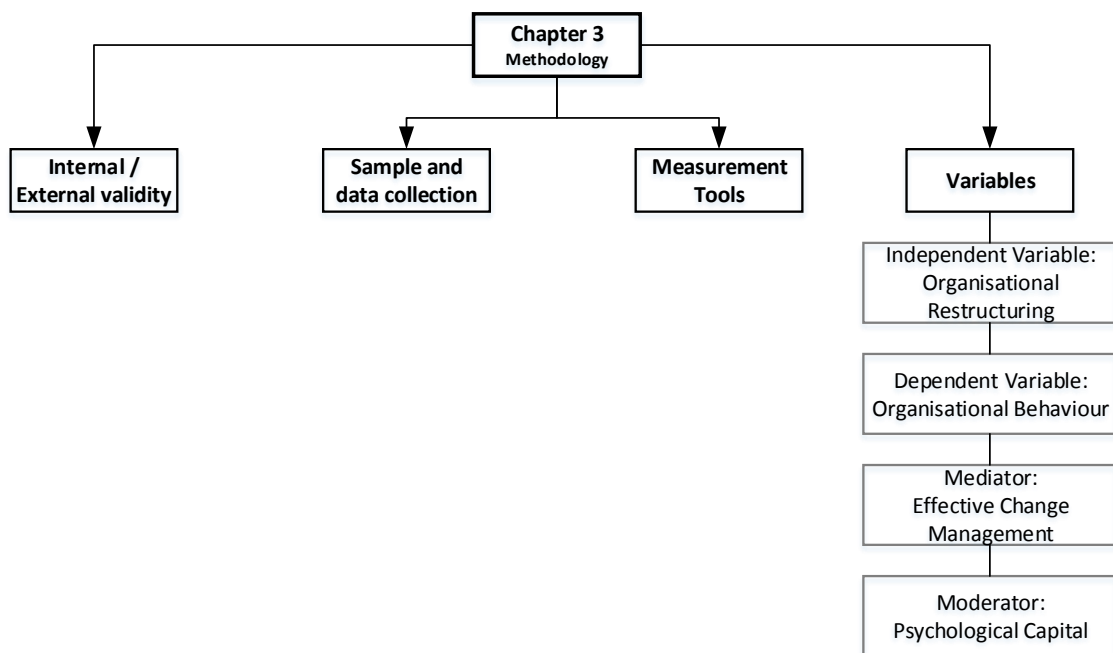


Figure 8: Graphic delineation of the chapter

1.1 Internal Validity of the Research Design

Research and the findings of such research depend on the validity of the data collected and its analysis. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005), validity in this context refers to the accuracy, meaningfulness and credibility of the entire

research project and whether defensible conclusions may be drawn from the data collected and analysed. The internal validity of this study depended on the robust design selected as well as the quality of the data it yielded. This would allow for accurate conclusions and inferences to be drawn about the constructs analysed.

During the construction of the overall instrument which was to be used for the collection of the requisite data, existing instruments, derived from literature and which had been reliably tested during previous studies, were assessed for their applicability to this study, thus also affirming the instrument's reliability in these previous studies. Its applicability to the South African context was also hereby assessed. These will be discussed individually later in this chapter.

In an attempt to avoid any selection bias, the study made use of a probability (stratified) sample. Construct and instrument validation through advanced analysis was also conducted, with specific reference to the South African context. An etic approach was used as the instruments and constructs originated primarily in the USA and Europe. Instrument transportability (in terms of the etic position) should thus be validated by investigating the psychometric properties of the instrument when used on a South African sample due to the country's unique history, composition in terms of the rich diversity of languages and cultures (Grobler 2017).

The statistical validity of all the data was assured by applying stringent sampling procedures, including relevant statistical tests. The study concluded by measuring the relationship between the independent and dependent variables as well as the mediator and moderator related to these variables. The statistics used for the purpose of this research report included elementary descriptive statistics, reliability analysis, correlations, inferential statistics (structural equation modelling (SEM by means of AMOS v.24) and multiple regression. At a more advanced level, the focus was on the analysis and comparison of the sectoral results that explained the nature of the relationship between the variables within the various sectors.

1.2 External Validity of the Research Design

The external validity of a research design indicates the extent to which the results of the study conducted may be applied to situations other than that of the study in question (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). This would determine the generalisability of the study and the value of the research to the field of organisational restructuring, organisational behaviour, change management, change leadership and psychological capital and, ultimately, contributing to the existing body of knowledge.

It is possible to assess different types of validity. This study assessed content validity (which refers to the extent to which a measurement scale or an instrument appears to measure the characteristic it is supposed or designed to measure), construct validity (which refers to the extent to which a measure behaves and is theoretically sound) (Diamantopoulos & Schlegelmilch, 2006) and external validity, which refers to the extent to which the results of the study conducted may be applied to situations other than that of the study in question (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005).

1.3 Sample and Data Collection

The overall instrument used consisted of various existing instruments and formed part of a larger study conducted by the primary researcher. The researcher applied for secondary access to the primary data by following all internal UNISA processes. The researcher obtained approval for such access. The instrument consisted of 118 items and was distributed to 47 participating organisations in the various sectors. It was anticipated that this would yield a maximum of 2 820 responses. The data obtained was screened, analysed and assessed to determine the impact of organisational restructuring (independent variable) on the organisational behaviour of employees (dependent variable). The study aimed to assess whether effective change management mediated the relationship between the independent and the dependent variables. In addition, the data was also analysed to assess whether psychological capital

moderates the relationship between the mediator and the dependent variable. The results were then analysed to draw comparisons between the above outcomes, as across the South African sectors identified.

In view of the fact that the organisations varied in type, scope and size, the validity and generalisability (external validity) of the research and research design were critical. Data was collected from several organisations through random sampling of intact groups within these organisations. The data was collected from the instruments that were administered at a specific point in time, thus indicating a cross-sectional design. For the purposes of the study, only quantitative data was collected and analysed.

Research Objectives

The purpose of this research study was to assess both the impact of organisational restructuring on the organisational behaviour of employees and the way effective change management and psychological capital could contribute to attenuating this impact. Finally, the study aimed to establish the relationships between the various constructs in the South African context and to identify and recommend guidelines after concluding a sectoral comparison of the results. It was anticipated that change leaders or organisational leaders and practitioners could consider these guidelines, during organisational change processes in South African organisations.

1.4 Measurement Tools

The instrument used in this study was developed based on relevant published literature and referenced in this study. The instrument measured the following unidimensional constructs that were included in the study:

Independent Variable

Organisational Restructuring

Organisational restructuring includes the type and magnitude of the organisational restructuring, the change of leadership during and as a result of the organisational restructuring and the frequency of change programmes as experienced by the employees.

Mediator

Effective Change Management

Effective change management includes effective change management processes, communication during the restructuring, employee and leadership involvement during organisational change programmes, trust in management and leadership (during organisational restructuring), and, specifically, leader-member exchange (LMX) and perceived organisational support (POS).

Dependent Variable

Organisational Behaviour

Organisational behaviour includes turnover intention (TI), resistance to change (RC), commitment to change (CC) and job (in)security (JS).

Moderator

Psychological capital encompasses hope, optimism, resilience and self-efficacy.

The data analysis was performed using the computer software package, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (IBM-SPSS, version 24), thus enabling statistical interventions to be applied to the dataset before the data was analysed. The data was cleaned and the descriptive statistics, correlation coefficients and Cronbach's (1951) coefficients were calculated to confirm the relationships between the constructs and sub-constructs.

The constructs were measured using multiple-item scales adapted from the literature. The complete instrument is attached in Annexure 1. The respondents were asked to complete the instrument, indicating either their agreement or disagreement with the statements, using Likert-scales (See Annexure 1 for the

exact scales used for each of the constructs measured in each of the instruments). Table 1 below presents the constructs which were included in the instrument, their measurement items and their references.

Table 1: Instrument

Instrument		
Effective Change Management		
Communication by Management during Restructuring	Outres 1: Your tasks at work.	Wiezer, Nielsen, Pahkin, Widerszal-Bazyl, De Jong, Mattila-Holappa and Mockalfo (2011)
	Outres 2: Your superior/supervisor or immediate line manager.	
	Outres 3: Your working team.	
	Outres 4: Quantity of work.	
	Outres 5: Risk of job loss.	
	Outres 6: Conditions of employment.	
	Outres 7: Your salary/fringe benefits.	
Management has:		
Communication by Line Management during Restructuring	Commres_man 1: Informed clearly about the goals of the change	
	Commres_man 2: Informed about the current state of change progress	
	Commres_man 3: Made sure that there are sufficient change support services for whole personnel	
	Commres_man 4: Actively solved problems that have emerged during change process	
My immediate line manager has:		
	Commres_line 5: Informed clearly about the goals of the change	
	Commres_line 6: Informed about the current state of change progress	
	Commres_line 7: Clarified new roles for subordinates	
Employee Involvement in organisational change	Involres 1: I was involved in the design of the change	
	Involres 2: I had opportunity to give my views about the change before it was implemented	
	Involres 3: Management has made a great effort to involve employees in the change process	
Trust in Management during restructuring (Trustres):	Trustres 1: There was a feeling that the leader of this change knows what he or she is doing	
	Trustres 2: Overall, there was the feeling that you can count on the organisation's management	
	Trustres 3: I believed that if managers is suggesting this change, they are well informed and have good reasons for it	
Psychological capital (adjusted)		
PsyCap_PCQ_24	PCse 1: I feel confident analysing a long-term problem to find a solution.	Luthans, Youssef and Avolio (2007b)
	PCse 2: I feel confident in representing my work area in meetings with management.	
	PCse 3: I feel confident contributing to discussions about the company's strategy.	Luthans and Youssef (2004)
	PCse 4: I feel confident helping to set targets/goals in my work area.	
	PCse 5: I feel confident contacting people outside the company (e.g., suppliers, customers) to discuss problems.	Luthans, Avolio, Avey and Norman (2007)
	PCse 6: I feel confident presenting information to a group of colleagues.	
	PCh 7: If I should find myself in a jam at work, I could think of many ways to get out of it.	
	PCh 8: At the present time, I am energetically pursuing my work goals.	
	PCh 9: There are lots of ways around any problem.	

Instrument		
	PCh 10: Right now I see myself as being pretty successful at work.	
	PCh 11: I can think of many ways to reach my current work goals.	
	PCh 12: At this time, I am meeting the work goals that I have set for myself.	
	PCr 13: When I have a setback at work, I have no trouble recovering from it, moving on. (R)	
	PCr 14: I usually manage difficulties one way or another at work.	
	PCr 15: I can be "on my own," so to speak, at work if I have to.	
	PCr 16: I usually take stressful things at work in stride.	
	PCr 17: I can get through difficult times at work because I've experienced difficulty before.	
	PCr 18: I feel I can handle many things at a time at this job.	
	PCo 19: When things are uncertain for me at work, I usually expect the best.	
	PCo 20: I believe that everything at work will work out for me. (R)	
	PCo 21: I always look on the bright side of things regarding my job.	
	PCo 22: I'm optimistic about what will happen to me in the future as it pertains to work.	
	PCo 23: In this job, things work out the way I want them to. (R)	
	PCo 24: I approach this job as if "every cloud has a silver lining."	
Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)		
LMX	LMX_aff 1: I like my supervisor very much as a person	Liden, R. C. & Maslyn, J. M. (1998)
	LMX_aff 2: My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend.	
	LMX_aff 3: My supervisor is a lot of fun to work with.	
	LMX_con 4: My supervisor defends my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question.	
	LMX_con 5: My supervisor would come to my defence if I were "attacked" by others.	
	LMX_con 6: My supervisor would defend me to others in the organisation if I made an honest mistake.	
	LMX_con 7: I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required, to meet my supervisor's work goals.	
	LMX_con 8: I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description.	
	LMX_con 9: I do not mind working my hardest for my supervisor.	
	LMX_pr 10: I am impressed with my supervisor's knowledge of his/her job.	
	LMX_pr 11: I respect my supervisor's knowledge of and competence on the job.	
	LMX_pr 11: I admire my supervisor's professional skills.	
Perceived Organisational Support		
POS	POS 1: My organisation values my contribution to its well-being.	Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison and Sowa (1986)
	POS 2: If my company could hire someone at a lower salary they would do so.	
	POS 3: If my organisation found a more efficient way to get my job done they would replace me. (R)	
	POS 4: My organisation would forgive an honest mistake on my part.	
	POS 5: It would take only a small decrease in my performance for my organisation to want to replace me. (R)	
	POS 6: My organisation provides me little opportunity to move up the ranks. (R)	
	POS 7: Even if I did the best job possible, my organisation would fail to notice. (R)	
	POS 8: My organisation would grant a reasonable request for a change in my working conditions.	
	POS 9: My organisation cares about my general satisfaction at work.	
	POS 10: If I decided to quit, my organisation would try to persuade me to stay.	
	POS 11: My organisation would understand if I were unable to finish a task on time.	
	POS 12: If my organisation earned a greater profit, it would consider increasing my salary	

Instrument		
	POS 13: If my job were eliminated, my organisation would prefer to lay me off rather than transfer me to a new job. (R)	
	POS 14: My supervisors are proud that I am a part of this organisation	
Job Security		
JS_CFos	CFos 1: I am concerned about the possibility of being dismissed. (R)	Borg and Elizur (1992); Hochwarter, Ferris, Zinko, Arnell & James (2007)
JS_JCs	CFos 2: The possibility of losing my job puts a lot of strain on me. (R)	
	CFos 3: I would feel stressed if I had to fight for my job. (R)	
	JCs 4: I believe that my job is secure.	
	JCs 5: I believe that my career is secure.	
	JCs 6: I clearly know my chances for advancement in the coming years.	
	JCs 7: In my opinion I will keep my job in the near future.	
	JCs 8: In my opinion I will be employed for a long time in my present job.	
	JCs 9: I look forward with confidence to the introduction of new technologies.	
Turnover intentions (TI)		
TI	TI 1: I often think about quitting my present job. (R)	Brashear, Boles, Brooks and Bellenger (2003); Bluedorn (1982)
	TI 2: I intend to quit my job. (R)	
	TI 3: During the next 12 months, I intend to search for an alternative role (another job, full-time student, etc.) to my present job. (R)	
	TI 4: I have searched for a new job. (R)	
Commitment to Change (adjusted)		
CC_Aff	CC_Aff 1: I believe in the value of change.	Herscovitch and Meyer (2002)
CC_Con	CC_Aff 2: To change is strategically good for the organisation.	
CC_Norm	CC_Aff 3: I think that management is making a mistake by introducing change in the organisation. (R)	
	CC_Aff 4: This change serves an important purpose.	
	CC_Aff 5: Things would be better without change. (R)	
	CC_Aff 6: This change is not necessary. (R)	
	CC_Con 7: I have no choice but to go along with the change in my organisation.	
	CC_Con 8: I feel pressure to go along with the change in my organisation.	
	CC_Con 9: I have too much at stake to resist the change in my organisation.	
	CC_Con 10: It would be too costly for me to resist the change in my organisation.	
	CC_Con 11: It would be risky to speak out against the change in my organisation.	
	CC_Con 12: Resisting the change in my organisation is not a viable option for me.	
	CC_Norm 13: I feel a sense of duty to work toward the change in my organisation.	
	CC_Norm 14: I do not think it would be right of me to oppose the change in my organisation.	
	CC_Norm 15: I would not feel badly about opposing the change in my organisation. (R)	
	CC_Norm 16: It would be irresponsible of me to resist the change in my organisation.	
	CC_Norm 17: I would feel guilty about opposing the change in my organisation.	
	CC_Norm 18: I do not feel any obligation to support the change in my organisation. (R)	
Resistance to change		
RTC_RS	RTC_RS 1: I generally consider changes to be a negative thing.	Oreg, S. (2003).
RTC_ER	RTC_RS 2: I'll take a routine day over a day full of unexpected events any time.	
RTC_STT	RTC_RS 3: I like to do the same old things rather than try new and different ones.	
RTC_CR	RTC_RS 4: Whenever my life forms a stable routine, I look for ways to	

Instrument	
	change it.
	RTC_RS 5: I'd rather be bored than surprised.
	RTC_ER 6: If I were to be informed that there's going to be a significant change regarding the way things are done at work, I would probably feel stressed.
	RTC_ER 7: When I am informed of a change of plans, I tense up a bit.
	RTC_ER 8: When things don't go according to plans, it stresses me out.
	RTC_ER 9: If my boss changed the criteria for evaluating employees, it would probably make me feel uncomfortable even if I thought I'd do just as well without having to do any extra work.
	RTC_STT 10: Changing plans seems like a real hassle to me.
	RTC_STT 11: Often, I feel a bit uncomfortable even about changes that may potentially improve my life.
	RTC_STT 12: When someone pressures me to change something, I tend to resist it even if I think the change may ultimately benefit me.
	RTC_STT 13: I sometimes find myself avoiding changes that I know will be good for me.
	RTC_STT 14: Once I've made plans, I'm not likely to change them.
	RTC_CR 15: I often change my mind.
	RTC_CR 16: Once I've come to a conclusion, I'm not likely to change my mind.
	RTC_CR 17: I don't change my mind easily.
	RTC_CR 18: My views are very consistent over time.

1.5 The Independent Variables

The measurement tool for the Organisational Restructuring was developed by the researcher, for the purposes of this study. The independent variable is discussed below.

Independent Variable: Organisational restructuring (OR) was operationally defined to include the following three factors or scales, consisting of categorical variables:

- Type of restructuring (Restructuring_Type)
- Change of leadership during or as a result of restructuring (Restructuring_Leadership) and
- Frequency of organisational change as experienced by change recipients (Restructuring_Frequency)

For the purposes of this study, the independent variable consisted of categorical variables which were divided into three scales and indexes, and which are both composite measures of variables as they are based on more than one data item (Babbie, 2016). Scales were constructed where they represented a pattern of

responses and consisted of the three scales listed above. The responses will be indexed.

The independent variable and its factors will be further regressed and used to form sub-factors, namely, Restructuring_Type_Count (number of different types of organisational restructuring), Restructuring_Leadership_Count (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring) and Restructuring_Frequency_Count (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations). These sub-factors will be used to count (frequency) the responses. The number of times each of the incidents occurred in the organisation will be counted. While indexes focus on counting the number of indicators of the variables, scales measure the various intensities of those indicators (Babbie, 2016). The researcher selected to use scales as they are considered superior to indexes as they take into account the intensity with which different items reflect the variable being measured (Babbie, 2016).

The reliability of the scales was assessed at .70 (Cronbach's alpha). However, since the descriptive statistics are categorical variables which will be subjected to scales and indexing, they will be measured using the *Kuder-Richardson Formula*, which is equivalent to Cronbach's alpha value of .70.

1.6 The Dependent Variables

1.6.1 Turnover Intention

Bluedorn (1982) developed a model for the turnover process by consolidating three turnover models which had been developed from the Price Model, and which had been constructed to test job satisfaction. The model was empirically tested by several researchers in tests conducted with nurses, United States Army officers and white-collar workers, and presented uniform results (Bluedorn, 1982). In some cases the model ignored the effects of demographics, including age, education or length of service and, in other cases, not. It also includes the Organisational Commitment Model, which measures an

individual's "identification with and involvement in an organisation" (Bluedorn, 1982: 137) and the Mobley Model, which measures the links between job satisfaction and turnover.

The instrument which was constructed and used for the purposes of this study, consisted of several multi-item scales obtained and adapted from literature and plotted on a seven-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly disagree; 7 = Strongly agree). The survey was administered to the employees of the operations division of a large insurance company and conducted on two separate occasions, with the second survey being conducted four months after the first. The sample consisted primarily of women – 92.00% in the first sample and 94.00% in the second sample respectively (Bluedorn, 1982). A final instrument developed to measure turnover intention (TI) consisted of four items from the Staying/Leaving Index, developed by Bluedorn (1982).

The alpha coefficient for the instruments used (Cronbach's alpha) varied between .63 and .94 in the first survey, between .74 and .95 in the second survey and had a mean (average) between .83 and .93 (Bluedorn, 1982).

1.6.2 Resistance to Change

Oreg (2003) developed the 16-item Resistance to Change Scale, which was designed specifically to measure the dispositional inclination of an individual to resist or avoid making changes. In other words, the Resistance to Change Scale does not measure any specific type of change but, instead, it predicts resistance behaviour across different settings. Although most approaches to resistance to change have focused specifically on situational antecedents, then recent studies, according to Oreg (2003) had begun to explore concepts thought to be related to resistance to change from an individual difference perspective.

Research has attempted to assess an individual's inclination to resist change, but these studies used assessment instruments that had not been specifically

designed to assess resistance to change but which had, in fact, been designed for other purposes (Oreg, 2003). The Resistance to Change Scale was designed to specifically assess an individual's disposition to resist change directly and to predict an individual's reactions to specific change. During the design of the scale, specific attention was given to sources of resistance thought to be a direct result of an individual's personality (Oreg, 2003). Oreg (2003) uncovered six sources which were thought to be directly associated with an individual's inclination to resist change. These sources included reluctance to lose control, cognitive rigidity, lack of psychological resilience, intolerance to the adjustment period involved in change, preference for low levels of stimulation and novelty, and a reluctance to give up old habits (Oreg, 2003). Oreg's (2003) research comprised seven (7) individual studies, aimed at assessing individual resistance to change. Summaries of the studies are presented below.

Study 1

This exploratory study was used to construct the Resistance to Change Scale. It started by using four to 10 items and was then further developed into an instrument consisting of 48 items. Following reviews from independent researchers, it was reduced to a 44-item scale. The instrument is based on a six-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly disagree; 6 = Strongly agree). The instrument was tested using the snowball method with the sample consisting of volunteers recruited by the researcher (Oreg, 2003). These volunteers were, in turn, encouraged to enlist more of their acquaintances to participate in the study. The sample consisted of 102 women and 122 men (with two of the respondents not indicating their gender) and aged between 18 to 67 years of age. Of the sample, 57% identified themselves as students (Oreg, 2003). The interim correlation was examined and followed by a factor analysis. All items which correlated less than .40 with all other items in the instrument were discarded, resulting in 11 items being deleted. The final 16-item instrument consisted of four factors aimed at assessing the participant's resistance to change. The first factor consisted of eight items and focused on the incorporation of daily routines into one's life while the second factor consisted of

six items, which reflected the emotional reactions to change. The third factor consisted of four items that reflect a short-term focus when addressing change and the fourth factor consisted of three items and identified the cognitive rigidity dimension.

The four factors extracted explained 57.00% of the variance and coefficient (Cronbach's alphas) which were deemed acceptable at .89 (Routine seeking subscale), .86 (Emotional reaction subscale) and .71 (Short-term focus subscale). The coefficient alpha of .68 was marginally acceptable for the cognitive rigidity subscale. The total scale reliability coefficient was .92 (Oreg, 2003).

Studies 2, 3 and 4

These studies were conducted individually, but then combined to confirm the factor structure of the Resistance to Change Scale and to establish its convergent and discriminant validities.

Study 2

This study was used to validate the Resistance to Change Scale's structure. It was conducted with 197 staff members from Cornell University. The Resistance to Change scale obtained an alpha coefficient of .87.

Study 3

This study was used to assess the personality correlates of the Resistance to Change Scale as well as to reconfirm its structure. The Resistance to Change Scale obtained an alpha coefficient of .87. The sample used consisted of 134 undergraduate students who were enrolled in introductory courses in organisational behaviour as well as human resources management (Oreg, 2003). The participants were each paid \$5 for completing the instrument. The instrument relied on several other existing instruments in its construction, including, among others, Slovic's four-item scale, used to measure risk aversion, Levenson's internality scale, used to measure locus of control and the Resistance to Change Scale, developed to measure resistance to change.

Study 4

This study assessed cognitive ability, using the well-validated and commonly used Wonderlic Personnel Test. The sample consisted of 89 undergraduates from Cornell University. The participants were each paid \$5 for completing the instrument. The Resistance to Change Scale obtained an alpha coefficient of .88.

Studies 5, 6 and 7

These studies were also conducted individually but then combined to establish the Resistance to Change Scale's concurrent and predictive validities.

Study 5

The sample consisted of forty-four undergraduate psychology students who, in return for extra credit, participated in the study. It was designed to predict voluntary change on the part of individuals. The Resistance to Change Scale obtained an alpha coefficient of .81.

Study 6

The sample consisted of sixty-seven faculty members from Cornell University and was designed to predict individual resistance to innovation (to try new products). The Resistance to Change Scale obtained an alpha coefficient of .82.

Study 7

The study was designed to predict individual reactions to imposed change, *e.g.* the move of office location. Two instruments were used and issued to a sample of forty-eight faculty members and graduate students; one instrument as the move commenced and another instrument one month after the move. The Resistance to Change Scale obtained an alpha coefficient of .91.

In the above seven studies, "Resistance to Change and its subscales achieved satisfactory reliabilities" (Oreg, 2003: 690). Although not designed to correspond

to a specific type of change, the scale successfully predicted resistant behaviour across different settings.

1.6.3 Commitment to Change

Research has found that commitment to change and staff turnover are linked and that employees who are committed to the organisation are less likely to leave the organisation than those who are less committed (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Over time, different instruments have been developed to measure employees' levels of commitment to their organisations, including the 15-item Organisational Commitment Questionnaire developed by Porter and his fellow researchers (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The questionnaire, or instrument, was designed to measure the commitment construct and includes acceptable psychometric properties of employees (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Allen and Meyer (1990) developed an instrument to measure the affective, continuance and normative commitment of employees to their organisations. A 66-item instrument included a seven-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly disagree; 7 = Strongly agree). The instrument was later reduced to an instrument containing 24 items. Three factors were extracted, each accounting for 58.80%, 25.80% and 15.40% of the total variance (Allen & Meyer, 1990). A final 24 item instrument was constructed (Three-Component Model), following factor analyses and consisted of eight items each for the Affective Commitment Scale, Continuance Commitment Scale and the Normative Commitment Scale. It was found that the three individual components of commitment may be reliably measured. Despite the overlap found between affective and normative commitment, they were, nevertheless, still relatively independent from continuance commitment to change (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

The Three-Component Model of Workplace Commitment developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) to test workplace commitment was used and extended in Herscovitch and Meyer's (2002) study to measure employees' commitment to organisational change. In general, the study set out to develop a multidimensional concept of commitment to change, as well as to evaluate the

relationship between the different forms of commitment and employees' behavioural support for organisational change. The three components of organisational commitment to change are affective commitment to change, normative commitment to change and continuance commitment to change.

The researchers developed an instrument consisting of 22 items, designed to measure employees' commitment to organisational change. The first seven items were designed to assess employees' affective commitment, the second seven items assessed continuance commitment and eight items assessed normative commitment. The instrument consisted of a seven-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly disagree; 7 = Strongly agree) (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). The factor analysis extracted three factors with eigenvalues higher than 1.00 and represented 67.80% of the total variance with coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) values of .94, .94 and .86 respectively (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002).

Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) conducted three studies to test the application of Allen and Meyer's (1990) Three-Component Model. The first study used a sample of 224 university students and provided preliminary evidence for the validity of the newly developed Three-component Model, which consisted of 22 items. The second and third studies were conducted using 157 and 108 hospital nurses respectively. All three studies used the 22-item instrument with revised coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) values of .92, .71 and .78 being recorded (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002).

The study did, in fact, prove that the three components of commitment to change are distinguishable from the various components of organisational commitment. The study showed that commitment to change plays a greater role as compared to organisational commitment in predicting employees' self-reported behavioural support for change (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002).

Studies 2 and 3 provided further support for the validity of the three Commitment to Change Scales. They demonstrated that commitment to a change is a better predictor of behavioural support for a change than is

organisational commitment and also that affective and normative commitment to a change are associated with higher levels of support than is continuance commitment. The study also found that the components of commitment combine to predict behaviour (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002).

Research suggests that the intense negative emotions experienced by employees are at the heart of their low commitment to change. A relationship between commitment and turnover has been found, thus implying that those employees who are strongly committed (to the organisation) are the ones who are least likely to leave the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

1.6.4 Job (In)Security

Changes affecting job security or employment security are evident in many organisations and manifest themselves in the form of rapid organisational restructuring processes, mergers and acquisitions and other forms of organisational restructuring. Research has identified significant relationships between job insecurity and, among others, a greater propensity to leave the organisation turnover and turnover intention, increased resistance to change, lower levels of job involvement, lower levels of organisational commitment, increased psychological withdrawal, and lower levels of trust in management (Borg & Elizur, 1992).

The initial study conducted by Borg and Elizur (1992), which yielded the above results, were conducted on fairly small and selected samples. The researchers, Borg and Elizur (1992), then decided to repeat the study. The repeated study comprised five studies but with much larger samples as compared to the initial study. In results of the first of the five studies conducted, and which related to the *Correlates of Job Insecurity*, were based on an organisational climate survey conducted in 12 multinational companies in the electronics industry, consisting of 8 843 respondents and using a single item phrased in terms of job security, and completed using a seven-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly disagree; 7 = Strongly agree) (Borg & Elizur, 1992). The second study focused on the

construction of a job insecurity measurement tool, and consisted of a nine-item job security/insecurity instrument.

The instruments used in the five different studies did not all contain the same items although there was a significant overlap of the items in all of the instruments. Job insecurity was measured by a single item and was phrased in terms of job security (JS). This reason for this was so as not to stress the issue of job insecurity (Borg & Elizur, 1992). The instrument developed out of the second study further incorporated the two aspects of cognitive and affective job insecurity while the final instrument consisted of nine items and was constructed as follows: Questions 1 to 3 addressed the concerns and feelings of employees regarding the possibility of losing their jobs or if they should be dismissed while Questions 4 to 9 assessed the perceived job and career stability or instability (Borg & Elizur, 1992).

The research showed that those respondents who were low in job security, were concerned that their skills would become obsolete, they demonstrated higher turnover intention and exhibited lower organisational commitment while employees with high job insecurity expressed more negative evaluations in relation to their jobs/organisation, had lower trust in top management and were less satisfied with the organisation (Borg & Elizur, 1992). High correlations were found between job security and employee trust in management. In addition, it was shown that job insecurity was the cause of lower trust in management and not the inverse (Borg & Elizur, 1992). A year after the initial study had been conducted, it was replicated in one of the sample organisations, but under conditions of increased job insecurity. This second study found a 17.00% drop (47.00% to 30.00%) in the percentage of employees who had previously rated their jobs as secure and now longer did so in the second study. Job insecurity was proven to be a better predictor of attitudes or opinions under conditions of increased job insecurity, with employees being primarily concerned about their skills becoming obsolete and their evaluations of a functional top management (Borg & Elizur, 1992).

The principal component analysis maps the instrument's items on two dimensions that represent approximately 50.00% of the variance (Borg & Elizur, 1992). Job insecurity (fear) and job insecurity (worry) are represented by items 1 to 3 and 4 to 9 retrospectively and, thus, factor F2 highlights the emotional dimension of job insecurity while factor F1 refers to the cognitive aspect of worrying about losing job stability (Borg & Elizur, 1992). The coefficient alphas (Cronbach's alpha) for items 1 to 3 (fear) and 4 to 9 (worry) were .65 and .75 respectively (Borg & Elizur, 1992).

1.7 The Mediating Variables

Effective Change Management

For the purposes of this study, effective change management comprises (i) Employee Involvement during organisational restructuring (CM_INV), (ii) Communication by management during organisational restructuring (CM_MAN), (iii) Communication by line management during organisational restructuring (CM_LINE) and, (iv) Trust in Management during organisational restructuring (CM_TR).

The Psychological Health and Well-Being in Restructuring (PSYRES) (Wiezer, et al., 211) instrument, refer to Table 2, was designed to assess the impact of organisational restructuring processes on employee well-being. Effective change management for the purposes of this study, has been identified as a mediator to assess and confirm or dispute the relationship of the impact of organisational restructuring on the organisational behaviour of employees. Organisational restructuring presented itself as a predictor of the perceived organisational behavioural outcomes of change recipients during organisational change processes and it was tested to ascertain whether it is mediated by effective change management. The instrument was a composite of items obtained from different sources in literature and was used as part of the instrument administered in this thesis.

Table 2: PSYRES Instrument

Effective Change Management <i>(Outres, Comre_man, Comres_line, Involres, Trustres)</i> (Wiezer, et al., 2011)	Outres 1 – 7: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • HYVIS Scale (The Finnish Project)” – Promoting occupational well-being and managing sickness absences in Finnish Paper Industry (Wiezer, et al., 2011) • Tvedt (Wiezer, et al., 2011) • Oreg (2006)
	Comres_man1-4: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • HYVIS Scale (The Finnish Project)” – Promoting occupational well-being and managing sickness absences in Finnish Paper Industry (Wiezer, et al., 2011)
	Comres_line 5-6: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • HYVIS Scale (The Finnish Project)” – Promoting occupational well-being and managing sickness absences in Finnish Paper Industry (Wiezer, et al., 2011)
	Note: Comres_line 7 is new. (Wiezer, et al., 2011)
	Involres 1-3: based on the Employee Involvement scale by Randall, Nielsen and Tvedt (2009)
Trustres 1-3: Item scale, developed by Oreg (2006)	

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)

The multidimensionality of leader-member exchange was assessed in a study conducted by Liden and Maslyn (1998), specifically involving scale development. The study was based on the work of Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995). Leader-member exchange has been measured using different instruments, over several years, with these instruments consisting of two, three, four and five items, and some of seven items (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). The original measure used to assess leader-member exchange was known as “negotiating latitude” (Liden & Maslyn, 1998: 47) and initially consisted of two items and later four items. The original instrument was expanded upon and other instruments were later adapted to include up to fourteen items. The instrument that was developed for this purpose was specifically designed to assess the different aspects of leader-member exchange relationships (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). The development of the instrument involved extensive reviews of literature as well as reports and experiences collected from both individuals in their specific work

settings and working students. The researchers, Liden and Maslyn (1998), conducted a validation of all this information.

An initial instrument that was based on the dimensions of the supervisor-subordinate relationships was developed and consisted of 80 items. After testing the instrument with a diverse group of 24 master's and PhD students, an additional 40 items were developed and added. These additional items focused specifically on the trust relationship between supervisors and their subordinates. The multidimensional instrument developed by Liden and Maslyn (1998) initially consisted of 120 items, but later discarded 20 items following a content validation of the items. Thirty-eight (38) items were retained after the completion of the second content validation, although an additional four items were added. After several reviews, a final instrument consisting of 31 items, making use of a seven-point Likert scale ranging from Strongly disagree = 1 to 7 = Strongly agree, was accepted. Liden and Maslyn (1998) conducted their research using a diverse group of 302 working students and 251 organisational employees. Following the completion of the factor analysis of the instrument, 11 items were identified which explained 79.40% of the variance. The model fit was concluded and presented goodness-of-fit statistics representative of a good model fit. The comparative fit index (CFI) was recorded as .99 while the latent variable reliabilities were .90, .78, .59 and .89 for affect, loyalty, contribution and professional respect, respectively (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). Internal consistency, measured by Cronbach's alpha, was acceptable for affect, loyalty, contribution and professional respect at .90, .78, .60 and .92 for the student sample and .90, .74, .57 and .89 for the organisational employee sample (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). The consistent tests conducted and the results obtained provided support for leader-member exchange as a multidimensional construct (Liden & Maslyn, 1998).

Perceived Organisational Support

The perceived organisational support instrument consisted of 36 items on a seven-point Likert Scale (1 = Strongly disagree; 7 = Strongly agree) and was

originally designed by Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison and Sowa (1986). A total of 361 employees responded to the instrument in the first study conducted. Following the finalisation of the confirmatory factor analysis, the perceived support factor accounted for 93.90% of the common variance while a minor second factor accounted for 6.10%. The reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha coefficient) was .97 and item correlations ranged between .42 and .83. All 36 items of the final instrument showed strong loadings on the main factor (Eisenberger et al., 1986). In the second study, a shortened version of the instrument, consisting of 17 items, was used. The second study was conducted with 97 private high school teachers. Seventy-one (71) teachers (73.00% response rate) completed and returned the instruments. The annual total numbers of days where teachers attended school as well as the block periods absent were made available for the study. The reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) for the survey of perceived organisational support (SPOS) instrument was measured at .93 and the exchange ideology instrument at .80 (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

The second study, conducted with the private high school teachers, found that perceived organisational support reduced absenteeism where the number of days absent was less than the block period absentees. The study also found that perceived organisational support could be increased by leaders praising and approving of their employees. The research also revealed that employees tended to reciprocate perceived organisational support by "altering their efforts to meet organizational goals, as indicated by absenteeism" (Eisenberger et al., 1986: 506). The researchers found that employees held global beliefs in terms of what they perceived the organisation's commitment to them to be, and this affected their absenteeism in individuals with strong exchange ideologies (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

1.8 The Moderating Variable

Psychological Capital (PsyCap)

Luthans et al. (2007) designed the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24), which is a 24-item instrument, designed to measure an individual's hope, resilience, self-efficacy and optimism – collectively known as an individual's psychological capital. Based on previous research on psychological capital, Luthans et al. (2007) set out to assess employees' levels of psychological capital and its relationship to their performance and job satisfaction, as well as to each of the individual factors of psychological capital.

The researchers conducted two studies. Study one's sample consisted of three samples of management students (167 students) while study two consisted of two separate samples of employees (115 participants) in "both service and high-technology manufacturing environments" (Luthans et al., 2007: 551).

The results of the research revealed that, overall, there was a significant positive relationship between psychological capital and performance and satisfaction in both the manufacturing and service firms although there were no significant relationships between the individual factors of psychological capital and performance and satisfaction, as was the case with overall psychological capital. In addition, the research confirmed the validity of the PCQ-24.

2. Testing for Mediation and Moderation

This study aimed to assess the impact of organisational restructuring (independent variable) on the organisational behaviour (dependent variable) of employees. In addition, it aimed to assess whether effective change management (including effective change management processes, leader-member exchange and perceived organisational support) mediates the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. The study also sought to assess whether an individual's psychological capital moderates the relationship between effective change management (mediator) and organisational behaviour. Once moderation had been proven, the study would conclude with an additional assessment for a mediated moderation model.

Mediation and Moderation

A mediator is an intervening variable that is responsible for the extent to which it accounts for the relationship between the independent variable and dependent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Hayes, 2009). Mediation focuses on the treatment effect on the outcome variable and how it is produced (Muller, Judd & Yzerbyt, 2005). In a mediation model the mediator variable (M) is causally located between X and Y where it is affected by X and must in turn also affect Y (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017). In order to test whether a variable is a mediator, certain statistical criteria have to be met. In the model below, “if path a and b are statistically significant, and c is closer to zero than c' , then M is deemed the mediator of the relationship between X and Y ” (Hayes, 2009: 410).

The conditions, as set by Baron and Kenny (1986), require that the three paths, a , b and c , all be individually significant (Howell, 2010). To test for mediation, Baron and Kenny (1986) recommend that the researcher administered a series of regression analyses. Mediation will be confirmed if certain conditions are met; which requires that the independent variable must affect the mediator, that it must be shown that the independent variable affects the dependent variable and that the mediator must affect the dependent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

The test for mediation also requires that it be demonstrated that the mediator and independent variable, when used simultaneously, predict the dependent variable, and that path c (refer to Figure 9), which was previously significant, has either been greatly reduced or has become nonsignificant (Howell, 2010).

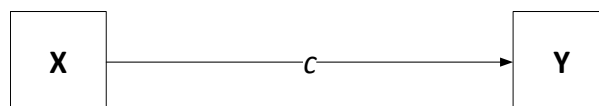


Figure 9: Total effect of X on Y

Although rare, when path c decreases to 0, it will prove mediation, although it is more likely that path c will only become weaker (Howell, 2010). Since the independent variable is believed to cause the mediator, the two variables must be correlated (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Perfect mediation occurs when the independent variable is ineffective when the mediator is controlled (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

Statistical Mediation Analysis

Mediation analysis may be used to test hypotheses and to better understand how the effect of X on Y operates (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017). A mediation model, refer to Figure 10, “is a set of two or more causal events chained together in sequence of the form $X \rightarrow M \rightarrow Y$ ” (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017: 40).

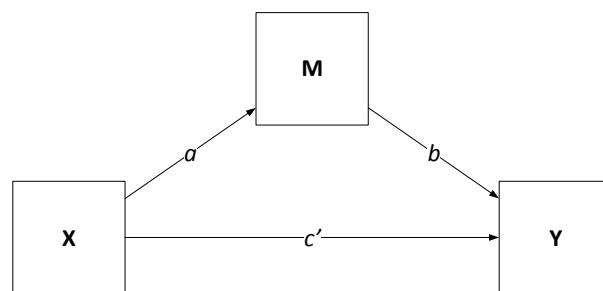


Figure 10: Simple Mediation Model (Hayes, 2009)

The total effect of X on Y , labelled as c (refer to Figure. 9), is the direct path from X to Y , provided that X is related to Y and that c is statistically significant. This is the first criterion. Together with the second and third criteria, the requirements, as set by Baron and Kenny (1986), must be met to prove mediation. However, the criteria to establish mediation, as devised by Baron and Kenny (1986), are waning in popularity to the extent that they are no longer recommended by methodologists (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017). Thus, inference about mediation is now squarely focused on the indirect effect of X on Y (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017). It is the indirect effect of X on Y , through the mediator (M) which quantifies the estimated difference in Y , which is caused by a one-unit change in X , where X affects M and where M in turn affects Y (Hayes &

Rockwood, 2017: 43). It is also no longer required for the individual paths of a and b to be statistically significant in order to establish M as a mediator of X on Y . Instead the focus now, as recommended by Hayes and Rockwood (2017), should be on ab , the indirect effect, and not a and b , as mediation is able to manifest itself in the form of an indirect effect. The indirect effect may be tested using the Sobel Test, amongst others, although it is low in power and is not recommended by Hayes and Rockwood (2017). Instead, bootstrapping of the confidence interval is recommended (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017).

Researchers distinguish between partial and complete mediation where the former refers to a “pattern of findings where mediation is established in the presence of significant total effect of X and the direct effect of X (c') is statistically different from zero and the effect of X on Y is not completely explained by the effect of X on M and M on Y ” (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017: 45). The concepts of complete and partial mediation have also lost their efficacy and it has been recommended that they be abandoned (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017).

A moderator variable is an additional variable that may introduced by the researcher, and which moderates the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable (Christensen, Johnson & Turner, 2015). In a correlation analysis framework, the moderator is the third variable and “affects the zero-order correlation between the other two variables” (Baron & Kenny, 1986: 1174). Moderation, also known as interaction, takes place when the effect of X on Y is moderated by W , and then X and W (see Figure 11) interact (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017).

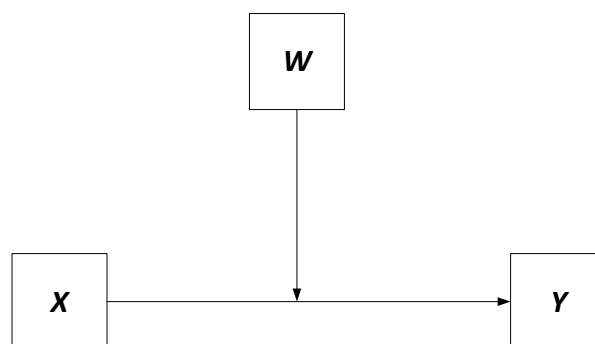


Figure 11: Simple Moderation (X interact with W)

The moderator always functions as an independent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Moderation focuses on the factors that influence the strength and/or direction of the relationship between the independent and dependent variable (Muller et al., 2005). Moderator variables are usually introduced where a weak or inconsistent relationship between the independent and dependent variable exist (Baron & Kenny, 1986). In order to test whether a variable is a moderator, path c' must be significant (Baron & Kenny, 1986). It should also be ensured that the moderator variable be uncorrelated with the independent and dependent variables to allow for clearer interpretation than would otherwise have been the case (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

When mediation and moderation are analytically combined, *mediated moderation* or *moderated mediation* models are created (Hayes, 2009). A mediated moderation model will exist only if moderation has been proven, thus implying that there should be overall moderation of the treatment effect. A moderated mediation model will happen if the mediating process, that is responsible for producing the effect of the treatment on the outcome, depends on the value of a moderator variable, thus implying that the indirect effect between the independent and dependent variables depends on the moderator (Muller et al., 2005: 854).

Hierarchical Multiple Regression

Hierarchical multiple regression was used in this study to assess the impact of the independent variable (organisational restructuring; type, referring to the type of organisational restructuring, lead, referring to the change in leadership during organisational restructuring and frequency, which refers to the frequency of organisational restructuring as experienced by employees) to predict behavioural outcomes of employees in the private and public sector, and in SOEs. Preliminary analyses were conducted to ensure there was no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, multicollinearity and homoscedasticity.

Multicollinearity refers to relationship that exist between the independent variables. These relationships exist when the independent variables are highly correlated, usually when $r = .90$ and above (Pallant, 2011). It is advisable that the independent and dependent variables correlate with values of at least $.30$ and above but that the correlations between the independent variables should preferably not be too high (Pallant, 2011).

In evaluating the measurement model to be used, the R-square column (Model Summary Table) indicates the extent to which the variance in the dependent variable is explained by the model (Pallant, 2011). Each of the independent variables were assessed to ascertain which of the variables included in the model were contributing to the prediction of the dependent variable (Pallant, 2011). The Coefficients Table provides the information of the variables that contributed to the predication of the dependent variable (Pallant, 2011).

The standardised coefficients were used to compare the different variables as these values had been adjusted to the same scale to allow for it to be compared (Pallant, 2011). The largest beta value indicated the variable that was making the strongest contribution to explaining the dependent variable (Pallant, 2011). A variable makes a statistically significant unique contribution to the equation that determines it, if the probability value is $< .05$. If greater than $.05$, the variable is not making a statistically significant contribution to the prediction of the dependent variable (Pallant, 2011).

2.1 Internal Validity of the Measurement Tools

Previous research has provided strong evidence supporting the hypothesised factor and the internal consistency reliability of the measurement tools used in this study. Cronbach's (1951) coefficient alpha, which is one of the most common methods used for gauging reliability, is considered the most appropriate tool to use to measure a model's reliability (Pallant, 2011). Cronbach's alpha estimates the degree to which the items in the scale are representative of the domain of the construct being measured and is important

in measuring multi-point scale items, such as Likert scales. This method of internal consistency was used to assess the reliability of the measures used in the study. A reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) of .70 was selected as an acceptable threshold.

2.2 Validity of the Measurement Tools

The concurrent and discriminant validity of the scales used in this study have found significant support in previous research and studies. In this study the convergent and discriminant validity were assessed by conducting both an exploratory factor analysis and a confirmatory factor analysis to demonstrate that the measurement models had produced a satisfactory fit and, thus, to support the discriminant and convergent validity of the data. Structural equation modelling (SEM) was used support the findings of the data and statistical analyses.

2.3 Proposed Model

The aim of this research was to make a significant contribution to understanding the impact of organisational restructuring (programmes) on organisational behaviour and how effective change management and psychological capital may assist to mitigate these.

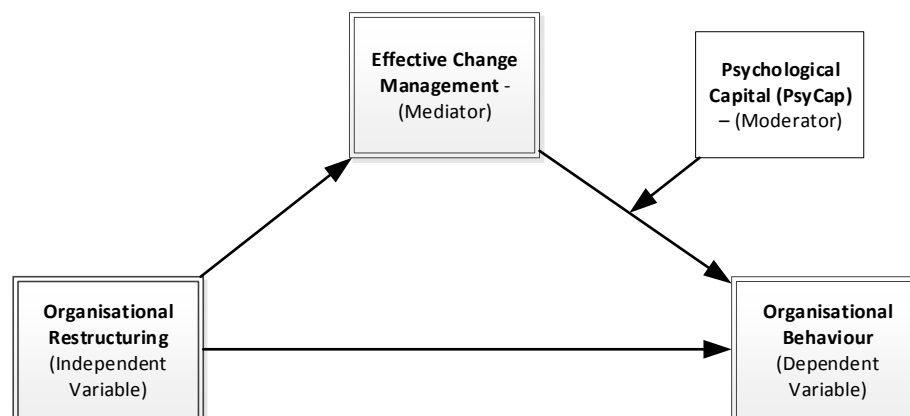


Figure 12: Proposed Model (Mediated Moderation)

The variables to be tested were based on relevant literature and previous research conducted in the fields related to organisational restructuring, change management, organisational behaviour and psychological capital. The independent variables were tested to demonstrate their relationship to the dependent variables as well as the role of the mediators. Refer to Figure 12 for a graphic representation of the proposed Mediated moderation model to be used in this study. More information regarding the outcome of the analysis and the results will be provided in Chapter 4 of this study.

Summary

The preceding chapter provided the methodology developed and utilised in the collection of data for this study, as well providing information on the original instruments used. The following chapter focuses on the analysis of the results collected in this chapter, by meticulously illustrating how the results were processed. The different methods used for the analysis will be clearly articulated.

Chapter 4: Results and Analysis

Background

The purpose of this study was to assess the impact of organisational restructuring on the organisational behaviour of employees. It also aimed to assess whether the types of organisational restructuring, the change of leadership during or as a result of organisational restructuring and the frequency thereof, affect employees. This study also assessed if effective change management mediated the relationship between organisational restructuring and organisational behaviour and how it contributed to attenuating the effects of such restructuring. The study also aimed to assess the extent to which an individual's psychological capital, as a personal resource, moderated the relationship between effective change management and organisational behaviour. As indicated in the extensive literature review provided, previous research has established significant relationships between the constructs examined in this study. Thus, the purpose of the study was either to prove or disprove the relationships, as posited, in the South African context and to analyse and compare the results obtained per sector. The three sectors in which the study was conducted included the private sector, public sector and state-owned enterprises (SOEs).

The results and findings of the study were reported in the sequence and format suitable for statistical analyses and included the measurement, scale construction, including case screening, variable screening and the presentation of the sample as well the common method variance, descriptive statistics, correlational analysis and regression, path and structural equation modelling.

The findings of the study were summarised and aligned with findings from previous research. The study's limitations, its practical implications and prospects for future research and studies were also discussed. Figure 13 is a graphic representation of the delineation of this chapter.

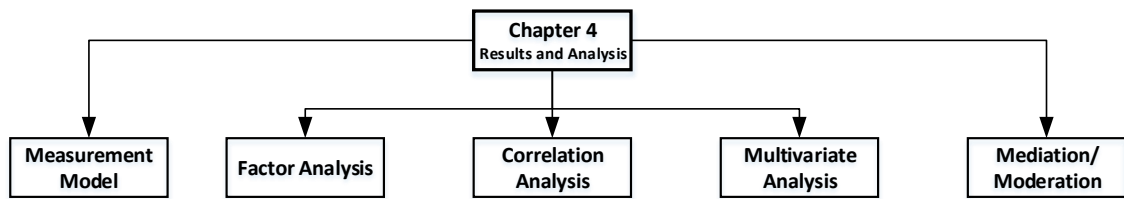


Figure 13: Graphic delineation of the chapter

1. Measurement Model

1.1 Scale Construction

The 118-item instrument (refer to Annexure 1) used in this study was developed based on relevant published literature and existing instruments, referenced herein. The independent variable (organisational restructuring) was represented by three factors, namely, the type of organisational restructuring (Restructuring_Type), the change in leadership during or as a result of organisational restructuring (Restructuring_Leadership) and the frequency of organisational restructuring as experienced by employees (Restructuring_Frequency), which represented the independent variable by means of categorical variables. The mediator was represented by the unidimensional construct, effective change management, which is comprised of the elements of effective change management processes, leadership (leader-member exchange) and perceived organisational support. The dependent variable included turnover intention (TI), resistance to change (RC), commitment to change (CC) and job (in)security (JS). The moderator was represented by the unidimensional construct of psychological capital, while remaining cognisant of its four facets, namely, self-efficacy, hope, optimism and resilience.

Data was collected from various organisations in the three sectors, *i.e.* public sector, private sector and state-owned enterprises (SOEs) through random sampling of intact groups within those organisations. In view of the fact that the data was collected using the abovementioned instrument at a specific point in time, a cross-sectional design was employed. For the purposes of this study,

only quantitative data was collected while all statistical analyses focused on correlations, regressions and structural equation modelling.

A second instrument (refer to Annexure 2) was issued to all the fieldworkers who each represented an organisation. This meant that all the grouping variables be provided. These included data on the following, namely, the type of restructuring experienced, the change of leadership due to organisational restructuring and the frequency of organisational restructuring as experienced.

1.2 Data Screening

The data collected was screened to ensure that it did not include missing values or unengaged responses. The instrument structure, format and contents were quality assured by a subject expert, as recommended by Barry, Chaney, Stelfox and Chaney (2011). The development of the instrument, which consisted of existing elements and instruments verified by relevant literature and containing strict instructions to the field workers, ensured that it was of a high quality and the majority of the instruments were fully completed. However, despite this, the data set, which had initially delivered 2 492 responses, was again checked and verified for any discrepancies.

Incorrect responses to the instrument that were observed necessitated further data screening. It was important to ensure that those responses that were not relevant or did not form part of the instrument, such as when respondents filled in a 6 when the scale was a five-point scale, were removed. Missing values compromise the integrity of the data set and the information provided and, ultimately, that of the study. For this reason, all the records of the complete data set were searched, and records containing missing values were identified and removed. All reversed items were verified to ensure that they had been correctly worded and recorded and scored as intended. All reverse items were verified for inclusion in the instrument. Incorrect reverse scoring for perceived organisational support and job security were identified and corrected. Two items, one each for commitment to change and resistance to change, were recoded.

After the data had been cleaned for the first time, 2 170 responses remained although the data still included missing values. After the data set had been screened and cleaned a final time, a clean data set, containing 1 950 responses, was obtained. Records containing missing values across scale items were screened and removed. The 1 950 responses constituted the final sample that was used for the purposes of the study.

The data screening process included a process of assessing data across the identified cases to ensure that no cases of unengaged responses were included. This assessment process involved conducting a standard deviation (SD). Cases of $< .20$ were inspected and assessed for possible exclusion. Unengaged responses are usually a result of respondents not noticing that two similar scales, for example two different six-point Likert scales, have different responses, such as “Strongly agree” to “Strongly disagree” and “Not at all” to “Quite frequently”. A standard deviation was conducted but no cases were identified for exclusion purposes. The average standard deviation per construct was also included.

The measurement model used is presented in Table 3 below, and indicates both the independent and dependent variables. It also provides information on the mediator and the moderator as well as the individual factors that make up the constructs. The items in italics (right-hand column) represent the reversed coded items.

Table 3: Measurement Model

Measurement Model		
Variable	Grouping Variable	Factors comprising Constructs
Independent Variable		
Organisational restructuring [OR]	Restructuring_Type Restructuring_Type_Count	Merged Been acquired Acquire another
	Restructuring_Leadership Restructuring_Leadership_Count	Replaced exec management Change CEO Change board Change leadership
	Restructuring_Frequency Restructuring_Frequency_Count	Recent restructure Five years restructure
Mediator		

Change management [CM]	Communication by management during restructuring [MAN]	MAN1 MAN2 MAN3 MAN4
	Communication by line management during restructuring [LINE]	LINE1 LINE2 LINE3
	Employee involvement in organisational change [INV]	INV1 INV2 INV3
	Trust in management during organisational change [TR]	TR1 TR2 TR3
Leader-member exchange [LMX]	Affect [AFF]	AFF1 AFF2 AFF3
	Loyalty [LOY]	LOY1 LOY2 LOY3
	Contribution [CONT]	CONT1 CONT2 CONT3
	Professional respect [PROF]	PROF1 PROF2 PROF3
Perceived organisational support [POS]		POS1 POS2 POS3R POS4 POS5R POS6R POS7R POS8 POS9 POS10 POS11 POS12 POS13R POS14
Moderator		
Psychological capital [PC]	Self-efficacy [SE]	SE1 SE2 SE3 SE4 SE5 SE6
	Hope [HO]	HO1 HO2 HO3 HO4 HO5 HO6
	Resilience [RES]	RES1 RES2 RES3 RES4 RES5 RES6
	Optimism [OPT]	OPT1 OPT2 OPT3 OPT4 OPT5 OPT6
Dependent Variable		
Job security [JS]	Strain about possibility of losing the job [OS]	OS1R OS2R OS3R
	Job and career stability/instability [CS]	CS1 CS2 CS3 CS4 CS5 CS6
Commitment for change [CC]	Affective commitment to change [AFF]	AFF1 AFF2 AFF3R AFF4 AFF5R AFF6R
	Continuance commitment to change [CON]	CON1 CON2 CON3 CON4 CON5 CON6
	Normative commitment to change [NORM]	NORM1 NORM2 NORM3R NORM4 NORM5 NORM6R
Turnover intention [TI]		TI1 TI2 TI3 TI4
Resistance to change [RC]	Routine seeking [RS]	RS1 RS2 RS3 RS4R RS5
	Emotional reaction [ER]	ER1 ER2 ER3 ER4
	Short term thinking [STT]	STT1 STT2 STT3 STT4 STT5
	Cognitive rigidity [CR]	CR1R CR2 CR3 CR4
<p>Description: (<i>Restr_Type</i>): Restructuring (Type) refers to the different types of organisational restructuring, (<i>Restr_Leadership</i>): Restructuring (Leadership) refers to the change in leadership during or as a result of organisational restructuring, (<i>Restr_Frequency</i>): Restructuring (Frequency) refers to how often (or if) the respondents (in their different sectors) have been exposed to organisational restructuring.</p> <p>Description: (<i>Restr_Type_Count</i>): Restructuring_Type_Count (number of different types of organisational restructuring), (<i>Restr_Leadership_Count</i>): Restructuring_Leadership_Count (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring), (<i>Restr_Frequency_Count</i>): Restructuring_Frequency_Count (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations).</p>		

1.3 Variable screening

The descriptive statistics used in the case of continuous variables include the mean, range of scores, standard deviation, the skewness and kurtosis. The descriptive statistics was used to assess whether any of the variables have

violated any assumptions in relation to the statistical techniques employed in the study (Pallant, 2011). The skewness value indicates that the responses do not all fall into the normal distribution, or that they may be leaning or weighted to one side of the scale, thus affecting the symmetry of the distribution of the sample. Kurtosis assesses the peakedness of the distribution. Skewness and kurtosis are not significantly affected when large samples are used, as in the case in this study (Pallant, 2011). A threshold was set at 10.00 and all values in excess of 10.00 were highlighted. The averages per construct were also provided. Only the average of *turnover intention* exceeded the threshold of 10.00 but, due to the large sample used in the study, no negative impact was detected.

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics

	Descriptive Statistics										
	n	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Skewness	SE	Kurtosis	SE	K/SE	Ave
CM_MAN1	1 950	1	5	2.99	1.29	-.15	.06	-1.13	.11	10.20*	
CM_MAN2	1 950	1	5	2.90	1.23	-.00	.06	-1.01	.11	9.10	
CM_MAN3	1 950	1	5	2.74	1.19	.09	.06	-.87	.11	7.90	
CM_MAN4	1 950	1	5	2.76	1.19	-.02	.06	-.94	.11	8.50	8.90
CM_LINE1	1 950	1	5	3.12	1.26	-.22	.06	-.94	.11	8.40	
CM_LINE2	1 950	1	5	2.94	1.21	-.01	.06	-.90	.11	8.10	
CM_LINE3	1 950	1	5	2.99	1.21	-.17	.06	-.86	.11	7.80	8.10
CM_INV1	1 950	1	5	1.99	1.22	1.04	.06	-.01	.11	.10	
CM_INV2	1 950	1	5	2.06	1.26	.92	.06	-.38	.11	3.40	
CM_INV3	1 950	1	5	2.35	1.25	.53	.06	-.81	.11	7.30	3.60
CM_TR1	1 950	1	5	3.19	1.24	-.22	.06	-.87	.11	7.90	
CM_TR2	1 950	1	5	2.89	1.23	-.06	.06	-.98	.11	8.90	
CM_TR3	1 950	1	5	3.34	1.18	-.40	.06	-.62	.11	5.60	7.50
PC_SE1	1 950	1	6	4.77	1.10	-1.06	.06	1.36	.11	12.30*	
PC_SE2	1 950	1	6	4.78	1.11	-.92	.06	.67	.11	6.00	
PC_SE3	1 950	1	6	4.33	1.26	-.57	.06	-.15	.11	1.40	
PC_SE4	1 950	1	6	4.69	1.22	-.87	.06	.22	.11	2.00	
PC_SE5	1 950	1	6	4.47	1.35	-.82	.06	.02	.11	.20	
PC_SE6	1 950	1	6	4.76	1.17	-.96	.06	.64	.11	5.80	4.60
PC_HO1	1 950	1	6	4.60	1.15	-.78	.06	.34	.11	3.00	
PC_HO2	1 950	1	6	4.60	1.18	-.81	.06	.45	.11	4.00	
PC_HO3	1 950	1	6	4.75	1.10	-.83	.06	.47	.11	4.20	
PC_HO4	1 950	1	6	4.39	1.25	-.72	.06	.19	.11	1.70	
PC_HO5	1 950	1	6	4.57	1.15	-.81	.06	.53	.11	4.80	
PC_HO6	1 950	1	6	4.42	1.17	-.70	.06	.25	.11	2.20	3.30
PC_RES1	1 950	1	6	4.54	1.12	-.83	.06	.64	.11	5.80	
PC_RES2	1 950	1	6	4.63	1.07	-.86	.06	.78	.11	7.10	
PC_RES3	1 950	1	6	4.66	1.16	-.85	.06	.43	.11	3.80	
PC_RES4	1 950	1	6	4.30	1.18	-.58	.06	.02	.11	.10	

	Descriptive Statistics										
	n	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Skewness	SE	Kurtosis	SE	K/SE	Ave
PC_RES5	1 950	1	6	4.69	1.11	-.78	.06	.31	.11	2.80	
PC_RES6	1 950	1	6	4.54	1.11	-.68	.06	.21	.11	1.90	3.60
PC_OPT1	1 950	1	6	4.11	1.20	-.45	.06	-.26	.11	2.30	
PC_OPT2	1 950	1	6	4.20	1.20	-.50	.06	-.01	.11	.10	
PC_OPT3	1 950	1	6	4.59	1.12	-.70	.06	.25	.11	2.20	
PC_OPT4	1 950	1	6	4.35	1.22	-.69	.06	.16	.11	1.50	
PC_OPT5	1 950	1	6	3.70	1.24	-.28	.06	-.21	.11	1.90	
PC_OPT6	1 950	1	6	4.27	1.17	-.56	.06	.07	.11	.70	1.40
LMX_AFF1	1 950	1	5	3.85	1.02	-.83	.06	.36	.11	3.30	
LMX_AFF2	1 950	1	5	3.49	1.11	-.34	.06	-.56	.11	5.10	
LMX_AFF3	1 950	1	5	3.47	1.10	-.40	.06	-.35	.11	3.10	3.80
LMX_LOY1	1 950	1	5	3.21	1.23	-.21	.06	-.85	.11	7.70	
LMX_LOY2	1 950	1	5	3.50	1.17	-.43	.06	-.65	.11	5.90	
LMX_LOY3	1 950	1	5	3.76	1.06	-.81	.06	.28	.11	2.50	5.30
LMX_CONT1	1 950	1	5	4.06	1.03	-1.09	.06	.64	.11	5.70	
LMX_CONT2	1 950	1	5	3.99	1.05	-1.03	.06	.66	.11	6.00	
LMX_CONT3	1 950	1	5	4.02	0.98	-.90	.06	.47	.11	4.20	5.30
LMX_PROF1	1 950	1	5	3.91	1.09	-.94	.06	.34	.11	3.00	
LMX_PROF2	1 950	1	5	3.98	1.07	-1.08	.06	.72	.11	6.50	
LMX_PROF3	1 950	1	5	3.86	1.15	-.93	.06	.13	.11	1.20	3.60
POS1	1 950	0	6	3.67	1.53	-.58	.06	-.01	.11	.10	
POS2	1 950	0	6	3.55	1.77	-.34	.06	-.66	.11	5.90	
POS3R	1 950	0	6	2.76	1.79	.20	.06	-.77	.11	6.90	
POS4	1 950	0	6	3.68	1.47	-.54	.06	.02	.11	.20	
POS5R	1 950	0	6	3.47	1.64	-.11	.06	-.68	.11	6.10	
POS6R	1 950	0	6	2.65	1.85	.24	.06	-.91	.11	8.20	
POS7R	1 950	0	6	3.10	1.88	-.00	.06	-1.03	.11	9.30	
POS8	1 950	0	6	3.30	1.45	-.34	.06	-.05	.11	.50	
POS9	1 950	0	6	3.20	1.60	-.35	.06	-.45	.11	4.10	
POS10	1 950	0	6	2.63	1.83	-.02	.06	-1.01	.11	9.10	
POS11	1 950	0	6	3.02	1.50	-.30	.06	-.36	.11	3.20	
POS12	1 950	0	6	2.30	1.75	.17	.06	-.97	.11	8.70	
POS13R	1 950	0	6	3.33	1.72	-.10	.06	-.66	.11	6.00	
POS14	1 950	0	6	3.84	1.45	-.52	.06	.27	.11	2.40	5.10
JS_OS1R	1 950	0	5	2.96	1.71	-.28	.06	-1.20	.11	10.80*	
JS_OS2R	1 950	0	5	2.52	1.81	.05	.06	-1.40	.11	12.60*	
JS_OS3R	1 950	0	5	1.56	1.51	.89	.06	-.10	.11	.90	8.10
JS_CS1	1 950	0	5	3.19	1.42	-.59	.06	-.29	.11	2.60	
JS_CS2	1 950	0	5	3.32	1.37	-.69	.06	-.10	.11	.90	
JS_CS3	1 950	0	5	2.81	1.52	-.35	.06	-.82	.11	7.40	
JS_CS4	1 950	0	5	3.35	1.32	-.68	.06	.03	.11	.30	
JS_CS5	1 950	0	5	3.16	1.37	-.58	.06	-.21	.11	1.80	
JS_CS6	1 950	0	5	3.98	1.13	-1.33	.06	1.79	.11	16.10*	4.90
TI1	1 950	1	7	3.37	2.09	.28	.06	-1.27	.11	11.50*	
TI2	1 950	1	7	2.92	2.00	.62	.06	-.93	.11	8.40	
TI3	1 950	1	7	3.63	2.19	.16	.06	-1.40	.11	12.60*	
TI4	1 950	1	7	3.69	2.31	.11	.06	-1.53	.11	13.80*	11.60*
CC_AFF1	1 950	1	7	5.86	1.28	-1.37	.06	2.13	.11	19.20*	

	Descriptive Statistics										
	n	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Skewness	SE	Kurtosis	SE	K/SE	Ave
CC_AFF2	1 950	1	7	5.74	1.35	-1.36	.06	2.01	.11	18.10*	
CC_AFF3R	1 950	1	7	5.33	1.65	-.74	.06	-.31	.11	2.80	
CC_AFF4	1 950	1	7	5.01	1.64	-.65	.06	-.18	.11	1.60	
CC_AFF5R	1 950	1	7	5.49	1.62	-.87	.06	-.09	.11	.80	
CC_AFF6R	1 950	1	7	5.30	1.73	-.73	.06	-.45	.11	4.10	7.80
CC_CON1	1 950	1	7	4.46	1.82	-.39	.06	-.73	.11	6.50	
CC_CON2	1 950	1	7	3.62	1.82	.14	.06	-.94	.11	8.50	
CC_CON3	1 950	1	7	3.90	1.84	-.04	.06	-.92	.11	8.30	
CC_CON4	1 950	1	7	4.13	1.85	-.14	.06	-.92	.11	8.30	
CC_CON5	1 950	1	7	3.77	1.82	.11	.06	-.94	.11	8.50	
CC_CON6	1 950	1	7	4.31	1.81	-.18	.06	-.89	.11	8.00	8.00
CC_NORM1	1 950	1	7	4.86	1.60	-.54	.06	-.31	.11	2.80	
CC_NORM2	1 950	1	7	4.67	1.75	-.43	.06	-.62	.11	5.60	
CC_NORM3R	1 950	1	7	4.22	1.80	-.01	.06	-.85	.11	7.70	
CC_NORM4	1 950	1	7	4.60	1.76	-.37	.06	-.69	.11	6.20	
CC_NORM5	1 950	1	7	4.02	1.85	-.02	.06	-.93	.11	8.40	
CC_NORM6R	1 950	1	7	4.92	1.67	-.45	.06	-.58	.11	5.20	6.00
RC_RS1	1 950	1	6	2.05	1.26	1.24	.06	0.92	0.11	8.30	
RC_RS2	1 950	1	6	3.04	1.49	.30	.06	-.88	.11	7.90	
RC_RS3	1 950	1	6	2.21	1.28	.97	.06	.22	.11	1.90	
RC_RS4R	1 950	1	6	3.07	1.44	.38	.06	-.66	.11	6.00	
RC_RS5	1 950	1	6	2.39	1.37	.88	.06	.02	.11	.20	4.90
RC_ER1	1 950	1	6	2.82	1.45	.43	.06	-.77	.11	6.90	
RC_ER2	1 950	1	6	2.92	1.43	.32	.06	-.84	.11	7.60	
RC_ER3	1 950	1	6	3.48	1.43	-.12	.06	-.81	.11	7.30	
RC_ER4	1 950	1	6	3.04	1.33	.28	.06	-.60	.11	5.40	6.80
RC_STT1	1 950	1	6	2.72	1.34	.53	.06	-.53	.11	4.80	
RC_STT2	1 950	1	6	2.62	1.36	.60	.06	-.56	.11	5.00	
RC_STT3	1 950	1	6	2.52	1.29	.72	.06	-.06	.11	.50	
RC_STT4	1 950	1	6	2.29	1.24	.86	.06	.14	.11	1.20	
RC_STT5	1 950	1	6	2.98	1.37	.32	.06	-.66	.11	5.90	3.50
RC_CR1R	1 950	1	6	3.47	1.39	.04	.06	-.76	.11	6.80	
RC_CR2	1 950	1	6	3.13	1.37	.27	.06	-.68	.11	6.10	
RC_CR3	1 950	1	6	3.26	1.36	.17	.06	-.71	.11	6.40	
RC_CR4	1 950	1	6	4.01	1.28	-.39	.06	-.33	.11	3.00	5.60

*Denotes values in excess of the 10.00 threshold

The unidimensional construct of effective change management (mediator) used a five-point Likert scale (1 – 5) and consisted of four factors, namely, change management and communication by management, communication by line management, employee involvement and trust in management. The average for each factor was recorded as 8.90, 8.10, 3.60 and 7.50, which were all below the threshold of 10.00. Leader-member exchange, the second factor of effective change management, used a five-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly disagree; 5 =

Strongly agree). Leader-member exchange consisted of four facets, namely, affect, loyalty, contribution and professional respect and yielded averages per facet of 3.80, 5.30, 5.30 and 3.60. The third factor of effective change management, namely, perceived organisational support, consisted of a single factor only and a threshold of 5.10. It used a seven-point (0 = Strongly disagree; 6 = Strongly agree) Likert scale. The four factors of psychological capital (moderator), namely, self-efficacy, hope, resilience and optimism, each used a six-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly disagree; 6 = Strongly agree) and recorded averages of 4.60, 3.30, 3.60 and 1.40 – all well below the 10.00 threshold.

The construct of job security consisted of two facets, namely, strain about job loss and job/career instability and recorded averages of 8.10 and 4.90. A six-point Likert scale (0 = Strongly disagree; 5 = Strongly agree) was used. Three individual items had readings above the 10.00 threshold. The construct of turnover intention, which consisted of one facet, used a seven-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly disagree; 7 = Strongly agree) and yielded an average of 11.60. It was the only construct to yield an average higher than the 10.00 threshold – this is denoted with an asterisk in the Table 4 above. The commitment to change construct used a seven-point Likert Scale (1 = Strongly disagree; 7 = Strongly agree) and consisted of the three facets of affective commitment, continuous commitment and normative commitment, each yielding averages of 7.80, 8.00 and 6.00 respectively. The resistance to change construct made use of a six-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly disagree; 6 = Strongly agree) and consisted of four facets, namely, routine seeking, emotional reaction, short term thinking and cognitive rigidity. It yielded averages of 4.90, 6.80, 3.50 and 5.60.

As stated above, turnover intention was the only construct which yielded an average score above the 10.00 threshold (see the histograms for this construct in Figure 14 below).

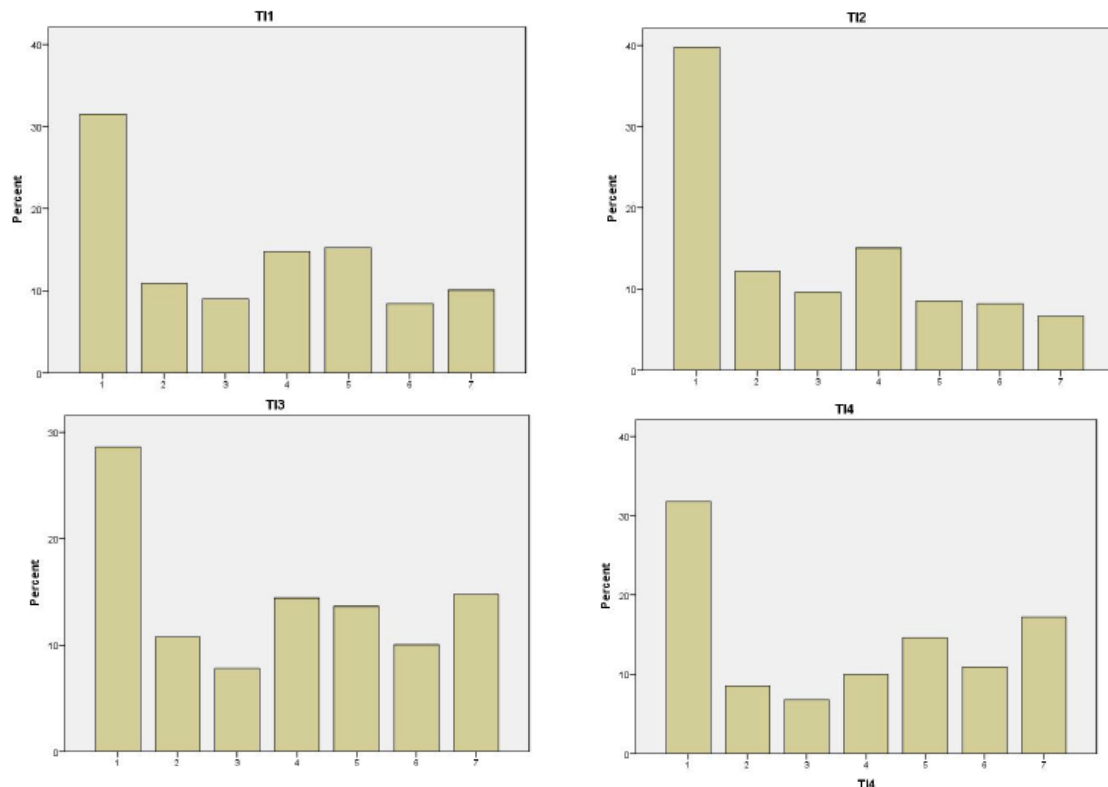


Figure 14: Turnover Intention (Histograms)

The histograms indicate a positive skewed graph, thereby indicating that the scores obtained are clustered to the left of the graph. This implies that the majority of the respondents selected option 1 of the instrument (turnover intention), namely, “*I often think about quitting my present job (R); I intend to quit my job. (R); During the next 12 months, I intend to search for an alternative role (another job, full-time student, etc.) to my present job. (R); I have searched for a new job. (R)*”. Nevertheless, nothing abnormal was detected in the histograms, probably as a result of the large sample size (Pallant, 2011). This was, however, not abnormal as question 1 described the construct, namely, turnover intention. Considering leaving the organisation refers to the intention to leave which has not yet been converted to action. The question was constructed in such a way so as to investigate the intentions of the employees.

1.4 Sample Profile: Presentation of the Sample

This section provides both information on and an analysis of the participants’ profiles and the organisations and sectors which they represent. It further also

presents an analysis of the grouping variables that comprise the independent variable.

Industry Profile (n = 1 950)

The sample was drawn from three sectors, private sector, public sector and state-owned enterprises (SOEs), which represented the following industries: agriculture, mining, manufacturing, electricity and water, construction, wholesale, retail and motor trade, hospitality, catering and accommodation, transport, storage and communication, finance, real estate and business services, government services, personal services and other.

The sample distribution indicated that 73.60% of employees employed in public and private sector organisations respectively, are black, as are 53.10% of employees employed in both private organisations and SOEs. Asians (2.90%) and Coloureds (8.20%) are the least represented in public organisations while, 28.30% of employees employed in private organisations are white. The sample is representative of the South African population.

The sample distribution also highlighted that 39.70% of the mean is represented by skilled and academically qualified employees, with 42.70% of this category being employed in SOEs. SOEs had the highest percentage (35.00%) of professionally qualified staff, who also occupied middle management positions. On the other hand, 2.90% of the mean was represented by employees who are unskilled, while 6.40% of the mean is represented by employees in top or senior management positions. Of the three sectors, SOEs employ 7.70% of their employees in top or senior management positions.

Sector Profile

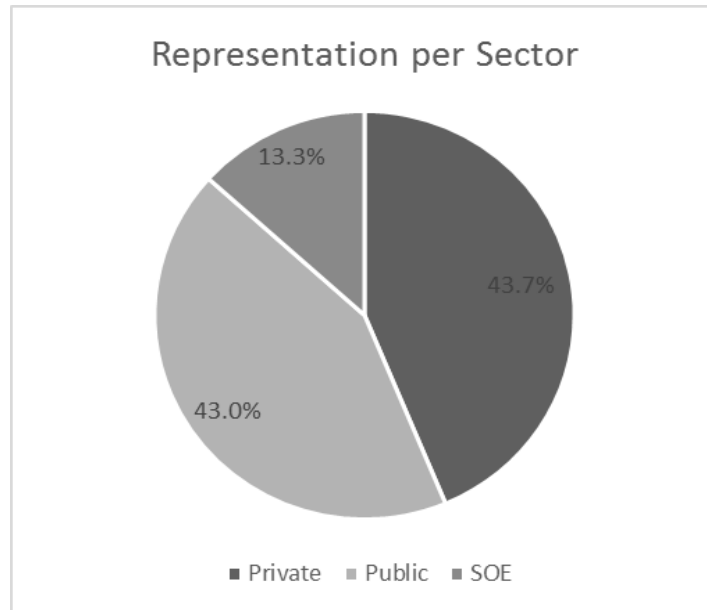


Figure 15: Sector Profile (n = 1 950)

The three sectors from which the sample had been drawn are presented in Figure 15 above. The public sector represented 43.00% (n=838) of the sample, with SOEs and the private sector representing 13.30% (n=260) and 43.70% (n=852) respectively. Table 5 below, presents the statistics for a selection of the sample information.

Table 5: Summary of Sector Profiles (Ownership, Organisation Size and Age)

Sector	Individually Owned (%)	Foreign Owned (%)	Staff totals (1001-5000) (%)	Staff totals (>10000) (%)	Role (Management) (%)	Age (18-29 yrs) (%)	Age (50-67 yrs) (%)
Private	20.50	21.50	23.90	2.60	25.10	19.00	13.80
Public	0.00	6.30	43.10	16.30	38.40	14.60	14.70
SOEs	0.00	0.00	0.00	61.90	43.10	18.10	17.70

Summary of the Sample:

It was clear from the data collected that 20.50% of the private organisations were individually owned, with none of the public organisations and SOEs being individually owned. 21.50% of the private organisations were foreign-owned while none of SOEs were foreign-owned. Although the study found that 6.40% of the public organisations were foreign-owned, this could be ascribed to the

fact that some public departments, such as Embassies or High Commissions, are located outside of the borders of South Africa.

Public organisations with staff totals (organisation size) of between 1 001 to 5 000 members of staff represented 43.10% of the sample and private organisations with these staff totals represented 23.90% of the sample. No SOEs were found to be in this category. SOEs represented 61.90% of the entities in the sample with staff totals in excess of 10 000 employees while public organisations with such staff totals represented 16.30% and private organisations 2.60% of the sample only. The study found that 43.10% of the respondents from SOEs represented their organisation's management or were part of management, while 38.40% and 25.10% of the respondents from public organisations and private organisations respectively were at the managerial level. Private organisations were found to employ the highest percentage of younger staff member (19.00%) and public organisations the fewest at 14.60%. SOEs employed 18.10% the sample in the age category of 18 to 29 years, SOEs employed the highest percentage of mature staff (aged 50–67 years) at 17.70% and private organisations the lowest percentage at 13.80%. 14.70% of the staff in public organisations was from this age group.

Table 6 presents the data collected in respect of the respondents' experiences in relation to organisational restructuring in their organisations. An analysis of the information is provided and discussed below.

Table 6: Profile: Organisational Restructuring

Profile: Restructuring (n = 1 950)		Private %	Public %	SOEs %
Recently undergone restructuring or organisational change	No	18.90	23.60	0.00
	Yes	81.10	76.40	100.00
Undergone restructuring or organisational change in the last 5 years	No	6.80	21.70	0.00
	Yes	93.20	78.30	100.00
Recently changed leadership/executive management	No	31.30	20.20	17.70
	Yes	68.70	79.80	82.30
Replaced more than 50% of its executive management members in the last 5 years	No	60.70	64.60	55.40
	Yes	39.30	35.40	44.60
Changed board of directors in the last 5 years	No	41.90	51.10	0.00

Profile: Restructuring (n = 1 950)		Private %	Public %	SOEs %
	Yes	58.10	48.90	100.00
Changed CEO in the last 5 years	No	32.30	24.60	17.70
	Yes	67.70	75.40	82.30
Recently merged with another organisation	No	77.20	93.10	100.00
	Yes	22.80	6.90	0.00
Recently acquired another organisation	No	62.40	100.00	76.90
	Yes	37.60	0.00	23.10
Another company recently acquired your organisation	No	77.20	100.00	100.00
	Yes	22.80	0.00	0.00
Contact with manager	Monthly	10.10	9.20	4.20
	Weekly	18.80	23.90	23.50
	Daily	64.80	60.90	69.60
Contact with leadership	Monthly	19.10	25.70	23.10
	Weekly	14.20	18.00	21.90
	Daily	20.50	17.30	14.60

Recently undergone restructuring or organisational change: The distribution depicted in Table 6 above indicated that 81.10% of private sector organisations and 76.40% of public organisations had recently undergone some form of organisational restructuring. It is also extremely important to note that the distribution indicated that all (100.00%) of the SOEs represented had recently undergone some form of organisational restructuring, thereby supporting this study, which sought to assess the impact of restructuring on the organisational behaviour of employees.

Undergone organisational change in the past five years: The distribution indicated again that all (100.00%) of the SOEs had undergone organisational change in the previous five years. Given the size of these organisations, as indicated above, with most (61.90%) of the SOEs represented in this sample having more than 10 000 employees, the organisational change could not have been on a small scale and nor could it have happened quickly. The sample indicated that 93.20% of private sector organisations and 78.30% of public

organisations had undergone some form of organisational change in the previous five years.

Recently changed leadership/executive management: The sample's distribution as depicted indicated that 75.30% of the mean (n = 1 950) had recently experienced a change in leadership (executive management). Of this sample, 68.70% of private sector organisations, 79.80% of public organisations and 82.30% of SOEs had recently undergone a change in either leadership or executive management.

Replaced more than 50.00% of its executive management members in the last five years: The sample's distribution indicated that 61.60% of the mean (n = 1 950) had more than 50.00% of its executive management replaced in the previous five years. It was in the SOEs that the highest number of respondents (44.60%) indicated that more than 50.00% of their executive management had been replaced in the previous five years.

Changed board of directors in the last five years: The sample's distribution showed that in all of the SOEs represented, the board of directors had changed in the previous five years, with 58.10% of the private sector organisations indicating the same. The study found that 59.70% of the mean (n = 1 950) indicated that their boards of directors had been changed in the previous five years.

Changed CEO on the last five years: The distribution showed that 73.00% of the mean (n = 1 950) had undergone a change of Chief Executive Officer (CEO) in the previous five years with 82.30% of the SOEs and 75.40% of the public sector organisations indicating that they had changed their CEOs in the previous five years.

Recently merged with another organisation: The sample's distribution indicated that 87.10% of the mean (n = 1 950) had not undergone a recent merger with any other organisation with 93.10% and 77.20% of the public and private

organisations respectively reporting the same. Only 12.90% of the sample indicated that their organisation had merged with another organisation, while 22.80% of the private organisations reporting a merger with another organisation.

Recently acquired another organisation: The sample's distribution indicated that no public organisations (100.00%) had recently acquired another organisation. The study found that 62.40% of the private organisations had not acquired another organisation while 37.60% of the private organisations and 23.10% of the SOEs indicated that they had recently acquired another organisation or even a number of organisations.

Another company recently acquired your organisation: The sample's distribution indicated that only 9.90% of the mean (n = 1 950) had recently been acquired by another organisation. According to the distribution of the sample in the table above, no public organisations or SOEs had recently been acquired by another company, while 22.80% of the private organisations that had participated in this study had been acquired by another organisation.

Contact with manager: The sample distribution indicated that 63.70% of the mean of the organisations that participated in the study was in daily contact with their immediate manager or line manager while 1.10% of the mean indicated no contact with the manager at all. The SOEs represented indicated a 69.60% response rate in terms of daily contact with their line management.

Contact with leadership: The sample distribution indicated that 29.30% of the mean had very little contact with their organisation's leadership, while 22.50%, 16.90% and 18.40% indicated monthly, weekly and daily contact with leadership. Public organisations indicated 25.70% monthly contact with their leadership while 18.00% indicated weekly contact and 17.30% daily contact. SOEs indicated 23.10% monthly and 14.60% daily contact with their leadership. Private organisations indicated only 19.10% monthly contact with their leadership, 14.20% weekly contact and 20.50% daily contact. When interpreting

these totals it should be taken into account that certain organisations headquarters are based abroad and that 66.80% of the mean (n = 1 950) represented non-management staff in all three sectors.

The results obtained from the research conducted indicated that most respondents from the participating organisations had recently been exposed to an organisational restructuring or organisational change process. Some of the organisations had undergone these changes in the last five years while others may have been in the midst of it. The results were discussed in line with the research objectives which had been formulated.

2. Factor Analysis

Factor Analysis consists of exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Both an EFA and a CFA were conducted and were used either to develop or evaluate scales, or to reduce large numbers of individual scales to more manageable and coherent scales (Pallant, 2011). The EFA is conducted first, in the early stages of the research, in order to obtain the necessary information about the interrelationships within a set of variables, while a CFA is a more complex set of techniques. A CFA is conducted at a later stage in the research process as a way of testing or confirming hypotheses regarding the structure of a set of variables (Pallant, 2011).

An EFA for the independent variable, the mediator, the moderator as well as the dependent variable was conducted for the purposes of this study. The factor analysis for the independent variable was a separate process as it made use of categorical variables and not continuous variables, as is the case with the mediator, moderator and dependent variable.

Before the EFA could be conducted, it was necessary to ascertain that the data was suitable for factor analysis. This is done through an assessment of, for example, the sample size. In the main, larger samples are better as the

correlations of smaller samples are less reliable and often do not generalise well (Pallant, 2011).

A factor analysis requires that certain assumptions be met, for example, the sample size must at least be in excess of 150 respondents and the correlation matrix must demonstrate correlations of $r = .30$ or greater. The strength of the intercorrelations between the items was assessed and correlations greater than $.30$ were identified. The correlation matrix highlighted coefficients greater than $.30$. For a factor analysis to be valid, it is essential that a few correlations at this level are available (Pallant, 2011). This was tested in the study.

2.1 Independent Variable

The independent variable is discussed below. It consisted of three factors.

Independent Variable: Organisational restructuring (OR) was operationally defined to include the following components:

- Type of restructuring (Restructuring_Type)
- Change of leadership during or as a result of restructuring (Restructuring_Leadership) and
- Frequency of organisational change as experienced by change recipients (Restructuring_Frequency)

Restructuring_Type refers to the different types of organisational restructuring while Restructuring_Leadership refers to the change in leadership during or as a result of organisational restructuring. Restructuring_Frequency refers to how often (or if) the respondents (in their different sectors) have been exposed to organisational restructuring.

The KMO or Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Test

For the purposes of this study, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was used to assess factorability (Pallant, 2011). In terms of the suitability of the data set for factor analysis, the KMO had to be above $.60$.

Linearity was met and the data was adequately screened with outliers being either removed or recoded (Pallant, 2011). In addition, Bartlett's test of sphericity value was tested and it had to be significant at $p < .05$ (Pallant, 2011), and which it was (refer to Table 7). The results indicated that the KMO was, indeed, above .60, which made the data suitable for factor analysis.

Table 7: KMO and Bartlett's Test: Measure for Sampling Adequacy

KMO and Bartlett's Test: Measure for sampling adequacy		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.61
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	6313.73
	df	36
	Prob.	< .05

Factor Extraction

Factor extraction is a process that determines the least number of factors that may be used to best represent the interrelationships within the set of variables (Pallant, 2011). Factors with large eigenvalues were extracted and retained as this indicates the substantive importance of the factor (Field, 2009). Using the Kaiser criterion and examining the total variance explained tables (Table 8), eigenvalues in excess of 1.00 were identified. Only the eigenvalues of factors in excess of 1.00 were retained as this value represents the amount of the total variance explained by the factor in question (Pallant, 2011). The total variance explained for the three factors was 67.74% (refer to Table 8).

Table 8: Total Variance Explained

Total Variance Explained						
Component	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total (eigen-values)	Percentage of Variance	Cumulative Percentage (%)	Total	Percentage of Variance	Cumulative Percentage (%)
Restructuring (Type)	3.01	33.41	33.41	2.16	24.02	24.02
Restructuring (Leadership)	1.88	20.79	54.20	2.09	23.22	47.23
Restructuring (Frequency)	1.22	13.54	67.74	1.85	20.50	67.74
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.						
Description: <i>Restructuring (Type)</i> refers to the different types of organisational restructuring, <i>Restructuring (Leadership)</i> refers to the change in leadership during or as a result of organisational restructuring, <i>Restructuring (Frequency)</i> refers to how often (or if) the respondents (in their different sectors) have been exposed to organisational restructuring.						

The component matrix table (Table 9) below shows the unrotated loading of each of the items of the components and, thus, uses the Kaiser criterion. The majority of the items loaded strongly – above .40 as recommended (Pallant, 2011).

Table 9: Component Matrix

Component Matrix^a			
	Component		
	Restructuring_Type	Restructuring_Leadership	Restructuring_Frequency
Change CEO	.72		
Change Board	.67		
Recent Restructure	.65		-.61
Five Years Restructure	.62		-.56
Acquire Another	.57		
Merged		.75	
Change Leadership		-.65	
Been Acquired		.61	
Replaced Exec Management	.51		.62
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.			
^a . 3 components extracted.			
Description: <i>Restructuring (Type)</i> refers to the different types of organisational restructuring, <i>Restructuring (Leadership)</i> refers to the change in leadership during or as a result of organisational restructuring, <i>Restructuring (Frequency)</i> refers to how often (or if) the respondents (in their different sectors) have been exposed to organisational restructuring.			

Factor Rotation

A factor rotation refers to the rotation of the factors after the appropriate number of factors have been extracted. For the purposes of this study, a factor rotation was conducted with the data obtained (Brown, 2006).

Table 10: Rotated Component Matrix

Rotated Component Matrix^a			
	Component		
	Restructuring_Type	Restructuring_Leadership	Restructuring_Frequency
Merged	.88		
Been Acquired	.79		
Acquire Another	.72		

Rotated Component Matrix ^a			
	Component		
	Restructuring_ Type	Restructuring_ Leadership	Restructuring_ Frequency
Replaced Exec Management		.86	
Change CEO		.78	
Change Board		.61	
Change Leadership		.54	
Recent Restructure			.88
Five Years Restructure			.84
Description: <i>Restructuring (Type) refers to the different types of organisational restructuring, Restructuring (Leadership) refers to the change in leadership during or as a result of organisational restructuring, Restructuring (Frequency) refers to how often (or if) the respondents (in their different sectors) have been exposed to organisational restructuring.</i>			

The rotated solution revealed the presence of a simple structure, with all three components showing a number of strong loadings. An EFA, together with a Varimax orthogonal rotation were used, and an eigenvalue of 1.00 was set as a threshold. This process resulted in three factors being constructed to be used as scales and the three factors explained more than 67.00% of the variance in the data, as stated above. The factors, Restructuring_Type, represented 33.40% of the variance in the data (3 items), Restructuring_Leadership represented 20.80% of the variance in the data (4 items) and Restructuring_Frequency represented 13.50% of the variance in the data (2 items). The data collected aimed to assess the respondents' exposure to organisational restructuring programmes and to assess the impact thereof on the organisational behaviour of the organisational restructuring recipients. The results of this analysis supported the use of the Restructuring_Type, Restructuring_Leadership and Restructuring_Frequency scales as categorical variables (independent variable).

Communality

Communality refers to the proportion of common variance that is present in a variable and which (the calculation of new communalities) can be explained by the extracted factors (Field, 2009). A communality value of 1.00 indicates a variable has no specific variance whereas a value of 0.00 indicates that a

variable does not share any of its variance with another variance. These, too, were tested for in the study.

Table 11: Communalities

Communalities	
	Extraction
Recent Restructure	.81
Five Years Restructure	.74
Change Leadership	.61
Replaced Executive Management	.76
Change Board	.50
Change CEO	.69
Merged	.79
Acquire Another	.57
Been Acquired	.64
<i>Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.</i>	

The communalities table (Table 11, above) indicates the amount of variance in each item, with values $< .30$ indicating the possibility that the item may not fit well with others in its component (Pallant, 2011). The principal component analysis (PCA) was used as the extraction method. The items indicated all loaded higher than $.50$, which is indicative of a good fit.

2.2 Categorical Variables and Frequencies

Categorical variables were used to group variables and describe categories of entities or assess the relationships between several categorical variables (Pallant, 2011). Frequencies were used to obtain the descriptive statistics for the categorical variables but did not include means and standard deviations. Frequencies were used to provide an indication of the number of respondents who responded to each question (Pallant, 2011). The study used continuous variables and descriptive statistics, which provided summary statistics, including means and standard deviation.

For the purposes of this study, the independent variable consisted of categorical variables which were divided into scales and indexes, which are both composite measures of variables as they are based on more than one data item (Babbie, 2016). Scales were constructed where they represented a pattern of responses. In this study the scales represented organisational restructuring which consisted of the following three scales, namely, the type of restructuring (Restructuring_Type), the change of leaderships during or as a result of organisational restructuring (Restructuring_Leadership) and the frequency at which employees were exposed to organisational restructuring (Restructuring_Frequency).

The categorical variables were divided into three levels and indexed. The number of times each of the incidents occurred in the organisation was counted. The different levels of categorical variables were identified as the number of different types of organisational restructuring (Restructuring_Type_Count), the number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring (Restructuring_Leadership_Count) and the number of times that individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations (Restructuring_Frequency_Count). The scales and indexes were designed to measure variables. While indexes focus on counting the number of indicators of the variables, scales measure the various intensities of those indicators (Babbie, 2016). It is important to note that scales are considered to be superior to indexes as they take into account the intensity with which different items reflect the variable being measured (Babbie, 2016).

Index Construction

In order to arrive at the best possible indexing strategy, two methods were used. The first method (refer to Table 12) made use of indexing each of the different responses, and their factor loadings under the different scales. Table 12 below presents the index construction for the independent variable. This means that, for example, the responses at 1 in Restructuring_Type_Count imply that the respondents had experienced a merger, while a 2 at

Restructuring_Frequency_Count indicated that the respondents had experienced a restructuring event in the previous five years.

Table 12: Index Construction

Index Construction			
Index	Restructuring_Type_Count	Restructuring_Leadership_Count	Restructuring_Frequency_Count
0	No incidents recorded	No incidents recorded	No incidents recorded
1	Merged	Replaced Exec Management	Recent Restructure
2	Been Acquired	Changed CEO	Five Years Restructure
3	Acquire Another	Change Board	
4		Change Leadership	

Description: *Restructuring_Type_Count* (number of different types of organisational restructuring), *Restructuring_Leadership_Count* (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring), *Restructuring_Frequency_Count* (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations).

The second method (refer to Table 13) involved the indexing of the items by assigning scores to each of the responses in terms of the factors within the scale and is discussed later in this section.

Table 13: Factor Loadings

Restructuring_Type_Count			Restructuring_Leadership_Count			Restructuring_Frequency_Count		
Factor Loadings	Frequency	Per-centage (%)	Factor Loadings	Frequency	Per-centage (%)	Factor Loadings	Frequency	Per-centage (%)
-.69	59	3.00	-1.84	59	3.00	-2.64	5	.30
-.69	122	6.30	-1.48	44	2.30	-2.56	139	7.10
-.62	216	11.10	-1.33	122	6.30	-2.16	53	2.70
-.57	59	3.00	-1.29	103	5.30	-1.26	43	2.20
-.56	53	2.70	-1.17	139	7.10	-1.15	59	3.00
-.56	60	3.10	-.77	60	3.10	-1.10	59	3.00
-.55	279	14.30	-.61	60	3.10	-1.03	44	2.30
-.49	211	10.80	-.52	42	2.20	-.47	32	1.60
-.47	43	2.20	-.47	216	11.10	-.28	58	3.00
-.18	44	2.30	-.39	28	1.40	.04	42	2.20
-.16	59	3.00	-.30	5	.30	.05	60	3.10
-.10	139	7.10	-.01	60	3.10	.26	279	14.30
-.04	5	.30	.09	211	10.80	.29	158	8.10
-.03	103	5.30	.21	53	2.70	.33	59	3.00
.20	28	1.40	.39	58	3.00	.39	103	5.30
.28	158	8.10	.52	32	1.60	.52	60	3.10
.70	60	3.10	.93	59	3.00	.68	60	3.10

Restructuring_Type_Count			Restructuring_Leadership_Count			Restructuring_Frequency_Count		
Factor Loadings	Frequency	Per-centage (%)	Factor Loadings	Frequency	Per-centage (%)	Factor Loadings	Frequency	Per-centage (%)
1.24	58	3.00	1.13	279	14.30	.72	216	11.10
1.47	60	3.10	1.18	60	3.10	.75	28	1.40
2.84	60	3.10	1.20	158	8.10	.78	211	10.80
3.31	32	1.60	1.44	43	2.20	.81	122	6.30
3.37	42	2.20	1.48	59	3.00	.87	60	3.10
	1 950	100.00		1 950	100.00		1 950	100.00

Description: *Restructuring_Type_Count* (number of different types of organisational restructuring), *Restructuring_Leadership_Count* (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring), *Restructuring_Frequency_Count* (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations).

Table 13 above depicts the frequency of the different responses and the associated percentiles. The factor loadings are included in the table above. The lowest numbers of factor loadings indicate the least number of incidents related to the scale. As mentioned above the second method involved the indexing of the items by assigning scores to each of the responses in terms of the factors within the scale.

Indexing Totals

Table 14 below presents the frequencies of the responses.

Table 14: Indexing Totals (Frequency table)

	Restructuring_Type_Count		Restructuring_Leadership_Count		Restructuring_Frequency_Count	
	Frequency	Per-centage (%)	Frequency	Per-centage (%)	Frequency	Per-centage (%)
0	1452	74.50	242	12.40	197	10.10
1	304	15.60	230	11.80	205	10.50
2	60	3.10	459	23.50	1548	79.40
3	134	6.90	420	21.50		
4			599	30.70		
Total	1 950	100.00	1 950	100.0	1 950	100.00

Description: *Restructuring_Type_Count* (number of different types of organisational restructuring), *Restructuring_Leadership_Count* (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring), *Restructuring_Frequency_Count* (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations).

It is clear from the information provided in Table 14 above that 1 452 respondents (74.50%) had not experienced any of the three restructuring types, whereas 304 (15.60%) respondents had experienced at least a merger, 60 respondents (3.10%) had experienced an acquisition and 134 respondents (6.90%) had been involved in the acquisition of another organisation.

The table also indicated that 12.40% (n = 242) had not experienced a change of leadership as a result of restructuring whereas 230 (11.80%) had been part of a process during which the organisation's executive management had been replaced while 459 respondents (23.50%) had experienced their chief executive officer (CEO) being replaced as a result of organisational restructuring. In addition, 21.50% of the respondents had experienced a change of board and 30.70% (599 respondents) had been part of a complete change of leadership as a result of organisational restructuring.

The table also revealed that 10.10% of the respondents only, had not experienced any form restructuring during the previous five years, 10.50% had experienced or could still have been be experiencing restructuring, while 79.40% (1 548 respondents) had been exposed to organisational restructuring during the previous five years.

Reliability of the Organisational Restructuring Scales

The reliability of the scales was assessed at .70 (Cronbach's alpha). However, since the descriptive statistics are categorical variables which were subjected to scales and indexing, they were measured using the *Kuder-Richardson Formula*, which is equivalent to the Cronbach's alpha value of .70.

Table 15: Reliability – Using Kuder-Richardson formula

Item-Total Statistic	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item – Total Correlation	*Kuder-Richardson Formula
Merged	.29	.35	.66	.75
Been Acquired	.32	.42	.54	
Acquire Another	.23	.31	.56	
Replace Exec. Management	2.08	1.06	.55	.71
Change CEO	1.73	1.06	.64	

Item-Total Statistic	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item – Total Correlation	*Kuder-Richardson Formula
Change Board	1.87	1.15	.44	
Change Leadership	1.71	1.29	.38	
Recent Restructure	.88	.11	.62	.76
Five Years Restructure	.82	15	.62	
<i>*Value equivalent to that of Cronbach's alpha</i>				

The scales presented good internal consistency with all the Kuder-Richardson values being in excess of the threshold of .70. The values are presented in Table 15 above.

Summary of the Factor Analysis: Organisational Restructuring Scales

The organisational restructuring scale was subjected to a principal components analysis (PCA) using SPSS version 24. Prior to performing the PCA, the suitability of the data for factor analysis was assessed. An inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of several coefficients of .30 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was .61, exceeding the recommended value of .60 (Kaiser, 1970, 1974) while Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) revealed statistical significance, thus supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. The principal components analysis revealed the presence of three components with eigenvalues exceeding 1, thus explaining 67.70% of the variance (Pallant, 2011).

A summary of the employees' exposure to organisational restructuring was presented above. Additional information on the impact of the organisational restructuring in the various sectors is provided below.

Correlation Analysis of the Organisational Restructuring Factors

A correlation analysis was conducted of the organisational restructuring factors, namely, the type of organisational restructuring (Restructuring_Type), the different levels of categorical variables were identified as the number of different types of organisational restructuring (Restructuring_Type_Count), the change in leadership during or as a result of organisational restructuring

(Restructuring_Leadership) and the number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring (Restructuring_Leadership_Count), the frequency of organisational restructuring as experienced by employees (Restructuring_Frequency) and the number of times that individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations (Restructuring_Frequency_Count).

Table 16: Correlation Matrix – Independent Variable

Correlations (n = 1 950)		Restr _Type	Restr _Lead	Restr _Freq	Restr_Type _count	Restr_Lead _count	Restr_Freq _count
Restructuring_ Type	Pearson Correlation	1					
	Sig. (2- tailed)						
Restructuring_ Leadership	Pearson Correlation	0.00	1				
	Sig. (2- tailed)	1.00					
Restructuring_ Frequency	Pearson Correlation	0.00	0.00	1			
	Sig. (2- tailed)	1.00	1.00				
Restructuring_Type_ Count	Pearson Correlation	.97**	.11**	.11**	1		
	Sig. (2- tailed)	< .05	< .05	< .05			
Restructuring_ Leadership_ Count	Pearson Correlation	0.04	.96**	.28**	.17**	1	
	Sig. (2- tailed)	0.06	< .05	< .05	< .05		
Restructuring_ Frequency_ Count	Pearson Correlation	.15**	.13**	.96**	.24**	.39**	1
	Sig. (2- tailed)	< .05	< .05	< .05	< .05	< .05	
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).							
1. Description: (<i>Restr_Type</i>): Restructuring (Type) refers to the different types of organisational restructuring, (<i>Restr_Lead</i>): Restructuring (Leadership) refers to the change in leadership during or as a result of organisational restructuring, (<i>Restr_Freq</i>): Restructuring (Frequency) refers to how often (or if) the respondents (in their different sectors) have been exposed to organisational restructuring.							
2. Description: <i>Restructuring_Type_Count</i> (number of different types of organisational restructuring), <i>Restructuring_Leadership_Count</i> (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring), <i>Restructuring_Frequency_Count</i> (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations).							

The relationships between the constructs listed above were investigated using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Preliminary analyses were conducted to ensure that there had been no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity. The correlation matrix had highlighted

that all the intercorrelations were greater than .30 and, hence, the factor analysis was deemed to be valid. (Pallant, 2011).

There was a large positive correlation between the two variables, Restructuring_Type and Restructuring_Type_Count, $r = .97$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant. This indicated that the restructuring (type) and the number of persons (count) affected by it were highly correlated. There was a large positive correlation between the two variables, Restructuring_Leadership and Restructuring_Leadership_Count, $r = .96$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant, thus indicating that the restructuring (leadership) and number of persons (count) affected by it were highly correlated. There was a large positive correlation between the two variables, Restructuring_Frequency and Restructuring_Frequency_Count, $r = .96$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant, hence indicating that the restructuring (frequency) and the number of persons (count) affected by it were highly correlated.

2.3 Assessing the Original Measure Model: Dependent Variable, Mediator and Moderator

In order to assess the model fit of the scale measures of the constructs for the purposes of this study, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted for the factors of the dependent variable as well as the mediator and moderator variables.

Original Measurement Model

The model fit statistics (exploratory factor analysis model fit statistics: dependent variable, mediator and moderator) are presented in Table 17 below. The accepted thresholds are used as a guide to assess model fit.

Table 17: Exploratory Factor Analysis: Model Fit statistics

Construct	# of sub-factors	CMIN (DF)	Prob.	CMIN/DF	GFI	AGFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
CM	4	991.35 (59)	< .05	16.80	.92	.88	.93	.95	.09	.05
PC	4	1949.58 (246)	< .05	7.93	.92	.90	.93	.93	.06	.04
TI	1	259.52 (2)	< .05	129.76	.93	.67	.82	.94	.26	.04
RC	4	1446.77 (129)	< .05	11.22	.92	.89	.87	.89	.07	.06
CC	3	2860.85 (132)	< .05	21.67	.85	.80	.73	.76	.10	.10
JS	2	662.16 (26)	< .05	25.47	.93	.88	.83	.88	.11	.08
LMX	4	566.47 (48)	< .05	11.80	.96	.93	.95	.96	.07	.04
POS	1	2790.49 (77)	< .05	36.24	.79	.71	.51	.59	.13	.12

(CM: Change Management Processes; PC: Psychological Capital; TI: Turnover Intention; RC: Resistance to Change; CC: Commitment to Change; JS: Job (In)Security;; LMX: Leader-Member Exchange; POS: Perceived Organisational Support;)

The actual values as related to the appropriateness of the fit indices are depicted in the table above while the constructs that met the minimum fit are mentioned in the paragraph below.

Model fit is considered adequate if the TLI (Tucker-Lewis index) and CFI (comparative fit index) values are > .90 but better if they are >.95. (Van de Schoot, Lugtig & Hox, 2012; Zainudin, 2012). The absolute indices measure closeness of fit. The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) had threshold of < .08 (better if < .05) and is not sensitive to sample size, but only to model complexity (Van de Schoot et al., 2012; Zainudin, 2012).

According to the information provided in Table 17 above and the RMSEA threshold, not all of the models had a reasonable fit as they were all above the <.08 threshold. The following models in its original format demonstrated a reasonable fit; standardised root-mean-square index (SRMR) < .08, (preferably as close to zero as possible), namely, change management (CM), psychological capital (PC), turnover intention (TI), resistance to change (RC) and leader-member exchange (LMX). The three models that did not demonstrate a suitable fit as they did not meet the SRMR threshold of < .08 were commitment to change, job security and perceived organisational support (POS).

The Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) for Organisational Behaviour (JS, TI, CC and RC) did not meet the minimum threshold of $> .90$, nor did perceived organisational support. Turnover intention and perceived organisational support also did not meet the minimum threshold requirements for the adjusted goodness-of fit index (AGFI), namely, $> .80$. The abovementioned items that did not meet the minimum threshold were loaded onto other factors within the model. A confirmatory factor analysis was conducted in order to do this.

2.4 Common Method Variance

Common method variance (CMV) is defined as “the variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the constructs the measures represent” (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003: 879). Since consensus on the veracity of common method variance had not been reached, it was a necessary to include this process as omitting it may have jeopardised the study’s conclusions about the model’s relationships (Eichhorn, 2014). Potential sources of common method variance have been suggested by Eichhorn (2014) and Podsakoff et al. (2003) and include, among others, using a common source or rater, which refers to a case where a single source provides information on both the independent variable or the complexity and/or the ambiguity of the survey instrument’s design. It was deemed important to highlight these complexities and or ambiguities in the context of this study as the possibility existed that the fieldworkers themselves had completed some or all of their assigned instruments, if the respondents had found it too time-consuming or tiresome to complete the said instruments.

The variables had been clearly identified and were in line with Eichhorn’s (2014) recommendation of at least two, preferably three manifest variables, to represent the dependent variable. The dependent variable in this study consisted of four separate constructs. Common method variance may be tested using any of three, or all three, of the analytical techniques which include the Harman’s single factor, common latent factor and common marker variable.

For the purposes of this study the Harmon's single factor was used to assess the common method variance as it is one of the most widely used techniques used by researchers to assess common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Nevertheless, despite its popularity, Podsakoff et al. (2003) are of the opinion that it is not the best solution to resolving common method variance.

The Harmon's single factor technique makes use of an exploratory factor analysis that loads variables onto a single factor, which is constrained so that there is no rotation (Eichhorn, 2014). This new factor, which has been created, is not part of the final model and is developed for analysis purposes only. Thus, after assessing it, it may be discarded (Eichhorn, 2014). After conducting a Harman's single factor test, a single factor should emerge from the factor analysis and, if it represents more than 50.00% of the variance, this may indicate that common method variance may be present (Eichhorn, 2014).

2.5 Assessing Common Method Variance – Harman's Single Factor Test

Table 18: Assessing Common Method Variance – Harman's single-factor test

Scale	Number of proposed factors	Harman's single factor test: Percentage variance explained by a single factor (%)
Change Management (CM)	4	55,10
Psychological Capital (PC)	4	27,10
Turnover Intention (TI)	1	73,70
Resistance to Change (RC)	4	33,10
Commitment to Change (CC)	3	23,20
Job Security (JS)	2	36,60
Leader-member Exchange (LMX)	4	52,20
Perceived Organisational Support (POS)	1	27,10
Note: For 2+-factor models, want variance explained <50% For 1-factor models, want variance explained >50%		

The main benefit of the Harmon's single factor analysis lies in its simplicity. Nevertheless, it does have shortcomings as well; one of which is that it contains no specific guideline or threshold and a common threshold of 50.00% is used (Eichhorn, 2014). For models consisting of more than two factors, a < 50.00%

threshold is required, and for a model consisting of one factor, a threshold of > 50.00% is required. Based on the constructs used in this study and the information provided in Table 18, it was clear that the constructs consisting of two or more factors, namely, psychological capital (27.10%), resistance to change (33.10%) and commitment to change (23.20%) had variances in excess of the 50.00% threshold. Change management and leader-member exchange, which had models consisting of two or more factors, had variance in excess of 50.00%, thus indicating the possible presence of common method variance. Turnover intention and perceived organisational support consisted of one factor each, but only perceived organisational support had a variance of less than the 50.00% threshold, which may have indicated the presence of common method variance.

Original Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) model – Change Management

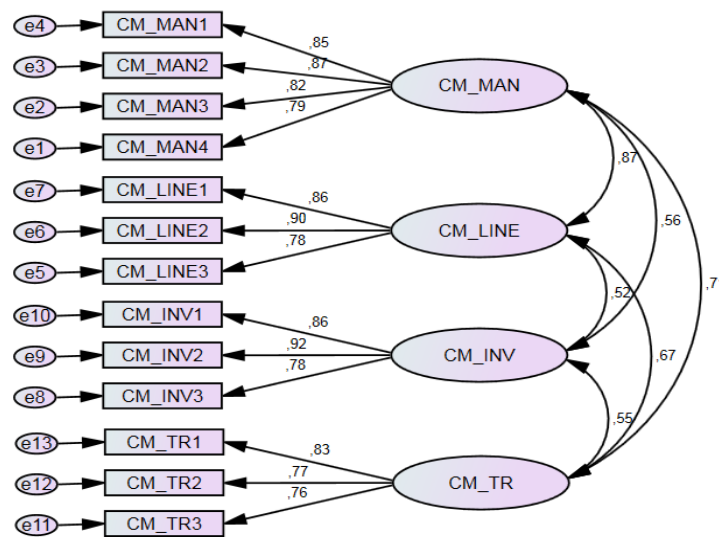


Figure 16: Original EFA Model (Change Management)

Table 19: Validity (Change Management)

	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)	CM_INV	CM_MAN	CM_LINE	CM_TR
CM_INV	.89	.73	.31	.91	.85			
CM_MAN	.90	.70	.76	.95	.56	.84		
CM_LINE	.89	.72	.76	.97	.52	.87	.85	
CM_TR	.83	.62	.50	.97	.55	.71	.67	.79

	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)	CM_INV	CM_MAN	CM_LINE	CM_TR
<i>(CM_INV: Employee Involvement during restructuring; CM_MAN: Communication by management during restructuring; CM_LINE: Communication by line management during restructuring; CM_TR: Trust in Management during restructuring).</i>								

The results of the Harman single factor assessment revealed that change management, a single factor solution, accounted for more than 50.00% (55.10%) of the total variance, which may have indicated the presence of common method variance. The EFA model revealed relatively high correlations between the sub-constructs (factors) and was an indication of low discriminant validity (refer to Table 19). Discriminant validity was observed between two of the constructs, namely, Communication by management during restructuring (CM_Man) and Communication by line management during restructuring (CM_Line), as their values were lower than that of the average variance extracted (AVE). Discriminant validity also indicated poor fit.

Original EFA model – Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)

Leader-member exchange (LMX), a single factor solution, accounted for more than 50.00% (52.20%) of the total variance. The EFA model revealed acceptable correlations between the sub-constructs (factors). In addition, the model presented no validity issues.

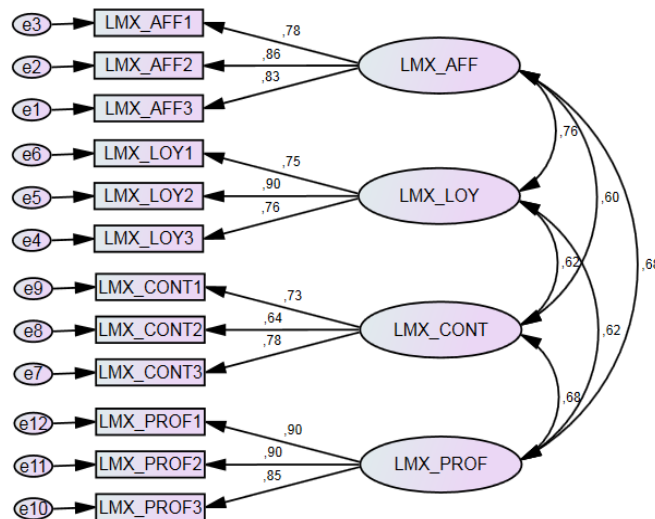


Figure 17: Original EFA model – Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)

Table 20: Validity: Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)

	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)	LMX_CONT	LMX_AFF	LMX_LOY	LMX_PROF
LMX_CONT	.76	.52	.47	.77	.72			
LMX_AFF	.87	.69	.58	.91	.60	.83		
LMX_LOY	.85	.65	.58	.95	.62	.76	.81	
LMX_PROF	.91	.78	.47	.97	.68	.68	.61	.88

(LMX_CONT: Contribution; LMX_AFF: Affect; LMX_LOY: Loyalty; LMX_PROF: Professional respect).

Original EFA Model – Perceived Organisational Support (POS)

Perceived organisational support (POS), a single factor solution, accounted for less than 50.00% (27.10%) of the total variance. The model consisted of a single construct. The EFA model revealed average and even low (negative) correlations between the sub-constructs (factors), thus indicating poor fit. It is possible that there may have been more than one factor underpinning the construct.

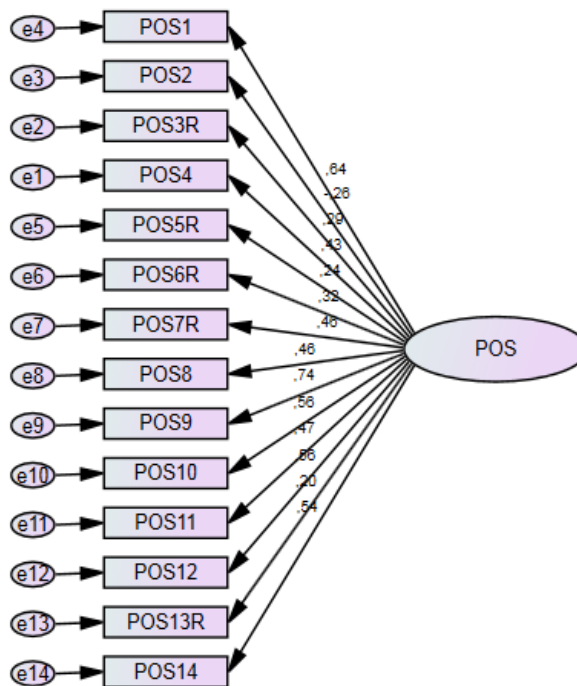


Figure 18: Original EFA model – Perceived Organisational Support (POS)

The factor analysis for the constructs, change management (CM), job security (JS), turnover intention (TI), commitment to change (CC), resistance to change (RC), perceived organisational support (POS) and leader-member exchange (LMX), were calculated with the total variance per construct provided.

Dependent Variable – Total Variance Explained

The principal components analysis revealed the presence of components with eigenvalues exceeding 1.00.

Table 21: Dependent Variable – Total Variance Explained

Factor Analysis (Total Variance Explained)			
Construct	Eigenvalues	Number of Components	Eigenvalues (% of Variance)
Turnover Intention	2.95	1	73.69
Resistance to Change	5.96 1.83 1.32 1.06	4	56.55
Commitment to Change	4.17 3.56 1.42 1.21	4	57.57
Job Security	3.30 1.71	2	55.60

The principal components analysis explained the percentage variance as indicated in Table 21 above, namely, turnover intention (73.69%), resistance to change (56.55%), commitment to change (57.57%) and job security (55.60%).

Mediator – Total Variance Explained

The principal components analysis revealed the presence of components with eigenvalues exceeding 1.00.

Table 22: Mediator – Total Variance Explained

Factor Analysis (Total Variance Explained)			
Construct	Total	Number of Components	Eigenvalues (Percentage of Variance) – (%)
Change Management	7.16 1.44 1.05	3	74.27
Leader-Member Exchange	6.27 1.31 1.02	3	71.61

Factor Analysis (Total Variance Explained)			
Construct	Total	Number of Components	Eigenvalues (Percentage of Variance) – (%)
Perceived Organisational Support	3.80 2.25 1.11	3	51.19

The principal components analysis explained the percentage variance as per Table 22 above, namely, change management (74.27%), leader-member exchange (71.61%) and perceived organisational support (51.19%).

Moderator – Total Variance Explained

The principal components analysis revealed the presence of components with eigenvalues exceeding 1.00.

Table 23: Moderator – Total Variance Explained

Factor Analysis (Total Variance Explained)			
Construct	Total	Number of Components	Eigenvalues (Percentage of Variance) - (%)
Psychological Capital	10.83 1.743 1.27	3	57.64

The principal components analysis explained the percentage variance as per Table 23 above, namely, psychological capital (57.64%).

The construct (scale) measures used in this study were assessed in terms of their reliability and validity by means of an exploratory factor analysis. This is the first step in assessing the reliability and validity of a measurement model or scale.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Dependent Variable, Mediator and Moderator

A confirmatory factor analysis is conducted to confirm whether the indicators have sorted themselves into factors that correspond to how they were intended to link the indicators to the variables (Garson, 2007). It should be noted that confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) may also be used to assess unidimensionality, which is achieved when all the measuring items have

achieved acceptable factor loadings for the latent construct (Zainudin, 2012). In order to ensure the unidimensionality of the constructs, items with low factor loadings are identified and deleted, thus retaining items with loadings of > 0.50 for new items and > 0.60 for well-established items, as well as ensuring that all the factor loadings are positive (Zainudin, 2012).

The confirmatory factor analysis is also used to assess whether a pre-specified structure of constructs influences the responses in a predicted manner. In addition, it is also used to determine whether the measurement model accurately fits the set of data that is being analysed. Confirmatory factor analysis allows for the methods of analysis used to influence the measures of the constructs. The primary goal of using structural equation modelling (SEM) is to find a statistically significant theoretical model with both practical and substantive meaning (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010).

The confirmatory factor analysis uses a selection of chi-square tests. These different tests, among others, include the normed chi-squared/*df*, including the degrees of freedom, the normed chi-squared test (CMIN), the goodness-of-fit test (GFI), the comparative fit index (CFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI). The results obtained evaluate either convergent validity or discriminant validity and contribute in determining the model's fit.

Three criteria were identified by Schumacker and Lomax (2010) and may be used to judge the statistical significance and substantial meaning of a theoretical model. Criterion 1 refers to the nonstatistical significance of the chi-square test and the RMSEA values. A RMSEA value which is less than or equal to .05 is an acceptable value whereas a nonstatistically significant chi-square value is indicative that both the sample covariance matrix and the reproduced model imply that the covariance matrix are similar. Criterion 2 refers to the statistical significance of the chi-square test and the RMSEA while criterion 3 refers to the magnitude and direction of the parameter estimates and, in

particular, whether either a negative or a positive coefficient makes sense in relation to the parameter estimate (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010).

The data obtained was used to determine the ideal model fit. “Model fit determines the degree to which the sample variance-covariance data fits the structural equation model” (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010: 85). Several researchers have provided various thresholds to determine acceptable or even good model fit (Zainudin, 2012). According to Brown (2006) and Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson (2010), there are no absolute guidelines in respect of what constitutes an acceptable model fit due to the variety of factors which may be present, such as the sample size, model complexity, estimation method, type of misspecification, normality of data and type of data. The following thresholds were recommended by Hair et al. (2010) and are widely used. The standardised root-mean-square index (SRMR) value should be $< .08$ ($< .05$, was recommended by Schumacker and Lomax (2010)), the RMSEA values should be $< .05$, the CFI /TLI index values should be $> .90$, the (adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) values should be $> .80$, the GFI values should be $> .90$, and the CMIN/DF values should be < 3.00 while the chi-square p -value is $> .05$.

2.6 Final Measurement Models: Dependent Variable, Mediator and Moderator

The results of the exploratory factor analysis conducted in this study, of the original measurement model fit were assessed and required that the models be reconsidered and that a specification search may need to be conducted to resolve the model fit issues. This would improve model fit as per the minimum threshold requirements. In order to improve model fit, all the factor loadings of $< .50$ have to be identified and removed (Hair et al., 2010). Zainudin (2012: 59) recommends that “factor loadings less than $.60$ and R^2 less than $.40$ ” be removed. However, the recommendations of Hair et al. (2010) were preferred for the purposes of this study. After examining these items, they were excluded or compounded with others because of their relatively weak contributions towards the construct measurement. In so doing, the overall fit was improved in terms of meeting the thresholds of internal consistency reliability, convergent

reliability, the average variance extracted (AVE) and the average loadings. The final model fit statistics for the constructs are presented below.

Table 24: Final Models for Set of Instruments

Con-struct	# of sub-factors	CMIN (DF)	Prob.	CMIN/DF	GFI	AGFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
CM	3	1510.15 (62)	< .05	24.36	.89	.84	.90	.92	.11	.05
PC	1	1318.95 (54)	< .05	24.43	.87	.81	.87	.90	.11	.05
TI	1	259.52 (2)	< .05	129.76	.93	.67	.82	.94	.26	.04
RC	1	619.73 (14)	< .05	44.27	.91	.82	.85	.90	.15	.06
CC	3	208.93 (24)	< .05	8.71	.98	.96	.94	.96	.06	.04
JS	2	311.12 (8)	< .05	38.89	.94	.85	.86	.93	.14	.05
LMX	4	566.47 (48)	< .05	11.80	.96	.93	.95	.96	.07	.04
POS	1	.54 (2)	.76	.27	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	.00	.00

(CM: Change Management Processes; PC: Psychological Capital; TI: Turnover Intention; RC: Resistance to Change; CC: Commitment to Change; JS: Job (In)Security; LMX: Leader-Member Exchange; POS: Perceived Organisational Support).

Table 24 presents the final models for the fit statistics for the different constructs in the set of instruments. The final measurement model indicated an acceptable fit given the fact that the overall model fit statistics all met the recommended minimum threshold values.

Final Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) model – Change Management

At this point both the change management model as well as the leader-member exchange model no longer presented any validity concerns. Refer to Table 25.

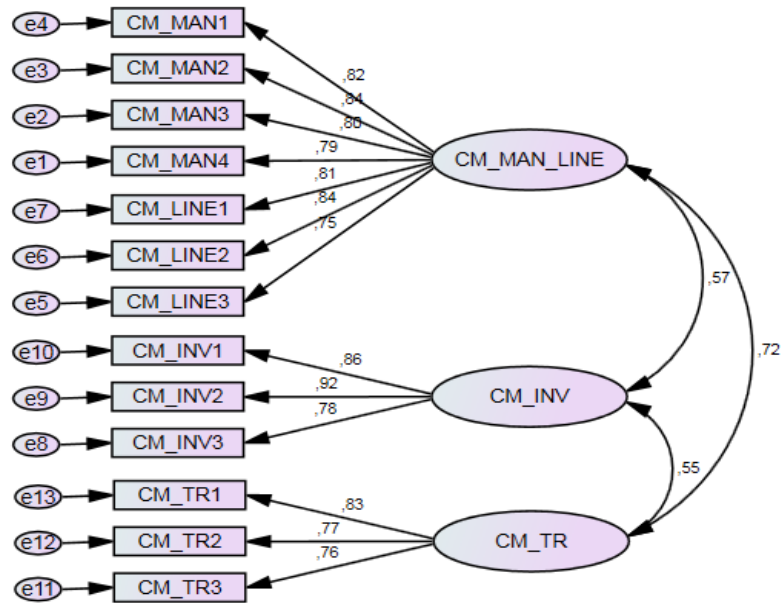


Figure 19: Final Model: Change Management

Table 25: Final Model: Change Management (No Validity Concerns)

	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)	CM_INV	CM_MAN_LINE	CM_TR
CM_INV	.89	.73	.32	.91	.85		
CM_MAN_LINE	.93	.66	.52	.96	.57	.81	
CM_TR	.83	.62	.52	.97	.55	.72	.79

(CM_INV: Employee Involvement during restructuring; CM_MAN: Communication by management during restructuring; CM_LINE: Communication by line management during restructuring; CM_TR: Trust in Management during restructuring).

Final Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) Model – Leader-Member Exchange

At this point the leader-member exchange model no longer presented any validity concerns. Refer to Table 26.

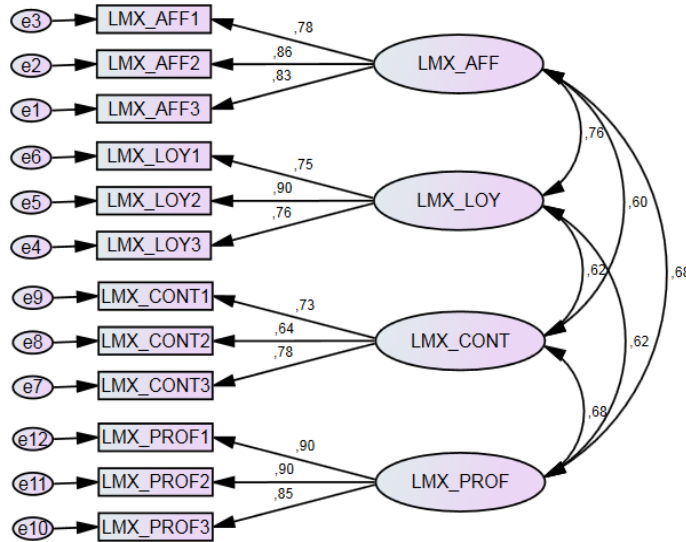


Figure 20: Final Model: Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)

Table 26: Final Model: Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) (No Validity Concerns)

	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR (H)	LMX_CONT	LMX_AFF	LMX_LOY	LMX_PROF
LMX_CONT	.76	.52	.47	.77	.72			
LMX_AFF	.87	.69	.58	.91	.60	.83		
LMX_LOY	.85	.65	.58	.95	.62	.76	.81	
LMX_PROF	.91	.78	.47	.97	.68	.68	.62	.88

(LMX_CONT: Contribution; LMX_AFF: Affect; LMX_LOY: Loyalty; LMX_PROF: Professional respect)

Final Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) model – Perceived Organisational Support

The perceived organisational support model no longer presented any validity concerns at this point. Refer to Table 26.

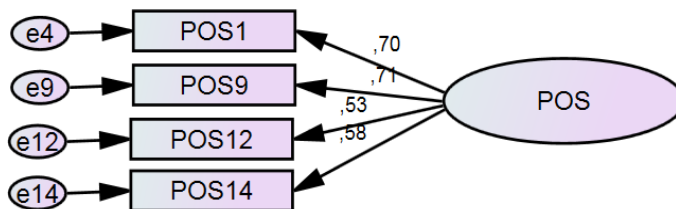


Figure 21: Final Model: Perceived Organisational Support (POS)

Table 27: Final Model: Perceived Organisational Support (POS)

Standardised Regression Weights: (Group number 1 – Default Model)			
	CR	AVE	MSV
POS_Total	.73	.40	.34

2.7 Final Measurement model for set of Instruments

The final measurement model, with its factor loadings, standard deviations, composite reliability and AVE scores, is presented in Table 28 below.

Table 28: Final Measure Model

Construct	Items	Item Mean (SD)	Construct Mean (SD)	CR	AVE	Factor Loadings
Effective Change Management	CM_MAN1	2.99 (1.29)	2.73 (.90)	.88	.67	.82
	CM_MAN2	2.90 (1.23)				.84
	CM_MAN3	2.74 (1.19)				.80
	CM_MAN4	2.76 (1.19)				.79
	CM_LINE1	3.12 (1.26)				.81
	CM_LINE2	2.94 (1.21)				.84
	CM_LINE3	2.99 (1.21)				.75
	CM_INV1	1.99 (1.22)				.86
	CM_INV2	2.06 (1.26)				.92
	CM_INV3	2.35 (1.25)				.78
	CM_TR1	3.19 (1.24)				.83
	CM_TR2	2.89 (1.23)				.77
	CM_TR3	3.34 (1.18)				.76
Psychological Capital	PC_SE2	4.78 (1.11)	4.59 (.86)	.92	.49	.68
	PC_SE3	4.33 (1.26)				.76
	PC_SE4	4.69 (1.22)				.78
	PC_SE6	4.76 (1.17)				.76
	PC_HO1	4.60 (1.15)				.74
	PC_HO2	4.60 (1.18)				.65
	PC_HO5	4.57 (1.15)				.69
	PC_HO6	4.42 (1.17)				.73
	PC_RES1	4.54 (1.12)				.66
	PC_RES2	4.63 (1.07)				.68
	PC_OPT3	4.59 (1.12)				.67
Turnover Intention	TI1	3.37 (2.09)	3.40 (1.84)	.88	.65	.83
	TI2	2.92 (2.00)				.87
	TI3	3.63 (2.19)				.81
	TI4	3.69 (2.31)				.71
Resistance to Change	RC_ER1	2.82 (1.45)	2.70 (1.02)	.00	.00	.69
	RC_ER2	2.92 (1.43)				.71
	RC_ER4	3.04 (1.33)				.66
	RC_STT1	2.72 (1.34)				.76
	RC_STT2	2.62 (1.36)				.79
	RC_STT3	2.52 (1.29)				.68
	RC_STT4	2.29 (1.24)				.64
Commitment to Change	CC_AFF3R	5.33 (1.65)	4.76 (.89)	.87	.50	.65
	CC_AFF5R	5.49 (1.62)				.77
	CC_CON1	4.46 (1.82)				.56
	CC_CON3	3.90 (1.84)				.73
	CC_CON4	4.13 (1.85)				.81
	CC_NORM1	4.46 (1.82)				.68
	CC_NORM2	3.90 (1.84)				.76

Construct	Items	Item Mean (SD)	Construct Mean (SD)	CR	AVE	Factor Loadings
	CC_NORM4	4.13 (1.85)				.61
Job Security	JS_OS1R	2.96 (1.71)	3.00 (1.10)	.81	.60	.93
	JS_OS2R	2.52 (1.81)				.67
	JS_CS1	3.19 (1.42)				.74
	JS_CS2	3.32 (1.37)				.70
	JS_CS4	3.35 (1.32)				.77
	JS_CS5	3.16 (1.37)				.72
Leader-Member Exchange	LMX_AFF1	3.85 (1.02)	3.76 (.78)	.85	.66	.86
	LMX_AFF2	3.49 (1.11)				.83
	LMX_AFF3	3.47 (1.10)				.75
	LMX_LOY1	3.21 (1.23)				.90
	LMX_LOY2	3.50 (1.17)				.76
	LMX_LOY3	3.76 (1.06)				.73
	LMX_CONT1	4.06 (1.03)				.64
	LMX_CONT2	3.99 (1.05)				.78
	LMX_CONT3	4.02 (1.10)				.90
	LMX_PROF1	3.91 (1.09)				.90
	LMX_PROF2	3.98 (1.07)				.85
	LMX_PROF3	3.86 (1.15)				.70
Perceived Organisational Support	POS1	3.67 (1.53)	3.25 (1.17)	.73	.40	.53
	POS9	3.20 (1.60)				.58
	POS12	2.30 (1.75)				
	POS14	3.84 (1.45)				

SD = Standard deviation; CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted

2.7 Comparison of Mean Scores across Sectors – ANOVA

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) is used when it is necessary to compare the mean scores of more than two statistically significant groups (Christensen et al., 2015; Pallant, 2011). One-way analysis of variance consists of one independent variable or factor and consists of a number of different levels (Pallant, 2011). ANOVA is used when the model includes one quantitative dependent variable and one categorical independent variable, as was the case in this study (Christensen et al., 2015).

2.7.1 ANOVA Omnibus Test

Table 29 below presents a summary of the information depicting the differences between the sectors. The sample comprised 852 (n = 1 950) respondents from the private sector, 838 (n = 1 950) from the public sector and 260 (n=1 950) from the SOEs.

The purpose of the analysis of variance is to compare the variance between different groups, where the variance is believed to be due to the independent

variable with the variability within each of the groups, which is believed to be due to chance (Pallant, 2011). When the population means are equal, the *F* test is significant, but without indicating the groups which differ (Pallant, 2011). The *F*-ratio represents the variance between groups divided by the variance within the group (Pallant, 2011). A large *F*-ratio is indicative of greater variability between the groups than within the groups, with the former having been caused by the independent variable (Pallant, 2011). In order to determine the groups that differ, a post hoc test must be conducted (Pallant, 2011).

The organisations in the study were divided into private sector (Group 1), public sector (Group 2) and state-owned enterprises (SOEs) (Group 3) (see Table 29).

Table 29: Summary Table (Descriptives): Group Differences – Sectors

Summary Table: Group Differences -- Sectors						
		Private (Group 1) N = 852	Public (Group 2) N = 838	SOE (Group 3) N = 260	<i>F</i> (2.1947)	Prob.
Restructuring_Type_Count	Mean	.83	.07	.23		
	SD	1.11	.25	.42	218.15	< .05
Restructuring_Leadership_Count	Mean	2.34	2.40	3.09		
	SD	1.39	1.35	1.07	33.62	< .05
Restructuring_Frequency_Count	Mean	1.74	1.55	2.00		
	SD	.57	.76	.00	56.81	< .05
Change Management	Mean	2.76	2.64	2.92		
	SD	.83	.96	.87	10.66	< .05
Psychological Capital	Mean	4.51	4.67	4.60		
	SD	.82	.86	.89	6.97	< .05
Turnover Intention	Mean	3.28	3.50	3.52		
	SD	1.88	1.83	1.74	3.57	< .05
Resistance to Change	Mean	2.86	2.54	2.74		
	SD	1.08	1.03	.94	21.27	< .05
Commitment to Change	Mean	4.73	4.76	4.88		
	SD	.84	.92	.91	2.82	.06

Summary Table: Group Differences -- Sectors						
		Private (Group 1) N = 852	Public (Group 2) N = 838	SOE (Group 3) N = 260	F (2.1947)	Prob.
Job Security	Mean	2.99	3.15	2.83		
	SD	1.07	1.09	1.17	15.40	< .05
Leader-Member Exchange	Mean	3.76	3.69	3.99		
	SD	.75	.81	.77	14.89	< .05
Perceived Organisational Support	Mean	3.39	3.06	3.44		
	SD	1.14	1.19	1.13	21.14	< .05
Description: <i>Restructuring_Type_Count</i> (number of different types of organisational restructuring), <i>Restructuring_Leadership_Count</i> (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring), <i>Restructuring_Frequency_Count</i> (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations).						

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to explore the impact of organisational restructuring on the organisational behaviour of employees in order to determine whether effective change management (effective change management processes, leader-member exchange and perceived organisational support) mediated the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. It would also assess whether psychological capital moderated the relationship between effective change management and organisational behaviour. The study was conducted across sectors and, thus, the results per sector were compared.

The *effect size* was provided as eta-squared (refer to Table 30) and measured the strength or magnitude of the difference between groups or the influence of the independent variable (Pallant, 2011). The information was not provided by SPSS and had to be calculated by dividing the sum of the squares (information obtained from the ANOVA table) by the total sum of the squares. Cohen (1988) considered small effects to be in the range of .01, medium effects in the range of .06 and large effects in excess of .14 (Pallant, 2011). It is important to note that effect size is sensitive to sample size and it is, therefore, possible to obtain statistically significant results ($p < .05$) with small samples.

Statistical significant results (eta-squared < .05) were obtained for the following: the number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring (Restructuring_Leadership_Count), effective change management, psychological capital, turnover intention, resistance to change, commitment to change, job security, leader-member exchange and perceived organisational support. No statistically significant results (eta-squared > .05) were obtained for the number of different types of organisational restructuring (Restructuring_Type_Count) and the number of times that individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations (Restructuring_Frequency_Count).

Table 30: ANOVA (Differences between Mean Scores of Groups)

ANOVA							
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Prob.	Eta Squared
Restructuring_Type_Count	Between Groups	256.31	2	128.16	218.15	< .05	.18
	Within Groups	1143.80	1947	.59			
	Total Sum of Squares	1400.12	1949				
Restructuring_Leadership_Count	Between Groups	120.02	2	60.01	33.62	< .05	.03
	Within Groups	3474.90	1947	1.79			
	Total Sum of Squares	3594.92	1949				
Restructuring_Frequency_Count	Between Groups	44.61	2	22.30	56.81	< .05	.06
	Within Groups	764.39	1947	.39			
	Total Sum of Squares	808.10	1949				
Change Management	Between Groups	17.02	2	8.51	10.66	< .05	.01
	Within Groups	1554.41	1947	.80			
	Total Sum of Squares	1571.42	1949				
Psychological Capital	Between Groups	10.01	2	5.00	6.97	< .05	.01
	Within Groups	1398.29	1947	.72			
	Total Sum of Squares	1408.29	1949				
Turnover Intention	Between Groups	24.14	2	12.07	3.57	< .05	.00
	Within Groups	6583.64	1947	3.38			
	Total Sum of Squares	6607.78	1949				
Resistance to Change	Between	43.18	2	21.59	21.27	< .05	.02

ANOVA							
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Prob.	Eta Squared
	Groups						
	Within Groups	1976.40	1947	1.02			
	Total Sum of Squares	2019.58	1949				
Commitment to Change	Between Groups	4.43	2	2.21	2.82	.06	.00
	Within Groups	1529.38	1947	.79			
	Total Sum of Squares	1533.80	1949				
Job Security	Between Groups	36.82	2	18.41	15.40	< .05	.02
	Within Groups	2327.19	1947	1.20			
	Total Sum of Squares	2364.01	1949				
Leader-Member Exchange	Between Groups	18.03	2	9.01	14.89	< .05	.02
	Within Groups	1178.40	1947	.61			
	Total Sum of Squares	1196.42	1949				
Perceived Organisational Support	Between Groups	56.60	2	28.30	21.14	< .05	.02
	Within Groups	2606.58	1947	1.34			
	Total Sum of Squares	2663.18	1949				
Description: <i>Restructuring_Type_Count</i> (number of different types of organisational restructuring), <i>Restructuring_Leadership_Count</i> (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring), <i>Restructuring_Frequency_Count</i> (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations).							

Results (Descriptive Statistics – Group Differences)

Number of different types of organisational restructuring (Restructuring_Type_Count)

There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in mean scores for the three sectors: $F = 218.15$, $p < .05$. However, despite this statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was small. The resulting eta-squared value was .18, which, according to Cohen (1988), would be considered a large effect size. Post hoc comparisons using the Games-Howell (Tukey-HSD) test indicated that the mean score for the private sector ($M = .83$, $SD = 1.11$) was significantly different to that for SOEs ($M = .23$, $SD = .42$). In addition, the mean score for the public sector ($M = .07$, $SD = .25$) was significantly different from those of the private sector and SOEs.

The results indicated that the impact of the type of organisational restructuring on employees was measurably different in the three sectors and did not occur by chance alone. This implies that the type of organisational restructuring impacted on employees in each of the sectors in different ways.

Number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring (Restructuring_Leadership_Count)

There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the mean scores for the three sectors: $F = 33.62$, $p < .05$. Despite this statistical significance, the actual difference in the mean scores between the groups was small. The resulting eta-squared value was .03, which, according to Cohen (1988), would be considered a small effect size. Post hoc comparisons using the Games-Howell (Tukey-HSD) test indicated that the mean score for the private sector ($M = 2.34$, $SD = 1.39$) was significantly different from that for SOEs ($M = 3.09$, $SD = 1.07$) while the mean score for the public sector ($M = 2.40$, $SD = 1.35$) was significantly different from that for both the private sector and SOEs.

The results indicated that a change in leadership due to organisational restructuring impacted on employees and the impact was measurably different across the three sectors. This did not, however, occur by chance, thus implying that the change in leadership due to organisational restructuring impacted on employees in each of the sectors in different ways.

Number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations (Restructuring_Frequency_Count)

There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the mean scores for the three sectors: $F = 56.81$, $p < .05$. However, despite this statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was small. The resulting eta squared value was .06, which, according to Cohen (1988), would be considered a medium effect size. Post hoc comparisons using

the Games-Howell (Tukey-HSD) test indicated that the mean score for the private sector ($M = 1.74$, $SD = .57$) was significantly different from that for SOEs ($M = 2.00$, $SD = .00$). The mean score for the public sector ($M = 1.55$, $SD = .76$) was significantly different from that for both the private sector and SOEs.

The results indicated that the frequency of organisational restructuring, as experienced by employees, impacted on them and the impact was measurably different across the three sectors. This did not, however, occur by chance, thus implying that the frequency of organisational restructuring impacted on employees in each of the sectors in different ways.

Change Management Processes

There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the mean scores for the three sectors: $F = 10.66$, $p < .05$. Despite this statistical significance, the actual difference in the mean scores between the groups was small. The resulting eta squared value is .01, which, according to Cohen (1988), would be considered a small effect size. Post hoc comparisons using the Games-Howell (Tukey-HSD) test indicated that the mean score for the private sector ($M = 2.76$, $SD = .83$) was significantly different from that for SOEs ($M = 2.92$, $SD = .87$) while the mean score for the public sector ($M = 2.64$, $SD = .96$) was significantly different from that for both the private sector and SOEs.

The results indicated that the implementation of effective change management processes during organisational restructuring produced measurably different results across the three sectors. This did not, however, occur by chance, thus implying that the implementation of effective change management processes during organisational restructuring impacted on employees in each of the sectors in different ways.

Psychological Capital

There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in mean scores for the three sectors: $F = 6.97$, $p < .05$. Despite this statistical significance, the actual difference in the mean scores between the groups was

small. The resulting eta squared value was .01, which, according to Cohen (1988), would be considered a small effect size. Post hoc comparisons using the Games-Howell (Tukey-HSD) test indicated that the mean score for the private sector ($M = 4.51$, $SD = .82$) was significantly different from that for the public sector ($M = 4.67$, $SD = .86$). However, the mean score for SOEs ($M = 4.60$, $SD = .89$) did not differ significantly from that for either the private sector or the public sector.

The results indicated that, during organisational restructuring, psychological capital contributed to the measurable differences in the way in which employees were impacted upon by such organisational restructuring across the three sectors. This did not, however, occur by chance, thus implying that employees' psychological capital contributed in different ways to how they were impacted upon by organisational restructuring in each of the sectors.

Turnover Intention

There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the mean scores for the three sectors: $F = 3.57$, $p < .05$. Despite this statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was small. The resulting eta squared value was .00, which, according to Cohen (1988), would be considered a zero effect size. Post hoc comparisons using the Games-Howell (Tukey-HSD) test indicated that the mean score for the private sector ($M = 3.28$, $SD = 1.88$) was significantly different within the group, but not as compared to the sectors. The scores for SOEs ($M = 3.52$, $SD = 1.74$) and the public sector ($M = 3.50$, $SD = 1.83$) did not differ significantly from each other. It would, thus, appear that these groups are similar in terms of turnover intention.

The results indicated that the employees' turnover intention was a consequence of the organisational restructuring, and that the difference in the way in which employees were affected was measurable across the three sectors. This did not, however, occur by chance, thus implying that the employees' turnover intention were similar across the three sectors.

Resistance to Change

There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in mean scores for the three sectors: $F = 21.27$, $p < .05$. Despite this statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was small. The resulting eta squared value was .02, which, according to Cohen (1988), would be considered a small effect size. Post hoc comparisons using the Games-Howell (Tukey-HSD) test indicated that the mean score for the private sector ($M = 2.86$, $SD = 1.08$) was significantly different from that for SOEs ($M = 2.74$, $SD = .94$) while the mean score for the public sector ($M = 2.54$, $SD = 1.03$) was significantly different from that for both the private sector and SOEs.

The results indicated that employees' resistance to change due to organisational restructuring were measurably different across the three sectors. This did not, however, occur by chance, thus implying that the employees' resistance to change differed in each of the sectors.

Commitment to Change

There was no statistically significant difference at the $p > .05$ level in mean scores for the three sectors: $F = 2.82$, $p = .06$ while the low F-ratio indicated low variance between the groups. Although statistical significance was not reached the actual difference in the mean scores between the groups was still small. The resulting eta squared value was .00, which, according to Cohen (1988), would be considered a zero effect size. Post hoc comparisons using the Games-Howell (Tukey-HSD) test indicated that the mean score for the private sector ($M = 4.73$, $SD = .84$) was not significantly different from that for SOEs ($M = 4.88$, $SD = .91$) while the mean score for the public sector ($M = 4.76$, $SD = .92$) was not significantly different from that for both the private sector and SOEs.

There was no statistically significant difference between the groups. The results indicated that employees' commitment to change during organisational restructuring did not contribute to any measurable differences in the way in

which employees were impacted upon by organisational restructuring across the three sectors. This implied that, in the main, employees' commitment to change contributed differently to the way in which they were impacted upon by organisational restructuring in each of the sectors.

Job (In)Security

There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the mean scores for the three sectors: $F = 15.40$, $p < .05$. Despite this statistical significance, the actual difference in the mean scores between the groups was small. The resulting eta squared value was .02, which, according to Cohen (1988), would be considered a small effect size. Post hoc comparisons using the Games-Howell (Tukey-HSD) test indicated that the mean score for the private sector ($M = 2.99$, $SD = 1.09$) was significantly different from that for SOEs ($M = 2.83$, $SD = 1.17$) while the mean score for the public sector ($M = 3.15$, $SD = 1.09$) was significantly different from that for both the private sector and SOEs.

The results indicated that organisational restructuring contributed measurable differences to the way in which employees' job security was affected across the sectors. This did not, however, occur by chance, thus implying that organisational restructuring impacted measurably on the employees' job security across the sectors.

Leader-Member Exchange

There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the mean scores for the three sectors: $F = 14.89$, $p < .05$. Despite this statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was small. The resulting eta squared value was .02, which, according to Cohen (1988), would be considered a small effect size. Post hoc comparisons using the Games-Howell (Tukey-HSD) test indicated that the mean score for the private sector ($M = 3.76$, $SD = .75$) was significantly different from that for SOEs ($M = 3.99$, $SD = .77$) while the mean score for the public sector ($M = 3.69$, $SD = .81$) was significantly different from that for both the private sector and SOEs.

The results indicated that leader-member exchange contributed measurably to the way in which employees were impacted upon by organisational restructuring. This did not, however, occur by chance, thus implying that leader-member exchange contributed in a significantly different way to how employees experienced organisational restructuring across the sectors.

Perceived Organisational Support

There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the mean scores for the three sectors: $F = 21.14$, $p < .05$. Despite this statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was small. The resulting eta squared value was .02, which, according to Cohen (1988), would be considered a small effect size. Post hoc comparisons using the Games-Howell (Tukey-HSD) test indicated that the mean score for the private sector ($M = 3.39$, $SD = 1.14$) was significantly different from that for SOEs ($M = 3.44$, $SD = 1.13$) while the mean score for the public sector ($M = 3.06$, $SD = 1.19$) was significantly different from that for both the private sector and SOEs.

The results indicated that perceived organisational support contributed measurably to the way in which employees were impacted upon by organisational restructuring. This did not, however, occur by chance, thus implying that perceived organisational support contributed in a significantly different way to how employees experienced organisational restructuring across the sectors.

2.7.2 Post Hoc Tests

The multiple comparisons table (Table 31) presents the results for the post hoc tests, as well as the statistical significance of the differences between each pair of groups, such as the comparison between private and public sector or public and SOEs. (Pallant, 2011). The post hoc tests may also include descriptive statistics for each group that may be required for the interpretation of the results. For the purposes of this study, the post hoc tests included the

homogeneity of variance tests, as the presumption prevails that states that all groups are equal, and which will be verified with the homogeneity of variance tests (Field, 2009). In the event that the homogeneity of variance is broken – which could have serious consequences for the study – two alternative, robust versions of the *F*-ratio, namely, the Brown-Forsythe *F* and the Welch's *F*, are available (Field, 2009) and are also included in the analysis.

For the purposes of this study the post hoc test used was the Tukey-HSD tests. If the test is significant ($< .05$), it means both that the homogeneity assumptions of variance have been violated and must be corrected but also that the variances are significantly different (Field, 2009). In such a case, it is recommended that the Brown-Forsythe test be used instead, based on the fact that the tests were significant (Field, 2009). The Tukey-HSD and Games-Howell procedures are included in this analysis although the differences (in results) between the two methods were negligible and did not in any way affect the results or outcome. The plus sign (+) in the left-hand margin, indicates the sector which were most affected.

Table 31: (Multiple Comparison Table) Group Differences – Sectors: Probability (Prob.) (Post Hoc Tests)

Summary Table: Group Differences – Sectors – Probability (Prob.) (Post Hoc Tests)								
		Sectors (Prob.) (Tukey-HSD)			Sectors (Prob.) (Games-Howell)			Summary
		Private N = 852	Public N = 838	SOE N = 260	Private N = 852	Public N = 838	SOE N = 260	
Restr_Type_Count <i>(number of different types of organisational restructuring)</i>	Private (+)	*	< .05	< .05	*	< .05	< .05	Statistical significance between all sectors, indicating that the type of restructuring impacts on all sectors
	Public	< .05	*	< .05	< .05	*	< .05	
	SOE	< .05	< .05	*	< .05	< .05	*	
Restr_Lead_Count <i>(number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring)</i>	Private	*	.64	< .05	*	.66	< .05	No statistical significance between private and public sectors and between the public sector and SOEs. Indicates similar impact of leadership change on private sector and SOEs
	Public	.64	*	< .05	.66	*	< .05	
	SOE (+)	< .05	< .05	*	< .05	< .05	*	
Restr_Freq_Count <i>(number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations)</i>	Private	*	< .05	< .05	*	< .05	< .05	Statistical significance between all sectors, indicating that the frequency of restructuring impacts on all sectors
	Public	< .05	*	< .05	< .05	*	< .05	
	SOE (+)	< .05	< .05	*	< .05	< .05	*	
Change Management (CM)	Private	*	< .05	< .05	*	< .05	< .05	Statistical significance between all sectors, indicating that CM impacts on all sectors
	Public	< .05	*	< .05	< .05	*	< .05	
	SOE (+)	< .05	< .05	*	< .05	< .05	*	
Psychological Capital (PC)	Private	*	< .05	.37	*	< .05	.39	Statistical significance between private and public sectors but no statistical significance of PC between private sector and SOEs
	Public (+)	< .05	*	.45	< .05	*	.48	

	SOE	.37	.45	*	.39	.48	*	and public sectors and SOEs
Turnover Intention (TI)	Private	*	< .05	.16	*	< .05	.14	Statistical significance between private and public sectors, no statistical significance of TI between private sector and SOEs and public sector and SOEs
	Public	< .05	*	.99	< .05	*	.98	
	SOE (+)	.16	.99	*	.14	.98	*	
Resistance to Change (RC)	Private (+)	*	< .05	.23	*	< .05	0.20	Statistical significance between private and public sectors, and public sectors and SOEs, no statistical significance of RTC between private sector and SOEs
	Public	< .05	*	< .05	< .05	*	< .05	
	SOE	.23	< .05	*	.20	< .05	*	
Commitment to Change (CC)	Private	*	.83	< .05	*	0.83	.05	Statistical significance between private sector and SOEs, no statistical significance of CC between private and public sectors and public sector and SOEs
	Public	.83	*	.12	0.83	*	0.14	
	SOE (+)	< .05	.12	*	.05	0.14	*	
Job Security (JS)	Private	*	< .05	.67	*	< .05	.69	Statistical significance between private and public sectors, and public sector and SOEs, no statistical significance of JS between private sector and SOEs
	Public (+)	< .05	*	< .05	< .05	*	< .05	
	SOE	.67	< .05	*	.69	< .05	*	
Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)	Private	*	.21	< .05	*	0.21	< .05	Statistical significance between private sector and SOE, and SOE and public sector, no statistical significance of LMX between private and public sectors
	Public	.21	*	< .05	.21	*	< .05	
	SOE (+)	< .05	< .05	*	< .05	< .05	*	
Perceived Org. Support (POS)	Private	*	< .05	.80	*	< .05	.79	Statistical significance between private and public sectors, and public sector and SOEs, no statistical significance of POS between private sector and SOEs
	Public	< .05	*	< .05	< .05	*	< .05	
	SOE (+)	.80	< .05	*	.79	< .05	*	

Levene's Test for Homogeneity of Variances

Levene's test for homogeneity of variances, which is used for groups of data, tests whether the variance in scores is the same for each of the groups. Levene's test for homogeneity of variances also implies that the variance of other variables should not change while the levels of a variable are assessed (Field, 2009). If the Levene's significant value (Sig. or Probability) is $>.05$ (not significant), the assumption of homogeneity of variance has not been violated.

Table 32: Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Test of Homogeneity of Variances				
	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Prob.
Restructuring_Type_Count	705.50	2	1947	< .05
Restructuring_Leadership_Count	30.10	2	1947	< .05
Restructuring_Frequency_Count	312.80	2	1947	< .05
Change Management	12.54	2	1947	< .05
Psychological Capital	1.94	2	1947	.14
Turnover Intention	3.25	2	1947	< .05
Resistance to Change	2.18	2	1947	.11
Commitment to Change	3.41	2	1947	< .05
Job (In)Security	1.07	2	1947	.34
Leader-Member Exchange	1.22	2	1947	.30
Perceived Organisational Support	.37	2	1947	.69
Description: <i>Restructuring_Type_Count</i> (number of different types of organisational restructuring), <i>Restructuring_Leadership_Count</i> (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring), <i>Restructuring_Frequency_Count</i> (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations).				

The assumption of homogeneity of variance was violated by the following constructs as they recorded p -values greater than $.05$, namely, *Restructuring_Type_Count* (the number of different types of organisational restructuring), *Restructuring_Leadership_Count* (the number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring), *Restructuring_Frequency_Count* (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations); change management, turnover intention and commitment to change. The other constructs did not violate the assumption of homogeneity of variance.

Robust Tests of Equality of Means

Table 33: Robust Tests of Equality of Means

Robust Tests of Equality of Means					
		Statistic ^a	df1	df2	Prob.
Restructuring_Type_Count	Welch	201.08	2	627.91	< .05
	Brown-Forsythe	290.68	2	1188.76	< .05
Restructuring_Leadership_Count	Welch	47.76	2	803.37	< .05
	Brown-Forsythe	38.36	2	1499.49	< .05
Restructuring_Frequency_Count	Welch	Robust tests of equality of means cannot be performed for Restructuring_Frequency_Count because at least one group has 0 variance.			
	Brown-Forsythe				
Change Management	Welch	10.36	2	730.74	< .05
	Brown-Forsythe	10.84	2	1135.48	< .05
Psychological Capital	Welch	7.07	2	714.28	< .05
	Brown-Forsythe	6.72	2	1005.58	< .05
Turnover Intention	Welch	3.55	2	744.82	< .05
	Brown-Forsythe	3.71	2	1194.47	< .05
Resistance to Change	Welch	20.83	2	748.21	< .05
	Brown-Forsythe	22.22	2	1215.81	< .05
Commitment to Change	Welch	2.77	2	720.70	.06
	Brown-Forsythe	2.78	2	1054.81	.06
Jobs (In)Security	Welch	15.20	2	711.08	< .05
	Brown-Forsythe	14.71	2	980.39	< .05
Leader-Member Exchange	Welch	14.98	2	731.27	< .05
	Brown-Forsythe	15.04	2	1118.91	< .05
Perceived Organisational Support	Welch	20.88	2	735.58	< .05
	Brown-Forsythe	21.52	2	1141.21	< .05
a. Asymptotically F distributed.					
Description: <i>Restructuring_Type_Count</i> (number of different types of organisational restructuring), <i>Restructuring_Leadership_Count</i> (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring), <i>Restructuring_Frequency_Count</i> (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations).					

The *F*-ratio is a proportionate ratio. However, the Brown-Forsythe tests circumvents this challenge by weighting the group variances by the inverse of the sample size (Field, 2009). In addition to the other tests, Tukey's tests also provide information on

each subset of the data of groups with the same means and generates two subsets of groups with statistically similar means (Field, 2009).

A significance value of .05 for each subset has been set as a threshold and uses the harmonic mean sample size to calculate the values (Field, 2009). The harmonic mean is defined as the “weighted version of the mean that takes account of the relationship between variance and sample size” (Field, 2009: 387). It is used as it is able to reduce the bias that may be introduced as a result of unequal sample sizes (Field, 2009).

In this instance, the tests indicate that, with the exception of the subsets of psychological capital for state-owned enterprises, and commitment to change, in terms of public sector organisations that have similar means, none of the means in the other subsets had similar means, although some of it were quite close (see Table 31 above). None of the groups in the subsets did not have significant means as all the means were greater than the .05 threshold. Table 31 above presents the values for both the Tukey-HSD and Games-Howell procedures. The differences between the two methods were negligible and did not in any way affect the outcome of the results. The Games-Howell procedure may also be used if there are any concerns about the population variances being equal (Field, 2009).

Summary of results: ANOVA

The results of the ANOVA tests are summarised in Tables 29, 31 and 34. The results are provided in terms of the various sectors and its employees.

Table 34: Summary of the impact of Organisational Restructuring in Sectors

Impact of Organisational Restructuring: Impact in Sectors	
Restructuring_Type_Count	greater impact in private sector organisations
Restructuring_Leadership_Count	greater impact in state-owned enterprises
Restructuring_Frequency_Count	greater impact in state-owned enterprises
Effective Change Management	greater impact in state-owned enterprises
Leader-Member Exchange	greater impact in state-owned enterprises
Perceived Organisational Support	greater impact in state-owned enterprises
Psychological Capital	greater impact in public sector organisations
Turnover Intention	greater impact in state-owned enterprises

Impact of Organisational Restructuring: Impact in Sectors	
Resistance to Change	greater impact in private sector organisations
Commitment to Change	greater impact in state-owned enterprises
Job Security	greater impact in public sector organisations
Description: <i>Restructuring_Type_Count</i> (number of different types of organisational restructuring), <i>Restructuring_Leadership_Count</i> (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring), <i>Restructuring_Frequency_Count</i> (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations).	

Number of different types of organisational restructuring (*Restructuring_Type_Count*): In terms of group differences between private sector organisations, public sector organisations and state-owned enterprises (SOEs), a statistical significance between all sectors was found, thus indicating that the type of restructuring impacted on all the sectors. The impact of the type of organisational restructuring had a greater impact on private sector organisations as compared to either public sector organisations or SOEs.

Number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring (*Restructuring_Leadership_Count*): In terms of group differences between private sector organisations, public sector organisations and SOEs, no statistically significant difference between private sector organisations and public sector organisations or between public sector organisations and SOEs was found. This indicated that the impact of leadership change as a result of organisational restructuring is similar in both private sector organisations and SOEs. However, the impact of leadership change during or as a result of organisational restructuring had a greater impact on SOEs as compared to either public sector or private sector organisations.

Number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations (*Restructuring_Freq_Count*): In terms of group differences between private sector organisations, public sector organisations and SOEs, a statistically significant difference between all sectors was found, thus indicating that the frequency of restructuring impacts on all sectors. The impact of the frequency of organisational restructuring was greater impact on SOEs as compared to either public or private sectors organisations.

Change management processes (CM): In terms of group differences between private sector organisations, public sector organisations and SOEs, a statistically significant difference between all sectors was found, thus indicating that the implementation of change management processes during organisational restructuring impacts on all sectors. The impact of change management processes as a factor of effective change management during organisational restructuring was greater on SOEs than on public and private sector organisations.

Leader-member exchange (LMX): In terms of group differences between private sector organisations, public sector organisations and SOEs, a statistically significant difference between private sector organisations and SOEs, and between SOEs and public sector organisations was found, thus indicating no statistically significant difference between private sector organisations and public sector organisations in respect of the role played by leader-member exchange. Nevertheless, the impact of leader-member exchange as a factor of effective change management during organisational restructuring had a greater impact on SOEs as compared to the impact on public sector and private sector organisations.

Perceived organisational support (POS): In terms of group differences between private sector organisations, public sector organisations and SOEs, a statistically significant difference was found between private sector organisations and public sector organisations, and between public sector organisations and SOEs, thus no statistically significant difference between private sector organisations and SOEs in respect of the role played by perceived organisational support was found. The impact of perceived organisational support as a factor of effective change management during organisational restructuring was greater on SOEs as compared to the impact on public sector and private sector organisations.

Turnover intention (TI): In terms of group differences between private sector organisations, public sector organisations and SOEs, a statistically significant difference was found between private sector organisations and public sector organisations, thus indicating no statistically significant differences between private sector organisations and SOEs and between public sector organisations and SOEs

in terms of the role played by turnover intention. However, the impact of turnover intention during organisational restructuring was greater on SOEs as compared to the impact on public and private sector organisations.

Resistance to change (RC): In terms of group differences between private sector organisations, public sector organisations and SOEs, a statistically significant difference between private sector organisations and public sector organisations, and between public sector organisations and SOEs was found, thus indicating no statistically significant difference between private sector organisations and SOEs in terms of the role played by resistance to change. The impact of resistance to change during organisational restructuring was greater on private sector organisations than on either SOEs or public sector organisations.

Commitment to change (CC): In terms of group differences between private sector organisations, public sector organisations and SOEs, a statistically significant difference was found between private sector organisations and SOEs, thus indicating no statistically significant difference between private sector organisations and public sector organisations and between public sector organisations and SOEs in the role played by commitment to change. The impact of commitment to change during organisational restructuring was greater on SOEs as compared to the impact on public sector and private sector organisations.

Job (in)security (JS): In terms of group differences between private sector organisations, public sector organisations and SOEs, a statistically significant difference between private sector organisations and public sector organisations, and between public sector organisations and SOEs was found, thus indicating no statistically significant difference between private sector organisations and SOEs in terms of the role played by job security. The impact of job security during organisational restructuring was greater on public sector organisations than on SOEs and private sector organisations.

Psychological capital (PC): In terms of group differences between private sector organisations, public sector organisations and SOEs, a statistically significant difference was found between private sector organisations and public sector

organisations, thus indicating no statistically significant difference in terms of the availability of employee psychological capital between private sector organisations and SOEs and between public sector organisations and SOEs. The impact of psychological capital during organisational restructuring was greater on public sector organisations as compared to the impact on SOEs and private sector organisations.

3. Correlation Analysis: Constructs

Relationship between Independent Variable, Mediator, Dependent Variable and the Moderator

There are two types of correlation used in statistical analysis, namely, bivariate correlation and partial correlation. A bivariate correlation exists between variables while a partial correlation focuses on the relationship between two variables, while at the same time, controlling the effect of one or more variables (Field, 2009).

In this study the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable was investigated using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity. The results of the correlation analysis are represented below:

Table 35: Correlation Analysis: Relationship between Independent Variable, Mediator, Dependent Variable and Moderator

n = 1 950	Restructuring (Type_Count)		Restructuring (Leadership_Count)		Restructuring (Frequency_Count)	
	Corre- lation	Prob.	Corre- lation	Prob.	Corre- lation	Prob.
TI	-.15	< .05	-.01	.70	-.00	.89
RC	-.02	< .05	.05	< .05	.01	.81
CC	.11	< .05	.06	< .05	.01	.75
JS	.09	< .05	.07	< .05	-.05	< .05
CM	.04	.09	-.06	< .05	-.02	.37
LMX	-.03	.27	.03	.26	-.02	.41
POS	.05	< .05	-.08	< .05	-.02	.41
PC	-.12	< .05	.01	.65	-.10	< .05

TI: Turnover Intention; RC: Resistance to Change; CC: Commitment to Change; JS: Job (In)Security; CM: Change Management Processes; LMX: Leader-Member Exchange; POS: Perceived Organisational Support; PC: Psychological Capital.
 Description: *Restructuring_Type_Count* (number of different types of organisational restructuring), *Restructuring_Leadership_Count* (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring), *Restructuring_Frequency_Count* (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations).

Relationship between Organisational Restructuring and Turnover Intention:

A small negative correlation was found between the two variables, Restructuring_Type_Count (number of different types of organisational restructuring) and turnover intention with $r = -.15$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant at $p < .05$. There was a small negative correlation between the two variables, Restructuring_Leadership_Count (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring) and turnover intention with $r = -.01$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p > .05$. The relationship was not statistically significant. No correlation was found between the two variables, Restructuring_Frequency_Count (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations) and turnover intention with $r = .00$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p > .05$. The relationship was not statistically significant.

In other words, the Restructuring_Type_Count correlated negatively with turnover intention, thus implying that an increase in the types of restructuring does not increase turnover intention. Due to the relationship being statistically significant, the restructuring type impacted on the turnover intention of employees. Restructuring_Type_Count correlated negatively with the change of leadership (Restructuring_Leadership_Count) during change or in terms of the frequency (Restructuring_Freq_Count) of the change, with both relationships not manifesting any statistical significance.

Relationship between Organisational Restructuring and Resistance to Change:

There was a small negative correlation between the two variables, Restructuring_Type_Count (number of different types of organisational restructuring) and resistance to change, $r = -.02$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p > .05$. The relationship was not statistically significant. There was a small positive correlation between the two variables, Restructuring_Leadership_Count (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring) and resistance to change with $r = .05$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant at .05 level. There was a weak positive correlation between the two variables, Restructuring_Frequency_Count (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations) and

resistance to change with $r = .01$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p > .05$. The relationship was not statistically significant.

Therefore, the Restructuring_Type_Count correlated negatively with resistance to change, implying that an increase in the types of restructuring does not increase employee resistance to change. The relationship was not statistically significant. Restructuring_Leadership_Count correlated positively with resistance to change, thus implying that an increase in the change of leadership during change will result in an increase in employee resistance to change. Restructuring_Frequency_Count correlated positively with resistance to change, but the relationship was not statistically significant. This implied that an increase in the frequency of restructuring processes will result in an increase in employees' resistance to change, for example, an increase in cynicism due to the ongoing exposure to organisational restructuring processes.

Relationship between Organisational Restructuring and Commitment to Change:

There was a small positive correlation between the two variables, Restructuring_Type_Count (number of different types of organisational restructuring) and commitment to change with $r = .11$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant at $p < .05$. There was a small positive correlation between the two variables, Restructuring_Leadership_Count (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring) and commitment to change with $r = .06$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant at the .05 level. There was a weak positive correlation between the two variables, Restructuring_Frequency_Count (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations) and commitment to change with $r = .01$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p > .05$. The relationship was not statistically significant.

Therefore, the Restructuring_Type_Count correlated positively with commitment to change, thus implying that an increase in the different types of restructuring may increase employee commitment to change. This may be the result of the positive contributions in terms of extra role behaviours, such as organisational commitment

or commitment to change, witnessed or experienced during the restructuring. It may also be attributed to effective change management processes, such as organisational support mechanisms or effective, accurate and timely communication about the restructuring. The relationship was not statistically significant. Restructuring_Leadership_Count correlated positively with resistance to change, thus implying that an increase in the change of leadership during change will result in an increase in employee resistance to change. Restructuring_Frequency_Count correlated positively with resistance to change although the relationship was not statistically significant. This implies that an increase in the frequency of restructuring processes will result in an increase in employee resistance to change, although this may be by chance and not because of factors directly impacting on employees' resistance to change. Resistance to change may also be due to an increase in cynicism related to the ongoing exposure to organisational restructuring processes.

Relationship between Organisational Restructuring and Job Security:

There was a small positive correlation between the two variables, Restructuring_Type_Count (number of different types of organisational restructuring) and job security with $r = .09$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant at $p < .05$. There was a small negative correlation between the two variables, Restructuring_Leadership_Count (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring) and job security with $r = .07$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant at the .01 level. There was a small negative correlation between the two variables, Restructuring_Frequency_Count (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations) and job security with $r = -.05$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant at the .05 level.

The results indicated that the restructuring type had a direct impact on the employees' level of job security. This was in line with findings of previous research studies (Wiezer, et al., 2011). The negative correlation between the change in leadership as a result of restructuring and job security may be regarded as a positive outcome as employees may gain job security as a result of new leaders being

appointed or assigned. At the same time, the frequency of organisational restructuring processes increased employee job insecurity. This finding was also in line with previous research findings.

3.1 Relationship between Independent Variable and Mediator

Relationship between Organisational Restructuring and Change management processes:

There was a small positive correlation between the two variables, Restructuring_Type_Count (number of different types of organisational restructuring) and change management processes with $r = .04$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p > .05$. The relationship was not statistically significant. There was a small negative correlation between the two variables, Restructuring_Leadership_Count (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring) and change management processes with $r = -.06$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant at $p < .05$. There was a small negative correlation between the two variables, Restructuring_Frequency_Count (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations) and change management processes with $r = -.02$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p > .05$. The relationship was not statistically significant.

It is, therefore, possible that the type of restructuring processes may determine the change management processes required, for example, during mergers and or acquisitions in organisational restructuring processes in large organisations. It is essential that the frequency at which change has been experienced by employees be taken into account when deciding on the appropriate change management processes, as this will assist both the restructuring processes and the change recipients.

Relationship between Organisational Restructuring and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX):

There was a small negative correlation between the two variables, Restructuring_Type_Count (number of different types of organisational restructuring) and leader-member exchange with $r = -.03$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p > .05$. The relationship was

not statistically significant. There was a small positive correlation between the two variables, Restructuring_Leadership_Count (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring) and leader-member exchange with $r = .03$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p > .05$. The relationship was not statistically significant. There was a small negative correlation between the two variables, Restructuring_Frequency_Count (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations) and leader-member exchange with $r = -.02$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p > .05$. The relationship was not statistically significant.

It is possible that the negative correlation between leader-member exchange and Restructuring_Type_Count may be the result of a lack or decline in leadership, and that the positive relationship between leader-member exchange and the change in leadership (during or as a result of the restructuring process) may be the result of the forging of new relationships and an increase in trust in management. Again, the negative correlation between leader-member exchange and the frequency of restructuring as experienced may be attributed to a decrease in the trust in management.

Relationship between Organisational Restructuring and Perceived Organisational Support (POS):

There was a medium positive correlation between the two variables, Restructuring_Type_Count (number of different types of organisational restructuring) and perceived organisational support with $r = .05$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant at the .05 level. There was a small negative correlation between the two variables, Restructuring_Leadership_Count (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring) and perceived organisational support, $r = -.08$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant at $p < .05$. There was a small negative correlation between the two variables, Restructuring_Freq_Count (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations) and perceived organisational support with $r = -.02$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p > .05$. The relationship was not statistically significant.

The positive relationships between the perceived organisational support and Restructuring_Type_Count indicated that perceived organisational support attenuates the effects of organisational restructuring, despite the type of restructuring process. The negative correlation between perceived organisational support and the change in leadership during restructuring processes will have adverse effects on the recipients of the change. As employees are exposed to more restructuring processes, they may perceive a decrease in support from the organisation although this may be no more than mere perception.

Relationship between Organisational Restructuring and Psychological Capital (PC):

There was a medium negative correlation between the two variables, Restructuring_Type_Count (number of different types of organisational restructuring) and psychological capital with $r = -.12$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant at the .05 level. There was a small positive correlation between the two variables, Restructuring_Leadership_Count (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring) and psychological capital with $r = .01$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p > .05$. The relationship was not statistically significant at $p > .05$. There was a medium negative correlation between the two variables, Restructuring_Frequency_Count (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations) and psychological capital with $r = -.10$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant.

3.2 Relationship between Mediator and the Dependent Variable

Relationship between Effective Change Management and Organisational Behaviour

Table 36: Correlation Analysis: Relationship between Effective Change Management and Organisational Behaviour

n=1 950	Change Management Processes		Leader-Member Exchange		Perceived Organisational Support		Psychological Capital	
	Correlation	Prob.	Correlation	Prob.	Correlation	Prob.	Correlation	Prob.
Turnover Intention	-.32	< .05	-.29	< .05	-.38	< .05	-.18	< .05

n=1 950	Change Management Processes		Leader-Member Exchange		Perceived Organisational Support		Psychological Capital	
	Correlation	Prob.	Correlation	Prob.	Correlation	Prob.	Correlation	Prob.
Resistance to Change	-.14	< .05	-.10	< .05	-.12	< .05	-.28	< .05
Commitment to Change	-.02	.35	.11	< .05	-.00	.85	.16	< .05
Job Security	-.20	< .05	.13	< .05	.26	< .05	.38	< .05
Psychological Capital	.30	< .05	.38	< .05	.35	< .05		

There was a large negative correlation between the two variables, effective change management processes and turnover intention with $r = -.32$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant at $p < .05$. There was a small negative correlation between the two variables, effective change management processes and resistance to change with $r = -.14$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant at $p < .05$. There was a small negative correlation between the two variables, effective change management processes and commitment to change with $r = -.02$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p > .05$. The relationship was statistically not significant. There was a small negative correlation between the two variables, effective change management processes and job security with $r = -.20$, $n = 1\ 950$. The relationship was statistically significant at $p < .05$.

The negative correlation between effective change management processes and turnover intention and between effective change management and job security highlighted the importance of effectively managing organisational restructuring initiatives. The negative correlation indicated that ineffective change management contributes to employees' intention to quit and increases employee job insecurity. So too, do the negative correlations between effective change management processes and resistance to change, and effective change management processes and employee commitment to change, thus highlighting the importance of effective change management in ensuring that employees accept and commit to the change, and, thereby, managing and reducing their resistance to the change.

Relationship between Leader-Member Exchange and Organisational Behaviour

There was a small negative correlation between the two variables, leader-member exchange and turnover intention with $r = -.29$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant at $p < .05$. There was a small negative correlation between the two variables, leader-member exchange and resistance to change with $r = -.10$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant at $p < .05$. There was a small positive correlation between the two variables, leader-member exchange and commitment to change with $r = .11$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant at $p < .05$. There was a small positive correlation between the two variables, leader-member exchange and job security with $r = .13$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant at $p < .05$.

The negative correlation between leader-member exchange and turnover intention and between leader-member exchange and employee resistance to change highlighted the importance of effective leader-follower relationships both during organisational restructuring processes and in general. This indicated that leader-member exchange may contribute to reducing both employees' intention to quit and employee resistance to organisational restructuring processes. So, too, the positive correlations between leader-member exchange and employee commitment to change and between leader-member exchange and job security are indicative of the importance of leader-member exchange in making a positive contribution during organisational restructuring processes.

Relationship between Perceived Organisational Support and Organisational Behaviour

There was a medium negative correlation between the two variables, perceived organisational support and turnover intention with $r = -.38$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant. There was a small negative correlation between the two variables, perceived organisational support and resistance to change with $r = -.12$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant at $p < .05$. There was no correlation between the two variables, perceived organisational support and commitment to change with $r = -.00$, $n = 1\ 950$, $p > .05$. The relationship was not statistically significant. There was a small positive correlation between the two variables, perceived organisational support and job

security with $r = .26$, $n = 1\,950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant at $p < .05$.

The negative correlation between perceived organisational support and turnover intention and between perceived organisational support and employee resistance to change highlighted the importance of employees' perceptions of the way in which their organisations support them during restructuring processes. A lack of perceived organisational support will increase both employee turnover and resistance to the restructuring process. The positive correlation between perceived organisational support and job security indicated that employees' perception of the support they receive from the organisation could increase their sense of job security. There was no correlation between perceived organisational support and employee commitment to the change found.

3.3 Relationship between the Moderator and the Mediator

Relationship between Psychological Capital and Effective Change Management

There was a medium positive correlation between the two variables, psychological capital and effective change management processes with $r = .30$, $n = 1\,950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant at $p < .05$. There was a medium positive correlation between the two variables, psychological capital and leader-member exchange with $r = .38$, $n = 1\,950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant at $p < .05$. There was a medium positive correlation between the two variables, psychological capital and perceived organisational support with $r = .35$, $n = 1\,950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant at $p < .05$. This implies that, as psychological capital increases, so does perceived organisational support.

The positive correlations between psychological capital and effective change management (effective change management processes, leader-member exchange and perceived organisational support) and the fact that all the relationships were significant highlighted the importance of the role played by psychological capital and effective change management during organisational restructuring. It is clear that both

psychological capital and effective change management are essential for successful organisational restructuring processes.

Relationship between Psychological Capital and Organisational Behaviour

There was a small negative correlation between the two variables, psychological capital and turnover intention with $r = -.18$, $n = 1\,950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant at $p < .05$. There was a small negative correlation between the two variables, psychological capital and resistance to change with $r = -.28$, $n = 1\,950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant at $p < .05$, thus implying that psychological capital and resistance to change are not correlated. There was a small positive correlation between the two variables, psychological capital and commitment to change with $r = .16$, $n = 1\,950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant at $p < .05$. This means that, as psychological capital increase, so does employee commitment to change. There was a medium positive correlation between the two variables, psychological capital and job security with, $r = .38$, $n = 1\,950$, $p < .05$. The relationship was statistically significant at $p < .05$, thus implying that, as psychological capital increase, so does job security.

The negative correlations between psychological capital and turnover intention and between psychological capital and resistance to change, although small, indicated that employees high in psychological capital cope better during organisational restructuring processes. Here the negative correlations indicated that the lower employees are in psychological capital, the higher their turnover intention and their resistance to change. The positive correlations between psychological capital and employee commitment to change and between psychological capital and the employees' sense of job security was indicative of the way in which high levels of psychological capital may contribute to employees' ability to cope with organisational change processes.

3.4 Summary of Results of the Correlation Analysis

The results showed that not all of the independent variable factors correlated with the four factors of the dependent variable. A summary of the significant correlations is presented below:

Relationship between Organisational Restructuring (IV) and Organisational Behaviour (DV)

The sample size was $n = 1\ 950$: Restructuring_Type_Count (number of different types of organisational restructuring) showed positive correlations with commitment to change with $r = .11$, $p < .05$, and with job security with $r = .10$, $p < .05$. Restructuring_Type_Count showed negative correlations with turnover intention with $r = -.15$, $p < .05$ and with resistance to change, with $r = -.02$, $p > .05$. Restructuring_Leadership_Count (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring) showed positive correlations with resistance to change with $r = .05$, $p < .05$ and commitment to change, with $r = .06$, $p < .05$. Restructuring_Type_Count showed negative correlations with turnover intention with $r = -.01$, $p > .05$ and with job security with $r = .07$, $p < .05$. Restructuring_Frequency_Count (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations) showed no correlation with turnover intention with $r = -.00$, $p > .05$ but showed positive correlations with resistance to change, with $r = .01$, $p > .05$ and commitment to change with $r = .01$, $p > .05$. Restructuring_Type_Count showed a negative correlation with job security, with $r = -.05$, $p < .05$.

Relationship between Organisational Restructuring (IV) and Effective Change Management (Mediator)

The sample size was $n = 1\ 950$: Restructuring_Type_Count (number of different types of organisational restructuring) showed positive correlations with change management processes with $r = .04$, $p > .05$ and with perceived organisational support with $r = .05$, $p < .05$. Restructuring_Type_Count showed a negative correlation with leader-member exchange with $r = -.03$, $p > .05$. Restructuring_Leadership_Count (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring) showed positive correlations with leader-member exchange, with $r = .03$, $p > .05$ and showed negative correlations with change management processes, with $r = -.07$, $p < .05$ and with perceived organisational support with $r = -.08$, $p < .05$. Restructuring_Frequency_Count (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations) showed negative

correlations with change management processes with $r = -.02$, $p > .05$, leader-member exchange, with $r = -.02$, $p > .05$ and perceived organisational support, with $r = -.02$, $p > .05$.

Relationship between Effective Change Management (Mediator) and Organisational Behaviour (DV)

The sample size was $n = 1\,950$: Effective change management processes showed negative correlations only with turnover intention with $r = -.32$, $p < .05$, resistance to change with $r = -.14$, $p < .05$, commitment to change, with $r = -.02$, $p > .05$ and with job security, with $r = -.20$, $p < .05$. The relationships were all statistically significant. Leader-member exchange showed a positive correlation with commitment to change with $r = .11$, $p < .05$ and job security with $r = .13$, $p < .05$ but negative correlations with turnover intention, with $r = -.29$, $p < .05$ and resistance to change with $r = -.10$, $p < .05$. The relationships were all statistically significant. Perceived organisational support showed a positive correlation with job security with $r = .26$, $p < .05$ and no correlation with commitment to change, $r = -.00$, $p > .05$. Perceived organisational support showed negative correlations with turnover intention with $r = -.38$, $p < .05$ and resistance to change with $r = -.12$, $p < .05$. The relationships were all statistically significant.

Relationship between Psychological Capital (Moderator) and Effective Change Management (Mediator)

The sample size was $n = 1\,950$: Psychological capital showed positive correlations with effective change management processes with $r = .30$, $p < .05$, leader-member exchange with $r = .38$, $p < .05$ and perceived organisational support, with $r = .35$, $p < .05$. The relationships were all statistically significant.

Relationship between Psychological Capital (Moderator) and Organisational Behaviour (DV)

The sample size was $n = 1\,950$: Psychological capital showed positive correlations with commitment to change with $r = .16$, $p < .05$ and job security with $r = .38$, $p < .05$. It showed negative correlations with turnover intention with $r = -.18$, $p < .05$ and resistance to change with $r = -.28$, $p < .05$. The relationships were all statistically significant.

Table 37: Summary: Relationship between Organisational Restructuring and Organisational Behaviour

Relationship between Organisational Restructuring and Organisational Behaviour		
Construct 1	Construct 2	Relationship
Restructuring_Type_Count	Turnover Intention	Statistically significant
Restructuring_Leadership_Count		Not statistically significant
Restructuring_Frequency_Count		Not statistically significant
Restructuring_Type_Count	Resistance to Change	Not statistically significant
Restructuring_Leadership_Count		Statistically significant
Restructuring_Frequency_Count		Not statistically significant
Restructuring_Type_Count	Commitment to Change	Statistically significant
Restructuring_Leadership_Count		Statistically significant
Restructuring_Frequency_Count		Not statistically significant
Restructuring_Type_Count	Job (In)Security	Statistically significant
Restructuring_Leadership_Count		Statistically significant
Restructuring_Frequency_Count		Statistically significant
Description: <i>Restructuring_Type_Count</i> (number of different types of organisational restructuring); <i>Restructuring_Leadership_Count</i> (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring); <i>Restructuring_Frequency_Count</i> (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations)		

Table 38: Summary: Relationship between Organisational Restructuring and Effective Change Management

Relationship between Organisational Restructuring and Effective Change Management		
Construct 1	Construct 2	Relationship
Restructuring_Type_Count	Effective Change Management Processes	Not statistically significant
Restructuring_Leadership_Count		Statistically significant
Restructuring_Frequency_Count		Not statistically significant
Restructuring_Type_Count	Leader-Member Exchange	Not statistically significant
Restructuring_Leadership_Count		Not statistically significant
Restructuring_Frequency_Count		Not statistically significant
Restructuring_Type_Count	Perceived Organisational Support	Statistically significant
Restructuring_Leadership_Count		Statistically significant
Restructuring_Frequency_Count		Statistically significant
Description: <i>Restructuring_Type_Count</i> (number of different types of organisational restructuring); <i>Restructuring_Leadership_Count</i> (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring); <i>Restructuring_Frequency_Count</i> (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations)		

Table 39: Summary: Relationship between Effective Change Management and Organisational Behaviour

Relationship between Effective Change Management and Organisational Behaviour		
Construct 1	Construct 2	Relationship
Effective Change Management Processes	Turnover Intention	Statistically significant
	Resistance to Change	Statistically significant
	Commitment to Change	Statistically significant
	Job (In)Security	Statistically significant

Relationship between Effective Change Management and Organisational Behaviour		
Construct 1	Construct 2	Relationship
Leader-Member Exchange	Turnover Intention	Statistically significant
	Resistance to Change	Statistically significant
	Commitment to Change	Statistically significant
	Job (In)Security	Statistically significant
Perceived Organisational Support	Turnover Intention	Statistically significant
	Resistance to Change	Statistically significant
	Commitment to Change	Statistically significant
	Job (In)Security	Statistically significant

Table 40: Summary: Relationship between Effective Psychological Capital and Effective Change Management

Relationship between Effective Psychological Capital and Effective Change Management		
Construct 1	Construct 2	Relationship
Psychological Capital	Effective Change Management Processes	Statistically significant
	Leader-Member Exchange	Statistically significant
	Perceived Organisational Support	Statistically significant
Leader-Member Exchange	Effective Change Management Processes	Statistically significant
	Leader-Member Exchange	Statistically significant
	Perceived Organisational Support	Statistically significant
Perceived Organisational Support	Effective Change Management Processes	Statistically significant
	Leader-Member Exchange	Statistically significant
	Perceived Organisational Support	Statistically significant

4. Multivariate Analysis

Multivariate analysis was used in this study to investigate the outcomes derived from a number of parametric dependent variables, across one or several independent variables, with each of the independent variables having at least two distinct groups or conditions (Mayers, 2013).

Regression analysis

Linear regression was used to investigate relationships by “examining the proportion of variance in a (numerical) outcome (dependent) variable that can be explained by one or more predictor (independent) variables” (Mayers, 2013: 412). A numerical outcome is any observation that may be measured in terms of its magnitude (Mayers, 2013). In linear regression, the outcome variable is represented by a

numerical score (Mayers, 2013). Multiple linear regression was used to examine the “proportion of variance in outcome scores that can be explained by several predictor variables” (Mayers, 2013: 412).

Partial Correlation

The use of partial correlation allowed the researcher to control an additional variable that may influence the two variables of interest (Pallant, 2011). For partial correlation, at least two outcomes variables are required, as well as the variable that is to be controlled. This test allowed the researcher to assess the relationship between the two variables and to statistically control the effect of the variable assumed to be contaminating the relationship (Pallant, 2011).

Table 41: Linear Regression (Predictor: Restructuring_Type_Count) and Organisational Behaviour (Dependent Variable)

Depend. Variable	Predictor(s)	R-Square	Variance (%)	F	Prob.	Beta value
Turnover Intention	Restructuring_Type_Count	.02	2.3	46.57	< .05	-.15
Resistance to Change	Restructuring_Type_Count	.00	.00	.77	.38	-.02
Commitment to Change	Restructuring_Type_Count	.01	1.10	22.66	< .05	.11
Job Security	Restructuring_Type_Count	.01	.90	17.06	< .05	.09

Description: *Restructuring_Type_Count* (number of different types of organisational restructuring), *Restructuring_Leadership_Count* (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring), *Restructuring_Frequency_Count* (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations).

Results of the Multivariate Analysis

Independent Variable: Restructuring_Type_Count (Predictor); Dependent Variable: Turnover Intention (TI):

Restructuring_Type_Count (number of different types of organisational restructuring) was entered at Step 1, explaining 2.30% of the variance in turnover intention. The total variance explained by the model as a whole was 2.30%, $F = 46.57$, while the model was significant, with $p < .05$. In the final model, Restructuring_Type_Count was statistically significant, with a beta value of $beta = -.15$, $p < .05$. Thus, Restructuring_Type_Count, having the largest beta-value, made the strongest unique contribution to explaining the dependent variable of turnover intention.

Independent Variable: Restructuring_Type_Count (Predictor); Dependent Variable: Resistance to Change (RC):

Restructuring_Type_Count (number of different types of organisational restructuring) was entered at Step 1, explaining .00% of the variance (no variance) in resistance to change. The total variance explained by the model as a whole was .00%, $F = .77$, while the model was not significant, with $p > .05$. In the final model, Restructuring_Type_Count did not make a significant unique contribution to the prediction of the dependent variable, with a beta value of $beta = -.02$, $p > .05$.

Independent Variable: Restructuring_Type_Count (Predictor); Dependent Variable: Commitment to Change (CC):

Restructuring_Type_Count (number of different types of organisational restructuring) was entered at Step 1, explaining 1.10% of the variance in commitment to change. The total variance explained by the model as a whole was 1.10%, $F = 22.66$, while the model was significant, with $p < .05$. In the final model, Restructuring_Type_Count was statistically significant, with a beta value of $beta = .11$, $p < .05$.

Independent Variable: Restructuring_Type_Count (Predictor); Dependent Variable: Job (In)Security (JS):

Restructuring_Type_Count (number of different types of organisational restructuring) was entered at Step 1, explaining .90% of the variance in job security. The total variance explained by the model as a whole was .90%, $F = 17.06$, while the model was significant, with $p < .05$. In the final model, Restructuring_Type_Count was statistically significant, with a beta value of $beta = .09$, $p < .05$.

Table 42: Linear Regression (Predictor: Restructuring_Leadership_Count) and Organisational Behaviour (Dependent Variable)

Depend. Variable	Predictor(s)	R-Square	Variance (%)	F	Prob.	Beta value
Turnover Intention	Restructuring_Leadership_Count	.00	.00	.15	.70	-.01
Resistance to Change	Restructuring_Leadership_Count	.00	.20	4.52	< .05	.05
Commitment to Change	Restructuring_Leadership_Count	.00	.30	6.39	< .05	.06
Job Security	Restructuring_Leadership_Count	.00	.40	8.71	< .05	-.07

Description: *Restructuring_Type_Count* (number of different types of organisational restructuring), *Restructuring_Leadership_Count* (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring), *Restructuring_Frequency_Count* (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations).

Results (Mediation Analysis)

Independent Variable: Restructuring_Leadership_Count (Predictor);

Dependent Variable: Turnover Intention:

Restructuring_Type_Count (number of different types of organisational restructuring) was entered at Step 1, explaining .00% of the variance (no variance) in turnover intention. The total variance explained by the model as a whole was .00%, $F = .15$, while the model was not significant, with $p > .05$. In the final model, Restructuring_Leadership_Count (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring) did not make a significant unique contribution to the prediction of the dependent variable, with a beta value of $beta = -.01$, $p > .05$.

Independent Variable: Restructuring_Leadership_Count (Predictor);

Dependent Variable: Resistance to Change:

Restructuring_Type_Count (number of different types of organisational restructuring) was entered at Step 1, explaining .20% of the variance in resistance to change. The total variance explained by the model as a whole was .20%, $F = 4.52$ while the model was significant, with $p < .05$. In the final model, Restructuring_Leadership_Count (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring) was statistically significant, with a beta value of $beta = .05$, $p < .05$.

Independent Variable: Restructuring_Leadership_Count (Predictor);

Dependent Variable: Commitment to Change:

Restructuring_Leadership_Count (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring) was entered at Step 1, explaining .30% of the variance in commitment to change. The total variance explained by the model as a whole was .30%, $F = 6.39$, while the model was significant, with $p < .05$. In the final model, Restructuring_Leadership_Count was statistically significant, with a beta value of $beta = .06$, $p < .05$.

Independent Variable: Restructuring_Leadership_Count (Predictor);

Dependent Variable: Job (In)Security:

Restructuring_Leadership_Count (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring) was entered at Step 1, explaining .40% of the variance in job security. The total variance explained by the model as a whole was .40%, $F = 8.71$, while the model was significant, with $p < .05$. In the final model, Restructuring_Leadership_Count was statistically significant, with a beta value of $\beta = -.07$, $p < .05$. Thus, Restructuring_Leadership_Count, having the largest *beta*-value, made the strongest unique contribution to explaining the dependent variable of job security.

Table 43: Linear Regression (Predictor: Restructuring_Frequency_Count) and Organisational Behaviour (Dependent Variable)

Depend. Variable	Predictor(s)	R-Square	Variance (%)	F	Prob.	Beta value
Turnover Intention	Restructuring_Frequency_Count	.00	.00	.02	.89	-.00
Resistance to Change	Restructuring_Frequency_Count	.00	.00	.06	.81	.01
Commitment to Change	Restructuring_Frequency_Count	.00	.00	.10	.75	.01
Job Security	Restructuring_Frequency_Count	.00	.20	4.51	< .05	-.05

Description: *Restructuring_Type_Count* (number of different types of organisational restructuring), *Restructuring_Leadership_Count* (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring), *Restructuring_Frequency_Count* (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations).

Results

Independent Variable: Restructuring_Frequency_Count (Predictor); Dependent Variable: Turnover Intention

Restructuring_Frequency_Count (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations) was entered at Step 1, explaining .00% of the variance (no variance) in turnover intention. The total variance explained by the model as a whole was .00%, $F = .02$, while the model was not significant, with $p > .05$. In the final model, Restructuring_Frequency_Count did not make a significant unique contribution to the prediction of the dependent variable, with a beta value of $\beta = -.0$, $p > .05$.

Independent Variable: Restructuring_Frequency_Count (Predictor); Dependent Variable: Resistance to Change:

Restructuring_Frequency_Count (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations) was entered at Step 1,

explaining .00% of the variance (no variance) in resistance to change. The total variance explained by the model as a whole was .00%, $F = .06$, while the model was not significant, with $p > .05$. In the final model, Restructuring_Frequency_Count did not make a significant unique contribution to the prediction of the dependent variable, with a beta value of $beta = .01$, $p > .05$.

Independent Variable: Restructuring_Frequency_Count (Predictor); Dependent Variable: Commitment to Change:

Restructuring_Frequency_Count (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations) was entered at Step 1, explaining .00% of the variance (no variance) in commitment to change. The total variance explained by the model as a whole was .00%, $F = .10$, while the model was not significant, with $p > .05$. In the final model, Restructuring_Frequency_Count did not make a significant unique contribution to the prediction of the dependent variable, with a beta value of $beta = .08$, $p > .05$.

Independent Variable: Restructuring_Frequency_Count (Predictor); Dependent Variable: Job (In)Security:

Restructuring_Frequency_Count (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations) was entered at Step 1, explaining .20% of the variance in job security. The total variance explained by the model as a whole was .20%, $F = 4.51$, while the model was significant, with $p < .05$. In the final model, Restructuring_Frequency_Count was statistically significant, with a beta value of $beta = -.05$, $p < .05$. Thus, Restructuring_Frequency_Count, having the largest $beta$ -value, made the strongest unique contribution to explaining the dependent variable of job security.

5. Mediation analysis

Table 44 presents a summary of the mediation analysis in terms of the relationships between the independent variable and dependent variable. The indirect effect of effective change management (and its factors) on the relationship between organisational restructuring and its factors, namely, Restructuring_Type_Count (number of different types of organisational restructuring),

Restructuring_Leadership_Count (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring) and Restructuring_Freq_Count (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations), on organisational behaviour (turnover intention, resistance to change, commitment to change and job security) was calculated, with a 95.00% bootstrap confidence interval, per sample of 1000.

Table 44: Summary table (Mediation Analysis)

Independent Variable (Predictor)	Dependent Variable (Outcome variable)	Mediated effect: product of a and b		Path c (Total Effect)	Path c' (Direct Effect of X on Y)	Direct Effect (X on Y) p-value	ULCI	BootLLCI (Indirect Effect)	BootULCI (Indirect Effect)	Indirect Effect is...	Mediation observed (Yes/No)
		Total									
		Total	-.03	-.33	-.30	< .05	-.22	-.06	.00	Non-significant	Not observed
Restructuring_Type_Count	Turnover Intention	CM	-.01								
	Turnover Intention	LMX	.01								
	Turnover Intention	POS	-.02								
		Total	-.01	-.02	-.02	.51	.04	-.02	.00	Non-significant	Not observed
Restructuring_Type_Count	Resistance to Change	CM	-.01								
	Resistance to Change	LMX	.00								
	Resistance to Change	POS	-.00								
		Total	-.01	.11	.12	< .05	.17	-.02	-.00	Significant	Observed
Restructuring_Type_Count	Commitment to Change	CM	-.00								
	Commitment to Change	LMX	-.00								
	Commitment to Change	POS	-.00								
		Total	.02	.12	.11	< .05	.16	.00	.03	Significant	Observed
Restructuring_Type_Count	Job Security	CM	.00								
	Job Security	LMX	-.00								
	Job Security	POS	.01								
		Total	.03	-.01	-.05	.10	.01	.01	.06	Significant	Observed
Restructuring_Leadership_Count	Turnover Intention	CM	.01								
	Turnover Intention	LMX	-.01								

Independent Variable (Predictor)	Dependent Variable (Outcome variable)	Mediated effect: product of a and b		Path c (Total Effect)	Path c' (Direct Effect of X on Y)	Direct Effect (X on Y) p-value	ULCI	BootLLCI (Indirect Effect)	BootULCI (Indirect Effect)	Indirect Effect is...	Mediation observed (Yes/No)
	Turnover Intention	POS	.03					.01	.04	Significant	Observed
		Total	.01	.04	.03	.08	.06	.00	.01	Significant	Observed
Restructuring_Leadership_Count	Resistance to Change	CM	.01					.00	.01	Significant	Observed
	Resistance to Change	LMX	-.00					-.00	.00	Non-significant	Not observed
	Resistance to Change	POS	.00					-.00	.01	Non-significant	Not observed
		Total	.01	.04	.03	< .05	.06	.00	.01	Significant	Observed
Restructuring_Leadership_Count	Commitment to Change	CM	.00					.00	.01	Significant	Observed
	Commitment to Change	LMX	.00					-.00	.01	Non-significant	Not observed
	Commitment to Change	POS	.00					-.00	.01	Non-significant	Not observed
		Total	-.02	-.05	-.04	< .05	-.00	-.03	-.01	Significant	Observed
Restructuring_Leadership_Count	Job Security	CM	-.00					-.01	-.00	Significant	Observed
	Job Security	LMX	.00					-.00	.00	Non-significant	Not observed
	Job Security	POS	-.01					-.02	-.01	Significant	Not observed
		Total	.03	-.01	-.04	.55	.08	-.03	.08	Non-significant	Not observed
Restructuring_Frequency_Count	Turnover Intention	CM	.01					-.01	.03	Non-significant	Not observed
	Turnover Intention	LMX	.01					-.01	.03	Non-significant	Not observed
	Turnover Intention	POS	.01					-.02	.04	Non-significant	Not observed
		Total	.01	.01	.00	.94	.07	-.01	.02	Non-significant	Not observed
Restructuring_Frequency_Count	Resistance to Change	CM	.00					-.00	.01	Non-significant	Not observed

Independent Variable (Predictor)	Dependent Variable (Outcome variable)	Mediated effect: product of a and b		Path c (Total Effect)	Path c' (Direct Effect of X on Y)	Direct Effect (X on Y) p-value	ULCI	BootLLCI (Indirect Effect)	BootULCI (Indirect Effect)	Indirect Effect is...	Mediation observed (Yes/No)
	Resistance to Change	LMX	.00					-0.00	.01	Non-significant	Not observed
	Resistance to Change	POS	.00					-0.00	.01	Non-significant	Not observed
		Total	-.00	-.00	.00	.72	.07	-.01	.01	Non-significant	Not observed
Restructuring_Frequency_Count	Commitment to Change	CM	.00					-.00	.01	Non-significant	Not observed
	Commitment to Change	LMX	-.00					-.01	.01	Non-significant	Not observed
	Commitment to Change	POS	.00					-.00	.01	Non-significant	Not observed
		Total	-.01	-.08	-.07	< .05	-.00	-.03	.01	Non-significant	Not observed
Restructuring_Frequency_Count	Job Security	CM	-.00					-.01	.00	Non-significant	Not observed
	Job Security	LMX	-.00					-.01	.00	Non-significant	Not observed
	Job Security	POS	-.01					-.02	.01	Non-significant	Not observed
<p>Description: <i>Restructuring_Type_Count</i> (number of different types of organisational restructuring), <i>Restructuring_Leadership_Count</i> (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring), <i>Restructuring_Frequency_Count</i> (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations).</p>											

5.1 Summary of Results (Mediation Analysis)

The results are summarised as follows:

Mediation (by means of the indirect effect) was determined between Restructuring_Type_Count (number of different types of organisational restructuring) and commitment to change, $p < .05$ with an indirect effect of $-.01$, thus indicating a reduction in the total effect between Restructuring_Type_Count and job security, $p < .05$ with an indirect effect of $.02$, indicating a reduction in the total effect. Mediation was not confirmed between Restructuring_Type_Count and turnover intention ($p < .05$; indirect effect $-.03$ which did not indicate a reduction in the total effect) or between Restructuring_Type_Count and resistance to change ($p > .05$), and was not significant. The indirect effect was $-.01$, which did not indicate a reduction in the total effect.

Mediation (by means of the indirect effect) was determined between Restructuring_Leadership_Count (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring) and all four of the organisational behaviour constructs, namely, turnover intention ($p > .05$ and indirect effect $.03$, which indicates a reduction in the total effect), resistance to change ($p > .05$ and indirect effect $.01$, which indicates a reduction in the total effect), commitment to change ($p < .05$ and indirect effect $.01$, which indicates a reduction in the total effect), and job security ($p < .05$, and indirect effect $-.02$, which indicates a reduction in the total effect).

Mediation was not determined between Restructuring_Frequency_Count (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations) and all four of the organisational behaviour constructs, namely, turnover intention ($p > .05$; indirect effect $.03$, which does not indicate a reduction in the total effect), resistance to change ($p > .05$; indirect effect $.01$, which does not indicate a reduction in the total effect), commitment to change ($p > .05$; indirect effect $-.0$, which does not indicate a reduction in the total effect) and job security ($p > .05$; indirect effect $-.01$, which does not indicate a reduction in the total effect).

Mediation between one (Restructuring_Frequency_Count) of the factors of the independent variable and the four factors of the dependent variable was not confirmed, although two (Restructuring_Type_Count and Restructuring_Leadership_Count) of the three factors have confirmed mediation. It was, therefore, concluded that effective change management mediated the relationship between organisational restructuring and organisational behaviour.

6. Moderation Analysis

The moderation analysis focused on how a causal effect functions and how it was used to “address, when, or under what circumstances, or for what types of people that effect exists or does not and in what magnitude” (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017: 47). Moderation, also referred to as interaction, is depicted in Figure 22 below, where W is linked to the effect of X on Y but with the effect of X on Y depending in some way on W and which will then imply that X and W interact (if the effect of X on Y is moderated by W).

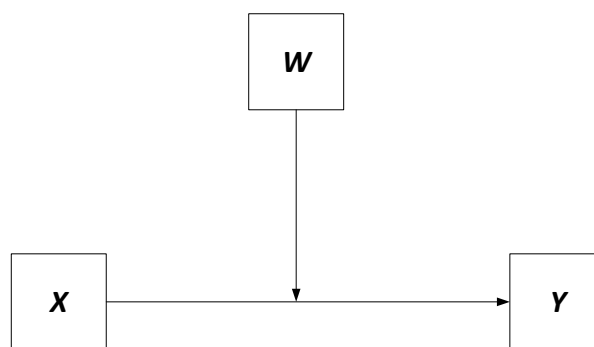


Figure 22: Moderation (Interaction)

Previous understandings of the tests for moderation are being revisited and debunked (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017). One such understanding is that the moderator (W) of X 's effect on Y must be uncorrelated with X and that moderation analysis is dependent upon the fact that X and W are statistically independent (Baron & Kenny, 1986). However, there is nothing in algebra that requires W and X to be statistically significant (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017).

Results (Mediation Analysis)

The results for the mediation assessment are presented in the table and summary below.

Table 45: Mediator: Change Management (CM) (Predictor); Dependent Variable (Turnover Intention)

Dependent Variable	Predictor(s)	R-Square	Variance (%)	F	Prob.	Beta Value
Turnover Intention	Change Management	.10	10.30	223.71	< .05	-.32
	Leader-Member Exchange	.08	8.30	176.43	< .05	-.29
	Perceived Organisational Support	.14	14.30	324.75	< .05	-.38

Mediator: Change Management (CM) (Predictor); Dependent Variable: Turnover Intention:

Change management processes was entered at Step 1, explaining 10.30% of the variance in turnover intention. The total variance explained by the model as a whole was 10.30%, $F = 223.71$, while the model was significant, with $p < .05$. In the final model, change management processes was statistically significant, with a beta value of $beta = -.32$, $p < .05$.

Mediator: Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) (Predictor); Dependent Variable: Turnover Intention:

Leader-member exchange was entered at Step 1, explaining 8.30% of the variance in turnover intention. The total variance explained by the model as a whole was 8.30%, $F = 176.43$, while the model was significant, with $p < .05$. In the final model, leader-member exchange was statistically significant, with a beta value of $beta = -.29$, $p < .05$.

Mediator: Perceived Organisational Support (POS) (Predictor); Dependent Variable: Turnover Intention:

Perceived organisational support was entered at Step 1, explaining 14.30% of the variance in turnover intention. The total variance explained by the model as a whole was 14.30%, $F = 324.75$, while the model was significant, with $p < .05$. In the final

model, perceived organisational support was statistically significant, with a beta value of $\beta = -.38$, $p < .05$. Thus, perceived organisational support, having the largest β -value, made the strongest unique contribution to explaining the dependent variable of turnover intention

Table 46: Change Management (CM) (Predictor); Dependent Variable (Resistance to Change)

Dependent Variable	Predictor(s)	R-Square	Variance (%)	F	Prob.	Beta Value
Resistance to Change	Change Management	.02	2.00	39.28	< .05	-.14
	Leader-Member Exchange	.01	.90	17.78	< .05	-.10
	Perceived Organisational Support	.02	1.50	28.89	< .05	-.12

Results:

Mediator: Change Management Processes (Predictor); Dependent Variable: Resistance to Change:

Change management processes was entered at Step 1, explaining 2.00% of the variance in resistance to change. The total variance explained by the model as a whole was 2.00%, $F = 39.28$, while the model was significant, with $p < .05$. In the final model, change management was statistically significant, with a beta value of $\beta = -.14$, $p < .05$. Thus, change management processes, having the largest β -value, made the strongest unique contribution to explaining the dependent variable of resistance to change.

Mediator: Leader-Member Exchange (Predictor); Dependent Variable: Resistance to Change:

Leader-member exchange was entered at Step 1, explaining .90% of the variance in resistance to change. The total variance explained by the model as a whole was .90%, $F = 17.78$, while the model was significant, with $p < .05$. In the final model, leader-member exchange was statistically significant, with a beta value of $\beta = -.10$, $p < .05$.

Mediator: Perceived Organisational Support (Predictor); Dependent Variable: Resistance to Change:

Perceived organisational support was entered at Step 1, explaining 1.50% of the variance in resistance to change. The total variance explained by the model as a

whole was 1.50%, $F = 28.89$, while the model was significant, with $p < .05$. In the final model, perceived organisational support was statistically significant, with a beta value of $beta = -.12$, $p < .05$.

Table 47: Change Management (CM) (Predictor); Dependent Variable (Commitment to Change)

Dependent Variable	Predictor(s)	R-Square	Variance (%)	F	Prob.	Beta Value
Commitment to Change	Change Management	.00	.00	.89	.35	-.02
	Leader-Member Exchange	.01	1.20	23.61	< .05	.11
	Perceived Organisational Support	.00	.00	.04	.85	-.00

Results

Mediator: Change Management Processes (Predictor); Dependent Variable: Commitment to Change:

Change management processes was entered at Step 1, explaining .00% of the variance (no variance) in commitment to change. The total variance explained by the model as a whole was .00%, $F = .89$, while the model was not significant, with $p > .05$. In the final model, change management processes did not make a significant unique contribution to the prediction of the dependent variable, with a beta value of $beta = -.02$, $p > .05$.

Independent Variable: Leader-Member Exchange (Predictor); Dependent Variable: Commitment to Change:

Leader-member exchange was entered at Step 1, explaining 1.20% of the variance in commitment to change. The total variance explained by the model as a whole was 1.20%, $F = 23.61$, while the model was significant, with $p < .05$. In the final model leader-member exchange was statistically significant, with a beta value of $beta = .11$, $p < .05$. Thus, leader-member exchange, having the largest $beta$ -value made the strongest unique contribution to explaining the dependent variable of commitment to change.

Independent Variable: Perceived Organisational Support (Predictor); Dependent Variable: Commitment to Change:

Perceived organisational support was entered at Step 1, explaining .00% of the variance (no variance) in commitment to change. The total variance explained by the model as a whole was .00%, $F = .04$, while the model was not significant, with $p > .05$. In the final model, perceived organisational support did not make a significant unique contribution to the prediction of the dependent variable, with a beta value of $beta = -.00$, $p > .05$.

Table 48: Change Management (CM) (Predictor); Dependent Variable (Job Security)

Dependent Variable	Predictor(s)	R-Square	Variance (%)	F	Prob.	Beta Value
Job (In)Security	Change Management	.04	4.00	81.59	< .05	.20
	Leader-Member Exchange	.02	1.80	35.17	< .05	.13
	Perceived Organisational Support	.07	6.80	143.22	< .05	.26

Results

Mediator: Change Management Processes (Predictor); Dependent Variable: Job (In)Security:

Change management processes was entered at Step 1, explaining 4.00% of the variance in job security. The total variance explained by the model as a whole was 4.00%, $F = 81.59$, while the model was significant, with $p < .05$. In the final model, change management processes was statistically significant with a beta value of $beta = .20$, $p < .05$.

Mediator: Leader-Member Exchange (Predictor); Dependent Variable: Job (In)Security:

Leader-member exchange was entered at Step 1, explaining 1.80% of the variance in job security. The total variance explained by the model as a whole was 1.80%, $F = 35.17$, while the model was significant, with $p < .05$. In the final model, leader-member exchange was statistically significant with a beta value of: $beta = .13$, $p < .05$.

Mediator: Perceived Organisational Support (Predictor); Dependent Variable: Job (In)Security:

Perceived organisational support was entered at Step 1, explaining 6.80% of the variance in job security. The total variance explained by the model as a whole was 6.80%, $F = 143.22$, while the model was significant, with $p < .05$. In the final model, perceived organisational support was statistically significant with a beta value of $beta = .26$, $p < .05$. Thus, perceived organisational support, having the largest $beta$ -value, made the strongest unique contribution in explaining the dependent variable of job security.

Moderations by means of Interaction

The Johnson-Neyman technique is more robust than the simple slopes analysis. It is now more frequently used than in the past and may even be used when X is multicategorical and consist of three more categories (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017). The Johnson-Neyman technique derives the value of W (should it exist) analytically and eliminates the need for the researcher to predetermine the values of W (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017). The use of both simple slopes analysis and the Johnson-Neyman technique is, according to Hayes and Rockwood (2017), redundant. The Johnson-Neyman technique is able to provide information about the statistical significance of the effect of “ X for all values of W one could choose” (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017: 50). Refer to Table 49.

Figure 23 provides an example of a second stage conditional process model where the mediation of X 's effect (Organisational restructuring) on Y (Organisational behaviour) through M (Effective change management) is being moderated through the moderation of the effect of M on Y , as indicated (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017).

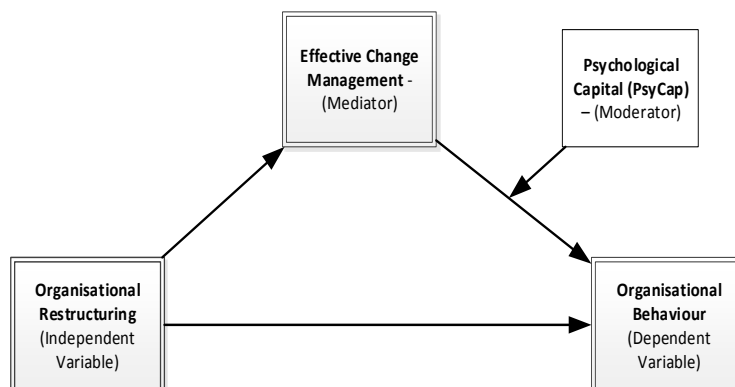


Figure 23: Mediated-Moderator Model

Table 49: Moderation Analysis

Interaction Term	Interaction Term p-value	Dependent Variable	R-Square	R-Square Change	Moderator (Psychological Capital) Values: W-Values	Prob.	LLCI	ULCI	Conditional Effect	Johnson-Neyman (J-N) technique	Support for Conditional Indirect Model
CM x PC	< .05	Turnover Intention	.12	.01	3.74	< .05	-1.01	-.72	Significant	No statistical significance transition points	Supported
					4.59	< .05	-.76	-.57	Significant		
					5.44	< .05	-.58	-.36	Significant		
LMX x PC	.14	Turnover Intention	.09	.00	3.74	< .05	-.68	-.38	Significant	Moderator value defining J-N region: 1.74	Supported
					4.59	< .05	-.71	-.49	Significant		
					5.44	< .05	-.82	-.53	Significant		
POS x PC	.26	Turnover Intention	.15	.00	3.74	< .05	-.70	-.51	Significant	No statistical significance transition points	Supported
					4.59	< .05	-.64	-.50	Significant		
					5.44	< .05	-.62	-.45	Significant		
CM x PC	.55	Resistance to Change	.09	.00	3.74	.25	-.13	.03	Non-significant	Moderator value defining J-N region: 4.33	Supported
					4.59	< .05	-.12	-.01	Significant		
					5.44	< .05	-.14	-.02	Significant		
LMX x PC	.24	Resistance to Change	.08	.00	3.74	.75	-.10	.07	Non-significant	No statistical significance transition points	Not supported
					4.59	.54	-.04	.08	Non-significant		
					5.44	.20	-.03	.13	Non-significant		
POS x PC	.14	Resistance to Change	.08	.00	3.74	.75	-.05	.07	Non-significant	No statistical significance transition points	Not supported
					4.59	.39	-.06	.02	Non-significant		
					5.44	.08	-.09	.01	Non-significant		
CM x PC	< .05	Commitment to Change	.04	.01	3.74	.56	-.05	.10	Non-significant	Moderator values defining J-N region: 2.49 and 4.55	Supported
					4.59	< .05	-.10	-.01	Significant		

Interaction Term	Interaction Term p-value	Dependent Variable	R-Square	R-Square Change	Moderator (Psychological Capital) Values: W-Values	Prob.	LLCI	ULCI	Conditional Effect	Johnson-Neyman (J-N) technique	Support for Conditional Indirect Model
					5.44	< .05	-.18	-.07	Significant		
LMX x PC	.91	Commitment to Change	.03	.00	3.74	.08	-.01	.14	Non-significant	Moderator values defining J-N region: 5.13 and 4.01	Not supported
					4.59	< .05	.01	.12	Significant		
					5.44	.10	-.01	.13	Non-significant		
POS x PC	.36	Commitment to Change	.03	.00	3.74	.16	-.09	.01	Non-significant	Moderator value defining J-N region: 4.10	Not supported
					4.59	< .05	-.09	-.02	Significant		
					5.44	< .05	-.11	-.02	Non-significant		
CM x PC	.57	Job Security	.05	.00	3.74	< .05	.13	.32	Significant	No statistical significance transition points	Supported
					4.59	< .05	.15	.27	Significant		
					5.44	< .05	.13	.26	Significant		
LMX x PC	.86	Job Security	.03	.00	3.74	< .05	.03	.21	Significant	Moderator values defining J-N region: 5.83 and 3.15	Supported
					4.59	< .05	.05	.18	Significant		
					5.44	< .05	.02	.20	Significant		
POS x PC	.30	Job Security	.08	.00	3.74	< .05	.14	.26	Significant	Moderator value defining J-N region: 1.56	Supported
					4.59	< .05	.17	.26	Significant		
					5.44	< .05	.18	.29	Significant		

(CM: Change Management Processes; PC: Psychological Capital; TI: Turnover Intention; RC: Resistance to Change; CC: Commitment to Change; JS: Job (In)Security; LMX: Leader-Member Exchange; POS: Perceived Organisational Support)

6.1 Summary of Results (Moderation Analysis)

Psychological capital (moderator) was found to moderate the relationship between effective change management (effective change management processes) and organisational behaviour (turnover intention) through the impact of organisational restructuring (X) on organisational behaviour (Y), at values of the moderator (M). The interaction term was significant at $p < .05$. The confidence interval did not straddle zero and no statistically significant transition points, according to the Johnson-Neyman technique, were determined.

Psychological capital was found to moderate the relationship between effective change management (leader-member exchange) and organisational behaviour (turnover intention) through the impact of organisational restructuring (X) on organisational behaviour (Y), at values of the moderator (M). The interaction term was not significant at $p > .05$. The confidence interval did not straddle zero and the region of significance, according to the Johnson-Neyman technique, was determined at 1.74.

Psychological capital was found to moderate the relationship between effective change management (perceived organisational support) and organisational behaviour (turnover intention) through the impact of organisational restructuring (X) on organisational behaviour (Y), at values of the moderator (M). The interaction term was not significant at $p > .05$. The confidence interval did not straddle zero and no statistically significant transition points, according to the Johnson-Neyman technique, were determined.

Psychological capital was found to moderate the relationship between effective change management (effective change management processes) and organisational behaviour (resistance to change) through the impact of organisational restructuring (X) on organisational behaviour (Y), at values of the moderator (M). The interaction term was not significant at $p > .05$. The confidence interval did straddle zero and the region of significance, according to the Johnson-Neyman technique, was determined at 4.33.

Psychological capital was not found to moderate the relationship between effective change management (leader-member exchange) and organisational behaviour (resistance to change) through the impact of organisational restructuring (X) on organisational behaviour (Y), at values of the moderator (M). The interaction term was not significant at $p > .05$. The confidence interval straddled zero while no statistically significant transition points, according to the Johnson-Neyman technique, were determined.

Psychological capital was found not to moderate the relationship between effective change management (perceived organisational support) and organisational behaviour (resistance to change) through the impact of organisational restructuring (X) on organisational behaviour (Y), at values of the moderator (M). The interaction term was not significant at $p > .05$. The confidence interval straddled zero and no statistically significant transition points, according to the Johnson-Neyman technique, were determined.

Psychological capital was found to moderate the relationship between effective change management (effective change management processes) and organisational behaviour (commitment to change) through the impact of organisational restructuring (X) on organisational behaviour (Y), at values of the moderator (M). The interaction term was significant at $p < .05$. The confidence interval straddled zero and the region of significance, according to the Johnson-Neyman technique, was determined at 2.49 and 4.55.

Psychological capital was found not to moderate the relationship between effective change management (leader-member exchange) and organisational behaviour (commitment to change) through the impact of organisational restructuring (X) on organisational behaviour (Y), at values of the moderator (M). The interaction term was not significant at $p > .05$. The confidence interval straddled zero and the region of significance, according to the Johnson-Neyman technique, was determined at 5.13 and 4.01.

Psychological capital was found not to moderate the relationship between effective change management (perceived organisational support) and organisational behaviour (commitment to change) through the impact of organisational restructuring (X) on organisational behaviour (Y), at values of the moderator (M). The interaction term was not significant at $p > .05$. The confidence interval straddled zero and the region of significance, according to the Johnson-Neyman technique, was determined at 4.10.

Psychological capital was found to moderate the relationship between effective change management (effective change management processes) and organisational behaviour (job security) through the impact of organisational restructuring (X) on organisational behaviour (Y), at values of the moderator (M). The interaction term was not significant at $p > .05$. The confidence interval did not straddle zero and no statistically significant transition points, according to the Johnson-Neyman technique, were determined.

Psychological capital was found to moderate the relationship between effective change management (leader-member exchange) and organisational behaviour (job security) through the impact of organisational restructuring (X) on organisational behaviour (Y), at values of the moderator (M). The interaction term was not significant at $p > .05$. The confidence interval straddled zero and the region of significance, according to the Johnson-Neyman technique, was determined at 5.83 and 3.15.

Psychological capital was found to moderate the relationship between effective change management (perceived organisational support) and organisational behaviour (job security) through the impact of organisational restructuring (X) on organisational behaviour (Y), at values of the moderator (M). The interaction term was not significant at $p > .05$. The confidence interval straddled zero and the region of significance, according to the Johnson-Neyman technique, was determined at 1.56.

The relationships between the effective change management and organisational behaviour were assessed and it was confirmed that psychological capital moderates

the relationship between effective change management, namely, effective change management processes, leader-member exchange, perceived organisational support and turnover intention. Psychological capital was found to moderate the relationship between effective change management processes and resistance to change, but not between leader-member exchange and perceived organisational support, and resistance to change. Psychological capital was found to moderate the relationship between effective change management processes and commitment to change, but not between leader-member exchange and perceived organisational support, and resistance to change. Psychological capital was found to moderate the relationship between effective change management processes, leader-member exchange and perceived organisational support and commitment to change. Psychological capital was found to moderate the relationship between effective change management processes and resistance to change, but not between leader-member exchange and perceived organisational support, and resistance to change.

7. Mediated Moderation Model

On the basis of the information above, it was confirmed that firstly, effective change management mediated the relationship between organisational restructuring and organisational behaviour. Mediation was proved. Secondly, it was concluded that psychological capital moderated the relationship between effective change management and organisational behaviour. In so doing, and by confirming mediation first and subsequently moderation, mediated moderation was also confirmed (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017).

Summary

This chapter illustrated the procedures used to analyse the sample, the data collected, and accurately reported thereon. The next chapter summarises the results, its findings and the limitations of the study. The chapter concludes by providing recommendations to organisational leaders and practitioners, on the impact of organisational restructuring on organisational behaviour and the mediating and moderating roles played by effective change management and psychological capital, respectively.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Recommendations, Limitations and Conclusion

1.1 Discussion

This study was conducted in South Africa, in three different organisational sectors, and using instruments that have customarily been used in Europe, the United States of America and in some of the Scandinavian countries. An etic approach was used to assess whether the impact of organisational restructuring on the organisational behaviour in South African organisations differed to that of its foreign counterparts, which has been summarised below. Instrument transportability (in terms of the etic position) must be validated by investigating the psychometric properties of the instrument when used on a South African sample due to the country's unique history and composition in terms of the rich diversity of languages and cultures (Grobler 2017). Figure 24 is a graphic representation of the construction of the chapter.

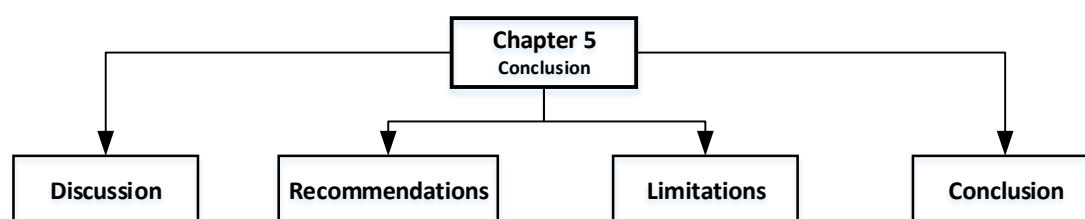


Figure 24: Graphic delineation of the chapter

The study had four main objectives. Firstly, it set out to determine whether organisational restructuring, a subset or delineation of organisational change initiatives, impacted on the organisational behaviour of employees. Secondly, the study aimed to assess whether the type and magnitude of organisational restructuring had an impact on the organisational behaviour of employees. This objective was extended to include the impact of organisational restructuring on leadership during or as a result of organisational restructuring, as well as the way in which the frequency of organisational restructuring affects the change recipients. The study's third objective was to determine whether effective change management, operationally defined to include effective change management processes, leader-member exchange

and perceived organisational support, mediated the relationship between organisational restructuring (independent variable) and organisational behaviour (dependent variable). Finally, the study aimed to assess whether the moderator, psychological capital, moderated the relationship between effective change management and organisational behaviour. The results of all four objectives were analysed and compared in terms of the three sectors studied herein, that being private sector organisations, public sector organisations and state-owned enterprises (SOEs).

This study formed part of a larger study, which included 47 participating organisations, representing the three sectors. After the data had been screened, a final data set containing 1 950 respondents was obtained, using the instrument in Annexure 1. The independent variable (organisational restructuring) was represented by three factors, namely, the type of organisational restructuring (Restructuring_Type), the change in leadership during or as a result of organisational restructuring (Restructuring_Leadership) and the frequency of organisational restructuring as experienced by employees (Restructuring_Frequency). The data was obtained using the instrument in Annexure 2. Figure 25 is a graphical presentation of the construction of the Independent variable.

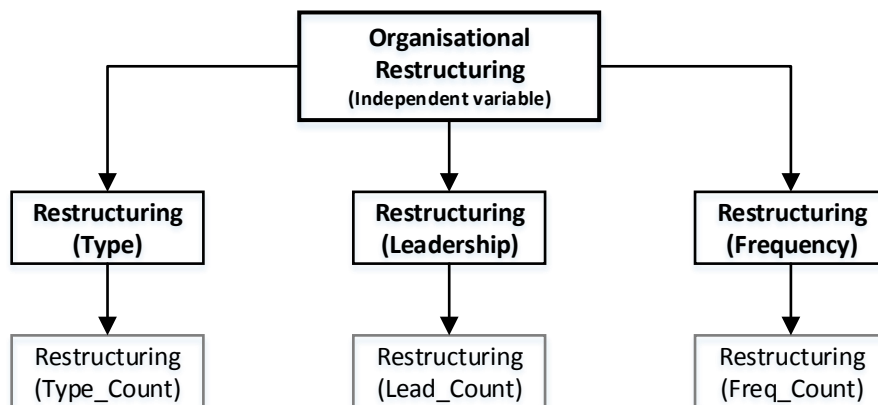


Figure 25: Independent Variable

The independent variable, consisted of descriptive statistics, which were used as categorical data and of which the responses were indexed. The independent variable and its factors were further regressed (refer to Figure

25) and used to form sub-factors, namely, Restructuring_Type_Count (number of different types of organisational restructuring), Restructuring_Leadership_Count (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring) and Restructuring_Frequency_Count (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations). These sub-factors were used to count (frequency) the responses. Effective change management, as operationally defined for the purposes of this study, was formulated as a unidimensional construct, and was comprised of (i) effective change management processes, (ii) leader-member exchange (LMX) and (iii) perceived organisational support (POS). Psychological capital, also a unidimensional construct, included its four facets, that being self-efficacy, hope, optimism and resilience.

The sample profile is representative of South Africa and its demographics and is significant in the South African context. From the 1 950 respondents, 43.00% were from the public sector, 43.70% were from the private sector and 13.30% from SOEs. It was interesting to note that 81.10% of the private organisations, 76.40% of the public organisations and 100.00% of the SOEs had recently undergone organisational change. The results obtained from the research conducted indicated that most respondents from the participating organisations had recently been exposed to an organisational restructuring or organisational change process. Some of the organisations had undergone these changes in the last five years while others may have been in the midst of it. In the case of SOEs that employ in excess of 10 000 staff members, large numbers of employees were recipients of the change processes and could ultimately have been impacted by it. The results of this study are discussed in line with the research objectives which had been formulated.

Research Objective 1: To assess whether organisational restructuring impacted on the organisational behaviour of employees and to compare the outcomes in terms of the various sectors in South Africa

An extensive literature review found evidence of the negative and sometimes even the positive impact of organisational restructuring on employees. Organisational restructuring represents a disruption to the work environment of employees and it has been shown to affect the perceived well-being of employees (Böckerman & Maliranta, 2013; Wiezer et al., 2011). Organisational restructuring has been shown to impact on employees' turnover intention, their resistance to change as well as their commitment to change. Organisational restructuring has also been shown to be a significant contributor to employees concerns about job security (Probst, 2003). The literature studied also revealed that the type, magnitude and frequency of organisational restructuring impacted on employees (Johnson, 2016; Widerszal-Bazyl & Mockała, 2015; Wiezer et al., 2011). In the majority of cases the type of restructuring led to a change of leaders in or the leadership of an organisation, and a resultant level of mistrust in the organisation or its management. The latter, in turn, had consequences for the employees and the organisation (Marais & Hofmeyr, 2013).

The results obtained from the research conducted indicated that most respondents from the participating organisations had recently been exposed to an organisational restructuring or organisational change process, or have been impacted by it in some way. The results of the overall sample investigated revealed that 81.10% (private sector) 76.40% (public sector) and 100.00% (SOEs) of the different sectors' respondents have recently undergone an organisational restructuring or change process. The results indicate also that 93.00% (private sector), 78.30% (public sector) and 100.00% (SOEs) of the different sectors' respondents have recently undergone an organisational restructuring or change process in the past five years. It showed also that 68.70% (private sector), 79.80% (public sector) and 82.30% (SOEs) of the different sectors' respondents have experienced a change of leadership or executive management at their respective organisations, during or as a result of organisational restructuring. The research results further revealed that in SOEs, 44.69% of respondents indicated that they had more than 50.00% of their executive management members replaced in the past five years, 100.00% of respondents indicated

that their entire Board of Directors had been replaced in the past five years and 82.30% of respondents (SEOs) reported that their CEO had been replaced in the last five years. These are significant totals and which indicates, in line with literature, that organisational restructuring indeed had an impact on the respondents in the respective organisations and sectors. The results further reveal that SOEs are more affected by organisational restructuring than either private sector or public sector organisations, especially in terms of the change of leaderships and the frequency at which it takes place. The study found both a large positive correlation and a statistically significant relationship between the two variables of restructuring (Type), which refers to the different types of organisational restructuring and restructuring (Type_Count), which refers to the number of different types of organisational restructuring, thus indicating that the restructuring (Type) and the number of persons (Count) affected by the restructuring were highly correlated. Given that SOEs employ more than 10 000 staff members, the impact in these organisations will have been significant. The results will be discussed in more detail in the following sections.

Research Objective 2: To determine whether the type, magnitude and frequency of organisational restructuring impacted on the organisational behaviour of employees, and to compare the outcomes in terms of the various sectors in South Africa.

The results also revealed both a large positive correlation and a statistically significant relationship was found between the two variables of restructuring (Leadership), which refers to the change in leadership during or as a result of organisational restructuring and restructuring (Leadership_Count), which refers to the number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring, thus indicating a highly significant correlation between restructuring (Leadership) and the number of persons (Count) affected by such restructuring. This indicates clearly that individuals are affected by the change of leadership due to organisational restructuring. In addition, a large positive correlation and a statistically significant relationship was found between the two variables of restructuring

(Frequency), which refers to how often (or if) the respondents (in their different sectors) have been exposed to organisational restructuring and restructuring (Frequency_Count), which refers to the number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations, thus indicating that the restructuring (Frequency) and the number of persons (Count) affected by such restructuring are highly correlated. This indicates clearly that individuals are affected by the frequency of organisational restructuring. This impacted employees across the three sectors.

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were conducted for the variables with the aim of determining the best model fit of the measurement models. Certain validity issues were raised during the EFA in respect of the variables change management processes, leader-member exchange and perceived organisational support. The validity issues were resolved after a CFA had been conducted. Descriptive statistics were provided and a comparison between the mean scores was conducted by means of an analysis of variance (ANOVA). The purpose of the analysis of variance was to compare the variance between various groups, where the variance was believed to be due to the independent variable, with the variability within each of the groups, which was believed to be due to chance. A post hoc analysis was also conducted. The next step involved assessing and reporting on the differences between the sectors, as per the each of the research objectives.

Large *F*-ratios (refer to Table 29), indicating significant variability between the groups, were found in Restructuring_Type, while Restructuring_Leadership and Restructuring_Frequency all demonstrated small to medium *F*-ratios, which is indicative of less variance between the groups. In order to corroborate these results, the effect size, indicated as eta-squared, had to be calculated as the eta-squared values are not provided by SPSS. The effect size measures the strength or the magnitude of the differences between the groups (refer to Table 30). Statistical significant results (eta-squared <.05) were obtained for the following: Restructuring_Leadership_Count (number of

times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring), effective change management, psychological capital, turnover intention, resistance to change, commitment to change, job security, leader-member exchange and perceived organisational support. No statistically significant results ($\eta^2 > .05$) were obtained for either Restructuring_Type_Count (number of different types of organisational restructuring) or Restructuring_Frequency_Count (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations). A correlation analysis was also conducted to assess the strength and direction of the relationships between the variables.

Discussion of the Results: Group Differences and Correlation Analysis

The results that follow will discuss the impact of organisational restructuring on the organisational behaviour of employees, and how these results differ and or compare in the three sectors, that being private sector organisations, public sector organisations and state-owned enterprises (SOEs).

Independent Variable (Organisational Restructuring)

Restructuring_Type_Count (number of different types of organisational restructuring): There was a statistically significant difference in the scores for the three sectors, although the actual difference in the mean scores between the groups was small. The resulting η^2 value was .18 which is considered to be a large effect size. Post hoc comparisons indicated that the mean score for private sector organisations was significantly different from that for SOEs while the mean score for public sector organisations was significantly different from those for private sector organisations and SOEs. In terms of the group differences between private sector organisations, public sector organisations and SOEs, a statistically significant difference between all the sectors was found, thus indicating that the type of restructuring impacted all sectors. The impact of the type of organisational restructuring was found to be greater on private sector organisations as compared to public sector organisations or SOEs. The results indicated that the impact of the type of organisational restructuring on employees was measurably different in the

three sectors and did not occur by chance alone. This implies that the type of organisational restructuring impacted employees in each of the sectors in different ways.

Restructuring_Leadership_Count (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring): There was a statistically significant difference in the scores for all three of the sectors although the actual difference in the mean scores between the groups was fairly small. The resulting eta-squared value is .03, which is considered to be a small effect size. Post hoc comparisons indicated that the mean score for private sector organisations was significantly different from that for SOEs while the mean score for public sector organisations was significantly different from those for private sector organisations and SOEs. In terms of the group differences between private sector organisations, public sector organisations and SOEs, no statistically significant difference was found between private sector organisations and public sector organisations, and between public sector organisations and SOEs, thus indicating that the impact of leadership change due to organisational restructuring is similar in private sector organisations and SOEs. However, the impact of a leadership change during or due to organisational restructuring had a greater impact on SOEs as compared to public and private sector organisations. The results indicated that a change in leadership due to organisational restructuring had an impact on employees and the impact was measurably different across the three sectors. This did not, however, occur by chance, thus implying that the change in leadership due to organisational restructuring impacted employees in each of the sectors in different ways.

Restructuring_Frequency_Count (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations): There was a statistically significant difference in the scores for the three sectors although the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was small. The resulting eta squared value was .06, which is considered a medium effect size. Post hoc comparisons indicated that the mean score for private sector organisations was significantly different from that for SOEs while the mean

score for public sector organisations was significantly different from those for both private sector organisations and SOEs. In terms of the group differences between private sector organisations, public sector organisations and SOEs, a statistically significant difference between all sectors was found, indicating that the frequency of restructuring impacted employees of all sectors. The impact of the frequency of organisational restructuring was greater on SOEs as compared to either public or private organisations. The results indicated that the frequency of organisational restructuring, as experienced by employees, impacted on them and the impact was measurably different across the three sectors. This did not, however, occur by chance, thus implying that the frequency of organisational restructuring impacted employees in each of the sectors in different ways.

Mediator (Effective Change Management)

Change management processes: There was a statistically significant difference in the scores for all three sectors, although the actual difference in the mean scores between the groups was small. The resulting eta squared value was .01, which is considered a small effect size. Post hoc comparisons indicated that the mean score for private sector organisations was significantly different from those for SOEs while the mean score for public sector organisations was significantly different from those for private sector organisations and SOEs. In terms of the group differences between private sector organisations, public sector organisations and SOEs, a statistically significant difference between all three of the sectors was found, thus indicating that the implementation of change management processes during organisational restructuring had a positive impact on employees of all sectors. The impact of change management processes, as a factor of effective change management, during organisational restructuring, had a greater impact on SOEs as compared to either public or private sectors organisations. The implementation of effective change management during organisational restructuring processes could benefit this sector, especially given the impact of organisational restructuring in this sector, as already demonstrated herein. The results indicated that the implementation of effective change management processes during organisational restructuring produced

measurably different results across the three sectors. This did not, however, occur by chance, thus implying that the implementation of effective change management processes during organisational restructuring impacted employees in each of the sectors in different ways.

Leader-member exchange: There was a statistically significant difference in the scores for all three sectors, although the actual difference in the mean scores between the groups was small. The resulting eta squared value was .02, which is considered to be a small effect size. Post hoc comparisons indicated that the mean score for private sector organisations was significantly different from that for SOEs while the mean score for public sector organisations was significantly different as compared to those of private sector organisations and SOEs. In terms of the group differences between private sector organisations, public sector organisations and SOEs, a statistically significant difference was found between private sector organisations and SOEs, and between SOEs and public sector organisations, thus indicating no statistically significant difference in terms of leader-member exchange, between private sector organisations and public sector organisations. However, the impact of leader-member exchange as a factor of effective change management during organisational restructuring had a greater impact on SOEs as compared to either public sector organisations or private sector organisations. The results indicated that leader-member exchange contributed measurably to the way in which employees were impacted upon by organisational restructuring. This did not, however, occur by chance, thus implying that leader-member exchange contributed in a significantly different way to how employees from the three different sectors experienced organisational restructuring.

Perceived organisational support: There was a statistically significant difference in the scores for three sectors, although the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was small. The resulting eta squared value was .02, which is considered a small effect size. Post hoc comparisons indicated that the mean score for private sector organisations was significantly different from that for SOEs while the mean score for public sector

organisations was significantly different from that for private sector organisations and SOEs. In terms of the group differences between the private sector organisations, public sector organisations and SOEs, a statistically significant difference was found between private sector organisations and public sector organisations, and between public sector organisations and SOEs, thus indicating no statistically significant difference between private sector organisations and SOEs in the role played by perceived organisational support. However, the impact of perceived organisational support, as a factor of effective change management during organisational restructuring, had a greater impact on employees in SOEs as compared to either public sector or private sector organisations. The results indicated that perceived organisational support contributed measurably to the way in which employees were impacted upon by organisational restructuring. This did not, however, occur by chance, thus implying that perceived organisational support contributed in a significantly different way to how employees from the three different sectors experienced organisational restructuring.

Dependent Variable (Organisational Behaviour)

Turnover intention: There was a statistically significant difference in the scores for the three sectors, although the actual difference in the mean scores between the groups was small. The resulting eta squared value was .00, which is considered a zero effect size. Post hoc comparisons indicated that the mean score for private sector organisations was significantly different within the group, but not with the other sectors, while SOEs and public sector organisations did not differ significantly from each other. It would appear that these groups were similar in terms of turnover intention. In terms of the group differences between private sector organisations, public sector organisations and SOEs, a statistically significant difference between private sector organisations and public sector organisations was found, thus indicating no statistically significant difference in terms of turnover intention, between private sector organisations and SOEs and between public sector organisations and SOEs. The impact of turnover intention on employees

during organisational restructuring was greater in SOEs than in either public sector or private sectors organisations. The results indicated that the employees' turnover intention was a consequence of the organisational restructuring, and that the difference in the way in which employees were affected was measurable across the three sectors. Although this did not occur by chance, it implies that the employees' turnover intention was similar across the three sectors.

Resistance to change: There was a statistically significant difference in the scores for the three sectors, although the actual difference in the mean scores between the groups was small. The resulting eta squared value was .02, which was considered a small effect size. Post hoc comparisons indicated that the mean score for private sector organisations was significantly different from that for SOEs while the mean score for public sector organisations was significantly different from those for private sector organisations and SOEs. In terms of the group differences between the private sector organisations, public sector organisations and SOEs, a statistically significant difference was found between private sector organisations and public sector organisations, and between public sector organisations and SOEs, thus indicating no statistically significant difference in terms of resistance to change, between private sector organisations and SOEs. In addition, the impact of resistance to change during organisational restructuring was greater on private organisations as compared to either SOEs or public organisations. The results indicated that employees' resistance to change due to organisational restructuring were measurably different across the three sectors. This did not, however, occur by chance, thus implying that the employees' resistance to change differed in each of the sectors.

Commitment to change: There was no statistically significant difference in the scores for the three sectors while the low *F*-ratio indicated low variance between the groups. Although statistical significance was not reached, the actual difference in the mean scores between the groups were still fairly small. The resulting eta squared value was .00, which is considered a zero effect size. Post hoc comparisons indicated that the mean score for private sector

organisations was not significantly different from that for SOEs while the mean score for public sector organisations was not significantly different from those for private sector organisations or for SOEs. In terms of the group differences between private sector organisations, public sector organisations and SOEs, a statistically significant difference between private sector organisations and state-owned was found, thus indicating no statistically significant difference in terms of commitment to change, between private sector organisations and public sector organisations and between public sector organisations and SOEs. The results indicated that employees' commitment to change during organisational restructuring processes did not contribute measurable differences to the way in which employees were impacted upon by organisational restructuring processes across the three sectors. However, the impact of commitment to change during organisational restructuring was greater on employees in SOEs as compared to those in public and private sector organisations. There was no statistically significant difference between the groups. The results indicated that employees' commitment to change during organisational restructuring did not contribute to any measurable differences in the way in which employees were impacted upon by organisational restructuring across the three sectors. This implied that employees' commitment to change contributed differently to the way in which they were impacted upon by organisational restructuring in each of the sectors.

Job security: There was a statistically significant difference in the scores for the three sectors, although the actual difference in the mean scores between the groups was small. The resulting eta squared value was .02, which is considered a small effect size. Post hoc comparisons indicated that the mean score for private sector organisations was significantly different from that for SOEs while the mean score for public sector organisations was significantly different from those for private sector organisations and SOEs. In terms of the group differences between private sector organisations, public sector organisations and SOEs, a statistically significant difference was found between private sector organisations and public sector organisations, and between public sector organisations and SOEs, thus indicating no statistically

significant difference in terms of job security between private sector organisations and SOEs. The impact of job security during organisational restructuring was greater on employees in public organisations than on those in either SOEs or private organisations. The results indicated that organisational restructuring contributed measurable differences to the way in which employees' job security was affected across the sectors. This did not, however, occur by chance, thus implying that organisational restructuring impacted measurably on the employees' job security across the sectors.

Moderator

Psychological capital: There was a statistically significant difference in the scores for the three sectors, although the actual difference in the mean scores between the groups was small. The resulting eta squared value was .01, which is considered a small effect size. Post hoc comparisons indicated that the mean score for private sector organisations was significantly different from that for public sector organisations although the mean score for SOEs did not differ significantly from that for either private sector or public sector organisations. In terms of the group differences between private sector organisations, public sector organisations and SOEs, a statistically significant difference between private sector organisations and public sector organisations was found, thus indicating no statistical significance in terms of the availability of the employees' psychological capital between those in private sector organisations and SOEs and between those in public sector organisations and SOEs. The impact of psychological capital during organisational restructuring was greater on employees in public sector organisations than on those in either SOEs or private sector organisations. The results indicated that, during organisational restructuring, psychological capital contributed to the measurable differences in the way in which employees were impacted upon by organisational restructuring across the three sectors. This did not, however, occur by chance, thus implying that employees' psychological capital contributed in different ways to how they were impacted upon by organisational restructuring in each of the sectors.

Relationship between Organisational Restructuring (IV) and Organisational Behaviour (DV) - (n = 1 950)

There were positive correlations between Restructuring_Type_Count (number of different types of organisational restructuring) and both commitment to change and job security but negative correlations between Restructuring_Type_Count and turnover intention and resistance to change. Restructuring_Leadership_Count (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring) demonstrated positive correlations with resistance to change and commitment to change but negative correlations with turnover intention and job security. Despite the fact that there was no correlation between Restructuring_Frequency_Count (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations) and turnover intention, positive correlations were found between Restructuring_Frequency_Count and both resistance to change and commitment to change but a negative correlation with job security was found.

Restructuring_Type_Count correlated negatively with turnover intention, implying that an increase in the types of restructuring does not increase turnover intention. Due to the relationship being statistically significant, the restructuring type impacted on the turnover intention of employees. Restructuring_Type_Count correlated negatively with the change of leadership (Restructuring_Leadership_Count) during change or in terms of the frequency (Restructuring_Frequency_Count) of the change, with both relationships not manifesting any statistical significance.

Restructuring_Type_Count correlated negatively with resistance to change, implying that an increase in the types of restructuring did not increase employee resistance to change. The relationship was not statistically significant. Restructuring_Leadership_Count correlated positively with resistance to change, thus implying that an increase in the change of leadership during organisational restructuring result in an increase in employee resistance to change. Restructuring_Frequency_Count correlated positively with resistance to change, but the relationship was not statistically

significant. This implied that an increase in the frequency of restructuring processes will result in an increase in employees' resistance to change, such as, an increase in cynicism due to the ongoing exposure to organisational restructuring processes.

Restructuring_Type_Count correlated positively with commitment to change, thus implying that an increase in the different types of restructuring may increase employee commitment to change. This may be as a result of the positive contributions in terms of extra role behaviours, such as organisational commitment or commitment to change, witnessed or experienced during the restructuring process. It may also be attributed to effective change management processes, such as organisational support mechanisms or effective, accurate and timely communication about the restructuring. The relationship was not statistically significant. Restructuring_Leadership_Count correlated positively with resistance to change, thus implying that an increase in the change of leadership during change will result in an increase in employee resistance to change. Restructuring_Frequency_Count correlated positively with resistance to change although the relationship was not statistically significant. This implies that an increase in the frequency of restructuring processes will result in an increase in employee resistance to change, although this may be by chance and not because of factors directly impacting on employees' resistance to change. Resistance to change may also be due to an increase in cynicism related to the ongoing exposure to organisational restructuring processes.

The results indicated that the type of restructuring had a direct impact on the employees' level of job security. This was in line with findings of previous research, such as that of Widerszal-Bazyl and Mockała (2015). The negative correlation between the change in leadership as a result of restructuring and job security may be regarded as a positive outcome as employees may gain job security as a result of new leaders being appointed or assigned. At the same time, the frequency of organisational restructuring processes increased employee job insecurity. This finding was also in line with previous research findings.

Relationship between Organisational Restructuring (IV) and Effective Change Management (Mediator) – (n = 1 950)

Restructuring_Type_Count (number of different types of organisational restructuring) showed positive correlations with change management processes and perceived organisational support but a negative correlation with leader-member exchange. Restructuring_Leadership_Count (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring) showed a positive correlation with leader-member exchange but negative correlations with change management processes and perceived organisational support. In addition, Restructuring_Frequency_Count (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations) showed negative correlations with change management processes, leader-member exchange and perceived organisational support.

It is, therefore, possible that the type of restructuring processes may determine the change management processes required, for example, during mergers and or acquisitions and organisational restructuring processes in large organisations. It is essential that the frequency at which change has been experienced by employees be taken into account when deciding on the appropriate change management processes, as this will assist both the restructuring processes and the change recipients.

It is possible that the negative correlation between leader-member exchange and Restructuring_Type_Count may be the result of a lack or decline in leadership, and that the positive relationship between leader-member exchange and the change in leadership (during or as a result of the restructuring process) may be the result of the forging of new relationships and an increase in trust in management. Again, the negative correlation between leader-member exchange and the frequency of restructuring as experienced may be attributed to a decrease in the trust in management.

The positive relationships between the perceived organisational support and Restructuring_Type_Count indicated that perceived organisational support

attenuates the effects of organisational restructuring, despite the type of restructuring process. The negative correlation between perceived organisational support and the change in leadership during organisational restructuring processes will have adverse effects on the recipients of the change. As employees are exposed to more restructuring processes, they may perceive a decrease in support from the organisation, although this may be no more than mere perception.

Relationship between Effective Change Management (Mediator) and Organisational Behaviour (DV) – (n = 1 950)

Effective change management processes showed negative correlations with turnover intention, resistance to change, commitment to change and job security. This proves that the implementation of effective change management processes, will result in a decrease of turnover intention, reduced levels of resistance to change, but could result in reduced commitment to change and job security. These relationships were all statistically significant. Leader-member exchange showed a positive correlation with commitment to change and job security but negative correlations with turnover intention and resistance to change. These relationships were all statistically significant. Commitment to change and job security, are simultaneously increased with the inclusion of leader-member exchange, but which could increase resistance to change and turnover intention. Perceived organisational support showed a positive correlation with job security but no correlation with commitment to change although it had negative correlations with turnover intention and resistance to change. These relationships were all statistically significant. The unidimensional construct and its individual factors, as can be seen from the results, are complimentary and it is recommended that these be used as a unidimensional construct to attenuate the negative correlations.

Relationship between Psychological Capital (Moderator) and Effective Change Management (Mediator) – (n = 1 950)

Psychological capital showed positive correlations with effective change management processes, leader-member exchange and perceived

organisational support. The relationships were all statistically significant. The positive correlations between psychological capital and effective change management (effective change management processes, leader-member exchange and perceived organisational support) and the fact that all the relationships were significant highlighted the importance of the role played by psychological capital and effective change management during organisational restructuring. It is clear that both psychological capital and effective change management are essential for successful organisational restructuring processes and for attenuating the impact of organisational restructuring on the organisational behaviour of employees across sectors.

Relationship between Psychological Capital (Moderator) and Organisational Behaviour (Dependent Variable)

Psychological capital showed positive correlations with both commitment to change and job security but negative correlations with turnover intention and resistance to change. The relationships were all statistically significant. The negative correlations between psychological capital and turnover intention and between psychological capital and resistance to change, although small, indicated that employees high in psychological capital cope better during organisational restructuring processes, and which is in line with literature. Here the negative correlations indicated that the lower employees' levels of psychological capital, the higher their turnover intention and their resistance to change. The positive correlations between psychological capital and employee commitment to change and between psychological capital and the employees' sense of job security was indicative of the way in which high levels of psychological capital may contribute to employees' ability to cope with organisational change processes.

Research Objective 3: To determine whether effective change management mediated the relationship between the organisational restructuring and organisational behaviour, and to compare in terms of the various South African sectors.

Mediation (by means of the indirect effect) was determined between Restructuring_Type_Count (number of different types of organisational restructuring) and commitment to change, and between Restructuring_Type_Count and job security. The indirect effect was $-.01$ and $.02$ respectively, thus indicating a reduction in the total effect. Due to there being no reduction in the total effect, mediation was not confirmed between Restructuring_Type_Count and turnover intention and between Restructuring_Type_Count and resistance to change. The indirect effect was $-.03$ and $-.01$ respectively.

Mediation was determined between Restructuring_Leadership_Count and all four of the organisational behaviour constructs, namely, turnover intention, resistance to change, commitment to change, and job security. In all cases a reduction in the total effect was observed.

Due to there being no reduction in the total effect, mediation was not determined between Restructuring_Frequency_Count (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations) and all four of the organisational behaviour constructs, namely, turnover intention, resistance to change, commitment to change and job security.

Mediation between one of the factors (Restructuring_Frequency_Count) of the independent variable and the dependent variable was not confirmed, although mediation was confirmed in two of the three factors, that being Restructuring_Type_Count and Restructuring_Leadership_Count. It was, therefore, concluded that effective change management mediated the relationship between organisational restructuring and organisational behaviour. The results are applicable across the sectors.

Research Objective 4: To determine whether an individual's psychological capital moderated the relationship between effective change management and organisational behaviour, and to compare the outcomes in terms of the various South African sectors.

The relationships between effective change management and organisational behaviour were assessed. It was confirmed that psychological capital moderates the relationship between effective change management, namely, effective change management processes, leader-member exchange and perceived organisational support, and turnover intention. Psychological capital was found to moderate the relationship between effective change management processes and resistance to change, but not between leader-member exchange and resistance to change, and perceived organisational support and resistance to change. Psychological capital was found to moderate the relationship between effective change management processes and commitment to change, but not between leader-member exchange and resistance to change, and perceived organisational support and resistance to change. Psychological capital was also found to moderate the relationship between effective change management processes, leader-member exchange and perceived organisational support, and commitment to change. In addition, psychological capital was found to moderate the relationship between effective change management processes and resistance to change, but not between leader-member exchange and resistance to change, and perceived organisational support and resistance to change. A more detailed analysis is provided below.

Psychological capital was found to moderate the relationship between effective change management (Effective change management processes, leader-member exchange, and perceived organisational support and organisational behaviour (turnover intention) through the impact of organisational restructuring on organisational behaviour, at values of the moderator. The confidence interval did not straddle zero and, according to the Johnson-Neyman technique, no statistically significant transition points were determined for effective change management processes and perceived organisational support. For leader-member exchange, the confidence interval did not straddle zero and the region of significance, according to the Johnson-Neyman technique, was determined at 1.74.

Psychological capital was found to moderate the relationship between effective change management (all three factors of the unidimensional construct) and organisational behaviour (resistance to change) through the impact of organisational restructuring on the organisational behaviour of employees, at values of the moderator. The confidence interval straddled zero and the region of significance, according to the Johnson-Neyman technique, was determined at 4.33 (effective change management processes). The confidence interval did straddle zero (leader-member exchange and perceived organisational support) and no statistically significant transition points, according to the Johnson-Neyman technique, were determined.

Psychological capital was found to moderate the relationship between effective change management (all three factors of the unidimensional construct) and organisational behaviour (commitment to change) through the impact of organisational restructuring on the organisational behaviour of employees, at values of the moderator (*M*). The confidence interval (effective change management processes) straddled zero while the region of significance, according to the Johnson-Neyman technique, was determined at 2.49 and 4.55. The confidence interval (leader-member exchange) straddled zero and the region of significance, according to the Johnson-Neyman technique, was determined at 5.13 and 4.01. The confidence interval (perceived organisational support) straddled zero and the region of significance, according to the Johnson-Neyman technique, was determined at 4.10.

Psychological capital was found to moderate the relationship between effective change management (all three factors of the unidimensional construct) and organisational behaviour (job security) through the impact of organisational restructuring on the organisational behaviour of employees, at values of the moderator. The interaction term was not significant. The confidence interval did not straddle zero and no statistically significant transition points, according to the Johnson-Neyman technique, were determined. The confidence interval (leader-member exchange) straddled zero and the region of significance, according to the Johnson-Neyman

technique, was determined at 5.83 and 3.15. The confidence interval (perceived organisational support) straddled zero and the region of significance according to the Johnson-Neyman technique, was determined at 1.56.

Mediated Moderation Model

In confirming both mediation and moderation independently, *mediated moderation* was also confirmed (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017). The results provided above, confirmed that effective change management mediated the relationship between organisational restructuring (independent variable) and organisational behaviour (dependent variable). It was also confirmed that psychological capital moderated the relationship between effective change management and the organisational behaviour of employees,

The results obtained through an analysis of the descriptive statistics yielded by the independent variable showed significant correlations in the relationships between organisational restructuring and organisational behaviour. Of significance was the comparison of the results within the three groups, but also across the three sectors.

The results indicated that the type of organisational restructuring impacted on employees across the various sectors. The results were statistically significant and indicated that employees across the sectors are not all impacted upon in the same way. This may be a result of the size and scope of the organisation in question or the type of organisational restructuring process implemented. The results indicated that organisational restructuring often resulted in a change of leadership which in turn affected the employees. Employees who had experienced organisational restructuring more frequently than other employees were also impacted upon by such restructuring. Both effective change management and psychological capital played significant roles in how staff members experience organisational restructuring, which provided the necessary evidence of the mediating and moderating roles of effective change

management and psychological capital, respectively, in attenuating the impact of organisational restructuring on the organisational behaviour of employees.

Turnover intention, resistance to change and job security all demonstrated statistically significant differences, indicating measurable differences in relation to the way in which staff members experienced organisational restructuring and how they reacted to it. With the exception of commitment to change, which showed no statistical significant difference, indicating that staff across the sectors did not necessarily attach value to the organisational change and, therefore, found no reason to commit to it.

The relationships between Restructuring_Type_Count (number of different types of organisational restructuring) and Restructuring_Frequency_Count (number of times individuals were exposed to organisational restructuring in their respective organisations) and change management processes were not statistically significant, although the relationship between Restructuring_Leadership_Count (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring) and change management processes was statistically significant. The relationships between the three sub-factors of organisational restructuring were not statistically significant with leader-member exchange. Restructuring_Type_Count and Restructuring_Leadership_Count had statistically significant relationships with perceived organisational support although Restructuring_Leadership_Count had a non-statistically significant relationship with leader-member exchange.

The negative correlation between effective change management processes and turnover intention and between effective change management and job security highlights the importance of managing organisational restructuring processes in an effective way. The negative correlation indicated that ineffective change management contributes to employees' intentions to quit and increases their job insecurity as did the negative correlations between effective change management processes and resistance to change, and between effective change management processes and employee commitment

to change. These findings highlight the importance of effective change management in assisting employees to accept and commit to the change, thereby managing and reducing resistance to change. The negative correlation between leader-member exchange and turnover intention and between leader-member exchange and employees' resistance to change highlighted the importance of effective leader-follower relationships during organisational restructuring processes, but also in general. This finding indicated that leader-member exchange is able to contribute towards reducing employee intentions to quit and also to reducing employee resistance to organisational restructuring. The positive correlations between leader-member exchange and employee commitment to change and between leader-member exchange and job security were indicative of the importance of leader-member exchange in its positive contribution during organisational restructuring.

The net effect of organisational restructuring, as experienced in this study and in the South African context, revealed that organisational restructuring does, indeed, impact on the organisational behaviour of employees, and the impact has been seen to impact employees across the three sectors. The type and magnitude of the organisational restructuring processes impacted on the organisational behaviour of employees while organisational restructuring also affects organisational leaders and organisational leadership. The frequency of organisational restructuring, and in particular, prolonged restructuring, adversely affect employees. Organisational restructuring impacted on employees in private and public sector organisations and also in SOEs but it affects them all in different ways. This may be a result of the type of restructuring or the size of the organisation. Dyadic and leader-follower relationships play an extremely important role in fostering commitment to the change projects but also in reducing resistance to change.

Effective change management and psychological capital are vital during times of organisational change and/or organisational restructuring. It has also been shown herein, and with the results as evidence, that the implementation of effective change management as the unidimensional construct as defined in

this study, will contribute positively towards employees being more acceptant of organisational restructuring initiatives. Employees high(er) in psychological capital, coupled with the inclusions and implementation of effective change management, will result in organisational restructuring being better received and ultimately better implemented. It has also shown that increased levels of psychological capital, coupled with the inclusion and implementation of effective change management, were able to attenuate the impact of organisational restructuring on the organisational behaviour of employees, across the three sectors.

1.2 Limitations of the Research

The aim of this study was to determine the impact of organisational restructuring on a range of employee behavioural outcomes and attitudes within public and private sector organisations, as well as in state-owned enterprises (SOEs). These have now been proved by means of this study in the previous sections.

The limitations of the study arose from the cross sectional design, as well as the self-report measures that may have skewed responses (response bias), especially in respect of answering delicate items, such as perceptions of leadership behaviour. A further limitation was related to common source bias.

A significant amount of time is required to operationalise and realise the constructs of effective change management and, especially, the effective change management processes, leader-member exchange and perceived organisational support. In addition, it takes time to develop and time to foster relationships in respect of leader-member exchange. It is possible that the cross-sectional design of the study did not do full justice to the constructs, not due to any shortcomings of the study, but due the nature of cross-sectional designed studies. The same applies to psychological capital, as significant amounts of time are required to realise this construct. The study showed that both effective change management and psychological capital contributed to attenuating the impact of organisational restructuring. It may, thus, be of value

if future studies on this same theme were conducted, but as longitudinal studies and with the specific aim of assessing the mediating and or moderating roles of effective change management and psychological capital during organisational restructuring programmes over time. This would allow future researchers to identify a baseline and to ascertain more accurately how the abovementioned constructs may contribute to mitigating the effects, in particular, the negative effects of organisational restructuring on employees.

The data highlighted instances where psychological capital did not moderate the relationship between leader-member exchange and perceived organisational support. This may have been a result of the time required to fully grow and develop these relationships. The fact that especially the SOEs, which employs large numbers of employees, had significant exposure to organisational restructuring processes and changes in their leadership, management and executive leadership, and with a large number of the respondents being part of management, may also have had an impact on the responses. It may also have been that several of the respondents themselves were new to the respective organisation and, thus, did not possess the necessary institutional knowledge and institutional memory to accurately communicate their opinions. In fact, it was not impossible that many of the aforementioned respondents had been the initiators and implementers of the organisational restructuring programmes themselves, given the large percentage of respondents (private sector: 25.10%, public sector: 38.40% and SOEs: 43.10%) being part of their organisations' current management structures. It would, be beneficial to repeat this study with employees at different levels, but in the same organisations that participated in this study. The study could also be repeated in different organisations and within individual organisations.

1.3 Recommendations

Organisational restructuring is ubiquitous and it is not likely that the frequency of the restructuring processes will decline at any time, if at all. In fact,

dynamics such as artificial intelligence and globalisation are more likely to contribute to an increase in the number of organisational restructuring programmes, irrespective of the process employed. Given the above, the study offers certain recommendations based on the analysis of the data collected.

The sample was a fairly large sample. Of the anticipated 2820 respondents, 1950 (69.14%) could be used for the purposes of the study. SOEs, in cases in which staff totals in the organisation exceeded 10 000 staff members, represented a large portion of the total sample. SOEs, according to the data collected, employ large numbers of staff at a given time. The data also indicated that, at the time of the study, all the SOEs that had participated in this study, had recently undergone some form of organisational change or restructuring, all (100.00%) had undergone organisational change or restructuring in the previous five years, 82.30% had recently changed their management or leadership, 44.00% had changed more than 50.00% of their executive leadership, all (100.00%) had changed their board of directors in the past five years and 82.30% had changed their chief executive officer (CEO). This highlights the number of staff members, in view of the size of SOEs, who have been exposed, and fairly frequently so, to organisational restructuring. This was also evident in the post hoc analysis that indicated that, in the main, SOEs are significantly affected by leadership change during or as a result of organisational restructuring, as well as the frequency with which organisational restructuring takes place.

The post hoc analysis and the data also highlighted that organisational restructuring in SOEs has a direct impact on the turnover intention of employees and their commitment to change, possibly as a result of the leadership change and the frequency of the organisational restructuring. The data also clearly showed that effective change management (including the individual factors of effective change management processes, leader-member exchange and perceived organisational support) had the greatest impact on SOEs. This implies that the successful implementation of effective change

management in SOEs may contribute to attenuating the impact of organisational restructuring processes in these large organisations.

Recommendation 1: It is recommended that the leadership (management) of SOEs take note both of the impact of organisational restructuring processes on organisations and also of the way in which the SOEs in this study had been impacted upon by these processes. It is, thus, recommended that the management of SOEs should implement effective change management, as defined in this study, as a way of attenuating the impact of organisational restructuring processes. The data showed that effective change management mediated the relationship between Restructuring_Lead_Count (number of times leadership changed or a change in leadership was experienced during or as a result of restructuring) and organisational behaviour (turnover intention, resistance to change, commitment to change and job security) in South African organisations, in the different sectors. Therefore, when implementing organisational restructuring initiatives, it is recommended that the existing organisational leadership be retained for the duration of the restructuring process, but also that staff at all levels of the organisation be included, from the advent of the initiative. It will allow for employee involvement during the organisational restructuring process and provide for continuity in the event of a leadership change.

Recommendation 2: The study also found that the type of organisational restructuring affects staff in all sectors. It was also found that effective change management mediated the relationship between the type of restructuring and the employees' commitment to change and their perception of job security. It was found that the type of restructuring did not impact on the employees' turnover intention and their resistance to change. Mediation by means of effective change management between organisational restructuring (frequency of the change) and organisational behaviour (turnover intention, resistance to change, commitment to change and job security) could not be demonstrated. However, it is recommended that the organisational leaders carefully select the type of organisational restructuring process to be implemented, especially in SOEs where large numbers of staff are affected,

but also in public and private organisations. It is also recommended that organisations limit the number of restructuring processes within the organisation or, at least, ensure that such processes are completed within the shortest possible time. Given the size and scope of some of the organisations and especially the SOEs, it is recommended that proper planning of organisational restructuring take place, and that these be implemented and piloted in phases, preferably within functional or operational departments.

Recommendation 3: This study has shown that effective change management was able to mediate the impact of organisational restructuring on the organisational behaviour of employees, and in the various sectors. Effective change management was operationally defined to include effective change management processes, leader-member exchange and perceived organisational support. Effective change management processes include effective communication, participative leadership and employee involvement during organisational change and organisational restructuring programmes. It emerged from the sample used in this study that 43.10% of the SOEs respondents and 38.40% of the public sector organisations respondents that participated in this study, already occupied roles in the management of these organisations. Accordingly, it is highly recommended that organisational leaders leverage current members of management to clearly communicate the organisation's intentions to staff members at all levels. It is also recommended that organisational leaders forge more meaningful dyadic relationships with staff members and that more concerted efforts are made to support employees during organisational restructuring and change processes.

Recommendation 4: Since the organisations that participated varied in size, from small organisations to very large organisations, the study could be repeated in several different ways. It would be beneficial to survey the departments and/or directorates within large organisations and compare the results within the organisation, thereby assessing whether and how a particular organisation's employees had been affected by organisational restructuring. This would provide useful information to organisational leaders and the management of large organisations, in particular, on the type of

organisational restructuring which should be implemented, as well as the efficacy of effective change management during organisational restructuring. The study could also be repeated within different branches of the same organisation, especially if such an organisation were a national organisation, such as large private sector organisations but, especially, public organisations. This may highlight the impact of organisational restructuring on the organisational behaviour of employees within different sections of the same organisation, or the same organisation in different provinces, or the same organisation but consisting of branches or regional offices of different scopes and sizes.

Recommendation 5: It is recommended that the study also be repeated, especially in the South African context, with the sole focus on the impact of organisational restructuring and the attenuating effect of effective change management only. In addition, it could also be repeated, especially in the South African context, with a focus on the impact of organisational restructuring and the attenuating effect of psychological capital during organisational restructuring processes only. There are other opportunities to highlight the importance of dyadic relationships during organisational change or the importance of employee perceptions of their organisation's support during change processes. It makes provision to assess the efficacy of effective and high-quality communication during organisational change – within a single organisation, a large organisation or a national or public organisation.

Recommendation 6: The study found that psychological capital (consisting of hope, optimism, resilience and efficacy) moderated the relationship between effective change management and organisational behaviour (turnover intention, resistance to change, commitment to change and job security). The impact of psychological capital was greatest in public sector organisations, as indicated by the data obtained from the post hoc tests. Hope and optimism are the only future-based facets of psychological capital that can be proactively utilised for the efficient and effective implementation of organisational restructuring initiatives. It is, therefore, recommended, that

human resource practitioners and organisational leaders implement structured programmes that will assist their employees to increase their psychological capital, and leverage the potential of hope and optimism, especially in the South African context, as it has been found that psychological capital assists employees to cope with change, including organisational change and organisational restructuring. Increased levels of psychological capital coupled with effective change management during organisational restructuring, have been shown herein, to attenuate the impact of organisational restructuring.

1.4 Conclusion

The study has achieved exactly what it set out to do, as expressed in the four research objectives. It provided evidence, in line with existing literature (Widerszal-Bazyl & Mockało, 2015; Wiezer, et al., 2011), that organisational restructuring does, indeed, impact the organisational behaviour of employees. The type, change in leadership and frequency of organisational restructuring, has been shown in this study to affect employees' organisational behaviour across the three sectors, that being private sector organisations, public sector organisations and state-owned enterprises (SOEs). The study also successfully assessed the mediating role of effective change management during organisational restructuring processes, as well as the value added by individuals' psychological capital, coupled with the implementation of effective change management, to assist and attenuate the impact of organisational restructuring on employees' organisational behaviour, all while comparing the results between that of the different sectors. Strong relationships and correlations were identified between the majority of the variables in the context of this study. However, there remains much work to be done. It is hoped and recommended that this study may be applied in several formats and in various organisations to assist employees to cope with the inevitability of organisational change processes, and that organisational leaders, change leaders and practitioners optimally utilise the findings of this study.

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Annexure 1: First Instrument

Q(i) Perceived outcomes of restructuring (Outres)

No	Yes (significantly got worse)	Yes (slightly worse)	Yes (no worse, no better)	Yes (a bit; got better)	Yes (significantly got better)
0	1	2	3	4	5

What have been changed as a consequence of the above-mentioned organisational change?

- 1 Your tasks at work. _____
- 2 Your superior / supervisor or immediate line manager. _____
- 3 Your working team. _____
- 4 Quantity of work. _____
- 5 Risk of job loss. _____
- 6 Conditions of employment. _____
- 7 Your salary / fringe benefits. _____

Q1 – Effective Change Management

Q1.1 Communication during Restructuring (Commres)

Very poorly	Rather poorly	Neither poorly or well	Rather well	Very well
1	2	3	4	5

Management has:

- 1 Informed clearly about the goals of the change _____
- 2 Informed about the current state of change progress _____
- 3 Made sure that there are sufficient change support services for whole personnel _____
- 4 Actively solved problems that have emerged during change process _____

My immediate line manager has:

- 5 Informed clearly about the goals of the change _____
- 6 Informed about the current state of change progress _____
- 7 Clarified new roles for subordinates _____

Abbreviation	Construct	Items
Commres_man	Communication by management during restructuring	1 - 4
Commres_line	Communication by line management during restructuring	5 - 7

Q1.2 Employee Involvement in Restructuring (Involres)

Strongly disagree	Rather disagree	Somewhat disagree/ somewhat agree	Rather agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

Employees' Involvement:

1 I was involved in the design of the change _____

2 I had opportunity to give my views about the change before it was implemented _____

3 Management has made a great effort to involve employees in the change process _____

Q1.3 Trust in Management during restructuring (Trustres)

Strongly disagree	Rather disagree	Somewhat disagree/ somewhat agree	Rather agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

Trust in Management:

1 There was a feeling that the leader of this change knows what he or she is doing _____

2 Overall, there was the feeling that you can count on the organisation's management _____

3 I believed that if managers is suggesting this change, they are well informed and have good reasons for it _____

Q3: Psychological Capital (Adjusted)

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

Question

Answer

1 I feel confident analysing a long-term problem to find a

	solution.	_____
2	I feel confident in representing my work area in meetings with management.	_____
3	I feel confident contributing to discussions about the company's strategy.	_____
4	I feel confident helping to set targets/goals in my work area.	_____
5	I feel confident contacting people outside the company (e.g., suppliers, customers) to discuss problems.	_____
6	I feel confident presenting information to a group of colleagues.	_____
7	If I should find myself in a jam at work, I could think of many ways to get out of it.	_____
8	At the present time, I am energetically pursuing my work goals.	_____
9	There are lots of ways around any problem.	_____
10	Right now I see myself as being pretty successful at work.	_____
11	I can think of many ways to reach my current work goals.	_____
12	At this time, I am meeting the work goals that I have set for myself.	_____
13	When I have a setback at work, I have no trouble recovering from it, moving on.	_____
14	I usually manage difficulties one way or another at work.	_____
15	I can be "on my own," so to speak, at work if I have to.	_____
16	I usually take stressful things at work in stride.	_____
17	I can get through difficult times at work because I've experienced difficulty before.	_____
18	I feel I can handle many things at a time at this job.	_____
19	When things are uncertain for me at work, I usually expect the best.	_____
20	I believe that everything at work will work out for me.	_____
21	I always look on the bright side of things regarding my job.	_____
22	I'm optimistic about what will happen to me in the future as it pertains to work.	_____
23	In this job, things work out the way I want them to.	_____
24	I approach this job as if "every cloud has a silver lining."	_____

Abbreviation	Construct	Items
PCse	Self-efficacy	1 - 6
PCh	Hope	7 - 12
PCr	Resilience	13 - 18
PCo	Optimism	19 - 24
Rephrased items from the original instrument (changed to positive items)		13; 20 and 23

Q4 : LMX

For questions 1 to 12, think about your typical actions and rate your level of agreement with how each statement below applies to your behavior. Use the following scale to indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with each statement.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree/Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

1 I like my supervisor very much as a person _____

2 My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend. _____

3 My supervisor is a lot of fun to work with. _____

4 My supervisor defends my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question. _____

5 My supervisor would come to my defence if I were "attacked" by others. _____

6 My supervisor would defend me to others in the organisation if I made an honest mistake. _____

7 I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required, to meet my supervisor's work goals. _____

8 I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description. _____

9 I do not mind working my hardest for my supervisor. _____

10 I am impressed with my supervisor's knowledge of his/her job. _____

11 I respect my supervisor's knowledge of and competence on the job. _____

12 I admire my supervisor's professional skills.

(This section to be deleted for administration of instrument)

Abbreviation	Construct	Items
LMX_aff	Affect	1 - 3
LMX_loy	Loyalty	
LMX_con	Contribution	4 - 9
LMX_pr	Professional respect	

Q5: Perceived organisational support

Listed below are statements that represent possible opinions that YOU may have about working at your organisation. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by filling in the circle on your answer sheet that best represents your point of view about your organisation. Please choose from the following answers:

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree

- 1 My organisation values my contribution to its well-being. _____
- 2 If my company could hire someone at a lower salary they would do so. _____
- 3 If my organisation found a more efficient way to get my job done they would replace me. _____
- 4 My organisation would forgive an honest mistake on my part. _____
- 5 It would take only a small decrease in my performance for my organisation to want to replace me. _____
- 6 My organisation provides me little opportunity to move up the ranks. _____
- 7 Even if I did the best job possible, my organisation would fail to notice. _____
- 8 My organisation would grant a reasonable request for a change in my working conditions. _____
- 9 My organisation cares about my general satisfaction at work. _____
- 10 If I decided to quit, my organisation would try to persuade _____

	me to stay.	_____
11	My organisation would understand if I were unable to finish a task on time.	_____
12	If my organisation earned a greater profit, it would consider increasing my salary	_____
13	If my job were eliminated, my organisation would prefer to lay me off rather than transfer me to a new job.	_____
14	My supervisors are proud that I am a part of this organisation	_____
Reversed items	3,5,6,7,13	

Q8: Job security

Completely false	Mostly false	Somewhat false	Somewhat true	Mostly true	Completely true
0	1	2	3	4	5

Question	Answer
1 I am concerned about the possibility of being dismissed.	_____
2 The possibility of losing my job puts a lot of strain on me.	_____
3 I would feel stressed if I had to fight for my job.	_____
4 I believe that my job is secure.	_____
5 I believe that my career is secure.	_____
6 I clearly know my chances for advancement in the coming years.	_____
7 In my opinion I will keep my job in the near future.	_____
8 In my opinion I will be employed for a long time in my present job.	_____
9 I look forward with confidence to the introduction of new technologies.	_____

(This section to be deleted for administration of instrument)

Abbreviation	Construct	Items
CFos	Concerns and feelings of strain about the possibility of losing the job	1 - 3
JCs	Job and career stability/instability	4 - 9
Reversed items	1 - 3	

Q7: Person-Organisational Fit

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5
Question					Answer
1	The things that I value in life are very similar to the things that my organisation values.				_____
2	My personal values match my organisation's values and culture.				_____
3	My organisation's values and culture provide a good fit with the things that I value in life.				_____
4	There is a good fit between what my job offers me and what I am looking for in a job.				_____
5	The attributes that I look for in a job are fulfilled very well by my present job				_____
6	The job that I currently hold gives me just about everything that I want from a job.				_____
7	The match is very good between the demands of my job and my personal skills.				_____
8	My abilities and training are a good fit with the requirements of my job.				_____
9	My personal abilities and education provide a good match with the demands that my job places on me.				_____

(This section to be deleted for administration of instrument)

Abbreviation	Construct	Items
PoFsf	Supplementary fit or Indirect fit (organisation fit as values congruence)	1 - 3
PoFcf	Complementary fit of Direct fit (needs-supplies fit and demand)	4 - 9

Q10: Turnover intention (TI)

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Question	Answer
1	I often think about quitting my present job.	_____
2	I intend to quit my job.	_____
3	During the next 12 months, I intend to search for an alternative role (another job, full-time student, etc.) to my present job.	_____
4	I have searched for a new job.	_____

(This section to be deleted for administration of instrument)

Reversed items	1 - 4
-----------------------	-------

Q11: Commitment for change (adjusted)

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Question	Answer
1	I believe in the value of change.	_____
2	To change is strategically good for the organisation.	_____
3	I think that management is making a mistake by introducing change in the organisation.	_____
4	This change serves an important purpose.	_____
5	Things would be better without change.	_____
6	This change is not necessary.	_____
7	I have no choice but to go along with the change in my organisation.	_____
8	I feel pressure to go along with the change in my organisation.	_____
9	I have too much at stake to resist the change in my organisation.	_____
10	It would be too costly for me to resist the change in my	_____

	organisation.	_____
11	It would be risky to speak out against the change in my organisation.	_____
12	Resisting the change in my organisation is not a viable option for me.	_____
13	I feel a sense of duty to work toward the change in my organisation.	_____
14	I do not think it would be right of me to oppose the change in my organisation.	_____
15	I would not feel badly about opposing the change in my organisation.	_____
16	It would be irresponsible of me to resist the change in my organisation.	_____
17	I would feel guilty about opposing the change in my organisation.	_____
18	I do not feel any obligation to support the change in my organisation.	_____

(This section to be deleted for administration of instrument)

Abbreviation	Construct	Items
CC_Aff	Affective commitment to change	1-6
CC_Con	Continuance commitment to change	7-12
CC_Norm	Normative commitment to change	13-18
Reversed items	3; 5; 6; 15; 18	

Q 12: Resistance to Change

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

Question	Answer
1	I generally consider changes to be a negative thing. _____
2	I'll take a routine day over a day full of unexpected events any time. _____
3	I like to do the same old things rather than try new and different ones. _____
4	Whenever my life forms a stable routine, I look for ways to change it. _____
5	I'd rather be bored than surprised. _____
6	If I were to be informed that there's going to be a significant change regarding the way things are done at work, I would probably feel stressed. _____
7	When I am informed of a change of plans, I tense up a bit. _____

-
- 8 When things don't go according to plans, it stresses me out. _____
- 9 If my boss changed the criteria for evaluating employees, it would probably make me feel uncomfortable even if I thought I'd do just as well without having to do any extra work. _____
- 10 Changing plans seems like a real hassle to me. _____
- 11 Often, I feel a bit uncomfortable even about changes that may potentially improve my life. _____
- 12 When someone pressures me to change something, I tend to resist it even if I think the change may ultimately benefit me. _____
- 13 I sometimes find myself avoiding changes that I know will be good for me. _____
- 14 Once I've made plans, I'm not likely to change them. _____
- 15 I often change my mind. _____
- 16 Once I've come to a conclusion, I'm not likely to change my mind. _____
- 17 I don't change my mind easily. _____
- 18 My views are very consistent over time. _____
-

Abbreviation	Construct	Items
RTC_RS	Routine seeking	1-5
RTC_ER	Emotional reaction	6-9
RTC_STT	Short term thinking	10-14
RTC_CR	Cognitive rigidity	15-18
Reversed items	To be determined	

Annexure 2: Second Instrument

General information General information

1	Student number			
2	Name of student			
3	Which programme are you participating in? (indicate with an x)			MBL Ethics Programme(1)
				MBL Leadership Programme(2)
				MBL Org Change Programme(3)
				MBA HCM Programme(4)
4	Name of organisation (for the study)			
5	Industry			Agriculture(1)
				Mining(2)
				Manufacturing(3)
				Electricity and water(4)
				Construction(5)
				Wholesale, retail and motor trade(6)
				Hospitality, catering and accommodation(7)
				Transport, storage and communication(8)
				Finance, real estate and business services(9)
				Government services(10)
				Personal services(11)
6	Age of organisation			
7	Location of HQ			SA(1)
				Abroad(2)
8	Owner type			Individually owned(1)
				Fully foreign owned(2)
				International joint venture(3)
				National organisation(4)
9	Sector			Private Organisation(1)
				Public Organisation(2)
				State-owned Enterprise(3)
10	At what level of the organisation are you functioning?			Administrative staff(1)
				Middle management(2)
				Executive management(3)
11	How many members of staff in your organisation? (indicate with an x)			
12	1 – 10	11 – 50	51 – 200	201 – 500
	501- 1000	1001 – 5000	5001 – 10000	>10000
13	Has your organisation recently undergone a restructuring or organisational change process?			No(0)
				Yes(1)
14	Has your organisation, in the last five years, undergone a			No(0)

	restructuring/organisational change or process?	Yes(1)
15	Has your company recently changed its leadership / executive Management?	No(0)
		Yes(1)
16	Has your organisation, in the last five years replaced more than 50% of its executive management members?	No(0)
		Yes(1)
17	Has your organisation / company, in the past five years, changed its Board of Directors?	No(0)
		Yes(1)
18	Has your company recently changed its CEO (within the last five years)?	No(0)
		Yes(1)
19	Did your company recently merge with another organisation?	No(0)
		Yes(1)
20	Did your organisation recently acquire another organisation?	No(0)
		Yes(1)
21	Did another company recently acquire your organisation/company?	No(0)
		Yes(1)
22	Does your company have an ethics policy such as a Code of Ethics?	No(0)
		Yes(1)
23	Does your company provide any form of training on its standards of ethical conduct?	No(0)
		Yes(1)
24	Does your company have a specific telephone line, a so-called hotline, where you can report violations of your organisation's standards of ethical conduct?	No(0)
		Yes(1)
25	Does your organisation have an ethics officer responsible for managing ethical and governance standards?	No(0)
		Yes(1)
26	Does your organisation have formal grievance procedures for raising HR related concerns?	No(0)
		Yes(1)

Annexure 3: Editor's Statement

Alexa Barnby
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Editing, copywriting, indexing, formatting, translation

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29 March 2018

To whom it may concern

This is to certify that I, Alexa Kirsten Barnby, an English editor accredited by the South African Translators' Institute, have edited the doctoral thesis titled "A South African cross-sectoral study of the impact of organisational restructuring on organisational behaviour, mediated by effective change management and moderated by psychological capital" by Gavin Gabriel Isaacs.

The onus is, however, on the author to make the changes and address the comments made.



Annexure 4: Turnitin Report

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