



**THE IMPACT OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE ON JOB STRESS AND
BURNOUT IN GRADED HOSPITALITY ESTABLISHMENTS IN THE FREE STATE
PROVINCE**

by

RELEBOHILE GETRUDE RAMARUMO

**Dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirement for the degree
MAGISTER TECHNOLOGIAE TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT**

in the

Department of Tourism Management

Faculty of Management Sciences

at the

Central University of Technology, Free State

Supervisor: Professor D Koko (D Tech Human Resources Management)

BLOEMFONTEIN

August 2014



DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENT WORK

I, Relebohile Getrude Ramarumo, ID number _____ and student number _____, do hereby declare that this research project submitted to the Central University of Technology, Free State, for the degree MAGISTER TECHNOLOGIAE: TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT, is my own independent work and complies with the Code of Academic Integrity, as well as with other relevant policies, procedures, rules and regulations of the Central University of Technology, Free State; and has not been submitted before to any institution by myself or any other person in fulfilment (or partial fulfilment) of the requirements for the attainment of any qualification.

SIGNATURE OF STUDENT

DATE

SUMMARY

Job stress and burnout can have a detrimental effect on the health of employees and their job performance. This is especially applicable to the hospitality industry which is a service-intensive industry where customer needs and wants are the most important focus. Organisational culture being defined as the social glue that helps bring the organisation together is seen in this case as the proper mechanism that managers could use to deal with the detrimental effects of job stress and burnout.

This study assessed the impact of organisational culture on job stress and burnout in graded hospitality establishments in the Free State Province. The two main economic areas of the Free State, namely Bloemfontein and Clarence, were included in the study. A structured questionnaire was administered to all staff members in 46 graded accommodation establishments, and a total number of 227 questionnaires were collected for data analysis. The questionnaire consisted of a demographic section, an organisational culture section (based on the Competing Value Framework), a job stress section (based on Spielberger's Job Stress Survey) and a burnout section (based on the Maslach Burnout Inventory). Data were interpreted using both descriptive and inferential statistics (including factor analysis and t-tests).

The findings indicate that graded hospitality establishments had a predominantly Rational Culture, which points to strong external positioning and competitiveness. The Rational Culture is externally focused and does not adequately consider the needs of internal constituents – notably the employees. The cultural values associated with the Rational Culture are thus not as conducive in moderating job stress and burnout as the Group and Developmental Cultures. Appropriate recommendations are proposed in mitigating the effect of job stress and burnout in the hospitality industry.



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I wish to thank my Heavenly Father for the strength, guidance and knowledge for me to complete my dissertation.

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my supervisor, Professor Deseré Koko, for her guidance, encouragement, motivation, determination and commitment in assisting me throughout my study. I could not have done this without her.

I would also like to thank my family, especially my father who has stood by me through thick and thin during my studies, and my friends for their support and words of encouragement.

Special thanks to the Central University of Technology, Free State, for the financial assistance throughout my study.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENT WORK	ii
SUMMARY	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
List of Figures.....	viii
List of Tables	viii
List of Graphs.....	viii
GLOSSARY.....	ix
1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Background to the study.....	1
1.2 Statement of the research problem.....	4
1.3 Research objectives	5
1.4 Research questions.....	5
1.5 Research methodology	6
1.6 Limitations of the study.....	6
1.7 Significance of the study	7
1.8 Layout of the study	7
2 CONCEPTUALISING ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE	9
2.1 Introduction.....	9
2.2 Explaining organisational culture.....	10
2.3 National and industry cultures.....	12
2.4 Organisational culture and organisational climate	14
2.5 The levels of organisational culture.....	15
2.6 Characteristics of organisational culture	17
2.7 Determinants of organisational culture.....	20
2.8 The Competing Values Framework.....	21
2.9 Summary	24
3 JOB STRESS AND BURNOUT IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY.....	26
3.1 Introduction.....	26
3.2 Explaining job stress.....	27
3.3 Theoretical perspectives on job stress.....	28
3.3.1 <i>The stimulus-based approach</i>	28
3.3.2 <i>The transactional/interactional approach</i>	29
3.4 Main causes of job stress	30
3.4.1 <i>External causes</i>	30
3.4.2 <i>Individual causes</i>	31
3.4.3 <i>Organisational causes</i>	33
3.5 Spielberger's Job Stress Model.....	36
3.6 Explaining burnout.....	37
3.7 Theoretical perspectives on burnout	38
3.7.1 <i>The ecological perspective</i>	38

3.7.2	<i>The authoritarian-moral perspective</i>	38
3.8	Factors contributing to burnout.....	39
3.8.1	<i>Individual factors</i>	39
3.8.2	<i>Organisational factors</i>	40
3.9	Symptoms of burnout	43
3.10	Maslach's Burnout Model	45
3.11	Linking organisational culture to job stress and burnout.....	47
3.12	Summary	49
4	PROFILING THE TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE FREE STATE PROVINCE	51
4.1	Introduction.....	51
4.2	The development of the tourism and hospitality industry in the South African context.....	52
4.2.1	<i>Some of the problems that hindered the development of Tourism in South Africa were as follows</i> 54	
4.3	Programmes to assist tourism industry businesses	58
4.4	Major challenges facing the hospitality industry.....	60
4.5	Profiling the Free State Province.....	67
4.5.1	<i>Bloemfontein</i>	71
4.5.2	<i>Clarens</i>	72
4.6	Summary	73
5	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	74
5.1	Introduction.....	74
5.2	Research design.....	75
5.2.1	<i>Data-gathering instrument</i>	76
5.2.2	<i>Population and sampling</i>	76
5.2.3	<i>Pilot study</i>	77
5.3	Fieldwork challenges	78
5.4	Summary	78
6	DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF RESULTS.....	80
6.1	Introduction.....	80
6.2	Descriptive statistics.....	80
6.2.1	<i>Section A: The demographic profile of respondents</i>	80
6.2.2	<i>Section B: Organisational culture</i>	82
6.2.3	<i>Section C: Job stress</i>	85
6.2.4	<i>Section D: Burnout</i>	87
6.3	Inferential statistics	88
6.4	Summary	94
7	CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	95
7.1	Introduction.....	95
7.2	Conclusions.....	95
7.3	Recommendations.....	97
7.4	Suggested future research	98
	REFERENCES.....	99

ANNEXURE A: List of graded accommodation establishments in Bloemfontein and Clarens.....	118
ANNEXURE B: Letter from Central university of Technology.....	115
ANNEXURE C: Survey Tool.....	116

List of Figures

Figure 2.1: Schein's levels of organisational culture.....	16
Figure 2.2: The Competing Values Framework.....	23
Figure 3.1: Relationship between organisational culture and job stress and burnout.....	48

List of Tables

Table 6.1: Age of respondents	80
Table 6.2: Mean scores per cultural group.....	88
Table 6.3: Analytical statistics of the mean comparison of culture groups	89
Table 6.4: Rotated factor loading per item (job stress)	90
Table 6.5: Rotated factor loadings per item (burnout).....	92
Table 6.6: Spearman's correlation coefficient for the four cultural groups.....	94

List of Graphs

Graph 6.1: Racial composition of respondents	81
Graph 6.2: Gender composition of respondents	81
Graph 6.3: Position of respondents.....	82
Graph 6.4: Organisational culture profiles of graded accommodation establishments.....	89

GLOSSARY

BBBEE	Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment
CVF	Competing Values Framework
DEAT	Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism
DETEA	Department of Economic Development, Tourism and Environmental Affairs
FSDPF	Free State Development Planning Framework
GDP	Gross Domestic product
GEAR	Growth, Employment and Redistribution
JSS	Job Stress Survey
LED	Local Economic Development
MBI	Maslach Burnout Inventory
PEAC	Premiere Advisory Council
PGDS	Provincial Growth Development Strategy
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Programme
SALGA	South African Local Government Association
SAT	South African Tourism
SATOUR	South African Tourism Board
TEP	Tourism Enterprise Programme
THETA	Tourism, Hospitality and Sport Education and Training Authority
TGCSA	Tourism Grading Council of South Africa
TTAF	Training and Technical Association Fund
WTO	World Tourism Organisation

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

The tourism industry is recognised as one of the world's largest and fastest growing industries (DEAT – refer to SA, 2002). In many developing countries, such as South Africa, it is the sector with the highest contribution to Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Nelson Mandela Bay Review, 2008:76; Rogerson & Kotze, 2011:13523). The hospitality industry, on the other hand, is the largest sector within the tourism industry and could be seen as the heart of this industry (Rogerson & Kotze, 2011:13523). It contributes significantly to job creation by stimulating the overall economy of regions and countries (Naidoo, 2004:2). Moreover, the hospitality industry is a service industry that is dedicated to customer service and excellence.

According to Advani, Jagdale and Kumar (2005:21), a service is an action or set of actions taken by one person for the benefit of another person in that it meets a need, solves a problem, or produces a positive experience. Service is an intangible experience of performance that a customer receives along with the tangible side of the purchased product (Advani et al., 2005:21). Because it is such an essential component of the hospitality industry, the provision of services requires constant attention from management (Karatepe & Babakus, 2011:66). Employees in service industries, like the hospitality industry, are expected to render friendly and efficient services to customers, and the actions of employees could give the establishment a competitive advantage, ensuring return customers (Walters & Raybould, 2007:144).

The complex and dynamic environment of the hospitality industry presents a vast array of stimuli, pressures and demands which could lead to stress and burnout in employees. Thus, it is not surprising that the literature (Airey, 2005; Kim, Shin & Umbreit, 2007; Wang, 2009; Karatepe & Babakus, 2011) records job stress and burnout as a major challenge in the hospitality industry. Stress, particularly job stress, could be viewed as an individual's reaction to the challenges in the environment that could appear threatening and demanding (Sunny Hu & Cheng, 2010:1337). Job stress is a multifaceted, costly phenomenon in organisations because it contributes to expensive labour turnover and the loss of critical skills (Villanueva & Djurkovic, 2009:124). In particular, job stress could be problematic in customer-intensive industries because

employees are likely to experience conflicting demands emanating from the company, supervisors, customers and their private lives. This could lead to increased dissonance, cynicism and feelings of despondency among employees which, in turn, create fertile grounds for burnout to occur (Ross, 1995; Ruyter, 2001).

Recent research (Kim, 2008; Kang, Twigg & Hertzman, 2010) suggests that continued stress in the hospitality industry leads to workers' becoming exhausted and cynical, with negative implications for service delivery. Hospitality employees are expected to be friendly and attentive in an environment where heavy workloads and long hours are the norm, where the physical environment is often loud and chaotic, and where many human resource challenges exist such as retaining talented staff and curbing high staff turnover (Airey, 2005:13).

According to Hobfoll and Shirom (2000:57), burnout is a consequence of one's exposure to chronic job stress. Maslach (2001:397) concurs by defining burnout as a prolonged response to chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors on the job. Some researchers (Chalkiti & Sigala, 2010:335; Wan, 2010:62) agree that burnout is best understood in terms of situational stressors. Job stress serves to increase burnout. Burnout, which has been dubbed as the biggest occupational hazard of the twenty-first century (Leiter & Maslach, 2005:30), is a psychological response to stressors on the job. As a type of work-related strain, burnout leads to undesirable outcomes, for instance, diminished job performance, job dissatisfaction, shifting of time spent on work-related activities to non-work activities, lower organisational commitment, and increased absenteeism and turnover (Deery, 2008: 792; Shani & Pizam, 2009:446).

Furthermore, burnout exacerbates depression, increases health costs and leads to substantial loss of workdays each year (Shani & Pizam 2009:446). Burnout can occur when the reciprocal relationship of labour for pay is balanced unfavourably, and when recognition, support and advancement in the workplace are not as expected (Grobler, Warnich, Carrell, Elbert & Hatfield, 2002:24). If burnout is not addressed, it could seriously hamper productivity and work quality, with serious implications for morale, commitment and the psychological and physical health of employees. For this reason, it is imperative that the organisation creates an environment that supports individual employees on the one hand and its own expectations on the other. A supportive organisational culture, where employees' needs are recognised and where they are

supported by management, could mitigate the potential disruptive impact of job stress and burnout.

Organisational culture can be described broadly as 'the way things are done around here' (Chrichton, 2004:203). Testa and Sipe (2011:5) define organisational culture as the social glue that helps hold the organisation together. Organisational culture according to these authors refers to a system of shared meaning held by members which distinguishes the organisation from other organisations. Chrichton (2004:203) characterises organisational culture as the pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration. This pattern has been proven to work effectively enough to be considered valid by the group and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to other problems.

The most difficult aspect of studying organisational culture is that it is highly subject to interpretation and difficult to measure (Ruigrok & Achtenhagen, 1999:4). Robins (2000:18) argues that organisational culture is strongly influenced by the characteristics of the industry in which the company operates. Robins (2000:18) also believes that, within industries, organisations share certain cultural characteristics because they are exposed to similar challenges and constraints. Organisational culture is considered to be one of the most significant factors in bringing about organisational change and improving service delivery (Waterhouse & Lewis, 2004: 353; Kloot & Martin, 2007: 485). Furthermore, Airey (2005:13) and Bakker (2007:309) are of the opinion that an organisational culture could mitigate the negative impact of job stress and burnout in the hospitality industry.

In 2002, Tepeci and Bartlett developed an instrument, the Hospitality Industry Culture Profile (HICP), to assess organisational culture (perceived culture) and individual values (preferred culture) in hospitality organisations. One of the major challenges of the HICP was that the instrument was not industry specific. For the purpose of this investigation, the robust and well-tested Competing Values Framework (CVF) will be used as conceptual guide for measuring organisational culture (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983: 363). This framework integrates the different perspectives on organisational effectiveness and is based mainly on shared values in organisational context. Past studies that have

examined the relationship between organisational culture and organisational variables include organisational performance (Xenikou & Simosi, 2006: 566); effectiveness (Kemp & Dwyer, 2001: 77); service orientation (Kilic & Dursun, 2010: 1); and service quality (Trivellas & Dargenidou, 2009: 382).

Owing to the prevailing challenges posed by job stress and burnout, a supporting organisational culture is likely to mitigate the detrimental effects of these phenomena (Elmadag, Ellinger & Franke, 2008:95). Consequently, organisational culture should have an impact on customer service behaviour and customer satisfaction. In order to determine the impact of organisational culture on job stress and burnout in hospitality establishments, the Free State Province was conveniently selected because it is easily accessible to the researcher. Graded accommodation establishments in the two main economic clusters of the Free State (Bloemfontein and Clarens) were included in the study. They comprised 46 hospitality establishments – 32 in Bloemfontein and 14 in Clarens (TGCSA, 2014).

This chapter provides a brief introduction to the study. It clarifies the basic terms and concepts, the problem statement, research questions and objectives, research methodology, limitations of the study, significance of the study and layout of the remaining chapters.

1.2 Statement of the research problem

Customer satisfaction and service delivery are the defining characteristics of the hospitality industry. Because it involves continuous customer interaction and the satisfaction of customer needs and wants, working in this industry could be emotionally and physically taxing on employees. Coupled with a challenging work environment, this could lead to increased levels of job stress and burnout especially among hospitality employees. The literature shows that job stress and burnout are prominent challenges faced by the hospitality industry (Kim et al., 2007; Karatepe and Babakus, 2011; Airey, 2005; Wang, 2009). First, this investigation intended to uncover the prevailing organisational culture of hospitality establishments in the two main economic clusters of the Free State Province and, secondly, aimed to determine the impact of organisational culture on job stress and burnout. Graded accommodation establishments in Bloemfontein and Clarens were the focus of this investigation. The recommendations

from the findings could assist graded accommodation establishments in managing job stress and burnout effectively.

1.3 Research objectives

Main objective: The main objective of this study was to investigate the impact of organisational culture on job stress and burnout among employees in graded hospitality establishments in the Free State Province of South Africa.

Co-objectives

- To perform an in-depth literature review related to the impact of organisational culture on job stress and burnout in the hospitality industry.
- To measure the impact of organisational culture on job stress and burnout on hospitality establishments in the two main economic clusters of the Free State Province.
- To make meaningful recommendations to the hospitality establishments for managing job stress and burnout.

1.4 Research questions

- What is the prevailing organisational culture of graded hospitality establishments in the two main economic clusters of the Free State Province?
- What are the main stress factors that staff members are experiencing in graded hospitality establishments in the two main economic clusters of the Free State Province?
- What are the main burnout factors that staff members are experiencing in graded hospitality establishments in the two main economic clusters of the Free State Province?
- What is the impact of organisational culture on job stress and burnout in graded hospitality establishments in the two main economic clusters of the Free State Province?

1.5 Research methodology

According to Creswell (2009:15), research methodology comprises the methods that are used to conduct a research investigation. They include data collection, analysis and the interpretation of the research findings.

Research design

The research design involves the planned actions to be followed in conducting scientific research (Brotherton, 2008:14) and describes the procedures and tools that will be used in answering the research questions. This study consists of a literature and empirical section. The literature review forms a key component of the research process and was conducted to gain thorough understanding of the aspects and challenges that the study aims to investigate. For the literature section, primary and secondary data sources were consulted. 'Primary data' implies that the data are new and that the researcher is the first user. Primary data are collected mainly via surveys, interviews and focus groups (Brotherton, 2008:14). Journals, textbooks, internet sites, electronic journals, and other published literature were consulted as secondary data.

The empirical section of the study sets out the collection of the quantitative data. According to Clarke and Dawson (2003:65), quantitative methods generate data that can be presented numerically. In this study, a structured questionnaire was used that consisted of four sections: The first section measured the demographic composition of the respondents; the second section measured the organisational culture of the hospitality establishments based on the CVF; the third section measured job stress among employees based on Spielberger's scale (1991), the Job Stress Survey (JSS); and the fourth section measured burnout based on Maslach's Burnout Inventory (MBI) (Maslach & Jackson, 1996:54). A total of 227 responses were received from the employees of the graded establishments in both Bloemfontein and Clarens that formed part of the study.

1.6 Limitations of the study

Limitations are those aspects of design or methodology that might affect the results of the study or how the results are applied or interpreted. Limitations could restrict the generalisability of research results and the applicability of subsequent findings. The key

limitation of the research component of this study is its restriction to the graded accommodation establishments in the two main economic clusters of the Free State. For this reason, the findings cannot be generalised beyond these regions. The other limitation is that not all the graded accommodation establishments were willing to participate in the investigation.

1.7 Significance of the study

The study provides a framework for future research on the issue of organisational culture and its impact on job stress and burnout, especially in hospitality establishments. It aims to serve as a guideline for managers or business owners in order to assist them in matters associated with job stress and burnout.

1.8 Layout of the study

The study is set out in the following chapters.

- **Chapter 1: Introduction**

This chapter provides the background to the study and details the aims, objectives and research questions. It also outlines the research methodology that was adopted in the study, the limitations of the study, as well as the significance of the study.

- **Chapter 2: Conceptualising organisational culture**

Chapter 2 deals with the literature pertaining to organisational culture in the hospitality industry. It explains the term 'organisational culture' and the levels and characteristics of organisational culture. It also discusses the CVF that served as the conceptual guide for the construction of the questionnaire.

- **Chapter 3: Job stress and burnout in the hospitality industry**

Chapter 3 reflects on the relevant literature on job stress and burnout and the theoretical perspectives on which these phenomena are based. The chapter also focuses on the causes and symptoms of job stress and burnout.

- **Chapter 4: Profiling the tourism and hospitality industry with special reference to the Free State Province**

Chapter 4 reflects on the tourism and hospitality industry in South Africa with special reference to the Free State Province. The challenges facing the industry are discussed also.

- **Chapter 5: Research methodology**

Chapter 5 presents a discussion of the methodology that was adopted in the study with regard to the research design, data-gathering instrument, population and sample, and challenges related to fieldwork.

- **Chapter 6: Data analysis and presentation of findings**

Chapter 6 analyses and discusses the findings of the study.

- **Chapter 7: Conclusions and recommendations**

Chapter 7 presents the conclusions based on the analysis of the findings and provides appropriate recommendations that the hospitality sector could apply

2 CONCEPTUALISING ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

2.1 Introduction

Human culture implies a form of ‘mental programming’ that enables individuals to fit in with society. Human culture and its development are linked to the field of anthropology that studies the development of ancient and contemporary cultures. Without this mental programming, individuals would not be able to comprehend the acceptable and unacceptable behaviour that apply to particular cultural settings. Cultural programming also takes place in organisational context where individuals must conform to the organisation’s requirements, i.e. organisational culture. Organisational culture is considered widely to be one of the most significant factors in bringing about organisational change and modernising service delivery (Kloot & Martin, 2007: 486; Waterhouse & Lewis, 2004: 354).

The concept of ‘organisational culture’ has been significant in the study of organisational behaviour because it contributes to the enhancement of organisations’ key functions and capabilities. Owing to its prolific influence, organisational culture is a popular topic in both academic research and the business world (Chen, 2004:432; Nazir, 2005:40; Silverthorne, 2004:593; Van der Post, de Coning & Smit, 1997:147).

The culture of an organisation should enable employees to fit in as organisational members, and authors such as Nazir (2005:40) and Silverthorne (2004: 593) regard a good organisational–employee fit as necessary for organisational performance. In addition, Nazir (2005:40) and Silverthorne (2004:597) state that organisational culture also affects the commitment of employees within an organisation and that organisational commitment is correlated with a strong organisational culture.

A strong organisational culture, in turn, provides clearly articulated guidelines and behavioural norms to employees on what is important to the organisation. On the other hand, an organisational culture that is weak implies that employees are not always clear on what is expected from them. This means that they are less likely to be informed of and committed to the goals and objectives of the organisation. A strong culture is synonymous with consistency because the beliefs and values of the organisation are shared relatively consistently throughout the organisation. Thus, the management of organisational culture could be regarded as the management of commitment (Nazir,

2005:40). If the organisational culture is strong, employees know what the organisation's goals are and they are able and committed to work towards achieving those goals.

Individuals are usually more attracted to organisations with values that are perceived to be similar to their own (Smith, 2003:249). According to Nazir (2005:40), strong organisational cultures in which clearly articulated, common values are shared by employees are beneficial to organisations that are operating in the service sector. Irrespective of whether it is strong or weak, the organisational culture has been deemed a vital influence on the entire organisation, including employee performance (Nazir, 2005:40).

The purpose of this chapter is to provide insight into the concept of 'organisational culture', to comprehend the characteristics, levels and determinants of organisational culture, and to explain the CVF that served as the conceptual guide for the empirical part of this investigation.

2.2 Explaining organisational culture

There are many definitions of organisational culture and the concept is often difficult to define (Hellriegel, Jackson, Slocum, Staude, Amos, Klopper, Louw & Oosthuizen, 2004:357; Martin, 2001:584). However, if the term is to be analysed and managed, it is crucial to have clarity on its meaning (O'Reilly, 1989:10). According to Hellriegel et al. (2004:357), organisational culture is the distinctive pattern of shared assumptions, values and norms that shape the socialisation activities, language, symbols, rites and ceremonies of a group of people.

This definition emphasises a number of important aspects of organisational culture, such as the notion of shared assumption, values, norms, symbols, language, narratives and practices. It also points to the way in which organisational culture assists in employees' introduction and socialisation into an organisation. In doing so, organisational culture informs the employees as to how to perceive, think and feel when faced with new problems in the organisational environment. Prominent researchers have contributed to the definition of the term 'organisational culture', particularly during the 1990s (e.g. Hofstede, 1994:4; O'Reilly, Chatman & Caldwell, 1991:491; Rowe, Mason, Dickel, Mann & Mockler, 1994:472; Schein, 1992:52). Rowe et al. (1994:472),

for instance, define organisational culture as the combination of shared values, attitudes, beliefs, rituals, norms, expectations and assumptions of the people within the organisation. This description of organisational culture emphasise that corporate rituals reveal the deeper beliefs and values of the organisation and, therefore, define the organisational culture, social interaction, priorities and the way in which employees deal with one another. These authors also acknowledge the importance of the socialisation process of new employees into the organisation. Emphasis on the cultural values associated with an organisation's culture aids employees to comprehend what is expected from them in organisational context. This is done through socialisation.

Schein (1992:12) shares this view and proclaims that socialisation plays an important role in what is passed on to new generations of employees. Furthermore, the way in which new employees learn, and the socialisation process to which they are subjected, might reveal the deeper assumptions of the organisation (Schein, 1992:12). O'Reilly et al. (1991:491) add to the above definitions by stating that organisational culture could be viewed as a set of cognitions that is shared by members of a specific social unit or organisation and which includes elements such as fundamental assumptions, values, behavioural norms and expectations. Rowe et al. (1994:472) have observed that employees' social needs are met by defining relationships, specifying roles and duties that are to be adhered to. Deal and Kennedy (1982:4) explain organisational culture as the 'integrated pattern of human behaviour that includes thought, speech, action and artefacts and depends on man's capacity for learning and transmitting knowledge to succeeding generations'.

For the purpose of this study, organisational culture is defined as the distinctive pattern of shared assumptions, values and norms that shape the socialisation activities, language, symbols, rites and ceremonies of a group of people. This corresponds with the views of Hellriegel et al. (2004:357), O'Reilly et al. (1991:491), Rowe et al. (1994:472) and Schein (1992:12). Organisational culture is a general term, but one that seems to give rise to a degree of ambiguity. Watson (2006) emphasises that the concept of 'culture' was derived originally from a metaphor of the organisation as 'something cultivated'. According to Schein (2004:11), organisational characteristics are based on the values to which organisations ascribe. These values transcend into practices that define the organisation, such as how individuals are managed, promoted

and retained. Schein (2004:11) highlights that leaders have an important task to create and manage culture; that the unique talent of leaders is their ability to understand and work with culture; and that it is an ultimate act of leadership to destroy culture when it is deemed to be dysfunctional (Schein, 2004:11).

Organisational culture provides organisations with a sense of identity and determines the organisation's legends, rituals, beliefs, meanings, values, norms and language – the way 'things are done around here' (Davidson, 2003:206). An organisation's culture encapsulates what it has been good at and what has worked in the past. These practices are often accepted without question by long-serving members of an organisation (Creque, 2003; Davidson, 2003:206; Ogbonna & Harris, 2002). Over time, the organisation will develop 'norms', i.e. established (normal) expected behaviour patterns within the organisation. A norm is defined as an established behaviour pattern that is part of a culture. Furthermore, Schein (2004: 8) states that perhaps the most intriguing aspect of culture as a concept is that it points us to phenomena that are below the surface, that are powerful in their impact but invisible and to a considerable degree of unconsciousness.

2.3 National and industry cultures

According to Sadri and Lees (2001:30), over the past decade, the word 'culture' has dominated the thinking of many managers and has become an integral part of everyday language. The extremely competitive business environment of the 21st century requires an understanding of the impact of organisational culture on productivity and market share (Sadri & Lees, 2001:30). Organisational culture could also apply to particular industries – termed industry culture. Industries in general are faced with similar constraints and challenges, and service industries also show similar cultures (Sadri & Lees, 2001:30). The culture concept could also be extended to countries – termed national culture. National and industry cultures consist of specific values and beliefs that affect behaviour. National culture is defined as those 'unique values' or 'specific collective mental programming' that condition the behaviour of its members nationally, whereas industry culture is defined as those unique values and beliefs to which members of a certain industry adhere (Hofstede, 1991:180).

According to Hofstede (2001:12), national and industry cultures could be characterised in terms of values and practices. Individual values are acquired in early youth (and is heavily influenced by aspects such as religion) and evolve by means of exposure to environmental challenges. Practices are subjected to socialisation and could change to accommodate the challenges of the immediate environment. When referring to both national culture and industry culture in this study, Hofstede's (2005:16) focus on a shift from values to practices is implied. Hofstede (2005:16) proposes paired dimensions that describe both national culture and industry culture: process versus results orientation, employee versus job orientation, parochial versus professional orientation, the loosely controlled versus tightly controlled orientation, and the normative versus pragmatic orientation. These orientations will be discussed below.

Process versus results orientation: Process-oriented cultures are dominated by technical and bureaucratic routines, whereas results-oriented cultures are characterised by a common concern for outcomes. This dimension is associated with the culture's degree of homogeneity: in results-oriented units, all members perceive their practices in more or less the same way; in process-oriented units, there are vast differences in perception among different levels and parts of the units. The degree of homogeneity of a culture is a measure of its strength: The current study confirmed that strong cultures are more results-oriented than weak ones, and vice versa (Hofstede, 1991:2).

Employee versus job orientation: An employee-oriented organisation is one which cares for its employees and is concerned about their work-life balance and personal lives, whereas a job-oriented organisation is more concerned with getting the job done than about the wellness of employees (Hofstede, 1991:2). Hofstede found that an organisation's orientation is strongly influenced by historical factors, for example, the philosophy of the founders and whether or not there has recently been an economic crisis that resulted in layoffs.

Professional versus parochial orientation: In organisations with a professional orientation, the members, who are usually highly educated with degrees and registered at professional bodies (such as scientists and engineers), tend to identify primarily with their professions (Hofstede, 1991:2). In contrast, the members of a parochial organisation are reliant on the organisation itself for their identity. Hofstede further notes

that this dimension is also known as local versus cosmopolitan, the contrast between an internal and an external frame of reference (Hofstede, 1991:2).

Loosely controlled versus tightly controlled orientation: A loosely controlled orientation implies a more relaxed environment and attitude, especially with regard to timeframes and budgets. Management tends to be easy-going and flexible. In contrast, a tightly controlled orientation usually implies stringent rules, tight timeframes and budgets. In this instance, management tends to be harsh and inflexible (Hofstede, 1991:2). This dimension focuses on the level of importance that the organisation and its members attach to formality and punctuality, and is influenced by the technology infrastructure of the organisation.

Normative versus pragmatic orientation: A normative orientation is based on precise norms that need to be adhered to, and following policies and procedures are more important than producing results. On the other hand, the pragmatic orientation focuses on producing results (Hofstede, 1998:477). Pragmatic units are market driven and flexible, whereas normative units are more rigid and inflexible. Service units are likely to be more pragmatic, whereas production units could be more normative and focused on the rigid application of rules and regulations (Hofstede, 1991:2).

2.4 Organisational culture and organisational climate

Since organisational climate is closely related to organisational culture, it is necessary to clarify the difference between the terms. Before Pettigrew's (1979) landmark study of organisational culture, research centred mostly on organisational climate (Naicker, 2008). Reichers and Schneider (1990:22) define organisational climate as 'the shared perception of the way things are around here'. According to Schein (1990), the main difference between organisational climate and organisational culture is the levels of complexity of the two constructs. Organisational culture takes an in-depth look at the organisation's components, whereas organisational climate is simply a surface view of the organisation.

Hofstede (2005) puts it simple by noting that whatever organisational culture is, organisational climate is not. Early studies on organisational culture were mostly qualitative in nature because it focused on the unique aspects of particular social settings. Organisational climate studies, in contrast, employed mostly a quantitative

research approach. It was asserted that, if researchers carried field notes, quotes, or stories, and presented qualitative data to support their ideas, they were studying organisational culture. If researchers carried computer printouts and questionnaires, and presented quantitative data analysis to support their ideas, they were studying organisational climate (Hofstede, 2005). Some authors (Naicker, 2008; Schein, 1990) argue that organisational culture researchers were more concerned with the evolution of social systems, whereas organisational climate researchers were less concerned with the impact of organisational systems on groups and individuals (Hellriegel et al., 2004:358).

The largely qualitative nature of organisational culture studies has changed to include quantitative assessment of organisational culture. Organisational culture studies as performed by Kock (2009) and Naicker (2008) have shown that the quantitative assessment of organisational culture is both possible and viable. In keeping with this contemporary approach, this investigation has also applied a quantitative approach to investigate organisational culture in the hospitality industry.

2.5 The levels of organisational culture

Organisational culture has a major impact on the behaviour of individuals in their workplace and consists of three levels (Schein, 1989:14). On the surface or observable level, we find artefacts and creations which are influenced by values on a less conscious level, followed by basic assumptions that lie on an unconscious level. Artefacts and creations are the visible, tangible and audible results of activity grounded in values and assumptions, whereas values are social principles, philosophies, goals, and standards considered to have intrinsic worth. Assumptions are taken-for-granted beliefs about reality and human nature which guide the behaviour of individuals. This is presented in figure 2.1.

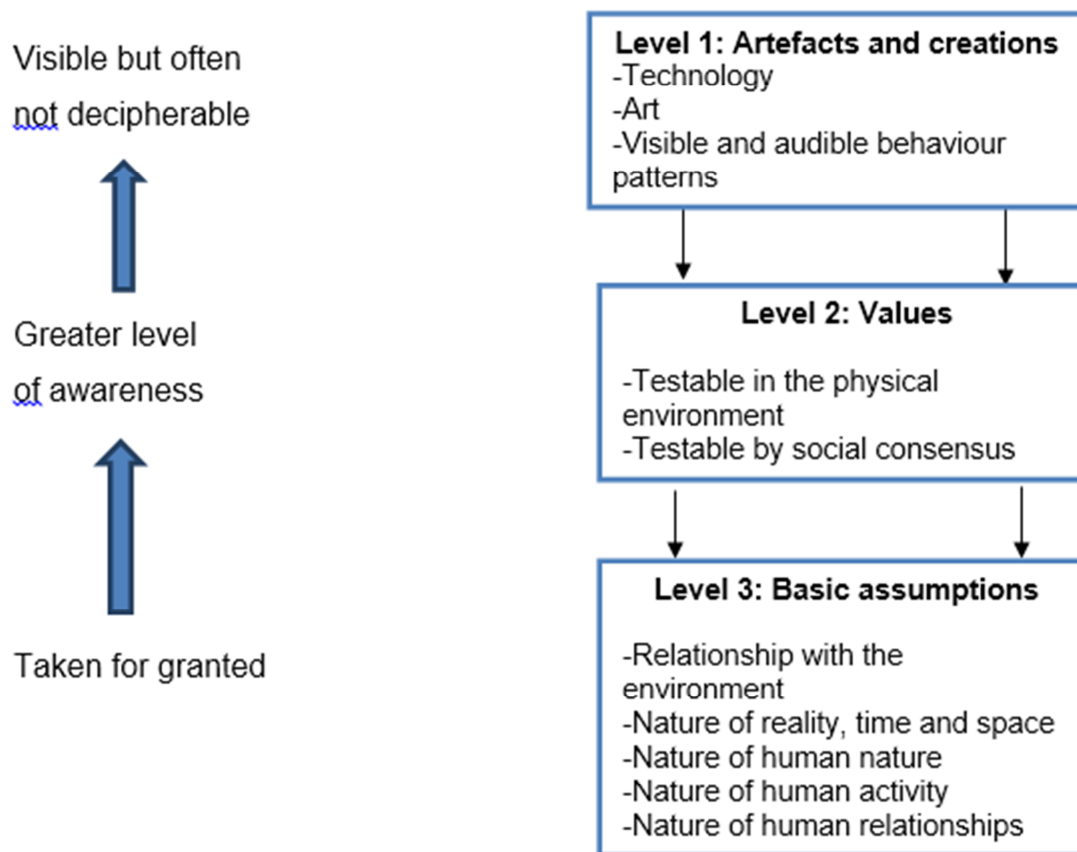


Figure 2.1: Schein's levels of organisational culture

(Source: Schein (1989:14))

Figure 2.1 shows that level 1 artefacts and creations are the most visible. This observable level of culture consists of behaviour patterns and outward manifestations of culture. These patterns and manifestations can be observed in the physical layout of work environments, dress codes, technology and the attitudes and behaviours of the people. Artefacts and creations provide easily observable clues to the culture of the workplace. They include elements such as the architecture, décor and space design, whether there are doors between work stations, whether people dress informally or formally, and whether actions are fast paced or careful and deliberate.

The second level, espoused values, determine individual behaviour to a large extent (Schein, 1999). Hellriegel et al. (2004:358) identify values as basic concepts and beliefs about conditions that are meaningful to employees and stable over time. For this reason, values form the heart of the organisational culture and they are not observable in physical behaviours and artefacts. Values are the basic conceptualisations and beliefs of an organisation. As such, they are indicators of the intrinsic or subjective aspects of its culture and provide the assumptions upon which organisational activities

are based. Moreover, they define its goals and the criteria to determine whether the goals have been achieved successfully. They are often regarded as the organisational or corporate ideology. Values mobilise the collective consciousness and its members' actions by connecting social obligations with general ethical principles.

The result is a commitment by organisational members to perform everyday activities according to some grand design. Values are shared by all members of the group, and deviance from these shared standards is not tolerated. An organisation's values shape the way in which it functions. These values are usually learned and adopted. For example, an organisation might say it believes in teamwork, but the espoused value shows that most decisions are made without involving employees. Most employees will attribute their behaviour to the stated values of an organisation.

The third level represents basic assumptions. Basic assumptions can be seen as the widely held, inherent, unique and deeply rooted views that individuals take for granted and believe to be true, and which guide their views, feelings and emotions about things and how those things function (Hellriegel et al., 2004:358; Martin, 2001:588; Parker & Bradley, 2000:127). Schein (1999) asserts that, in order to truly comprehend organisational culture, the deepest level of cultural awareness, namely assumptions, need to be understood.

Basic assumptions are informed and influenced by the values, beliefs and assumptions of the founders and key leaders that made an organisation successful. For example, if the founder of an organisation is responsible for developing a product that responds to a high-market goods and service need, she might favour a highly disciplined organisation. The organisation could attract people who like discipline and order and, as they succeed, they come to expect hierarchy, discipline and order to be the only methods with which to run an effective organisation.

2.6 Characteristics of organisational culture

Collins and Porras (2000:338) state that organisational culture distinguishes one organisation from another. They believe that the shared meanings and practices are a set of key characteristics, and that the organisation's values and the essence of its culture can be captured in seven primary characteristics, namely innovation and risk taking; attention to detail; an outcome orientation; a people orientation; a team

orientation; aggressiveness; and stability. Each of these characteristics exists on a continuum from low to high. Appraisal of the organisation on these seven characteristics could provide a composite picture of its culture (Collins & Porras, 2000:338).

Innovation and risk taking: Innovation refers to the extent to which employees are encouraged to be inventive. Managers regard innovation as the major source of competitive advantage (Khan, Usoro, Majewski & Kuofie, 2010:67). Different studies support innovation as an organisational culture component that is expressed in various ways, such as improved organisational orientation (Wilderom & van den Berg, 2004:570), adaptability (Denison & Fey, 2003:686), and a high-performance work orientation (Matthew, 2007:677). Tian and Qi (2010:91) found that employees who work in an innovative and supportive culture are more likely to be satisfied with their job. Job satisfaction, in turn, could mitigate the severity of job stress and burnout (Silverthorne, 2004:522). Innovation and risk taking go hand in hand because the latter is often part of innovation (Collins & Porras, 2000:338).

Attention to detail: Attention to detail pertains to the extent to which employees are expected to exhibit precision in the workplace (Naicker, 2008:7). This is an important component of organisational success, and management is responsible for setting the parameters for this to occur (Aswathappa, 2003:479).

Outcome orientation: Some organisations pay more attention to results than to processes. It is, in fact, the business model of each business that determines whether the focus should be on the outcome or the process. This defines the outcome orientation of the business. Outcome orientation could be regarded as the extent to which management focuses on results or outcomes instead of on the techniques and processes used to achieve those outcomes (Kulkarni, 2010:137; Silverthorne, 2004:522).

People orientation: Khamseh (2010:130) explains people orientation as the extent to which management can tolerate criticism from its members, and have concern for personal problems and the personal development of employees. According to Kulkarni (2010:138), people orientation is still one of the most contentious issues in the management of organisations. Some organisations are known for being employee oriented as they focus more on creating a better work environment for their 'associates'

(Kulkarni, 2010:138). However, some organisations are still feudal in nature, treating employees no better than machines (Aswathappa, 2003:479). An organisation that is people oriented and respects its employees tends to create reciprocal responses of commitment, satisfaction and intention to stay with the organisation.

Team orientation: Synergistic teams achieve better results than individuals do (Khamseh, 2010:130). Some organisations make efforts to create teams in which members have complementary skills and work together effectively (Kulkarni, 2010:138). Silverthorne (2004:522) outlines team orientation as the extent to which work activities are organised around teams rather than individuals. Chow, Harrison, McKinnon and Wu (2001:14) found a moderate correlation between team orientation and outcomes in Chinese-based collectivist culture. In contemporary organisations, greater emphasis is placed on ensuring unity among employees, which makes team orientation an important consideration (Kulkarni, 2010:139). A lack of teamwork could be counterproductive and could lead to increased costs and lower commitment in organisations (Bartell, 2003:52).

Aggressiveness: According to Kulkarni (2010:139), every organisation should be at the top of its game, with satisfied regular clients who provide a steady income. This relates to the concept of aggressiveness which refers to the degree of competitiveness that is tolerable in organisations (Naicker, 2008:8). Aggressive competitiveness is also instituted and maintained by management (Khamseh, 2010:1). Some businesses, for example, Microsoft, are known for their aggression and market-dominating strategies (Kulkarni, 2010:137). Furthermore, Chow et al. (2001:13) purport that an organisation that encourages innovation and a strong sense of aggressiveness could cultivate increased global competitiveness which would, in turn, ensure ultimate survival.

Stability: While some organisations believe that constant change and innovation is the key to growth, others are more focused on stabilising themselves and their operations. The focus is, thus, on stability as opposed to growth (Kulkarni, 2010:137). Stability is the extent to which organisational activities emphasise the maintenance of the status quo and of stringent organisational rules and regulations (Tian & Qi, 2010:92). Chow et al. (2001:13) found stability to be one of the dimensions of organisational culture that has a strong impact on affective commitment, job satisfaction and information sharing.

Kulkarni (2010:137) argues that an organisation's culture could provide a sense of identity to its members. The more clearly an organisation's shared perception and values are defined, the more strongly people can associate themselves with their organisation's mission and feel a vital part of it. One way to understand organisational culture is to examine the employees' perception of the organisational policy and practices. Just like having a strong character adds personality to a person, so does organisational culture add to the identity of an organisation (Chow et al., 2001:13). This helps to create cohesion among the employees as they share the primary characteristics of organisational culture and to instil in them a spirit of teamwork (Chow et al., 2001:13).

2.7 Determinants of organisational culture

Martin (2001:601) points out that the development of organisational culture depends on the founders of the organisation, their personalities, and their preferred way of doing things. Employees go through a process of enculturation in which they enter an organisation and get to know their supervisor or manager and the way things are done. This is followed by an adjustment period when both parties become accustomed to working with each other (Martin, 2001:601). Greenberg and Baron (2003:523) state that organisational culture could also develop through contact between groups of employees who are working together within the organisation and begin to share ideas and actions in the organisation (Grebe, 1997:22; Hellriegel et al., 2004).

Enculturation and socialisation go hand in hand in producing individuals who fully comprehend what is expected in the organisational context. In addition to the importance of the socialisation process, Greenberg and Baron (2003: 522) indicate certain influences that determine the culture of an organisation. These include history and ownership, size, goals and objectives and people.

History and ownership: The history and ownership of an organisation is the main determinant of the organisational culture that would likely prevail. The founder of the organisation, key decision makers or dominant groups within the organisation play a crucial role in establishing the culture (Greenberg & Baron, 2003:522; Handy, 1993:183). An organisation's culture is more enduring than the employee who ascribes to its guiding principles. Culture is also dynamic: It could be changed and adapted to

suit the needs of its members, and is shaped and influenced by employees. It is also pervasive and becomes ingrained into the everyday actions of individual members. The culture of an organisation is likely to outlive individuals who join and/or leave the organisation (Martin, 2001:601).

Size: The organisation's size is often the most important determinant of the type of organisational culture that prevails (Handy, 1993:192). In larger organisations, operations are more formalised, which means that the cultures of large and small organisations are different due to the natural function of the size of operations (Handy, 1993:192; Martin, 2001:603).

Goals and objectives: Organisational culture could be influenced by what the organisation sets out to achieve (Handy, 1993:195; Martin, 2001:603). A change in organisational goals could lead to a change in the culture of an organisation (Handy, 1993:195). The organisational culture should support the organisation in reaching its goals.

The people: A fit between the organisation, its culture, and its individual employees should result in a good fit for all parties involved (Handy, 1993:199). The individual orientations of key leaders in the organisation are likely to affect its prevailing culture (Handy, 1993:199).

2.8 The Competing Values Framework

The CVF is a robust and well-tested quantitative measure of organisational culture. The CVF has been found to have a high degree of congruence among widely accepted categorical schemes that organise the way people think, their values and assumptions, and the way they process information. The CVF was developed by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983: 363) in an attempt to understand organisational effectiveness and to assess the various measures of effectiveness using multidimensional scaling. The framework integrates the different perspectives on organisational effectiveness and is based mainly on shared values in an organisational context (Scott, Mannion, Davies & Marshall, 2003:928).

The CVF has been utilised in a number of studies in order to examine organisational culture (e.g., Moynihan & Pandey, 2004: 40; Parker & Bradley, 2000:125). The CVF

explores the competing demands within organisations between their internal and external environments, on the one hand, and between control and flexibility, on the other (Denison & Spreitzer, 1991:1). According to Howard (1998:231), the CVF is excellent in evaluating organisational cultures for the following reasons: (a) it gives a detailed description of the organisational cultures, (b) it describes the components of these cultures, (c) it provides a method of evaluating similarities and differences in cultures, and (d) it provides a way to measure and analyse cultures (Creque, 2003: 4).

According to the CVF, organisations can have either an internal or external focus, which emphasises either control or flexibility. Organisations with an internal focus emphasise integration, information management and communication, whereas organisations with an external focus emphasise growth, resource acquisition and interaction with the external environment. On the second dimension of conflicting demands, organisations with a focus on control emphasise stability and cohesion, while organisations with a focus on flexibility emphasise adaptability and spontaneity (Zammuto, Gifford & Goodman, 1999). Combined, these two dimensions of competing values map out four major types of organisational culture: the Group Culture, Developmental Culture, Hierarchical Culture, and Rational Culture. Flexibility characterises the Group and Developmental Cultures, and stability and control characterise Hierarchical and Rational Cultures. These features are detailed in figure 2.2 below.

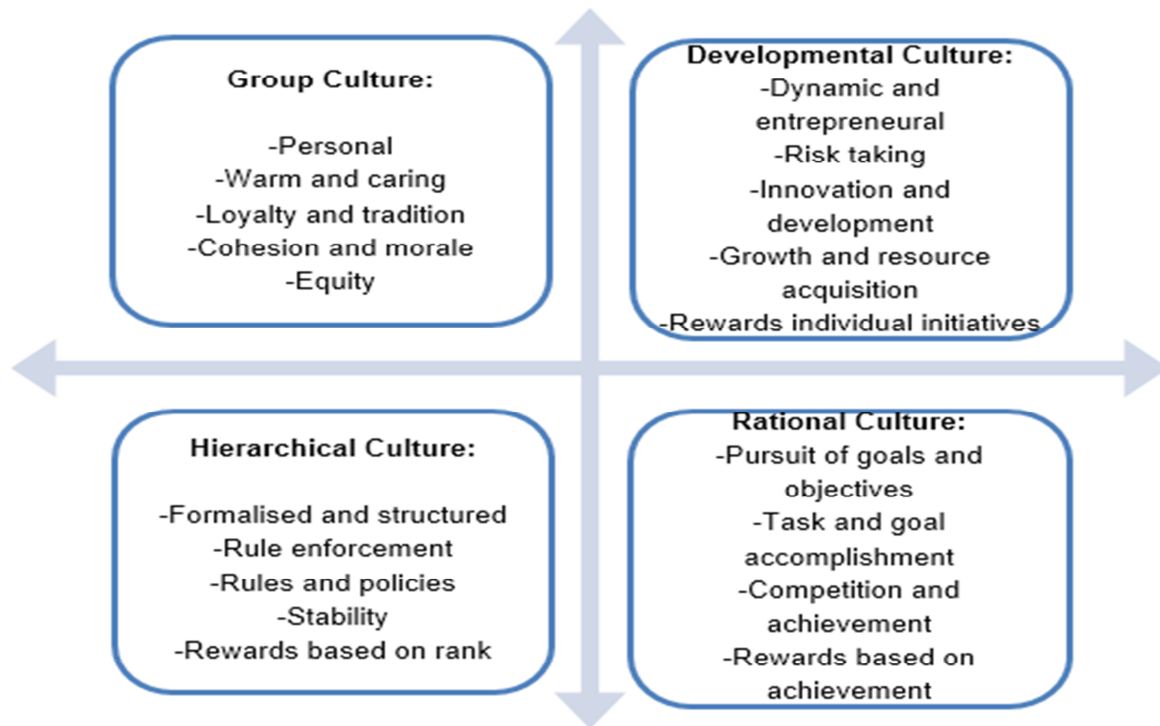


Figure 2.2: The Competing Values Framework

Source: Parker & Bradley (2000:128)

The Group Culture

The Group Culture represents the organisation as a friendly place to work and a place where people share a great deal about themselves. It resembles an extended family, and leaders are considered to be mentors, maybe even parent figures. In this type of culture, the organisation is held together by loyalty and tradition, and employees are highly committed to the organisation. The organisation also values long-term human resource development and attaches great importance to cohesion and morale. Success is defined with regard to sensitivity to customers and concern for people. Teamwork, participation and consensus are key aspects (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

The Developmental Culture

The Developmental Culture represents the organisation as a dynamic, entrepreneurial place to work. People stick their necks out and take risks; the leaders are innovators and risk-takers. Commitment to experimentation and innovation defines the organisation as being on the cutting edge. The long-term emphasis of the organisation is on growth and the acquisition of resources. Success means gaining unique new products and

services, and being a product or service leader is important. Individual initiative and freedom are key aspects (Cameron & Quinn, 2006:).

Hierarchical Culture

The Hierarchical Culture represents the organisation as a formalised and structured place to work where procedures govern people's actions. Leaders are effective organisers and coordinators, and formal rules and policies maintain a smoothly running organisation. The long-term focus of the organisation is on stability and performance with efficient operations. Success is defined in terms of dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low cost. Secure employment and predictability are key aspects (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

Rational Culture

The Rational Culture is very result oriented, i.e. 'getting the job done'. People are competitive and goal oriented. Leaders are hard-driven producers and competitors, and are tough and demanding. The focus is on winning, and reputation and success are common concerns. The long-term focus is on competitive actions and goal achievement. Success is defined in terms of market share and penetration, and competitive pricing and market leadership are important. Hard-driving competitiveness is a key aspect (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

Research has suggested that the different models of culture described above can and do coexist in the same organisation (Parker & Bradley, 2000) and a balance of the four culture types is regarded as desirable.

2.9 Summary

The most basic premise for understanding organisational culture is that it comprises the assumptions, values and beliefs, and artefacts that characterise the organisation. It is important for hospitality establishments to understand clearly their organisational culture in order to manage and develop it. Organisational culture evolves and changes to reflect the norms and values to which the organisation ascribes.

This chapter focused on explaining the term 'organisational culture' and the levels of organisational culture, its characteristics and determinants. The interrelatedness of

national and industry culture was alluded to and, lastly, the development and applicability of the CVF was discussed, providing the rationale for using this framework as conceptual guide for this investigation.

3 JOB STRESS AND BURNOUT IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

3.1 Introduction

The detrimental effects of jobs stress and burnout are a cause for concern for both public and private organisations. With increased national and international competition, organisations are expected to deliver superior performance and this implies more pressure on employees to meet their targets. In the rapidly changing global economy, organisations operate in environments of increased speed, efficiency and competition which could lead to increased levels of job stress. Consequently, economic imperatives and the need to retain competitive advantage have resulted in restructuring and uncertainty. For instance, workforces are constantly being downsized and small organisations are merging or being subsumed by larger, more competitive organisations. This is applicable especially to the hospitality industry which is extremely labour intensive and dependent on staff to deliver services to paying customers.

From the above-mentioned, it is clear that hospitality establishments depend on their employees to ensure customer service and create a competitive advantage. Hospitality employees could be under stress particularly because of the 24/7 nature of the industry. Emotional exhaustion and staff turnover might be of particular concern to management because the recruitment, training and retention of employees are time consuming and costly. Moreover, the delivery of customer-oriented services can be emotionally, physically and mentally taxing on employees. For this reason, it is not surprising that the literature (Airey, 2005:15; Karatepe & Babakus, 2011:66; Kim et al., 2007: 421; Wang, 2009: 53) cites job stress and burnout as two of the major challenges the hospitality industry are facing. Many talented employees also leave the industry in search of better working conditions elsewhere.

According to Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998:23), job stress and burnout should be viewed as two separate constructs. According to these authors, job stress could be seen as a temporary process that requires short-term adjustment and is accompanied by mental and physical symptoms. Burnout, on the other hand, could be described as a particular kind of prolonged job stress that could also refer to a breakdown in adaptation, accompanied by chronic malfunction at work (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998:23). Burnout could be a result of chronic, on-going job stress (Storm & Rothmann,

2003:35) and represents the final stage of breakdown. Burnout could be attributed mainly to the imbalance of personal and professional demands that are placed on an individual (Mostert & Joubert, 2005: 39). According to Sutherland and Cooper (1996: 575), burnout is often associated with tension, irritability and low self-esteem. The development of burnout cannot be exploited fully without insight into the determinants of job stress; hence the need to explain these two concepts in juxtaposition (Cooper, Dewe & O'Driscoll, 2001; Maslach, 2001:397).

Job stress and burnout range from pains and aches to, as Cartwright and Cooper (2001:1) put it, a vague yet often sense of disquiet. In addition, these phenomena are also legitimate causes for concern regarding the modern way of life. For both lay people and researchers, job stress and burnout indicate the natural limit of human endurance and resilience (Wainwright & Calnan, 2002:12) that are a part of life (Jacobs, 2002:26). Job stress and burnout affect the quality of life of employees (Dyck, 2001: 52). In a study of customer service in the hospitality industry, Rothmann, Jackson and Kruger (2003: 52) found a significant relationship between job stress and burnout which indicates that the higher the level of job stress (as a result of job demands and a lack of organisational support), the higher the probability that burnout will occur.

This chapter sets out to explain job stress and burnout and to provide a theoretical grounding for investigating the two concepts. The chapter also examines the causes of job stress and burnout as well as the models that will be used as conceptual guide for the development of the questionnaire for the empirical part of the study.

3.2 Explaining job stress

According to Hobfoll (1988:12), job stress is 'the non-specific response of the body to any demand'. This response includes endocrinal and psychological, as well as physical reactivity to demands. If repeated frequently, this reactivity could disturb the homeostasis of the body and the employee could become hyper-reactive to stress. Hyper-reaction is a condition that is linked to low job satisfaction.

Lo and Lamm (2005:23) define job stress as physical and emotional responses that occur when the job requirement do not match the available capabilities and resources. Employee job stress usually results from a lack of fit between a person's capabilities and the demands of the workplace. In other words, if employees are not qualified to

perform a certain task, they are more likely to experience increased levels of job stress. Lazarus (1993:1) views job stress as resulting from an environmental event that an individual perceives as challenging – this could be mental, physical or emotional. Papworth (2003:39) defines job stress as a physical and mental reaction to a perceived challenge, whereas Halonen and Santrock (1997:53) see job stress as the response of employees to circumstances that threaten them and strain their coping abilities.

For the purpose of this study, Cox's definition of job stress will be used because it incorporates the various definitions of job stress. Cox (1985:1155) views job stress as a complex psychological state deriving from a person's cognitive appraisal of the adaptation to the demands of the work environment. Many factors influence the human system and performance, resulting in stress. The causes of stress are known as stressors.

In light of the above explanation of the term 'job stress', the following section discusses the theoretical perspectives of job stress.

3.3 Theoretical perspectives on job stress

According to Semenchuk and Larkin (2008:36), there are several theoretical stances with which to examine and understand job stress and job stress-related disorders. The most prominent include the stimulus-based approach and the transactional approach, which will be explained below.

3.3.1 *The stimulus-based approach*

The stimulus-based approach is concerned with identifying stressful situations and determining how and why they affect the mind and body (Hoffmann, 1998:12). The basic stimulus-based approach was promoted initially by Sir Charles Symonds, who stated that job stress is a set of causes, not a set of symptoms (Cox & Mackay, 1981).

The stimulus-based approach attempts to describe the various unpleasant situations that cause job stress (Hoffmann, 1998:12). According to this approach, individuals can cope with demanding situations up to a certain level without any damaging effects on them. However, people are able to deal with only a certain amount of pressure. When

this limit is exceeded, they can no longer deal with the demands, and temporary and/or permanent damage could occur (Norton, 1998).

The stimulus-based approach classifies the various job stress challenges that have an impact on people's everyday lives (Norton, 1998). Hoffmann's (1998:12) research focuses on workplace factors such as noise levels and job demands. Working conditions where pertinent deadlines exist, with large amounts of information to be processed, could be rated as stressful under this approach. This could be aggravated by monotony, isolation and situations over which individuals feel they have little control (Hoffmann, 1998:12). Norton (1998) identifies other stressful life events, such as the death of a friend or spouse, the loss of a job, or an unwanted pregnancy, as other factors that could escalate the occurrence of job stress. Everyday life could also be stressful, as well as environmental stressors such as exposure to toxic industrial waste and high levels of noise, heat or cold (Norton, 1998).

Criticism of the stimulus-based approach is that it is incomplete because it does not identify how something becomes a stressor. Also, this approach does not take individual differences into account (Norton, 1998). According to Hoffmann (1998:12), a problem with the stimulus-based approach is that particular situations are not inherently stressful and might vary a great deal in their effect on different people. For example, the noise of a live concert might be stressful for some people, while others might thrive on it. There are also variations in an individual's responses to the same situation at different times, which the stimulus-based approach does not acknowledge (Hoffmann, 1998:12). Despite these points of criticism, the stimulus-based approach provides some insight into job stress especially in the hospitality industry which is highly operational, with many stimulus-based stressors.

3.3.2 *The transactional/interactional approach*

Spangenberg and De Villiers (2007:30) state that the transactional stress theory has generated the most research, and offers a very different perspective on job stress than those from traditional approaches (Dewe, 1997:41). The transactional approach tends to shift the emphasis from objective stressors and strains to the process by which an individual appraises a situation as stressful. The transactional, or interactional, approach's focal point is on thoughts and awareness that have an impact on an

individual's overall stress response, both mentally and physically (Matthieu & Ivanoff, 2006:337). According to Matthieu and Ivanoff (2006:337), the transactional approach is a framework that integrates stress, appraisal and coping theories because they relate to how individuals react to psychologically stressful situations.

The transactional approach views job stress the primary result of employees' perception of risk factors in the work environment and their assessment as to whether personal resources would enable them to meet the environmental challenges or whether they would become overwhelmed by environmental threats (Spangenberg & De Villiers, 2007:30). One of the cornerstones of the transactional approach is the incorporation of the appraisal theory. Primary appraisal is people's evaluation of an event or situation as a potential hazard to their well-being. Once the cognitive interpretation is determined, a secondary appraisal is made, which involves people's evaluation of their ability to deal with the event or situation (Matthieu & Ivanoff, 2006:337).

The transactional model specifies that an individual's response to a stressor is a function of two-linked cognitive processes: primary appraisal and secondary appraisal. In primary appraisal, the stressor is construed as a threat, as harmful, or as a challenge. Once this cognitive interpretation has occurred, a secondary appraisal is made in which people decide whether they have the coping resources to deal effectively with the stressor (Roesch, Weiner & Vaughn, 2002). The transactional approach assumes that coping with stress consists of people's constantly changing cognitive and behavioural efforts to manage external and/or internal demands that are appraised as exceeding their resources (Spangenberg & De Villiers, 2007:30).

3.4 Main causes of job stress

This section discusses the main causes of job stress. The causes attributed to job stress can be explained with regard to external, individual and organisational causes (Cartwright & Cooper, 2001:13; Luthans, 2002:659).

3.4.1 External causes

According to Luthans (2002:659), employees often ignore the impact of external sources of job stress. When the organisation is viewed as an open system, one could expect external forces to contribute towards job stress within the organisation and to

affect the employees. These forces include race, sex and social class (Luthans, 2002:659).

Race, sex and social class: In many cases, minority groups could experience higher levels of job stress than majority groups (Luthans, 2002:659). Job stress issues include differences in beliefs and values, differences in opportunities with regard to rewards and promotions, the perceptions of minority employees that they are being discriminated against or that there is a lack of fit between them and the organisation (Scheinider & Northcraft, 1999:1467). Employees are likely to avoid contact with individuals whom they perceive to be different from them (Scheinider & Northcraft, 1999:1467).

According to Chin, Monroe and Fiscella (2000:318), women seem to experience more psychological distress than men, whereas men are more susceptible to severe physical illness. Professional women experience job stress similar to men due to role, job and environmental demands (e.g., physical setting), interpersonal demands (relationships with superiors) and extra-organisational demands (e.g., relationships with children and spouses). Women, however, experience unique challenges such as discrimination, stereotyping, conflicting demands of both marriage and family with work and career, as well as social isolation (Scheiner & Northcraft, 1999:1467). Social class is recognised as playing a large part in shaping employees' health behaviours, including job stress (Chin et al., 2000:318). Behavioural risk factors such as smoking, a fatty diet, inadequate physical activity, drug and alcohol abuse, and unsafe sexual behaviour are strongly associated with lower social class.

3.4.2 Individual causes

There are several individual causes that could lead to employees' experiencing job stress which mainly include family, relocation and life changes. Individual dispositions tend to moderate the effect that job stress have on the person (Luthans, 2002:659) and include factors such as Type A and B personalities, self-efficacy, psychological hardiness and optimism.

Family, relocation and life changes: An individual's family situations, which could include crises such as illness, conflict or a strained relationship with the spouse or one or more of the children, have the capacity to generate increased levels of job stress for employees (Luthans, 2002:658). Especially in the hospitality industry, employees might

find it increasingly difficult to balance work and family demands due to longer working hours and working night shifts (Atkinson, 1999:104; Carlson & Perrew, 1999:521; Sutherland & Cooper, 1996:575). Work–family conflict is likely to increase if employees work in organisations that expect high levels of performance (DeFrank & Ivancevich, 1998:199). Dual-career couples (where both the husband and wife have careers) might experience job stress due to conflict with society’s expectations concerning family roles and could create feelings of guilt (Cartwright & Cooper, 2001:148).

Social support plays an important role in moderating the effects of time and role stressors in both the family and work domain and in reducing the level of work–family conflict (Carlson & Perrew, 1999:528). The labour force is becoming more mobile, particularly managers and other professionals, and relocation could also increase job stress (Cartwright & Cooper, 2001:153; Luthans, 2002: 698). Moving could be traumatic and stressful because people have to give up their current position, family and outside activities. Furthermore, the age, qualifications, job skills and the personality of the individual influences the way the move is viewed and interpreted. Expatriate managers’ might experience a culture shock when assigned to a foreign country for a specific length of time, and when they return to their home country. Feelings of isolation could also increase job stress (Sanchez, Spector & Cooper, 2000:96).

Life changes such as getting older or sudden events such as the death of spouse might also lead to increased levels of job stress (Luthans, 2002:698). Age creeps up on people and suddenly they realise that ‘old’ is no longer a label that applies to others, but now applies to themselves (Cartwright & Cooper, 2001:64). Cartwright and Cooper (2001:65) consider the most vulnerable group as executives in their late 40s and 50s who are likely to be abusing alcohol and coping with alienated children, aging parents, and extensive financial commitments. There is a correlation between these life changes and the quality of the individual’s health (Luthans, 2002:698). The greater the number of life changes, the more likely it is that job stress will increase. Divorce in particular has a disrupting effect that could interfere with one’s job and increase the level of job stress experienced, especially in the first three months (Luthans, 2002:698).

Personality, self-efficacy and psychological hardiness: Personality type affects ability to deal with job stress. Type A personality refers to an individual who is aggressively involved in achieving more in less time and, if required to do so, against the opposing

efforts of other things or other persons (Luthans, 2002:699). Baron and Byrne (2003:449) describe individuals with Type A personality as those who walk fast, talk fast, think fast, have relatively loud voices, are job- and task-fixed, use sarcasm, have forced rather than natural smiles, and interrupt others when they take too long to come to the point. They are highly competitive, work under constant pressure, are frustrated easily and unable to relax (Baron & Byrne, 2003:449; Luthans, 2002:699). Type A personalities are associated with heart attacks, palpitations and high blood pressure. Most modern thinking associates Type A personalities with anger and hostility which might increase the risk of cardiovascular disease (Baron & Byrne, 2003:449; Luthans, 2002:699).

Type B personalities are the opposite of Type A personalities: These individuals are less competitive and concerned about time, they are usually more patient, have a lower sense of urgency, are more relaxed and do not display anger and hostility easily (Baron & Byrne, 2003:449; Luthans, 2002:699). Self-efficacy refers to people's self-perception of their control over an action and a specific perception of one's capacity to execute a particular task (Maddi, 1996:458). This disposition plays an important role in the ability to deal with job stress (Luthans, 2002:700). Therefore, those individuals with high self-efficacy tend to remain in control when faced with a stressful situation. Psychological hardiness implies that, when individuals are faced with extreme stressors, they are able to deal with the challenges (Luthans, 2002:700). Individuals who can cope well with extreme stressors are viewed as being hardy. Baron and Byrne (2003:700) proposed that hardiness is a constellation of personality characteristics that function as a resource of resistance when stressful life events are encountered.

3.4.3 Organisational causes

The individual has to contend not only with potential external and individual causes of job stress, but also with the organisational causes of job stress. These stressors are unique to an organisation and occur at the macro-level (Luthans, 2002:701). The macro-level dimension deals with factors that are within the organisation and comprises four categories of potential stressors, namely the administrative policies and strategies, organisational structure and design, organisational processes, and working conditions. Cartwright and Cooper (2001:14), Luthans (2002:701), Sutherland and Cooper (1996:575) highlight a number of factors within the organisation that might cause job

stress, for example, task demands and workload, physical demands, role demands, role conflict and role ambiguity, and cohesiveness and social support.

Task demands and workload: Task demands refer directly to the specific job an individual is performing and relate to aspects such as occupation, level of job security and workload. Moorhead and Griffin (1989:198) purport that some occupations are simply more stressful than others. Job security could also influence an individual's perception of job stress. Reengineering, restructuring and downsizing have become regular occurrences in the workplace in order to stay competitive in a global market (DeFrank & Ivancevich, 1998:199). Research on downsizing shows that it is highly stressful for employees (Sutherland & Cooper, 1996:575): Survivors often experience tremendous pressure from the fear of future cuts, the loss of friends and colleagues, and an increase in workload (DeFrank & Ivancevich, 1998:199).

Workload can be perceived as either too much or too little work, termed 'work underload' and 'work overload' respectively. Work underload refers to routine jobs that demand too little with regard to skills and knowledge. This could be just as stressful as work overload where too much is demanded from employees with regard to skills and knowledge (Quick, Nelson & Hurrell, 1997:27). Work underload is often associated with boredom, apathy and a lack of motivation (Sutherland & Cooper, 1996:575). On the other hand, work overload occurs when a person has too much work, inadequate time to complete the task, or the subjective feeling that they are incompetent to do the job (Cartwright & Cooper, 2001:15).

The introduction of new technology usually requires management and workers to adapt to new equipment, systems and ways of working, which might all be inherently stressful processes (Cartwright & Cooper, 2001:16). A new term was coined for the adverse reactions that some individuals show when confronted with new technology – techno-stress (Genco, 2000:59). Individuals suffering from techno-stress feel inadequate and frustrated because they are not up to date with new technology. The stress they experience leads to feelings of helplessness, loss of motivation, mood swings and even depression.

Physical demands: Physical demands refer to the working conditions and include the physical surroundings and the design or physical setting of the workplace (Cartwright &

Cooper et al., 2001:14; Quick et al., 1997:21). Physical surroundings include aspects such as noise, humidity, lighting, smells and temperature. Excessive noise, vibrations, heat, cold, humidity dry air, poor lighting, extremely bright lighting or other rays, such as ultraviolet light and electromagnetic radiation, could lead to job stress. Examples of the design or physical setting of the workplace being sources of job stress are: The kitchen personnel of a restaurant might experience job stress due to excessive heat in the kitchen, smells or other factors; and a poorly designed office could make it difficult for individuals to have privacy, or could result in boredom or loneliness.

Role demands, role conflict and role ambiguity: Role demands refer to a set of behaviours that are associated with a particular position or role that employees have in a group or organisation (Moorhead & Griffin, 1989:200). When these are defined and understood clearly and employees perceive expectations as clear and non-conflicting, they should be experiencing the minimum job stress (Cartwright & Cooper, 2001:16). Although individuals bring different roles into the organisation, the most important role they have at work is their organisational one (Luthans, 2002:702).

An individual might also experience job stress as a result of role conflict and role ambiguity. Role conflict and role ambiguity develop when employees are uncertain about their job definition, objectives, co-workers' expectations and the responsibilities associated with the job (Cartwright & Cooper, 2001:17; Luthans, 2002:702). Role conflict and role ambiguity could lead to lowered self-esteem, depression, dissatisfaction, decreased motivation, and increased labour turnover. Role conflict could be experienced as incongruence between two or more roles (Moorhead & Griffin, 1989:200) or as conflicting job demands (Cartwright & Cooper, 2001:17).

Role ambiguity is defined as a lack of clarity regarding the exact nature of a particular role. This could result from having a poor job description, or receiving unclear instructions from supervisors or unclear cues from fellow workers. Employees can experience three types of role conflict (Luthans, 2002:704): inter-role conflict, intra-role conflict and person-role conflict. Inter-role conflict occurs when a person experiences conflict among two or more roles that must be fulfilled at the same time. Work roles and non-work roles are often found to be the cause in this case. Intra-role conflict might be created by contradictory expectations as to how a given role should be fulfilled. Luthans (2002:704) gives the example of a manager who is unsure whether he should be

autocratic or democratic when dealing with his subordinates. Person-role conflict might be caused by a basic incongruence between the person and the expectations of the role. Another role demand is the amount of responsibility. According to Cartwright and Cooper (2001:17), there are two types of responsibilities, one related to people matters and the other to technical matters such as budgets, equipment and buildings.

Cohesiveness and social support. Cohesiveness refers to a sense of togetherness that the employees experience, especially at the lower levels of the organisation. High levels of job stress could occur when employees do not experience a sense of cohesiveness (Luthans, 2002:400). If an employee cannot be a part of the group due to the task design, the supervisor preventing it, or other group members' shutting out the individual, a lack of cohesiveness could be experienced as highly stressful. Quick et al. (1997:197) conclude that there is a strong connection between social support and health. Socially isolated individuals are less healthy, both physically and psychologically, and they are more likely to die quickly (Quick et al., 1997:196).

3.5 Spielberger's Job Stress Model

This study used the Job Stress Survey (JSS) which was developed by Spielberger (1991; Spielberger & Vagg, 1999). The model has been tested and applied in the service industry and was found to provide efficient information related to the level of job stress that employees experience in the workplace. The JSS was designed to measure generic sources of job stress that are encountered by employees in a wide variety of work settings. Each of the JSS items illustrates a generic and job-related event. This survey follows Murphy and Hurrell's (1987) plea for occupational stress instruments to measure a core set of questions. Prior to constructing the JSS, Spielberger and colleagues (Grier, 1982; Spielberger, Westberry, Grier & Greenfield, 1981) had developed the Police Stress Survey (PSS) and the Teacher Stress Survey (TSS) to measure work-related stressors encountered by law enforcement officers and high school teachers.

When developing the PSS, focus groups that consisted of police officers helped to select items from a large pool of items that had been derived from a comprehensive review of police stress literature (Spielberger et al., 1981). The JSS instrument has been developed from the PSS and the TSS to measure occupational stress

(Spielberger & Vagg, 1999). The selection of the items was based on extensive research on the perceived severity and frequency of occurrence of stressors experienced by not only teachers and police officers, but also managerial, professional, clerical and maintenance workers (Grier, 1982; Spielberger et al., 1981; Spielberger & Vagg, 1999).

This work fulfilled Murphy and Hurrell's (1987) plea for an instrument measuring generic stressors with which to compare the levels of stress between different occupational groups. Spielberger and colleagues also followed the recommendation by DeFrank (1988) and Dewe (1997) that more attention should be paid to both the severity and frequency of job stress. Ratings of the perceived severity of a particular stressor gives information about the impact of the stressor event on the worker's emotional state at that moment. Examining the frequency of occurrence of a particular occupational stressor provides trait-like data on how often the individual has responded to that stressor. Spielberger (1991) views the difference between the perceived severity of stressor events and how often they are encountered as similar to the difference between emotional states and personality traits.

3.6 Explaining burnout

The term 'burnout' was first coined in 1974 by Herbert Freudenberger (Scott, 2006) who defined it as 'the extinction of motivation or incentive, especially where one's devotion to a cause or relationship fails to produce the desired results'. According to Schaufeli (2003:1), 'burnout' was first used as a colloquial term by professionals such as poverty lawyers, social workers, teachers, and hospice counsellors to denote the gradual energy depletion and loss of motivation and commitment that were often associated with a wide array of other physical and mental symptoms. Maru (2002:5) states that burnout is a condition that is on the increase particularly among workers in the hospitality industry and other service industries. It could be seen as an occupational hazard for various people-oriented professions (Maslach, 1998:68) because it is most commonly found among individuals who have intense contact and involvement with other people during the course of their workday (Maru, 2002:5).

3.7 Theoretical perspectives on burnout

Schaufeli (2003: 14) claims that there are many theoretical explanations covering the different perspectives on burnout. Some of the prominent theoretical perspectives on burnout include the ecological perspective and the authoritarian-moral perspective.

3.7.1 The ecological perspective

According to Waite (1994:403), ecology is the study of the relationships of organisms to one another and their surroundings. To understand burnout from this approach, a person, their ecosystem, and the reciprocal impact between the two must be understood. This approach sees burnout as being generated by the dynamic interaction of personal factors (e.g., poor physical health) and environmental factors (e.g., work overload), which also include the influence of other ecosystems (e.g., family problems) (Carroll & White, 1982:41). On each of these levels, there might be some situations that a person could control. At the same time, there are situations out of human control that might cause burnout. There are a number of environmental factors that could cause burnout, including an escalating pace of life, extended life span, increasing work demands, and intense commitment to work (Gray, 2002:752).

3.7.2 The authoritarian-moral perspective

The authoritarian-moral approach to burnout is based on the Theory X view of management. This theory assumes that most people lack ambition, avoid responsibility, resist change, are unconcerned with the needs of organisations, and dislike work. Therefore, this approach views the role of the manager to direct, manipulate, control, reward, and punish employees (Carroll & White, 1982:41). According to Norton (1998:77), theory X managers assume that all workers need close supervision, and that they have little or no ambition to move up in organisations. This approach is resistant to positive feedback because of its self-justifying moral rigidity. Because of the high job stress conditions, staff members become burned out (Carroll & White, 1982:41).

This investigation will use the MBI, which was developed by Maslach and Jackson (1996), to measure the aspects that are associated with the burnout syndrome. The researcher chose this instrument because it has been widely used in research on burnout and has been tested statistically. The MBI has been found to be reliable in

providing useful information to researchers in order to identify how individuals are affected by burnout in the workplace or elsewhere.

3.8 Factors contributing to burnout

Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter (2001:397) note that burnout is more likely to occur among younger employees (below 40 years of age). Since age is confounded with work experience, burnout is more likely to occur in the earlier stages of one's career (Maslach et al., 2001). Burnout is also more common among those who are unmarried (particularly men), and those with a higher level of education (Maslach et al., 2001:397). The antecedent could be individual differences and work factors.

3.8.1 Individual factors

As in the case of job stress, burnout is heavily influenced by an individual's personality and ability to cope. Burnout is more pronounced among individuals with negative affectivity, those with Type A personality, and workaholics. Jamal and Baba (2001:231) concurs by stating that Type A personality has been linked to burnout. Researchers such as Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, Warren and de Chermont (2003:914) found that negative affectivity relate significantly to the exhaustion component of burnout. Negative affectivity refers to the tendency to experience negative emotional states, such as anger, fear, nervousness, guilt and low self-esteem. Individuals who score high on negative affectivity are more prone to stressors and report more strain than those who report low negative affectivity (O'Driscoll & Cooper, 2002).

Negativity has been strongly correlated to one of the Big Five personality traits, neuroticism, which is another personality variable that has been associated with burnout (Langelaan, Bakker, Doornen & Schaufeli, 2006:521). Neuroticism refers to the tendency to experience distressing emotions such as frustration, fear and depression (Jamal & Baba, 2001:231). This pattern has been likened to an extrinsic orientation towards activity that is fuelled by a need to gain interpersonal superiority or prestige (Sturman, 1999). Workaholic behaviour was acknowledged originally as a possible root cause of burnout because it was proposed that working excessively and frantically could lead to a depletion of mental resources (Maslach, 1996).

Workaholics share two characteristics: the need to work excessively and a strong inner drive (McMillan, O'Driscoll & Burke, 2003). Some researchers (Schaufeli, Taris & van Rhenen, 2008:173) note it is a pervasive phenomenon that these characteristics result in workaholics' spending a high proportion of their time at work and frequently thinking about work even when they are not working. A recent study with 845 middle managers in the hospitality industry found that workaholism and burnout are positively correlated, and are both associated with negative outcomes for the individual, such as poor social relations and health problems (Schaufeli et al., 2008:173). However, they differ with regard to their impact on organisational outcomes. Workaholism is also positively related to organisational commitment, whereas burnout is associated with low organisational commitment and job dissatisfaction (Schaufeli et al., 2008:173).

3.8.2 Organisational factors

Sometimes relationships with co-workers, supervisors and administrators could contribute more to burnout than serving and interacting with customers do. This is due to the fact that they are additional sources of emotional stress and might add to the development of emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation. If colleagues contribute to stress levels, they rob the burnout sufferer of a resource for coping with and preventing burnout (Maslach, 1982:85).

Cumulative evidence suggests that a heavy workload is strongly and consistently related to the exhaustion component of burnout (Lee & Ashforth, 1996:123; Maslach et al., 2001). A high workload could lead to exhaustion due to the subsequent increased demands on employees' time and depletion of the amount of energy that is required to meet the demands of the job (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). Researchers propose that the consistent overload of employees might reduce their ability to recover and restore balance in their lives (Maslach & Leiter, 2008).

As in the case of job stress, role conflict is also related to burnout (Maslach et al., 2001). Role conflict occurs when employees are faced with incompatible expectations from different sources (e.g., conflicting demands from supervisors and clients). Role theory posits that, when conflicting expectations are placed on individuals, they could experience job stress, reduced satisfaction and lower performance (Acker, 2003). Meta-analytic studies provide support for the positive relationship between role conflict and

the emotional exhaustion component of burnout (Lee & Ashforth, 1996). Role ambiguity, where employees lack adequate information about what is expected from them (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993: 621), is another job characteristic that has been associated with burnout.

Role theory assumes further that role ambiguity leads to dissatisfaction, anxiety and lower performance (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993: 621). Role ambiguity is usually caused by a lack of clarity regarding the procedures for completing tasks and job performance criteria, for example, where employees do not have clearly outlined objectives for their job and when they are uncertain about their responsibilities (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993:621). Other organisational factors that contribute to burnout include working with people, a lack of recognition, a lack of control, competing organisational goals, a lack of career and promotion opportunities, work overload, and a lack of skill variety.

Working with people: According to Maslach (1982:85), dealing with people could be very demanding because it requires a great amount of energy. Milner, Fisher and Latif (2007:31) concur by claiming that burnout has been identified as being particularly common in work environments where contact with other people constitute a significant part of the job tasks. People who work with customers are expected to remain calm in times of a crisis, to always be understanding and compassionate, and to be patient at all times. This often leads to the burnout of the individual providing a service (Maslach, 1982:85). Paine (1982:237) adds that burnout is a problem in organisations that deliver social services. Burnout is even seen as an occupational hazard for various people-oriented professions (Maslach, 1998:68).

Lack of recognition: Owing to downsizing, employees are often expected to give more in terms of time, skills and effort, but they are receiving less in terms of career opportunities, lifetime employment, and job security (Scott, 2006:7). Awards, public praise, bonuses and other tokens of appreciation and recognition of accomplishment go a long way in keeping staff morale high. Where accolades are scarce, the likelihood of burnout developing is greater. Some occupations are naturally stressful, but workers accept it, along with a sufficient pay check. If demands are high and financial compensation is low, however, the risk of burnout increases (Scott, 2006:7). McKay (2001:23) purports that the employees who work hard and do not receive the gratitude they deserve from their managers are likely to develop burnout.

Lack of control: When individuals lack a sense of control over their work, burnout is more likely to occur. A lack of control could be caused by superiors' dictating to employees what to do, how to do it and when to do it. It could also be a consequence of not having any say in organisational policies and decisions that affect an individual's job. This might add to the emotional strain of helping relationships (Maslach, 1982:85). According to Scott (2006:7), employees who feel restricted and unable to exercise personal control over their environment and daily decisions tend to be at greater risk for burnout. Poor communication in a company might cause or exacerbate some of these problems. When employees have a problem and cannot properly discuss it with someone who is in a position to help, they could develop feelings of low personal control (Scott, 2006:7).

Competing organisational goals: According to Carroll and White (1982:41), the clarity and feasibility of goals and objectives could determine the extent of burnout. Couper (2005:8) affirms that burnout is often related to unrealistic, high aspirations and expectations of oneself, combined with impossible, unattainable goals. Scott (2006: 7) maintains that employees should have not only clearly articulated goals, but also the means to achieve them. When it is not clear to employees how to succeed, it is harder for them to enjoy their work and feel they are doing a good job.

If the job description is not well explained or if the job requirements are constantly changing and expectations are unclear, workers are at higher risk of developing burnout. In some circumstances it is just not possible to do a job as explained. For example, if an insufficient amount of time is given in which to complete a task, it is generally not possible to do the job well. Workers will put in a great deal of effort and never feel successful with what they have done, which leaves them at risk for burnout (Scott, 2006:7).

Lack of career and promotion opportunities: Research conducted by Magennis and Smith (2005:1) found that workers who experience adequate promotion opportunities are less likely to develop high levels of burnout. According to Love (2007:6), the 'no-growth status' of many smaller businesses has increased pressure on employees for higher productivity, in many instances with reduced pay. Employees who perceive that promotions are not awarded fairly are also likely candidates for burnout (Love, 2007:6).

Work overload: Maslach (1982:85) views work overload as a common contributor to burnout within a job setting (Storm & Rothmann, 2003:35). Work overload has been described as a burden that exceeds the individuals' coping ability, be it emotional or physical. For employees in service industries, work overload occurs when there are too many challenges and too little time to adequately attend to them. The strain of having to deal with so many people could lead to employees' withdrawing psychologically and engaging less with the clients. Visser (2007:34) also ascertained that work overload is a great cause of burnout.

Lack of skill variety: According to Hoffmann (1998:14) if the majority of an individual's day is spent on mind-numbing, dull or unpleasant tasks, the individual is likely to develop burnout. Boredom from doing work that never changes or pose no challenge to a worker puts an individual at risk for developing burnout. Hoffmann (1998:14) further states that boring, repetitive work could increase the chances of developing depression sleep disturbances and stomach disorders.

Emotional labour is the extent to which an occupation requires certain emotional expression and, in some cases emotional suppression, for effective workplace interaction (Gopalan & Satoris, 2008:10). Also, job-focused emotional labour refers to the level of emotional demands in an occupation (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002:17). This is particularly pertinent in the hospitality industry where service delivery and customer satisfaction are the defining factors. Emotional labour and burnout have been the focus and concern of many industries for years, and the positive correlation between emotional labour and burnout has been documented widely (Gopalan & Satoris, 2008:10). Research conducted by Gopalan and Satoris (2008:10) showed that emotional labour result in high emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and a lack of professional accomplishment.

3.9 Symptoms of burnout

Carroll and White (1982:41) argue that burnout symptoms might occur within the person as well as in various parts of the individual's environment. Hoffmann (1998:14) concurs by mentioning that burnout can eventually threaten employees' jobs, relationships, and their health. Maslach (1998:68) states that suffering from burnout could harm both personal and social functioning and might lead to negative symptoms in the emotional

and physical health of individuals (Ndetei, Ongecha, Mutiso, Kuria, Khasakhala & Kokonya, 2008:33). According to Carroll and White (1982:41), health symptoms include fatigue and chronic exhaustion, headaches, insomnia, ulcers, sudden weight loss or weight gain, muscular pain, high blood pressure and amenorrhea. Scott (2006:7) notes that burnout sufferers are likely to feel tired and have little energy to face the daily challenges – this state is termed ‘depleted physical energy’.

Scott (2006:7) claims that burnout could lead to depression, which has been linked to a variety of other health concerns such as heart disease and stroke, eating disorders, diabetes, and some forms of cancer. Chronic depression also affects the immune system and could contribute to premature death (Scott, 2006:7). Individuals who are suffering from burnout usually receive the ‘message’ from their body that something needs to change; this might come in the form of an increased susceptibility to colds, the flu, and other minor illnesses.

Behavioural symptoms might include increased consumption of caffeine, tobacco, alcohol, over-the-counter and illicit drugs, over- and under-eating, and hyperactivity (Carroll & White, 1982:41). Other changes in behaviour usually include withdrawal, avoidance of people, sexual incapacity and a loss of a sense of humour (Theron, 2005:56). Burnout sufferers might also make a number of mistakes through carelessness, inattention or a lack of focus on a problem at hand (Couper, 2005:5). Emotional distancing, paranoia, depression, nervous ticks, an inability to concentrate, and increased anger and tension could all be seen as emotional symptoms of burnout (Carroll & White, 1982:41). An individual might feel impatient, moody, inexplicably sad, or just become frustrated more easily than usual. They might feel as if they cannot deal with life as easily as they once could (Scott, 2006:7).

Carroll and White (1982:41) mention the following relationship indicators of burnout: isolation from or over-bonding with other staff; responding to clients in a mechanical manner; increased expressions of anger; and increased interpersonal problems in marital and other interpersonal relationships away from work. According to Scott (2006:7), less investment in interpersonal relationships is also a symptom of burnout. Individuals might withdraw somewhat from interpersonal relationships, feel like they have less to give, be less interested in having fun, or just have less patience with people

than usual. For whatever reason, people who are experiencing burnout can usually see the effects in their relationships.

Attitude indicators include boredom, cynicism, distrust of peers and supervisors, and a hyper-critical attitude (Carroll & White, 1982:41). An increasingly pessimistic outlook is also present in someone who is suffering from burnout. Individuals experiencing burnout find it harder to get excited about life, to expect the best, and to 'look on the bright side' in general. Because optimism is a great buffer for stress, those suffering from burnout find it increasingly hard to survive testing times than they normally would (Scott, 2006:7). Couper (2005:5) argues that burnout sufferers are easily irritated by people in the work context and struggle to remain patient and be a good listener. As stated above, the negative consequences of early life stressors include an increase in the risk for the development of anger, anxiety, and substance abuse disorders (Scott, 2006:7).

3.10 Maslach's Burnout Model

As indicated before, the MBI served as a conceptual guide for this investigation as it has been validated within the service industry. The MBI was developed by drawing on extensive interviews employed in the service industry. In developing the model the aim was to go beyond traditional research and literature on job stress by extending the scope on the experience of stress (exhaustion) to include a person's response to the job (cynicism) and the response in the self (feelings of inefficacy) (Maslach, 2003:189). The dimension of exhaustion embodies the basic stress response, which shows positive correlations with aspects such as role overload and stress-related health problems.

The cynicism dimension is not commonly found in other stress models and, according to Maslach (2003:189), represents the key feature of the burnout phenomenon. The way in which the third dimension, feelings of inefficacy, relates to the other two dimensions in the model depends on the situation and could either be viewed as a consequence of exhaustion or cynicism or, in some case, these feelings seem to develop sequentially. Maslach (2003:189) further points to differences between the way in which the three dimensions of burnout relate to various workplace variables within the organisational setting, for example, a lack of resources and information, working relationship, insufficient time, and heavy work demands.

Maslach (2003:189-190) suggests that exhaustion and cynicism mostly manifests as a result of work overload and interpersonal conflict, whereas a sense of inefficacy mostly results from a lack of resources or support. Consequently, the variation in the manifestation of these dimensions would result in different patterns of the occurrence of burnout. The majority of research on burnout focuses on situational variables as possible causes for burnout, such as workload and demands, role overload, and a lack of support from colleagues (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998:23).

Burnout has captured the attention of scholars who have investigated the topic in the hospitality and other industries (Merritt, 1996; Pienaar & Willemse, 2008:1053; Vallen, 1993:54). As indicated before, burnout comprises, according to the MBI, three core dimensions, namely emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, and reduced personal accomplishment (Brenninkmeijer & van Yperen, 2003; Maslach, 1998:68). These dimensions will be explained in the next section:

Emotional exhaustion: According to Maru (2002:5), emotional exhaustion is considered to be the most important of the three components and represents the basic individual stress dimension of burnout (Maslach, 1998:68). Emotional exhaustion is when a person feels mentally drained and 'empty' and as if she has been depleted of her emotional resources (Maslach, 1998:68). This could lead to a person's becoming overly involved and feeling emotionally overwhelmed by the emotional demands imposed by other people.

Employees suffering from burnout lack the energy to face another day (Maslach, 1982:85). Chronic exhaustion could lead people to distance themselves emotionally and cognitively from their work, and might cause individuals to withdrawing from their jobs (Rothmann et al., 2003:52). Maslach (1998:68) argues that the major sources of emotional exhaustion are personal conflict at work and work overload (Maslach & Leiter, 1997:191).

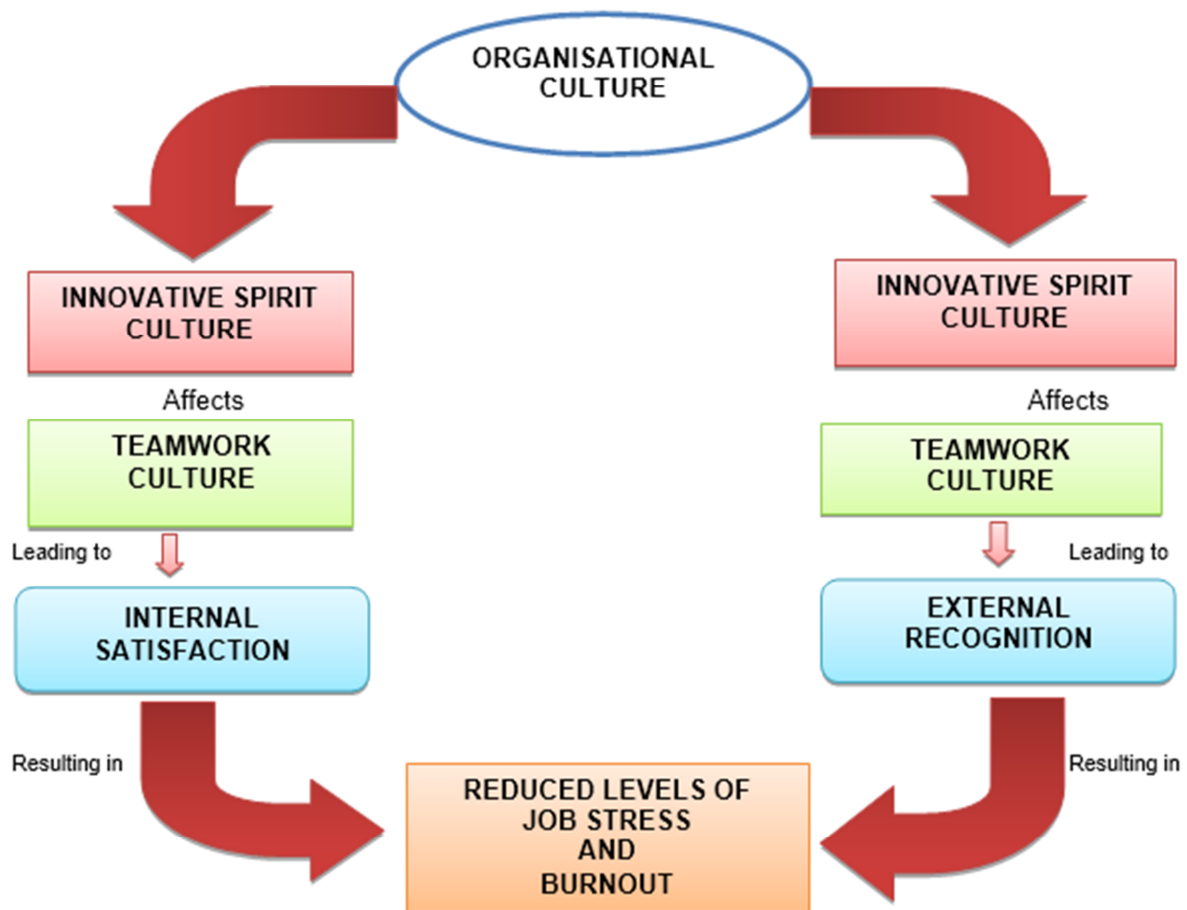
Depersonalisation: Depersonalisation usually occurs after emotional exhaustion and tends to be a direct response to job stressors (Maru, 2002:6). It refers to an individual's personal detachment from work and other people, and represents the interpersonal dimension of burnout (Maru, 2002:6; Maslach, 1998:68). Depersonalisation refers to a cynical, negative attitude towards one's work or towards the recipients of one's service.

(Maru, 2002:6). According to Maslach (1982:85), depersonalisation leads to detached, callous and even de-humanised response signals. Employees displaying the depersonalisation symptom of burnout would take on a distant attitude towards work as well as towards the people on the job (Maslach & Leiter, 1997:191).

Reduced personal accomplishment: The third symptom of burnout is reduced personal accomplishment, which denotes a reduced sense of competency in comparison with one's functioning in past (Brenninkmeijer & Van Yperen, 2003). Maslach (1982:85) mentions that individuals who are experiencing reduced personal accomplishment have a gnawing sense of inadequacy which might result in a self-imposed decree of failure. Maslach and Leiter (1997:191) claim that individuals who experience a sense of diminished personal accomplishment belittle the things that they are successful at and no longer feel they are able to make a difference by means of their work or personal interactions. These feelings of inadequacy directly affect an individual's self-efficacy. The reduced personal accomplishment dimension represents the self-evaluation component of burnout (Maslach, 1998:68).

3.11 Linking organisational culture to job stress and burnout

Lee and Chang (2008:732) examined the relationship between organisational culture and employee attitudes when dealing with job stress and burnout. They found a relationship between the aspects of organisational culture and aspects of job stress and burnout. Figure 3.1 explains the relationship between organisational culture and job stress and burnout.



(Source: Researcher's own conceptual model)

Figure 3.1: Relationship between organisational culture and job stress and burnout

Figure 3.1 clearly depicts a positive effect of organisational culture on job stress and burnout which results in employees' being more motivated and satisfied with their jobs. It furthermore illustrates the impact that organisational culture has on job stress and burnout through innovative spirit and teamwork, which brings about positive results and leads to people becoming motivated and enjoying their work – with positive outcomes for any organisation. Thus, organisational culture helps organisations in mitigating the detrimental effects of job stress and burnout on hospitality employees and people who work in the service industry as a whole.

Culture has been conceptualised as schemata that are developed as a means of a shared understanding of how things are done (Sims & Lorenzi, 1992:74). Schemata are processes, practices or ways in which tasks and problems are approached. They are programmes that organisations utilise when faced with a certain stimulus (Sims & Lorenzi, 1992:74). Because organisational culture guides the search for and interpretation of information (Sims & Lorenzi, 1992:74), organisation members pay more

attention to the presence and absence of behaviours that lie at the core of its culture. The cultural values to which organisations ascribe are reflected in actual behavioural patterns of individual members. In this regard, organisational culture is expected to moderate the levels of job stress and burnout within hospitality industry personnel (Ogbonna, 1993:42).

However, organisational culture is expected to moderate the effects of job stress and burnout only in so far as the culture addresses norms regarding internal constituents. This expectation is consistent with Quinn and Rohrbaugh's (1993:363) distinction between organisational values regarding internal constituents such as employees, and external constituents such as customers. These authors referred to values related to cooperation and morale as 'internal values', and values related to innovativeness and productivity as 'external values'. They found that organisational culture could have a positive impact on the different levels of employees.

Organisational culture could contribute in several ways to higher performance, such as greater motivation, more positive views of the organisation, and higher retention, which could lead to employees' experiencing low stress levels (Ogbonna & Harris, 2000:766). Moreover, organisational culture could be associated with greater job satisfaction if there is enough support for work-related problems, a positive view of leadership and a sense of participation in the organisation; thus, diminishing the likelihood of employees' having job stress and burnout (Ogbonna & Harris, 2000:766).

Based on organisational culture studies in South African organisations, for instance in the South African Post Office, Ogbonna (1993:42) highlights that organisational culture helps to provide stability to an organisation. This implies that organisational culture is a useful tool for managers of a diverse workforce within the South African business environment. Some researchers (Ogbonna & Harris, 2000:766) advise organisations to exploit the multiple advantages that could be offered by culture and not to focus on the more tangible side of the organisation.

3.12 Summary

In the modern workplace, employees are confronted with many challenges. Organisations need to be competitive and productive, and employees need to deliver optimal performance and ensure continuous customer satisfaction. The expectations

placed on employees in the hospitality industry are particularly intense as service delivery and customer orientation is the main characteristic of the industry. It is no surprise that job stress and burnout are major concerns within the industry.

This chapter provided theoretical perspectives on job stress and burnout. Although continuous job stress usually leads to burnout, it is not always the case. For this reason, job stress and burnout were presented as separate processes and the main causes of each phenomenon were discussed. The chapter explained Spielberger's Job Stress Model and Maslach's Burnout Model that were used to construct the measuring instrument. Lastly, the link between organisational culture and job stress and burnout was discussed.

4 PROFILING THE TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE FREE STATE PROVINCE

4.1 Introduction

The tourism and hospitality industry is an important sector of the global economy and a potential source of sustained income for countries and local regions. The hospitality industry, as such, is an indispensable part of the South African economy because it creates jobs and boosts the local economy. The hospitality sector is the largest sector within the tourism industry and consists of multiple organisations that provide accommodation, lodging, and food services for people when they are away from home (THETA, 2010: 40; Woods, 1989:82). The components of the hospitality product include not only the physical product, but also the service associated with it. It is clear that the tourism industry and the hospitality industry are inextricably linked.

This industry is reliant on the efforts of their personnel to deliver intangible products, which makes the employees service workers. The focus is on the manner in which the hospitality employee provides the service – as opposed to the service itself – which is critical to the customer's overall enjoyment of the product or experience (Davidson, 2003:206). According to Boella (2000:47), the primary characteristic of the hospitality industry is dealing with people and people-related issues. This is in contrast, for example, to a manufacturing operation that can stop the production line and deal with the defect or problem immediately. In this sense, the hospitality industry is continually making and delivering products which are produced and consumed at practically the same rate, allowing little margin for error.

The aim of this chapter is to reflect on the development of the tourism and hospitality industry within the South African context and the challenges that the hospitality industry, in particular, is facing. The chapter will also profile the Free State Province and its two main economic centres, Bloemfontein and Clarens, that were the focus of this investigation.

4.2 The development of the tourism and hospitality industry in the South African context

The tourism industry is recognised as one of the industries that play a vital role in the development of cities and rural areas alike and that contributes significantly to a country's economy (Bonajala, 2012:20). Prior to 1994, data on the scope and extent of the tourism industry in South Africa were insufficient and poorly kept. This was in part due to the international sanctions and the undeveloped nature of the country's tourism industry during the apartheid era. Until the early 1990s, the South African tourism industry was in a state of crisis, beset by problems such as under-investment and low numbers of international tourist arrivals. Because of the unfavourable international and national policy environment that confronted the industry, Rogerson (2002:143) reported that 'tourism development in South Africa had largely been a missed opportunity'.

In order to address this situation, new policy frameworks were put in place since 1994. The government developed a blueprint which was called the 1996 National White Paper on The Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa (1996). In 1998 the Tourism in GEAR (Growth, Employment and Redistribution) strategy document was developed to address issues and trends in South African tourism (South Africa, 1996). Together these government documents, produced by the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT), furnished the key policy foundations for developing the tourism industry in post-apartheid South Africa (Rogerson, 2002:143).

South Africa's resource base for tourism is phenomenal. The country's tourism attractiveness lies in its diversity (DEAT - refer to SA, 2002). Some of the features which make South Africa an incredibly attractive tourism proposition are accessible wildlife, varied and impressive scenery, unspoiled wilderness areas, diverse cultures (in particular traditional and township African cultures), generally sunny and hot climate, no jet lag for tourists from Europe, a well-developed infrastructure, and virtually unlimited opportunities for special-interest activities such as whale watching, wild-water rafting, hiking, bird watching, bush survival, deep-sea fishing, hunting and diving (DEAT - refer to SA, 1996, 2002). In addition, unique archaeological sites and battlefields, the availability of excellent conference and exhibition facilities, a wide range of sporting facilities, good communication and medical services, internationally known attractions (e.g., Table Mountain, Cape of Good Hope, Sun City, Kruger National Park, Garden

Route) and unrivalled opportunities to visit other regional, internationally known attractions (e.g., Victoria Falls, the Okavango Swamps) make South Africa an almost complete tourist destination (DEAT - refer to SA, 2002).

In the past, tourism played a relatively small role in the South African economy and had a long way to go to fulfil its potential to significantly contribute to national income (DEAT - refer to SA, 1996). Apart from the growth in international arrivals and total foreign exchange earnings, tourism also fosters entrepreneurial opportunities for historically disadvantaged communities, relieves poverty, and provides much needed employment. The tourism industry is thus a powerful partner in local economic development (LED) (DEAT - refer to SA, 1996). Both domestic and international tourism can create employment; it is a relatively labour-intensive industry that requires a multiplicity of skills from accountants to hairdressers to tour guides and trackers. Furthermore, tourism can provide very good skills development opportunities for local communities (DEAT - refer to SA, 2003).

Tourism has become a fiercely competitive business. For tourism destinations the world over, competitive advantage is no longer natural, but increasingly man made, driven by science, technology, information and innovation (DEAT - refer to SA, 2002). As such, it is not simply the stock of natural resources of South Africa that will determine the country's competitiveness in tourism, but rather, how these resources are managed and to what extent they are being complemented by man-made innovations. In this regard, South Africa scores well on three important fronts (DEAT - refer to SA, 2003). First, the well-established network of national parks and private nature reserves are very much 'on trend' with the demands of the increasingly environmentally sensitive visitor. Second, some companies are already leaders in global 'best practice' in ecotourism, while others have created Disneyland-like attractions in South Africa, boosting the country's name internationally.

Third, the successful political transformation in South Africa has virtually opened up the country's tourism potential to the rest of the world and, indeed, to the previously neglected groups in society (DEAT - refer to SA, 2003). Had its history been different, South Africa would probably have been one of the most visited places in the world (Rogerson, 2002:143). As a consequence of its history, the tourism industry in South Africa had been woefully protected – protected from foreign competition (limited

international investment in tourism facilities), protected from demanding, long-stay tourists (limited flow of international visitors) and protected from itself (suppliers cater to a largely homogeneous and predictable clientele, i.e. the easily identifiable needs of the privileged class).

As indicated before, tourism has, perhaps more than any other sector, the potential to achieve the objectives of the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) of the new government (DEAT - refer to SA, 2002:13). Tourism creates opportunities for the small entrepreneur; promotes awareness and understanding among different cultures; breeds a unique informal sector; helps to save the environment; creates economic linkages with agriculture, light manufacturing and curios (art, craft, souvenirs); creates linkages with the services sector (accommodation, health and beauty, entertainment, banking and insurance); and provides dignified employment opportunities (DEAT - refer to SA, 2002:13).

Tourism could also play a strategic role in boosting other sectors of the economy: the agricultural sector that benefits from the tourism industry (increased demand for new agricultural products and services such as organic agriculture, farm tourism); the manufacturing sector (the supply of furniture and fittings, construction, linens, pots, pans) and crafts (wood-working, curios, fine art) (DEAT - refer to SA, 1996). Many international tourism destinations have successfully used the tourism industry to encourage other sectors of the economy and to generate new and innovative employment opportunities (DEAT - refer to SA, 1996).

The tourism industry in South Africa in the past had been faced with a number of impediments to its further growth and development.

4.2.1 Some of the problems that hindered the development of Tourism in South Africa were as follows

Inadequately resourced and funded tourism industry

Tourism was previously viewed as a white man thing and the South African government had not yet realised the potential of the industry to provide economic, environmental and social benefits so limited funds and resources were allocated to tourism development (DEAT - refer to SA, 1996).

Myopic private sector

Another major problem that the South African tourism industry faced was the private sector that had the limited view of the product they offered. Environmental sustainability was not practised; accommodation establishments did not view that as their concern (DEAT - refer to SA, 1996).

Limited development scope due to past political policies

During the apartheid era, policies placed some constraints on the developmental scope of the tourism industry. Tourists were afraid to visit South Africa during the time of riots. The current growth of the industry could largely be attributed to the political changes of the past few years and the resultant freedom of movement (DEAT - refer to Sa, 1996).

i. Limited involvement of local communities

There was a poor involvement of local communities and previously neglected people in the development of tourism and they could not benefit from the industry. The challenge for government was to involve the neglected groups in the development of policies for the tourism industry in order for them to fully grasp the benefits of the tourism industry. Some of the problems that were identified that limited the effective involvement of local communities in the industry included the following (DEAT - refer to SA, 1996):

- a lack of information and awareness;
- a lack of know-how and training;
- a lack of finance;
- a lack of incentives to reward private enterprise that build or develop local capacity and create job opportunities.

Inadequate training, education and awareness

Lack of training, education and awareness mostly for previously disadvantaged groups in society was one of the reasons that hindered proper development of the tourism industry. To correct past mistakes, government had to provide education opportunities for the benefit of all, provide awareness and proper training to the previously disadvantaged people (DEAT - refer to SA, 1996).

Poor service

A general culture of poor service prevailed in the tourism industry and related sectors, and there was little excitement in delivering service or going the extra mile to satisfy the customer (DEAT - refer to SA, 1996). The problem was that these attitudes seemed to be viewed by the majority of domestic tourists as the norm. Even worse, because many establishments were performing well as a result of the unexpected new demand, many owners and managers believed that the product they offered was acceptable. Moreover, the South African hotel industry had been characterised by a limited degree of competitiveness. The limited number of hotel groups and the majority of typically non-discerning South African customers had resulted in mediocre levels of service (DEAT - refer to SA, 1996).

Lack of infrastructure, particularly in rural areas

There was a lack of infrastructure in the rural areas, which limited the participation of rural communities in the tourism industry. In addition, the absence of adequate transportation services effectively prevented rural communities from participating in the industry, both as potential suppliers of products and services, and as tourists themselves (DEAT - refer to SA, 1996).

After identifying these key constraints that hindered tourism development, the 1996 White Paper concluded that tourism development in South Africa had largely been underdeveloped and that the focus on a narrow market had reduced the potential of the industry to spawn entrepreneurship and to create new services, such as local entertainment and handicrafts, and to drive local economic development (Rogerson, 2002:143).

South Africa realised the potential of tourism to help alleviate poverty and began to work on maximising the local economic benefits which tourism can bring to an area. There is much to be gained from creating a more diversified tourism product and marketing a wider range of experiences, activities and services to tourists (DEAT - refer to SA, 2002). Established enterprises could benefit from encouraging and assisting the development of complementary product – the larger and more diversified the local tourism base, the more successful the enterprises in the area will be. SATOUR, which was associated with the old focus on privileged tourism, was restructured to accommodate new realities, especially to promote the interest of previously

disadvantaged groups, and was renamed South African Tourism (SAT) (Rogerson & Visser, 2004).

To address the key constraints that were identified in the 1996 White Paper, the South African government developed the National Responsible Tourism Guidelines which were used in developing the new tourism in the post-apartheid era (DEAT - refer to SA, 2002). As South Africa was welcomed back into the global community, substantial growth occurred in international tourism arrivals reaching 3.9 million by 1994. This surge of international arrivals was maintained and by the mid-2000s South Africa vied with Egypt for Africa's leading tourism destination. As a result of the 9/11 attacks on the USA, South Africa began to be perceived as a relatively peaceful destination under little threat from international terrorism (Rogerson & Visser, 2004). By 2004, after ten years of democracy, international tourism arrivals had burgeoned to 6.7 million visitors (Visser, 2007:34).

Between 2004 and 2007, further growth occurred that dampened after 2007 due to the global financial crisis (Dlamini, 2010:10). According to SAT, during 2010, about 8.1 million international tourists arrived due to South Africa hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup (Ferreira, 2011:91). Overall, between 1990 and 2010 the volume of international tourist arrivals in South Africa expanded eightfold. Two distinct sub-groups exist within South Africa's international tourism economy, the long-haul market of mainly leisure tourists from Western Europe and North America, and regional visitors from sub-Saharan Africa (Rogerson & Visser, 2006:199). As indexed by total arrivals, the largest share of South Africa's contemporary international tourist economy is represented by 'regional' tourists, mainly from sub-Saharan Africa.

Considerable growth in African tourist arrivals occurred after 1990, amounting to 75% of international tourist arrivals by the mid-2000s (Rogerson & Kiambo, 2007:505). This has escalated in the past years and visitors mostly from Lesotho, Swaziland, Botswana, Zimbabwe, Mozambique and Namibia (Rogerson & Visser, 2006: 199). The majority of African visitors are either low-spend tourists visiting friends and relatives or cross-border shoppers or traders (Rogerson & Kiambo, 2007:505). It is thus clear that the long-haul market mainly dominated by visitors from Western Europe and USA are mostly responsible for bringing in the revenue.

The hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup witnessed a growth in international arrivals from Western Europe and North America, as well as from Asia, South America and Australasia. With regard to understanding the evolving South African tourism economy, it must be appreciated that the historical base for tourism product development, including hotels, has been the domestic tourism economy. Measured by actual volume, the number of domestic tourists far exceeds that of international tourists, with an estimated 13.5 million domestic tourists in 2010 (SAT, 2011). Throughout the period of South Africa's isolation from the international tourism economy, domestic tourists formed the foundation for the local tourism economy and associated tourism product development (Rogerson & Visser, 2004).

Post-1994 an emerging aspect of domestic tourism in South Africa has been the rapid rise of black tourists, a new middle class linked to economic and political change. According to Visser (2004:268), South Africa exhibits a highly uneven and polarised tourism and hospitality space economy. The major geographical poles of activity are concentrated in and around the three main metropolitan areas of the country and centre upon Cape Town, Durban and Johannesburg. Certain differences are observable in the spatial distribution of international, regional and domestic tourists (Rogerson & Visser, 2006:199; Visser, 2007:34) and regions such as the Free State Province still need to reach their tourism potential and attract more tourists.

4.3 Programmes to assist tourism industry businesses

The national government has developed a range of programmes designed to assist existing tourism businesses, as well as tourism business entrepreneurs (DEAT - refer to SA, 2003). Among the important functions of tourism, one of the greatest challenges in South African tourism is to transform this economic sector so as to benefit a broader spectrum of South Africans. Consequently, during the course of 2003, significant work on business support and development was undertaken under the auspices of the Transformation Forum and the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism which was strengthened by broadened representation to include SA Tourism, SANParks, South African Local Government Association (SALGA) and the provinces (DEAT - refer to SA, 2003). Work on business support and development consists of the Tourism Enterprise Programme (TEP), a support handbook, funding reviews, the Black Business

Database and the Tourism, Hospitality and Sport Education Training Authority (THETA). These will be discussed below:

Tourism Enterprise Programme (TEP): TEP is an initiative of the Business Trust and implemented on its behalf by a private contractor and a number of designated subcontractors in some of the provinces (Free State, Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal, Mpumalanga and Western Cape). The main aim of the TEP is to encourage and facilitate the growth and expansion of tourism enterprises in response to the increasing demand for tourism activity. TEP assists large operators, investors and small-medium sized enterprises (SMMEs) to identify viable linkages or business opportunities. Resources are then tapped to realise these opportunities.

This often includes assisting the SMME in question to obtain the requisite professional services such as ISO/SABS quality certification, debt and equity finance, proper business planning, packaging, legal advice, technology needs and marketing. TEP has a Training and Technical Assistance Fund (TTAF), which is utilised on a cost-sharing basis with the enterprises (DEAT - refer to SA, 2003).

Support handbook: This handbook provides tourism businesses with a comprehensive list of support services (such as training and mentorship) that are available to tourism SMMEs (DEAT - refer to SA, 2003).

Funding review: The objectives of the project are to assess existing funding, support instruments available to tourism business in South Africa, and to provide concrete recommendations and action plans to relevant stakeholders on the interventions required to enhance the effectiveness of these instruments (DEAT - refer to SA, 2003).

Black Business Database: The DEAT, through TEP, established the Black Business Database in collaboration with SAT. This database ensures that these businesses are marketed, that they receive the necessary capacity-building intervention and that they secure procurement opportunities from government. TEP also assumes the responsibility of undertaking quality assurance of tourism products by the facilitation of grading by the Tourism Grading Council of SA (TGCSA) on a cost-sharing basis between TEP, TGCSA and the enterprise. Once the database has been quality assured, the graded establishments will obtain the benefit of being accessed first on the SAT website (DEAT - refer to SA, 2003).

The Tourism, Hospitality and Sport Education Training Authority (THETA): THETA and the Department of Labour have instituted the Tourism Leadership Project aimed at boosting training and skills in the tourism and hospitality sector (DEAT - refer to SA, 2003). These are national programmes and can be accessed by qualifying businesses in all provinces.

In the light of the above discussion on the background of tourism in South Africa, the next section seeks to document the major challenges faced in the tourism and hospitality industry.

4.4 Major challenges facing the hospitality industry

The success of hospitality establishments is based on the social technical skills of their employees (Chand & Katou, 2007:576). Any hospitality establishment is as good as its staff, and building long-term relationships with customers is essential. For this reason, staff could be regarded as the competitive advantage of any hospitality establishment. As service employees, hospitality workers are expected to manage their emotions and to always be friendly and accommodating (Bolton, 2004:106) – they are paid to do so. This means the technical and professional skills of service workers must transfer into the relationship dimension (Bolton, 2004:106). Seymour (2000:159) considers this the emotional labour of service work.

Service work implies ‘managing emotions for financial reward and human emotions are linked to commercialization’ (Seymour, 2000:159). Service staff in hospitality establishments also often needs to be informed on various topics (such as sports and politics) because they need to interact with customers or potential customers. The fact that service staff always need to be on their best behaviour could be physically and emotionally taxing. Pienaar and Willemse (2008:1053) reported findings that employees in the hospitality industry often need to hide their true feelings and detach themselves from unpleasant situations. This could induce feelings of despondency which could, together with strenuous working conditions (e.g., long hours), contribute to increased stress levels and burnout among employees. This poses a major challenge to organisations (Boella, 2000:47; Lievens, 2002:86). This section focuses on the prominent challenges that the hospitality industry is facing.

Challenges that affect managers in the hospitality industry include labour shortages, cost commitment, increased competition, working conditions and seasonality, labor costs issues, multicultural issues, higher education, increased guest sophistication, dependence on the nation's economy, globalisation and internal communication weaknesses. This will be discussed below.

Labour shortages: Labour shortages and their impact on the hospitality industry in almost every geographic location are consistently among the most difficult challenges noted by hotels. In many communities, hospitality expansion is limited not by capital, but by human resources (Wang, 2009:53). A shrinking labour force is the number one challenge facing the global hospitality industry, according to the International Society of Hospitality Consultants (Wang, 2009:56). The problem of attracting and retaining qualified workers – once an issue in only an isolated number of markets – is increasingly becoming a global challenge (Wang, 2009:56). Demography, wage levels, failure to adequately address worker satisfaction and a reputation for long hours and low pay are all cited as contributing factors.

Cost containment: Hospitality establishments are increasingly challenged to find ways to reduce costs without sacrificing quality standards imposed to consistently meet guest expectations. The idea of 'doing more' requires managers to think about ways to operate more effectively (in other words, to 'do the right things in the right way') and to examine possibilities for cost savings that will not affect the guest's perception of value (Wang, 2009:53).

Increased competition: Another major challenge facing the hospitality industry is staying competitive in an environment where there is increased competition. The resulting competition, which often involves price cutting in efforts to provide greater value to guests, reduces further the profits generated (Wang, 2009:53). A steep fall in occupancy ratio in the wake of the global slowdown and tight competition among hospitality operators in a shrinking market could bring down hospitality room rents drastically. The competition could result in low occupancies and, as a result, rooms might be sold not only for less, but also bundled with packages, such as breakfast, airport transfers or a day's sightseeing (Wang, 2009:53).

Working conditions: Consumer demand patterns in the hospitality industry requires working conditions that are frequently characterised as unsocial and as having irregular working hours in the form of split shifts, weekend shifts, nightshifts, or work during holiday periods (Boardman & Barbato, 2008:267). These working conditions heighten stress on those workers with family responsibilities, particularly women who carry the majority of the care burden for children, the elderly and household chores. Reliance on family members – or private or public services – for childcare becomes crucial for these workers (Boardman & Barbato, 2008:267).

The predominance of on-call, casual, temporary, seasonal and part-time employment is related to insecurity, comparatively low pay (frequently below the national average), job instability, limited career opportunities, a high level of subcontracting and outsourcing, and a high staff turnover rate. All of these vary from country to country. Within South Africa, the overall tendency leans towards more part-time employment. It is important to highlight that the sector and its informal components provide a significant number of jobs to workers with little or no formal training and who do not want to enter long-term employment commitments (e.g. students) (Boardman & Barbato, 2008:267).

Seasonality: Seasonality is very challenging for most tourism and hospitality organisations. Seasonality is defined as temporal imbalance in the phenomenon of tourism and hospitality which could be expressed in terms of dimensions of such elements as number of visitors, expenditure of visitors, traffic on highways and other forms of transportation, employment and admissions to attractions (SAT, 2007). Seasonality has been viewed as a major problem for the tourism and hospitality industry and has been held responsible for creating a number of difficulties faced by the industry, including problems such as gaining access to capital, and recruiting and retaining suitable staff (SAT, 2007).

Seasonality has an impact on all the segments of the hospitality industry. It has a negative effect on the sector's ability to create permanent and quality employment opportunities. Increasing uncertainty resulting from global trends and more self-bookings reduces the number of staff members needed (SAT, 2007). Part of SAT's marketing strategy is to assist in overcoming the negative impact of seasonality on tourism and hospitality volumes and, therefore, on tourism value extraction, both for businesses and their employees. This includes the general promotion of domestic

tourism; the identification of new foreign market segments which are not bound by traditional seasonal travel patterns; and the placement and marketing of South Africa as a destination to these segments (SAT, 2007).

Labour Cost Issues: According to Wang (2009: 55) in 2008, labour expenses remained the largest single expense item for hospitality managers, accounting for 44.6 per cent of total operating costs. Consequently, any trend or issue that could potentially impact labour costs must be taken seriously by hospitality owners and managers alike (Wang, 2009: 55). "Due to the magnitude of the expense, labour costs consume a substantial portion of the time and efforts of hospitality managers. Now, with the changes to immigration laws, and proposed legislation to increase the minimum wage, hospitality managers are on edge (Wang, 2009: 55).

Wang (2009:56) further states, that the cost of labor is the biggest expense in all categories of the accommodation sector. Even with the advent of select-service properties, hospitality developers cannot avoid the human component of hospitality operations. While managing labor expenses is important, hospitality managers are also aware that employees are an integral part of the lodging experience (Wang, 2009: 56). The interaction between hospitality guests and employees has a dramatic impact on the customer experience and the success of the business operation. Therefore, a fine balance must be drawn between cost controls and guest satisfaction (Wang, 2009: 56).

Multicultural Issues: Wang (2009:56) asserts that one of the issues surrounding hospitality research and development is the management of multicultural talent and the political landscape affecting the hospitality industry. Franchising is becoming the biggest industry in the world and the success of a franchise lie in understanding ownership, internal and external customer- and workforce-related matters and insights in marketing and promotion (Wang, 2009: 57). Bringing the far corners of the world together is part and parcel of what the hospitality sector does. Blending amenities to cater for the needs of the world's different cultures is central to success for both large and medium sized hospitality establishments (Wang, 2009: 57). It is thus imperative that cultural sensitivity and awareness be emphasised amongst hospitality staff and others that work with foreign guests. In some Asian cultures, for example, eye contact is not sought, as it can

make guests feel uncomfortable, while in Western tradition it is equated with openness and honesty. This could be important in defining how staff addresses themselves to certain Asian guests (Wang, 2009: 57).

Higher Education: Tremendous changes according to Wang (2009:57) are taking place in hospitality industry like the need for new skills may pose several challenges for transformation of the whole educational process like the educational curricula, learning materials, instructional practices and education stakeholders. Education systems and institutions should take the challenges of the knowledge economy seriously (Wang, 2009: 57). This would, however, include restructuring the learning process to reflect the use of information in the real world, changing the role of the educator from presenter of pre-packaged facts to facilitator of active learning and transforming the library specialist to an active collaborator in curriculum planning for effective use and availability of information resources. Indeed, educators need to realize that teaching is not telling, that learning is not absorbing and that knowledge is not static and, in turn, reflect these to their instruction mechanisms and student appraisal systems (Wang, 2009: 57).

Increased guest sophistication: Consumers are becoming increasingly sophisticated and the types of products and services they require more specialised. This has resulted in for example accommodation establishments that provide amenities like business centres, exercise and recreational facilities. As these offerings has certain cost implications they need to be carefully selected and managed as not all guest make use of these offerings (Wang, 2009:58).

Dependence upon the nation's economy: When the nation's economy is good, business travel generally increases. If hospitality occupancy rates and rack rates increase, it usually results in higher profit. The reverse is also true if the economy is slow business travel also slows down and occupancy and rack rates decrease. Discounts may then be offered to increase the occupancy rates of establishments (Wang, 2009: 58).

Globalisation: Globalisation according to Wang (2009:58) impacts the hospitality industry dramatically because it influences the extent of which people travel both within the country and around the world. Therefore, it is not only the economy of the nation, but also the economies of individual countries, that play an increasingly larger role in the

financial success of the accommodation establishments. To compete, they must pay closer attention to the trends of globalisation. The industry must reflect the requirements of the global village in many aspects of its operations, including food, services, amenities, staffing policies and training (Wang, 2009: 58).

Internal communication weaknesses: According to Bamporiki (2010) the hospitality industry has communication problems within organisations that inhibit success; he finds that hospitality organisations do not develop internal labour markets whereby skills can be developed through internal promotion and upgrading. Communications skills need to be a major consideration in promoting staff. Communications skills and effective internal communication is imperative especially in a service-oriented industry like hospitality (Blue & Harun 2002:73).

Supportive relations are intended to enhance self-esteem and ego building, which contributes to subordinates' sense of personal worth and independence and they maintain their sense of significance and dignity (Mullins, 1993:121). As already noted, Blue and Harun (2002:73) suggest that "hospitality language", whether in English or another language, is a skill that hotel staff needs. Blue and Harun (2002:73) are of an opinion that an internal "communication committee" can develop an internal communication plan that can address problems, identify any needed changes, and encourage the proper use of internal and external internal communication channels.

According to Bamporiki (2010) companies often set out to upgrade guest services only to end up applying short-term (and ultimately ineffective) "band-aid" changes. Marketers should understand that the process of improving guest service should be one that establishes a long-term, formal structure for internal communication which allows continuous evaluation of service performance. Furthermore, in order to create a long-term improvement program, it is first necessary to assess one's current situation. One should know where one begins in order to set a clear course which measures progress (Bamporiki, 2010).

It has been argued by Tesone (2005:164) that the concept of internal communication requires a strategy that will equip employees with techniques, tools, and tactics to develop a solid internal communication strategy for the company and to drive it throughout the organisation. The power of internal communication had been overlooked

in the past, however, modern top executives have come to realise that the effects of a well-developed and well-executed internal communication culture cannot be ignored (Bamporiki, 2010). The way in which managers approach their jobs and behaviours that they display towards subordinates, is likely to be coordinated by predisposition about people, human nature and work (Mullins, 1993:116).

Different elements can interfere with internal communication and can lead to poor service. Boyatzis and Taylor (2002:158) have stated that when managers look at employees, and immediately realise that they have had a bad day or that cultural differences were responsible for someone's reluctance to speak up, then the manager should use "emotional intelligence" (their ability manage their own and other people's emotions) in dealing with the situation. This personal judgment is always a factor that influences internal communication outcomes.

According to Tesone (2005:164) the practice of management involves accomplishing the objectives of the organisation, which can be achieved through activities of others. Thus, an ability to communicate effectively is crucial to the success of managers. People communicate at work for a variety of reasons by means of a spoken word, written word, non-verbal internal communication, numbers, drawings and graphics, and by using a range of media including the telephone, face-to-face meetings, video-conferencing, e mail, letters and memos (Bamporiki, 2010).

Leadership is dynamic and interactive, and is concerned with the business of shared values and vision, clear and motivational language and appropriate internal communication strategies (Bamporiki, 2010). Furthermore, hospitality managers who emerge as leaders in 21st century are likely to be men and women who deal effectively with multi-cultural workforce, who present their ideas clearly, and who are able to mobilise others around common goals. Their competence and sensitivity will ultimately be effective for a large number of employees, travellers and guests worldwide. When internal communication fails to achieve its objectives, barriers have surfaced between sender and receiver. Perhaps it is because of bias on the part of one or emotion on the part of the other or perhaps the distractions have impinged on both parties (Bamporiki, 2010).

On the side of hospitality internal communication management, Blue and Harun (2002:74) notes that one must be able to identify barriers to successful internal communication in order to overcome them. They identified two kinds of barriers, namely nonverbal and verbal barriers. Nonverbal barriers is when a speaker's gestures or facial expressions contradict the apparent meaning of the message and verbal barriers implies that although a speaker uses a word cautiously the intended meaning may not be the meaning that the listener receives (Bamporiki, 2010).

4.5 Profiling the Free State Province

The Free State, like many other provinces, has adopted tourism and hospitality industry as a development strategy (Visser & Kotze, 2006:199). The Free State forms part of central South Africa. Natural scenery is regarded as the Free State's main tourism product, followed by historical and cultural tourism products. The Free State is often regarded as *en route* destination with the transportation function of linking the popular tourism regions of the Western Cape, Gauteng/Mpumalanga and KwaZulu-Natal. International tourists, thus, do not always include the Free State in their travel itineraries (Visser & Kotze, 2006:89). According to research by Visser and Kotze (2006:91), Bloemfontein and Clarens are the two most important economic clusters in the Free State Province.

The promotion of tourism and hospitality sector is regarded as one of the key strategies to ensure economic development in the province, according to an economic strategy by the Free State Department of Economic Development, Tourism and Environmental and Affairs (DETEA) (Free State Province, 2003). The potential that tourism holds for the province was recognised a few years ago; the Free State Development and Planning Framework (FSDPF) recognised in 1998 that tourism has 'significant' and 'substantial' potential for further economic development in the province (FSDPF, 1998:5). The Free State is situated on the flat boundaries plains in the heart of South Africa. It has rich soil and a pleasant climate, and covers an area of 129 480 sq. km.

Tourism represents a huge source of untapped potential waiting to be exploited in this province with its natural splendour and many beautiful sights to visit. In this endeavour, the hospitality industry has a role to play. The Free State, known for its warm hospitality, is fast becoming a tourist destination of choice. It is estimated that the tourism and

hospitality sector contributes about 3% to the province's economy, which constitutes about 5% of South Africa's tourism and hospitality market (THETA, 2010: 38). THETA (2010: 38) analysed the current tourism activities in the Free State and emphasised the potential for tourism development.

Six provinces border the Free State: Gauteng, Mpumalanga, North-West, Northern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal and Eastern Cape (Naidoo, 2012:24). This advantage with regard to location has been recognised by the Free State Province's local government in policy initiatives which have direct implications for tourism. In the Free State, DETEA is the government department responsible for economic development, tourism and environmental affairs. DETEA is, therefore, the lead provincial government department in respect of tourism, and has developed the Free State Tourism Master Plan 2010/11 2014-15 which is intended to guide tourism development initiatives in the province (Naidoo, 2012: 24).

Furthermore, DETEA funds the Free State Tourism Authority. The Free State Tourism Authority, a structure of DETEA, markets the Free State's tourism offerings regionally, nationally and internationally. The Free State Tourism Authority has developed Strategy 2011/2 2014/5 which will form the basis of a marketing plan that will soon be developed (Naidoo, 2012:24). The Free State is currently not achieving the tourism growth that it should, given its attractive tourism resource base and offerings. This applies to both international and domestic tourism (Naidoo, 2012:24). The Free State captured 7.3% of foreign tourists in 2010. This was a drop from the 8.2% market share of 2009. This drop in market share is also reflected in the Free State's share of bed-nights. In 2010, the Free State captured only 4.4% of the total number of bed-nights. This was a drop in the number of bed-nights received in 2009 (4.8%) (Naidoo, 2012:24).

International tourists are clearly coming to the Free State in smaller numbers and are spending fewer nights in the province. There is no data available that identify the reasons for the Free State's declining market share in respect of international tourist arrivals and bed-nights. However, the following assumptions could be made in this regard:

- There is a low level of awareness of the tourism offerings of the Free State. This is attributable to insufficient and targeted marketing. In this regard, the province

does not currently have a tourism marketing strategy in place. The Free State Tourism Authority has indicated that it plans to develop one shortly.

- Tourism infrastructure, such as signage, is insufficient. This would contribute to a lack of awareness of the province's tourism offerings.
- Suitable tour packages have not been developed and/or marketed adequately (Naidoo, 2012:25).

The result is that the Free State's tourism sector, according to Naidoo (2012:25), is not competing effectively with other provinces in respect of increasing its share of international tourist arrivals. For example, provinces such as Mpumalanga and the Western Cape have been able to effectively leverage their natural resources to grow tourism. The Free State, unfortunately, does not have a globally recognisable and iconic tourist attraction with which to develop an international tourism brand identity. It does, however, have much to offer domestic tourists in particular, and this is a market well worth exploring. This points to a need for much more focused marketing and tourism product development (Naidoo, 2012:25).

It is also worth bearing in mind that the Free State is still attracting international tourists, albeit a diminishing number. The lack of awareness of the Free State's tourism offerings is indicated by the activities that international tourists undertake when they are in the Free State: Most international tourists are engaged in shopping, with only about 30% exploring the Free State's rich cultural and heritage attractions (Naidoo, 2012:26). For this reason, it is possible that the majority of these tourists are not aware of these offerings. Consequently, most international tourists are not experiencing the full variety of the Free State's tourism offerings, including eco-tourism and heritage tourism.

The latter, in particular, can be leveraged much more effectively in the Free State's tourism marketing efforts (Naidoo, 2012:26). The main tourist areas and the three main economic clusters of the Free State are Bloemfontein, Clarens and Parys (THETA, 2010:38; Visser & Kotze, 2006). The Premiere Advisory Council (PEAC) and the Provincial Growth and Development Strategy (PGDS) identified the following priority areas to develop and grow the Free State Tourism Sector:

- Develop tourism products as part of focused tourism routes such as the Maluti Route and the Lesotho Highlands and particularly the Katse Dam area could

add a huge potential to this route. It is envisaged that, if developed to its full potential, this route would be similar to the Wine Route, Garden Route and the Midlands Meander synonymous with other provinces (THETA, 2010:38).

- Tourism development options in the province must include previously disadvantaged communities and be utilised as a means of uplifting the rural poor. This should not be limited to broad-based black economic empowerment (BBBEE) opportunities, but should include the creating of employment opportunities for people in these communities (THETA, 2010:38).
- The conferencing and events sub-sector in the province, particularly Bloemfontein, needs to be developed because its geographical location in the centre of the country is ideal for this market. While Cape Town, Durban and Johannesburg are all competing for international conferences, Bloemfontein should exploit its central position and focus on staging national conferences (THETA, 2010:39). The development of the conference industry in Bloemfontein could also have a knock-on effect for tourism in the province because more business travellers would be exposed to the province and return with their families for leisure travel (THETA, 2010:39). The province also hosts some prominent festivals such as the Macufe Festival and the Vryfees. It is envisioned that these festivals become prominent attractions, such as the National Arts Festival or North Sea Jazz Festival, to attract visitors from across the country (THETA, 2010:39).
- The sport, recreation and fitness sub-sector has also been identified as an area with huge potential for tourism development. The province, and Bloemfontein as its capital in particular, have a multitude of excellent sporting facilities, including a world-class drug testing facility at the University of the Free State. This facility has been approved and accredited by the International Olympic Committee since 1995 and has been conducting thousands of doping test ever since. Sport tourism, therefore, is a viable area of growth for the Free State (THETA, 2010:39).

The two main economic centres of the Free State, namely Bloemfontein and Clarens, will now be discussed.

4.5.1 Bloemfontein

Bloemfontein is the provincial capital city of the Free State and South Africa's judicial capital. It is also fondly known as 'The City of Roses' and is generally business oriented. Bloemfontein is centrally situated within 12 hours' driving from anywhere in the country, and is lined with thousands of rose bushes and King's Park and has more than 4 000 rose bushes planted (Department of Tourism, 2012). Historical buildings lining the city centre include the gorgeous tree-lined President Brand Street, a national monument, right in the centre of the CBD, its pavements home to several museum buildings (Department of Tourism, 2012).

Bloemfontein has the largest and the strongest cluster of tourism enterprises in the province. At least half of the Free State tourism product is situated in urban areas. The Bloemfontein tourism economy is currently estimated to attract R800 million in tourists spending annually and it supplies approximately 15 600 employment opportunities (Department of Tourism, 2012). The product providers range from those that are directly and exclusively dedicated to the tourism system, such as the accommodation sector, vehicle hire, conference venues, tour operators, and travel agents. Other products include museums, theatres and restaurants. The tourism economy of Bloemfontein is dominated by the tourist accommodation sector. This sector comprises mainly hotels, lodges, guesthouses and bed-and-breakfast establishments (Visser, 2007:351).

The accommodation sector of Bloemfontein is dominated by small- and medium-sized enterprises. Bloemfontein's guesthouse sector emerged prominently in the mid-1980s. It has, subsequently, come to dominate the tourist accommodation sector both in capacity and in the number of enterprises. Both Rogerson (2005) and Visser and Kotze (2006) demonstrated that this sector is predominantly white-owned and has been established mainly over the past 10 years.

Other tourism products are the 18 major annual events (e.g., the Macufe festival and the Vryfees) that take place in Bloemfontein. These events mostly relate to arts festivals and major sport events (e.g., rugby matches) that take place during the year and have considerable economic impact. One of the significant components of the Bloemfontein tourism economy relates to its culture-historical tourism products. These include 21 museums of various sizes. The most important of these are the National Museum and

the Anglo-Boer War Museum. Moreover, the city has some high-profile streetscapes that have considerable value with regard to culture-historical tourism.

4.5.2 Clarens

Clarens is located in the Eastern highlights of the Free State Province, south of the N5 highway. Situated along the scenic Highlands Route, the village has many of the natural features that create an attractive destination for tourists and amenity migrants. It is in the foothill of the Maluti Mountains and surrounded by sandstone cliffs. A remarkable rock formation named the Titanic stands close to the village entrance. Clarens is also close to the Golden Gate National Park and the mountain kingdom of Lesotho (Visser & Kotze, 2006).

According to Hoogendoorn and Visser (2004:105), tourism and second home property purchases in Clarens began in a piecemeal fashion around 1985. This was soon followed by investments by business people from Johannesburg and Pretoria area that saw the potential of the area for future tourism development. Beginning in 1990, this was supplemented by residential investments when the town became the base for construction workers (local and international engineers as well as local low-skilled workers) who constructed a tunnel from Katse Dam in Lesotho to the Ash River just outside Clarens as part of the Lesotho Highlands Water Scheme.

This resulted in 63 new housing units in the so-called white town, population growth in the township, and significant infrastructure improvements in the area. Following the completion of the Lesotho Highlands Water Scheme, many international workers left the area (Hoogendoorn & Visser, 2004:105). The 'place marketing' of Clarens as a unique leisure area ideal for artistic and recreational pursuits soon led to a subsequent wave of second home development. In 2007, the greater Clarens population was about 4 600, having grown from approximately 205 prior to 1985 (Hoogendoorn & Visser, 2004:105). Conforming to classic apartheid land use planning this includes the village of Clarens, the adjacent township of Kgubetswana, and surrounding farms.

Located about 300 km from some of South Africa's major urban centres, namely Bloemfontein, Johannesburg and Durban, Clarens is the focus of tourism within a city's country side. Exclusive high-end residential development has also come to Clarens in the form of golf resorts. Already home to two golf courses, one is poised for significant

development. The Clarens Golf and Trout Estate is a real estate development built around an 18-hole, par-72 golf course. The golf course also features a network of streams, dams and waterfalls that create over 30 km of trout-fishing waters. This was developed by the national property investment group Pinnacle Point Holdings advertising that the estate draws upon the natural and created attractions of the area (Visser, 2007:34).

4.6 Summary

This chapter examined the development of the South African tourism and hospitality industry and reflected on some of the major challenges the industry is facing. It also profiled the Free State Province and provided information on the two main economic sectors of the province, namely Bloemfontein and Clarens.

5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

Research could be described as any organised and systematic process carried out to solve a particular problem or problems (O'Leary, 2004:85). Through research we are able to uncover unknown facts which enable us to comprehend phenomena and the world around us better. Research should be approached in a planned and systematic way (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:1). This applies to all stages of the research process – ranging from the reason for the research, the aims and objectives, the design of the research project, the methods used to investigate the problem, as well as the conclusions reached. Research methodology involves the specific processes by which a research study will be articulated.

The researcher adopts various steps in studying and disseminating the research problem in a planned and systematic way (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:87). This, in turn, shapes the research design that the researcher has selected in order to collect and analyse data. As mentioned before, this investigation consisted of a literature (chapters 1-4) and an empirical section. The literature section comprised a literature review in which both primary and secondary sources were used. 'Primary data' refers to new data collected and used by the researcher for the first time. The popular ways to collect primary data are surveys, interviews and focus groups (Brotherton, 2008:14).

'Secondary data' refers to data of which the researcher is the second user. Even if the research project is based mainly on new information, the researcher would usually have to consult existing sources, such as official government statistics or financial records from a leisure or tourism facility or service, in this case (Veal, 2006:39). The review of current and past literature provided insight into the context of organisational culture and job stress and burnout. The following secondary sources relevant to the study were consulted and reviewed: books, scholarly journals, internet sources and unpublished dissertations.

The empirical section involved the administration of a structured questionnaire to staff in graded accommodation establishments in the two main economic clusters of the Free State, namely Bloemfontein and Clarens.

The aim of this chapter is to reflect on the research design and methodology, as well as on the data-gathering instrument, the selection of the population and the pilot study that was performed before the commencement of the data-gathering activity.

5.2 Research design

A research design has two meanings. First, it can be understood as the planning of any scientific research from its conception to the finalisation. In this sense, it is a programme to guide the researcher in collecting, analysing and interpreting observed facts. Very often this is referred to as research management or planning. The research design aids the researcher in presenting ideas systematically (Kumar, 2008:31). The function of a research design is to ensure that the evidence obtained enables the researcher to answer the initial question as unambiguously as possible (De Vaus, 2001:9). Khan (2008:45) indicates that the design of an enquiry and the setting up or modifications of machinery for data collection are the actual research operations that need serious attention.

Secondly, O'Leary (2004:85) defines a research design as the plan for conducting a study that includes methodology, methods and tools involved in quantitative or qualitative research. O'Leary (2004:99) describes quantitative research as producing data that can be represented by numbers and analysed using statistics. Kumar (2008:5) concurs by stating that quantitative research is designed to answer a research question in terms of numerical quantities; it produces numbers that can be statistically analysed and from which percentages and means can be derived and displayed in tables and graphs.

Quantitative research is underpinned by a distinctive theory as to what should pass as warrantable knowledge and it requires methods such as experiments and surveys to describe and explain phenomena (Anderson, 2004:204-207; Kumar, 2005:12). Brynard and Hanekom (2005:29) mention that quantitative research methods could include techniques such as observation, pilot studies, quantitative analysis and questionnaires. This investigation utilised a survey design to gather information from participants and incorporated a quantitative research design, which is a consistent trend in organisational culture research (Kloot & Martin, 2007:485).

5.2.1 Data-gathering instrument

A structured questionnaire was used in gathering the required data from participants because it is a useful tool in quantitative research and is often used in social surveys. A structured questionnaire can be defined as a list of carefully structured questions, chosen after testing, with the view to elicit reliable responses from a chosen sample (Veal, 2006:78). This type of questionnaire is usually closed-ended and has a pre-coding or fixed choice of questions (Veal, 2006:78). Structured questionnaires could also be regarded as standardised interviews where the same questions are posed to each respondent (Veal, 2006:78).

The aim of a questionnaire is to find out what a selected group of participants do, think or feel (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2004:42-45). According to Simmons (2008), the use of a questionnaire in a survey is significant to social scientists because it allows them to collect data on attitudes and personal experiences. Furthermore, Simmons (2008) asserts that the success of any research survey depends on the way in which the researcher has formulated the questions. Delpont (2005) argues that, when a questionnaire is not planned properly, the respondents might be confused which could hinder them from responding.

The questionnaire in this study comprised four sections. Section A captured the demographic profile of respondents (age, race, gender and position in the establishment). Section B captured the prevailing organisational culture based on the CVF. Section C captured the levels of job stress the respondent is experiencing (based on Spielberger and Vagg's JSS), and section D captured the levels of burnout using the dimensions of the MBI (refer to annexure C).

5.2.2 Population and sampling

Brynard and Hanekom (2005:43) explain that, in research methodology, 'population' does not refer to the population of a country, but instead to the objects, subjects, phenomena, cases, events or activities specified for the purpose of sampling. For the purpose of this investigation, all graded accommodation establishments in the two main economic centres in the Free State, namely Bloemfontein and Clarens, were selected. See annexure A for the list of graded establishments in Bloemfontein and Clarens. Graded accommodation establishments were purposely selected because they have to

comply with the rules and regulations of the Tourism Grading Council of South Africa (TGCSA).

The TGCSA is the only government-mandated, industry-supported quality assurance authority for accommodation establishments in South Africa. The TGCSA awards stars ranging from one to five. Rated accommodation establishments include guest houses, hotels, lodges, bed and breakfast, self-catering units, caravan parks and camping backpackers. Graded accommodation establishments might attract more tourist and travellers because they have to conform to strict requirements.

A total of 46 establishments (14 in Clarens and 32 in Bloemfontein) were involved. The researcher personally visited all the establishments for data-gathering purposes and, where necessary, assisted with the completion of the questionnaires. The owners/managers were contacted beforehand to make arrangements. All members of staff who were on site on the day the researcher visited the establishment were included in the study. This means that all levels of staff (from owner, manager, front-house and back-house employees) were included in the empirical part of the investigation. Thus, convenience sampling was applied in this investigation.

According to Ader, Mellenbergh and Hand (2008: 233), convenience sampling is a type of non-probability sampling in which the sample is drawn from the part of the population containing respondents who are readily available when data gathering takes place. One disadvantage of convenience sampling is that the researcher cannot make generalisations about the total population from which the sample has been drawn (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:54; Lohr, 1999). A total of 227 completed questionnaires were secured (171 in Bloemfontein and 56 in Clarens). The data were captured in Microsoft Excel, and both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the data.

5.2.3 Pilot study

In order to ascertain whether the questionnaire was clear and understandable, a pilot study was performed on four employees at a graded accommodation establishment in Bloemfontein. This establishment did not form part of the main study. Pilot studies, according to Veal (2006:33), are small-sample applications of a standard questionnaire survey and are vital in survey research (Veal, 2006:33). They are used to pre-test the proposed questionnaire, to check the wording, and to ensure that the researcher and

respondents have the same definition of key words, phrases and acronyms, if the latter are used.

Cooper and Schindler (1998:77) mention that a pilot study is conducted to detect weaknesses in research the design and instrumentation. They note that a pilot study should draw subjects from the target population to ascertain whether the measuring instrument is clear and comprehensible to the respondents. Gray (2004:205), on the other hand, indicates that questionnaires should be tested on respondents who are not part of the target population, and observations should be made to ascertain the clarity of questions. In addition, Gray states that it is essential that questionnaires be accurate, unambiguous and simple to complete. The questionnaire in this study was self-administered and gave the researcher an opportunity to clarify some of the questions which the respondents had found difficult.

5.3 Fieldwork challenges

Some of the challenges that the researcher encountered while administering the questionnaires were as follows:

- The respondents cited time constraints as problematic in completing the questionnaire.
- Some of the respondents refused to participate in the study. In such instances, the researchers were allowed to thank the respondents for their time and to proceed to the next respondent.
- Some of the respondents were illiterate. The researcher had to explain the questions to them in order to obtain their responses, which was time-consuming and delayed the research process.

5.4 Summary

This chapter presented the research methods that were used in this study to achieve the stated research objectives. A secondary data literature search on past and present studies was conducted to develop comprehensive understanding of organisational culture, job stress and burnout. The research design was quantitative and the data-gathering instrument consisted of a structured questionnaire. The population for the study was graded accommodation establishments in the two main economic centres of

the Free State, namely Bloemfontein and Clarens. The methods used to collect the data were described, as well as the data analysis methods. The challenges that the researcher encountered during fieldwork were also discussed. The review of the methodology used in this study sets the scene for the following chapter which will present and analyse the data collected and discuss the findings.

6 DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter reports on the findings of the empirical study. An analysis is provided of the questionnaire with regard to the demographic information; followed by the organisational culture, job stress and burnout sections. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were performed on the data and will be discussed. The SAS Version 9.2 statistical package was used to interpret the data.

6.2 Descriptive statistics

As indicated previously, 32 graded accommodation establishments in Bloemfontein and 14 in Clarens were targeted for data collection. A total of 227 questionnaires were received back. This section provides the descriptive statistics based on the data that were gathered from the questionnaire.

6.2.1 Section A: The demographic profile of respondents

This section describes the demographic profile of respondents, including age, race, gender and employment status of respondents.

Age

Table 6.1 presents the age composition of respondents.

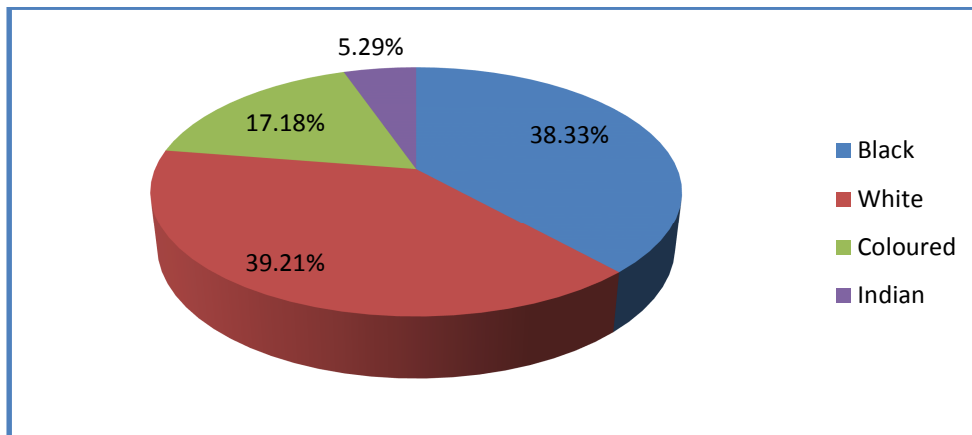
Table 6.1: Age of respondents

Analysis variable : Q1_Age				
N	Median	Inter-quartile range	Minimum	Maximum
227	33.0	26.0–40.0	18.0	66.0

The majority of the respondents were between 26 and 40 years of age. The minimum age recorded was 18, and the maximum age recorded was 66.

Race

Question 2 captured the racial composition of respondents. The results are displayed in graph 6.1.

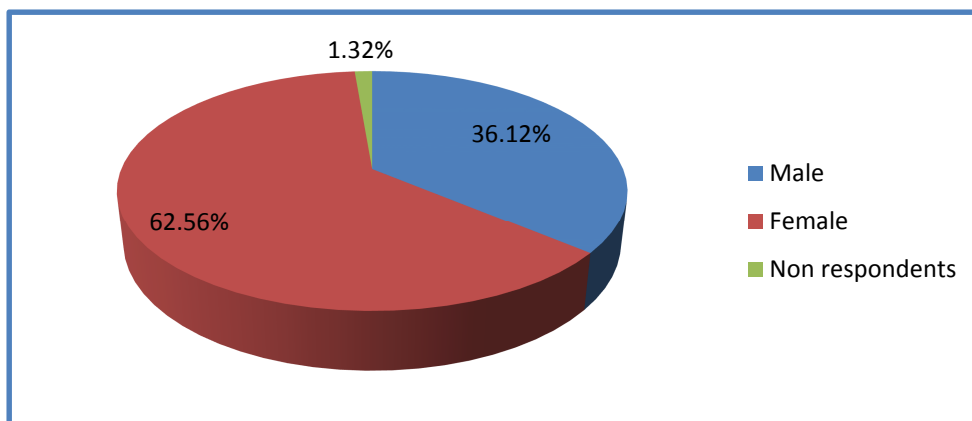


Graph 6.1: Racial composition of respondents

Graph 6.1 shows that 38.33% of respondents were black, 39.21% white, 17.18% coloured, and 5.29% Indian.

Gender

Question 3 required the respondents to indicate their gender. Refer to graph 6.2.

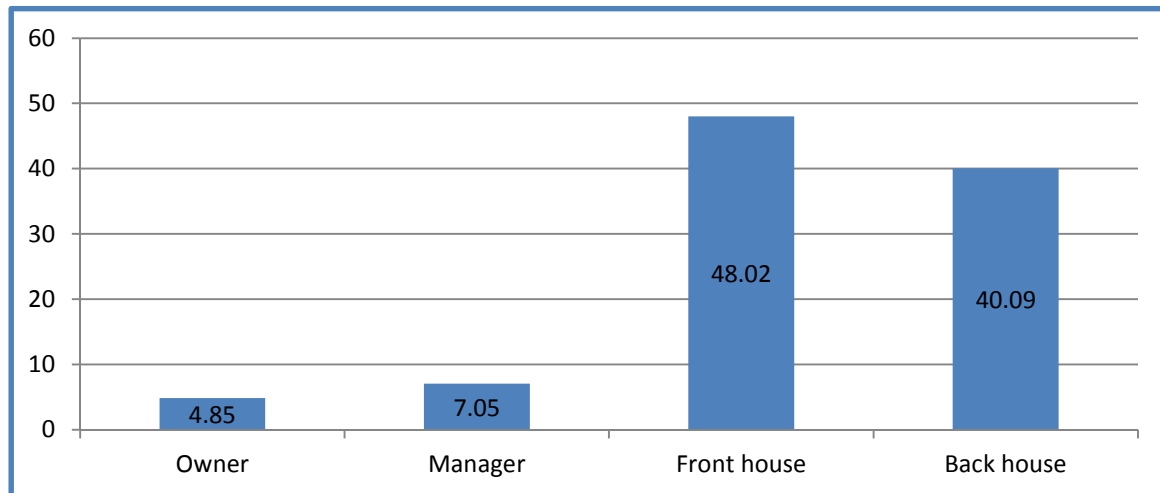


Graph 6.2: Gender composition of respondents

Graph 6.2 shows that there were 62.56% females and 36.12% males. A total of 1.32% of respondents did not indicate their gender.

Position in the organisation

Question 4 indicates the respondent's position in the organisation. Refer to Graph 6.3.



Graph 6.3: Position of respondents

Graph 6.3 indicates that 4.85% of respondents were the owners of the accommodation establishments, while 7.05% were managers. The majority of respondents (48.02%) indicated that they were front-house employees (including staff in reception, reservations, restaurant staff, porters and concierges). A total of 40.09% of respondents were back-house employees (including house-keeping, cleaning, kitchen, maintenance and security).

The following section (B) presents findings in relation to the organisational culture.

6.2.2 Section B: Organisational culture

This sections deals with the respondents' perceptions about organisational culture as depicted by the CVF. An overall Cronbach alpha score of 0.894977 was obtained for the organisational culture section of the questionnaire, which indicates good reliability. Mean scores are reflected as percentages.

Group Culture

		Not at all	Partly	Mostly	Fully
5.1	I have a good relationship with the owner/manager.	0.88	4.85	34.80	59.47
5.2	I am loyal to the establishment.	3.96	14.10	30.40	51.54
5.3	The establishment values the development of people.	2.20	9.25	43.17	45.37
5.4	I can discuss work-related problems with my supervisor.	1.26	11.45	43.61	43.17
5.5	I can participate in making suggestions.	10.57	27.31	33.04	29.07
5.6	My supervisor cares for my feelings.	1.76	18.06	47.58	32.60
5.7	I am committed to the establishment.	7.49	9.69	29.52	53.30
5.8	I prefer to operate as part of a team.	2.64	6.61	24.23	66.52

A total of 59.47% of the respondents indicated that they had a good relationship with the owner/manager. A little over half of the respondents (51.54%) indicated that they were loyal to the establishment. Some respondents (45.37%) stated that the establishment valued the development of people, and 43.61% of respondents mentioned that they could discuss work-related problems with their manager. According to some respondents (33.04%), they participate in making suggestions, and 47.58% indicated that their supervisor cares for their feelings. A total of 53.30% of respondents stated that they were committed to the establishment, and the majority of respondents (66.52%) indicated that they preferred to operate as part of a team.

Developmental Culture

		Not at all	Partly	Mostly	Fully
5.9	My supervisor makes innovative suggestions to better my performance.	2.20	9.69	33.04	55.07
5.10	My supervisor is a risk-taker.	8.37	13.22	32.16	46.26
5.11	I am given the opportunity to develop my skills and creativity.	4.85	16.74	37.89	40.53
5.12	The establishment offers a persistent, superior service to customers.	0.88	3.96	40.53	54.63
5.13	I am able to make decisions, should the situation arise, on my own.	14.10	33.48	32.60	19.82
5.14	Constant improvements are made to the service offered by the establishment.	0.44	3.52	42.29	53.74

A total of 55.07% of the respondents reported that their supervisor made innovative suggestions in relation to their work. Some respondents (46.26%) stated that their supervisor is a risk-taker and 40.53% indicated that they are given opportunities to develop their skills and creativity. Of the respondents, 32.60% indicated that they could make decisions on their own should a situation arise, while 54.63% noted that the organisation in which they were currently employed offered superior customer service. A total of 53.74% reported that constant improvements were made to the service offered by the establishment.

Hierarchical Culture

		Not at all	Partly	Mostly	Fully
5.15	I know all the rules and regulations I am supposed to follow.	0.44	0.88	14.98	83.70
5.16	I always follow the rules and regulations.	0.44	3.96	34.36	61.23
5.17	My supervisor prefers to make all the decisions on procedures to follow.	3.52	14.98	45.37	36.12
5.18	Every action is coordinated for the smooth running of the organisation.	0.88	2.64	16.74	79.74
5.19	Everything must always be done according to plan.	0.88	6.61	32.60	59.91

A total of 83.70% of respondents indicated that they knew the rules and regulations they are supposed to follow, and 61.23% pointed out that they always follow the rules and regulations. Some respondents (45.37%) stated that their supervisor preferred to make all the decisions on procedures to follow. A total of 79.74% indicated that every action was coordinated for the smooth running of the business, and 59.91% mentioned that everything must always be done according to plan.

Rational Culture

		Not at all	Partly	Mostly	Fully
5.20	My supervisor is focused on the task to be accomplished.	0.00	2.64	23.35	74.01
5.21	I know what is expected from me with regard to my tasks.	0.44	1.32	15.42	82.82
5.22	My supervisor sets clear goals.	0.00	5.73	34.80	59.47
5.23	The establishment is service-oriented.	0.44	0.88	12.78	85.90
5.24	The establishment is results-oriented.	0.44	0.88	17.62	81.06

5.25	I always strive to render the best possible service to customers / clients / employees / suppliers.	0.44	0.44	12.78	86.34
------	---	------	------	-------	-------

A total of 74.01% of respondents indicated that their supervisor is focused on accomplishing the task at hand, and 82.82% knew what was expected of them with regard to their tasks. Over half (59.47%) of the respondents mentioned that their supervisors set clear goals, while 85.90% pointed out that the establishment they were employed in was service oriented. A total of 81.06% of respondents indicated that the establishment was result oriented. A strong percentage (86.34%) of the respondents indicated that they always rendered the best possible service to customers/clients/employees/suppliers.

Section C presents the scores of the job stress section of the questionnaire.

6.2.3 Section C: Job stress

This section presents the average scores, in percentage, for the job stress section of the questionnaire. The Cronbach alpha score for this section was 0.824693, which indicates good reliability.

		Always	Mostly	Never
6.1	Demanding customers make me feel stressed.	44.49	37.44	18.07
6.2	We are adequately trained to effectively deal with customers.	51.98	42.29	5.73
6.3	We are adequately trained to perform our duties.	54.19	40.08	5.73
6.4	Working long hours increases my stress.	33.92	36.56	29.52
6.5	Working irregular hours increases my stress.	30.84	39.21	29.95
6.6	I am not able to spend enough time with my family due to long, irregular work hours.	10.13	44.06	45.81
6.7	I often feel tired.	14.10	61.67	24.23
6.8	I often have heart palpitations and an increased heart rate.	0.88	10.57	88.55
6.9	I often feel anxious.	8.81	36.56	54.63
6.10	I am dissatisfied with my job.	2.64	17.62	79.74
6.11	I use alcohol, drugs and or other substances to help me relax.	2.20	13.66	84.14
6.12	There is often conflict amongst employees.	2.64	7.93	89.43

6.13	There is often conflict between employees and owner/manager.	2.64	22.03	75.33
6.14	I am able to complete the duties I must perform during my work hours.	61.67	34.80	3.52
6.15	I feel I work under a great deal of pressure.	41.41	41.41	17.18
6.16	I feel the work assigned to me requires a lot of effort.	51.98	37.44	10.57
6.17	I feel exhausted when I return home at night.	36.56	57.71	5.73
6.18	I know exactly what duties to perform.	83.70	13.22	3.08
6.19	I do not care about my work anymore.	4.85	11.01	84.14
6.20	I want to have a friendly relationship with my colleagues.	80.18	15.42	4.41
6.21	I have no control over the duties I need to perform.	3.52	20.26	76.21

A total of 44.49% of respondents indicated that demanding customers always made them feel stressed. A little over half (51.98%) of the respondents stated that they were adequately trained to effectively deal with customers, and 54.19% also indicated that they were adequately trained to perform their duties. A small percentage (36.56%) of the respondents indicated that working long hours mostly causes them stress, while 39.21% pointed that working irregular hours mostly increases their stress level. A total of 44.05% of respondents stated that they were not able to spend time with their families due to long, irregular work hours.

Some respondents (61.67%) indicated that they often feel tired, but 88.55% said they have never had heart palpitations and an increased heart rate. A total of 54.63% of respondents stated that they never felt anxious, while 79.74% stated that they were never dissatisfied with their job. A strong percentage (84.14%) indicated that they never use alcohol, drugs and or other substances to help them relax. A total of 89.43% stated that there is never any sort of conflict among employees, and 75.33% pointed out that there has never been any conflict between employees and owner/manager. A total of 61.67% of respondents stated that they were able to complete the duties they are to perform during the work hours.

According to some respondents (41.41%), they were working under a great deal of pressure, whereas 51.98% said that they felt the work assigned to them required great effort. A total of 57.71% of respondents stated that they mostly felt exhausted when they

returned home at night. The majority of respondents (83.70%) indicated that they knew exactly what duties to perform, and 84.14% did not agree with the statement that they do not care about their work anymore. A total of 80.18% indicated that they have always wanted to have a friendly relationship with their colleagues.

The next section presents the burnout section of the questionnaire.

6.2.4 Section D: Burnout

This section presents the average scores, in percentage, for the burnout section of the questionnaire. The Cronbach alpha score for this section was 0.766726, which indicates good reliability.

		Always	Mostly	Never
7.1	I feel emotionally drained.	22.03	33.04	44.93
7.2	I feel tired when I get up in the morning.	19.82	48.90	31.28
7.3	Working all day is a strain for me.	27.31	35.68	37.00
7.4	I can effectively solve the problems I encounter at work.	52.42	40.09	7.49
7.5	I am not interested in my job.	6.61	12.28	80.62
7.6	I am not making a contribution to the establishment.	3.96	8.37	87.67
7.7	In my opinion, I am good at my job.	87.67	9.69	2.64
7.8	I feel good when I do my job well.	91.63	6.61	1.76
7.9	I do not look forward to my job every day.	12.33	27.31	60.35
7.10	I am not effective in getting my job done.	1.76	7.05	91.19
7.11	I don't care to provide good service to customers.	0.00	0.44	99.56
7.12	Customers blame me for their problems.	19.38	41.85	38.77
7.13	The owner/manager does not assist me in dealing with customers.	0.00	5.29	94.71
7.14	I maintain good relationships with co-workers and customers.	92.51	7.49	0.00

A total of 22.03% of the respondents showed that they were always feeling emotionally drained, and 33.04% indicated that they mostly felt emotionally drained. Nearly half (48.90%) of the respondents pointed out that they felt tired when they got up in the

morning. Some respondents (27.31%) indicated that working all day was always a strain for them, and some (35.68%) said that working all day was mostly a strain for them. A little over half (52.42%) of the respondents indicated that they can effectively solve the problems they encounter at work. Most of the respondents (80.62%) disagreed with the statement that said they were not interested in their jobs, and 87.67% also disagreed with the statement that they were not making a contribution to the establishment. A total of 87.67% indicated that they were good at their jobs, while 91.63% indicated that they felt good when they did their job well.

Some respondents (60.35%) did not agree with the statement that said they did not look forward to their job every day. The majority (91.19%) also did not agree with the statement that said they were not effective in getting their jobs done, and 99.56% disagreed with the statement that said they did not care to provide good services to customers. A total of 41.85 of respondents indicated that customers mostly blame them for their problems, and 92.51% stated that they maintained a good relationship with co-workers and customers.

The next section provides the inferential statistics that was performed on the data.

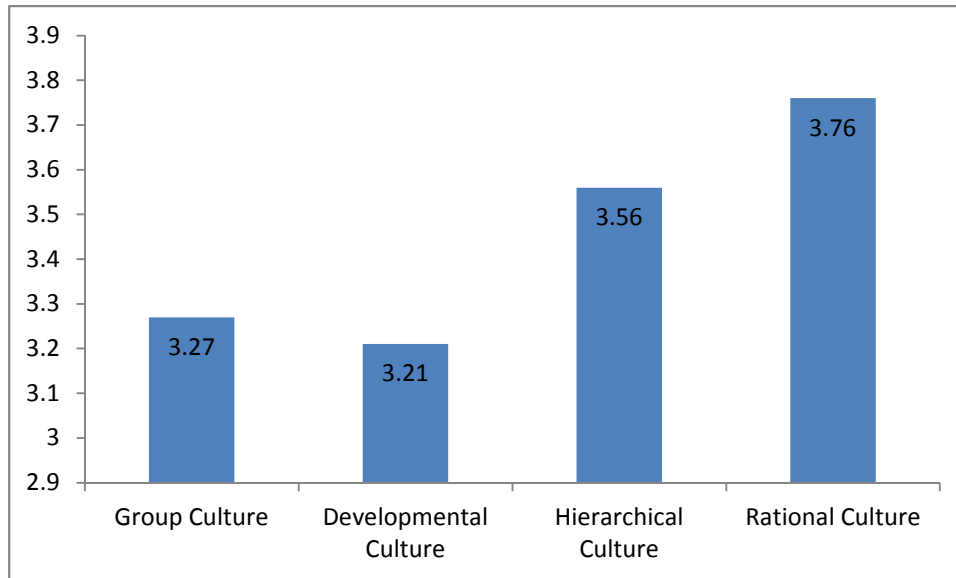
6.3 Inferential statistics

Trochim (2006) defines inferential statistics as statistics that can be used from the sample data to generalise to the population. The average score of each respondent was obtained for each of the four cultural groups. The most prominent cultural orientation of each respondent was ascertained by considering the highest average score of each individual per cultural group. The culture profile of the hospitality establishments are reflected in table 6.2.

Table 6.2: Mean scores per cultural group

Variable	N	Mean	Std Dev	Median	Lower quartile	Upper quartile
Average Group Culture	227	3.27	0.60	3.38	3.00	3.75
Average Developmental Culture	227	3.21	0.56	3.33	2.83	3.67
Average Hierarchical Culture	227	3.56	0.40	3.60	3.40	3.80
Average Rational Culture	227	3.76	0.31	3.83	3.67	4.00

Table 6.2 above details the mean scores per culture group. The Group Culture is 3.27, the Developmental Culture is 3.21, the Hierarchical Culture is 3.56, and the Rational Culture is 3.76. These results are shown in graph 6.3 below.



Graph 6.4: Organisational culture profiles of graded accommodation establishments

It is postulated that the highest average score per cultural group presents the dominant culture. According to table 6.3, the Rational Culture has the highest average score. In order to confirm this, a t-test was performed on the data.

Table 6.3: Analytical statistics of the mean comparison of culture groups

	DF	p value	Interpretation
Group Culture versus Developmental Culture	227	0.0676	No significant difference exists between the average Group Culture and Developmental Culture scores.
Group Culture versus Hierarchical Culture	227	0.0001*	A significant difference exists between the average Group Culture and Hierarchical Culture scores.
Group Culture versus Rational Culture	227	0.0001*	A significant difference exists between the average Group Culture and the Rational Culture scores.
Developmental Culture versus Hierarchical Culture	227	0.0001*	A significant difference exists between the average Developmental Culture and the average Hierarchical Culture scores.
Developmental Culture versus Rational Culture	227	0.0001*	A significant difference exists between the

versus Rational Culture			average Developmental Culture and average Rational Culture scores.
Hierarchical Culture versus Rational Culture	227	0.0001*	A significant difference exists between the average Hierarchical Culture and average Rational Culture scores.

*Significant differences between the mean values of culture groups exist.

The t-test performed on the data confirms that the Rational Culture has the highest mean score, as it differs significantly from the other scores.

Factor analysis

Factor analysis is a multivariate statistical technique that can be used for variable reduction and the identification and interpretation of latent or underlying factors. This explains the variation that was measured in the items (variables) where factors can usually not be measured directly. The more closely related the variables, the fewer factors are often needed to represent the entire matrix of variables (Salkind, 2006:179). Factor analysis was performed on the job stress and burnout sections of the questionnaire in order to ascertain the main factors that cause job stress and burnout among employees.

Table 6.4 shows the factor analysis for the job stress section of the questionnaire.

Table 6.4: Rotated factor loading per item (job stress)

		Factor 1: Work environment	Factor 2: Relationships and conflict management	Factor 3: Training
Q6_5_Irregular	Q6_5_Irregular	0.80861	0.06403	-0.02024
Q6_4_Stress	Q6_4_Stress	0.80506	0.05066	-0.05132
Q6_1_Demanding	Q6_1_Demanding	0.66870	-0.01733	0.08146
Q6_15_Pressure	Q6_15_Pressure	0.63432	-0.17256	-0.06856
Q6_9_Anxious	Q6_9_Anxious	0.61139	0.17156	-0.07203
Q6_7_Tired	Q6_7_Tired	0.59182	0.18136	0.01094
Q6_16_Work	Q6_16_Work	0.55235	-0.21155	0.01870
Q6_10_Dissatisfied	Q6_10_Dissatisfied	0.51757	0.40422	-0.06983
Q6_6_Family	Q6_6_Family	0.50259	0.31627	0.04758

		Factor 1: Work environment	Factor 2: Relationships and conflict management	Factor 3: Training
Q6_17_Exhausted	Q6_17_Exhausted	0.47577	0.02059	-0.11267
Q6_19_Care	Q6_19_Care	0.47067	0.39381	-0.07897
Q6_14_Complete	Q6_14_Complete	-0.13290	-0.11361	0.12922
Q6_12_Conflict	Q6_12_Conflict	-0.07569	0.63965	0.09283
Q6_11_Alcohol	Q6_11_Alcohol	0.13950	0.59745	-0.04069
Q6_21_Control	Q6_21_Control	0.20583	0.58411	0.05648
Q6_13_Employees	Q6_13_Employees	0.19238	0.55873	-0.04594
Q6_8_Heart_rate	Q6_8_Heart_rate	0.04125	0.52845	-0.18482
Q6_18_Peform	Q6_18_Peform	-0.04650	0.48163	0.08027
Q6_20_Friendly	Q6_20_Friendly	-0.10840	0.47832	-0.00256
Q6_2_Trained	Q6_2_Trained	0.00503	-0.08064	0.87976
Q6_3_Duties	Q6_3_Duties	-0.04961	0.00409	0.86056

Kaiser's Measure of Sampling Adequacy: Overall MSA = 0.75589926

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy is a popular diagnostic measure. It is suggested that a KMO measure of below 0.50 is unacceptable and that the overall KMO measure should be greater than 0.80; however, a measure of above 0.60 is tolerable. The overall KMO measure can sometimes be increased by deleting the offending variables whose KMO value is low. By using a primary factor loading of 0.4 or above as minimum criteria, the contributing items to the specific factor are highlighted in table 6-4.

The factor analysis showed three common factors among respondents regarding job stress, namely factor 1: the work environment associated with working in the industry; factor 2: relationships and conflict management; and factor 3: training. In factor 1, respondents (79.74%) pointed out in question 6.10 that they were not dissatisfied with their job. In question 6.17, 57.71% of respondents indicated that they felt exhausted, and 84.14% of respondents indicated in question 6.19 that they do care about their work.

In factor 2, several common factors were determined. Respondents (89.43%) said in question 6.12 that there had been no conflicts among employees, and 84.14% in question 6.11 said that they did not use alcohol, drugs or any form of substances in order to help them relax. A total of 75.33% of respondents said in question 6.13 that there had not been any kind of conflict between the employees and managers. Another common factor among the respondents was that 80.18% indicated in question 6.20 that they would like to have a friendly relationship with their colleagues.

With regard to factor 3, the most common factors that were determined in the responses was in question 6.2 where 51.98% of respondents indicated that they were adequately trained to deal with customers, and in question 6.3 where 54.19% indicated that they were adequately trained to perform their duties.

These were the common factors that were determined with regard to employee job stress. The next section discusses the factor analysis of job burnout.

Table 6.5 shows the factor analysis of the burnout section of the questionnaire.

Table 6.5: Rotated factor loadings per item (burnout)

		Factor 1: Physiological stressors	Factor 2: Performance-related stressors
Q7_1_Drained	Q7_1_Drained	0.78193	0.14744
Q7_2_Morning	Q7_2_Morning	0.75480	-0.03167
Q7_3_Strain	Q7_3_Strain	0.74223	-0.12692
Q7_5_Job	Q7_5_Job	0.52649	0.38797
Q7_9_Every_Day	Q7_9_Every_Day	0.51531	0.15775
Q7_12_Blame	Q7_12_Blame	0.37848	0.11718
Q7_4_Solve	Q7_4_Solve	0.36239	0.31892
Q7_8_Feel	Q7_8_Feel	0.05125	0.69788
Q7_6_Contribution		0.06583	0.67239
Q7_10_Effective		0.07464	0.52258
Q7_7_Opinion	Q7_7_Opinion	0.04900	0.39204
Q7_13_Assist		0.20580	0.35725
Q7_11_Provide		0.02680	0.32960

		Factor 1: Physiological stressors	Factor 2: Performance-related stressors
Q7_14_Mantain	Q7_14_Mantain	0.05565	0.27210

Kaiser's Measure of Sampling Adequacy: Overall MSA = 0.7536024

By applying the same parameters as in table 6.4, table 6.5 shows the main factors that were common among the respondents regarding burnout, namely factor 1: physiological dimensions, and factor 2: performance dimensions.

In factor 1, the issues that were identified as leading to burnout include statements where respondents indicated that they feel emotionally drained. Emotional drainage can be detrimental to the health of employees if it is not dealt with. Some respondents (19.82% and 48.90%) indicated in question 7.2 that they always felt tired when they woke up in the morning, which could affect the job performance of employees if the issue is not addressed. Another factor was identified in question 7.3 where employees (27.31% and 35.68%) indicated that working all day was a strain for them and that they did not look forward to their jobs every day.

In factor 2, several performance dimensions were identified. The respondents (91.63%) indicated in question 7.8 that they felt good when they did their job well and this could lower the levels of burnout in employees. Respondents (87.67%) also indicated in question 7.6 that they were making a contribution to the establishment and that they were effective in getting the job done.

The next section discusses the impact that organisational culture has on job stress and burnout. Spearman's correlation coefficient was used to investigate the impact of organisational culture on the four cultural groups.

Table 6.6: Spearman’s correlation coefficient for the four cultural groups

Spearman Correlation Coefficient, N = 227, Prob $\square r $ under H0: Rho=0		
	Total job stress score	Total burnout score
Total Group Culture	-0.58562 p=<.0001*	-0.45819 p=<.0001*
Total Developmental Culture	-0.36936 p=<.0001*	-0.28232 p=<.0001*
Total Hierarchical Culture	0.05832 p=0.3818	0.04954 p=0.4576
Total Rational Culture	-0.22360 p=0.0007	-0.21975 p=0.0009

Table 6.6 shows that the total Group Culture and total Developmental Culture scores correlate negatively with the job stress and burnout scores. This implies that higher Group Culture and Developmental Culture scores lower the propensity for job stress and burnout to occur. There is no correlation between the total Hierarchical Culture and the job stress and burnout scores. The Rational Culture score correlates weakly with the job stress and burnout scores.

6.4 Summary

This chapter presented and discussed the research findings that were derived from the primary data. The chapter commenced with section A that provided the descriptive statistics, which included the age, racial group, and gender and work position of respondents, derived from the demographic section of the questionnaire. Section B presented the results in relation to organisational culture, section C discussed the findings with regard to job stress, and section D presented the findings in relation to burnout. Furthermore, the inferential statistics as applied to the data were discussed. The researcher had performed a t-test to identify the most prominent culture that could be distinguished amongst the hospitality establishments. A factor analysis was performed in order to identify the common components of job stress and burnout among the respondents. Lastly, the impact of organisational culture on job stress and burnout was discussed. This chapter laid the foundation for the next chapter in which the researcher will draw conclusions and make applicable recommendations.

7 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

Chapter 6 presented, analysed and discussed the findings from the empirical part of the investigation. This chapter presents the conclusions and recommendations that have emanated from this investigation. Future research directions are also suggested.

7.2 Conclusions

The aim of this investigation was to ascertain the impact of organisational culture on job stress and burnout in graded accommodation establishments. The CVF, which was used as the conceptual guide for this study, proposes that organisational effectiveness is based on the underlying values in an organisational context. The key assumption of the CVF is that an organisation has no single goal, but that a number of competing values are held by the various stakeholders which could lead to diverse goals and objectives. Cameron and Quinn (2006) found that, after they had applied the CVF to thousands of organisations, most displayed a dominant cultural orientation, and in more than 80% of organisations one or more dominant cultural type could be distinguished. Organisations could, thus, have more than one dominant value system.

As 46 graded hospitality establishments formed part of this investigation the conclusions apply to the industry culture. This corresponds with the notion of Robbins (2000) that the culture of an organisation is strongly influenced by the characteristics of the industry, as they are exposed to similar challenges and constraints. The results indicated that the dominant culture in graded hospitality establishments were the Rational Culture, followed closely by the Hierarchical Culture. The Rational Culture type focuses on the external environment of the business and is aimed at competitiveness, reputation and success. The long-term emphasis is on competitive actions and the achievement of goals. People who work in an organisation with this type of culture are very competitive and goal-oriented, and there is little cohesion among employees; the leaders, on the other hand, are tough and demanding. This type of culture could increase the propensity for job stress and burnout to occur as the focus of the organisation is mostly on reputation and success, and not on the well-being of the employees.

In contrast, the Hierarchical Culture focuses on the internal side of the business but, similar to the Rational Culture, it is still a stringent type of culture where employees are expected to adhere to many rules and regulations. The Hierarchical Culture is internally oriented and emphasises aspects such as rules, hierarchy, specialisation, meritocracy and separate ownership. For this reason, one could conclude that the accommodation establishments in this investigation have two competing cultural dimensions – one externally focused (Rational Culture) and one internally focused (Hierarchical Culture). Both the Rational and Hierarchical Cultures rely on control as a means of securing organisational effectiveness.

Consistent with the dominant Rational Culture, the drive to be competitive and productive means that more pressure will be put on managers and staff to perform to the satisfaction of paying customers and other stakeholders. This is likely to increase the pressure on staff which could, in turn, increase their job stress and lead to burnout. This supports the notion that job stress and burnout are pertinent issues in the hospitality industry (Airey, 2005; Karatepe et al., 2012; Kim et al., 2007; Wang, 2009).

An organisation with an external focus emphasises growth, resource acquisition and interaction with the external environment, whereas an organisation with an internal focus emphasises integration, information management and communication. Both the Group Culture and the Developmental Cultures have an internal focus. According to the results obtained from Spearman's correlation coefficient (table 6.6) higher Group Culture and Developmental Culture scores lowers the occurrence of job stress and burnout. The Rational Culture weakly impacts on jobs stress and burnout (table 6.6) and is not as significant as with the Group and Developmental Culture scores in reducing job stress and burnout.

The Group Culture represents the organisation as a friendly place to work, as valuing long-term human resource development, and attaching great importance to cohesion and morale. Success is defined in terms of sensitivity to customers and concern for people. The Group Culture is also a flexible type of culture. When the Group Culture prevails, teams are more cohesive and there is an active sharing of habits, traditions and beliefs. The Group Culture also promotes organisational ownership, group cooperation, peer learning and mutual respect. When managers focus on developing and supporting a positive Group Culture, teams are usually more self-regulating,

creative, effective and satisfied. In organisations where the culture promotes high respect for people, the intangible aspects of communication, such as the level of kindness and sensitivity, it could lower job stress and burnout. Although the Developmental Culture is internally focused it also considers the external environment and is also a flexible type of culture. The Developmental Culture is mostly about development and the encouragement of innovation among employees. Individual initiative and freedom are also promoted by this type of culture.

Findings further revealed that organisational culture can, in fact, have a positive impact on job stress and burnout within the hospitality industry. Organisational culture helps to provide stability in an organisation; this implies that organisational culture is a useful tool for managing a diverse workforce within the South African business environment. In this regard, Ogbonna and Harris (2000:766) argue that widely shared and strongly held values enable management to predict employee reactions to certain strategic options which minimise the scope for undesired consequences. Individuals pay attention to their managers' expertise as a source of support, attraction and acceptance. Employees are also given clear goals by supervisors and they are allowed to make innovative decisions. Staff motivation is essential for work performance. Thus, the conclusion could be drawn that an organisational culture that is conducive could mitigate the detrimental impact of job stress and burnout.

7.3 Recommendations

This section presents recommendations that address the impact of organisational culture on job stress and burnout in graded hospitality establishments.

Issues regarding organisational culture are becoming increasingly important and a source of strategic competitive advantage. Organisations should strive to foster a healthy organisational culture in order to increase productivity, growth and efficiency and to reduce the levels of stress and burnout that employees might be experiencing.

Organisational culture is not something that can change overnight and any cultural change needs to be carefully considered and gradually implemented. As the values associated with the Group and Developmental Cultures are more focused on the internal constituents (like the employees) it is suggested that values such as establishing a warm and caring environment, loyalty, teamwork, equity, the

establishment of a dynamic and entrepreneurial work environment, innovation and so forth be emphasised and developed in hospitality establishments. This could create a conducive environment that can mitigate the occurrence of job stress and burnout. Cultural change can be affected through the following means: different messages can be used to communicate the values that employees should ascribe to and can include discussions, meetings, poster presentations, telling stories and using the successes of other organisations to serve as best practice. Employees can also be coached on ways to apply and incorporate conducive values into their everyday activities. It is also imperative that managers and owners should reflect on the aspects that make their business exceptional and purposefully drive towards reaching those goals.

Owners and managers should delegate duties to their employees and let them have some control over how they perform their duties. This relates to an internal locus of control where employees can feel they are responsible for their own destiny as they can make key decisions that affect them. A sense of control can determine whether people feel stressed or invigorated when facing a challenge. The more control people have over their work, the greater their job satisfaction, the higher their work quality, and the lower their stress and burnout level.

7.4 Suggested future research

This investigation revealed the need to further develop an instrument that specifically assesses organisational culture in the hospitality industry.

REFERENCES

- Acker, G. 2003. The impact of clients' mental illness on social workers' job satisfaction and burnout. *Health and Social Work*, 24(2): 112-19.
- Ader, H., Mellenbergh, G. & Hand, D. 2008. *Advising on research methods: a consultant's companion*. The Netherlands: Johannes van Kessel Publishing.
- Advani, J., Jagdale, S. & Kumar, R. 2005. Antecedents and consequences of burnout in service personnel: a case of Indian software professionals. *International Journal of Management*, 12(3): 21-34.
- Airey, D. 2005. *Growth and development: an international handbook of tourism education*. Oxford: Elsevier.
- Anderson, V. 2004. *Research methods in human resource management*. Wiltshire: The Cromwell Press.
- Aswathappa, K. 2003. *Organisational behaviour*. Bangalore: Publishing House.
- Atkinson, W. 1999. When stress won't go away. *HR Magazine*, 45(12): 104-10.
- Bakker, A. 2007. The job demands-resources model: state-of-the-art. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 22(3): 309-28.
- Bamporiki, A. 2010. *The impact of internal communication in hospitality establishments in Cape Town*. Prepared the resource centre, school of tourism and hospitality, Cape Peninsula University of technology.
- Baron, R. & Byrne, D. 2003. *Social psychology*. USA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Bartell, M. 2003. Internationalization of universities: a university culture-based framework. *Higher Education*, 45(1): 43-70.
- Blue, G. & Harun, M. 2002. Hospitality language as a professional skill. *English for specific purposes*. 22(1):73-91.

- Boardman, J. & Barbato, C. 2008. *Review of socially responsible HR and labour relations practice in international hotel chains*, Sectoral Activities Department. Geneva: ILO.
- Boella, M. 2000. *Human resource management in the hospitality industry*. Cheltenham: Stanley Thornes.
- Bolton, K. 2004. *Entrepreneurs: talent, temperament, technique*. Butterworth: Heinemann.
- Bonajala. 2012. *The state of travel and tourism in South Africa* (3rd ed.). Free State: Government Printer.
- Boyatzis, E. & Taylor, N. 2002. Learning Cognitive and Emotional Intelligence Competencies through Graduate Management Education, *Journal of Management Learning and Education*, 1(2):150-162.
- Brenninkmeijer, V. & Van Yperen, N. 2003. I am not a better teacher, but others are doing worse: burnout and perceptions of superiority among teachers. *Social Psychology of Education*, 4: 259-274.
- Brotheridge, C. & Grandey, A. 2002. Emotional labor and burnout: comparing two perspectives of “people work”. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 60: 17-39.
- Brotherton, B. 2008. *Researching hospitality and tourism*. London: Sage Publications.
- Brynard, P. & Hanekom, S. 2005. *Introduction to research in public administration and related academic disciplines*. Pretoria: JL Van Schaik Publishers.
- Cameron, K. & Quinn, R. 2006. *Diagnosing and changing organizational culture based on competing values framework*. Reading, MA: Addison Wesley.
- Carlson, D.S. & Perrewe, P.L. 1999. The role of social support in the stressor-strain relationship: an examination of work-family conflict. *Journal of Management*, 25: 513-540.
- Carroll, J. & White, W. 1982. *Theory building: integrating individual and environmental factors within an ecological framework*. USA: Sage Publications.

Cartwright, S. & Cooper, C. 2001. *Managing workplace stress*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Chalkiti, K. & Sigala, M. 2010. Staff turnover in the Greek tourism industry: a comparison between insular and peninsular regions. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 22(3): 335-359.

Chand, M. & Katou, A. 2007. The impact of HRM practices on organisational performance in the Indian hotel industry. *Employee Relations*, 29: 576-594.

Chen, Y. 2004. Examining the effect of organization culture and leadership behaviours on organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and job performance at small and middle-sized firms of Taiwan. *The Journal of American Academy of Business*, 5(1-2): 432-438.

Chin, N., Monroe, A. & Fiscella, K. 2000. Social determinants of unhealthy behavior. *Department of Community & Preventive Medicine*, 13(3): 317-328.

Chow, C., Harrison, G., McKinnon, J. & Wu, A. 2001. Organisational culture: association with affective commitment, job satisfaction, propensity and information sharing in a Chinese cultural context, *Centre for International Business Education and Research (CIBER)*.

Chrichton, J. 2004. *Integrated resource for inter-cultural teaching and learning in the context of internationalisation in higher cultural education*. Prepared by the Resource Centre, School of International Studies, University of Australia.

Clarke, A. & Dawson, R. 2003. *Evaluation research: an introduction to principles, methods and practice*. London: Sage Publications.

Collins, J. & Porras, I. 2000. *Built to last: successful habits of visionary companies*. London: Random House Business Books.

Cooper, C., Dewe, P. & O'Driscoll, M. 2001. *Organizational stress: a review and critique of theory, research and applications*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Cordes, C. & Dougherty, T. 1993. A review and an integration of research on job burnout. *Academy of Management Review*, 18: 621-656.

- Couper, I. 2005. Approaching burnout. *South African Family Practice*, 47(2): 5-8.
- Cox, T. 1985. *Stress*. London: MacMillan.
- Cox, T. & Mackay, C. 1981. A transactional approach to occupational stress. In E.N. Corlett and J. Richardson (Eds.), *Stress, work design and productivity*. Chichester: Wiley & Sons.
- Creque, C. 2003. *Organizational culture type and business process orientation congruence in buyer seller relationships*. UMI: Unpublished Dissertation, Nova South-Eastern University.
- Creswell, J.W. 2009. *Research design: qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches*. London: Sage Publications.
- Davidson, M. 2003. Does organizational climate add to service quality in hotels? *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 15(4): 206-213.
- Deal, T.E., & Kennedy, A.A. 1982. *Corporate cultures: the rites and rituals of corporate life*. Reading: Addison-Wesley.
- Deery, M. 2008. Talent management, work-life balance and retention strategies. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 20(7): 792-806.
- DeFrank, R. 1988. *Psychometric measurement of occupational stress: current concerns and future directions*. New York: Taylor & Francis.
- DeFrank, S., & Ivancevich. 1998. Stress on the job: an executive update. *The Academy of Management Executive*, 12(3): 199.
- Denison, R. & Fey, F. 2003. Organisational culture and effectiveness: can American theory be applied in Russia? *Organisational Science*, 14(6): 686-706.
- Denison, R. & Spreitzer, G. 1991. Organisational culture and organisational development. *Research in Organisational Change and Development*, 5: 1-21.
- Denzin, N. & Lincoln, Y. 2000. *Introduction: the discipline and practice of qualitative research*. CA: Sage Publication.

- Department of economic development, tourism and environmental affairs (DETEA). 2012. *Opportunities and constrains for development of the tourism sector in Mangaung and Matjhabeng municipalities*. ILO: Government Printer.
- De Vaus, D. 2001. *Research design in social research*. London: Sage Publications.
- Dewe, P. 1997. The transactional model of stress: some implications for stress management programs. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 35(2): 41-45.
- Dlamini, Z. 2010. A brief analysis of the impact of recession on tourism in South Africa and its main tourism source markets. *Tourism Kwazulu-Natal Occasional Paper No. 79*, Durban.
- Dyck, D. 2001. The toxic workplace. *Benefits Canada*, 25(3): 52-58.
- Elmadag, A.B., Ellinger, A.E. & Franke, G.R. 2008. Antecedents and consequences of frontline service employee commitment to service quality. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 16:95-110.
- Ferreira, S. 2011. South African tourism road to recovery: 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup as a vehicle. *Tourism Review International*, 15: 91-106.
- Genco, R. 2000. Risk factors of periodontal disease. *American Academy Journal*, 62(1): 59-94.
- Gopalan, N. & Satoris, S. 2008. Moderators in the relationship between occupational stress, emotional labor and burnout. Available from <http://www.cdc.gov/niosh/nora/symp08/posters/004.html> [Accessed on 10 September 2012].
- Gray, D. 2004. *Doing research in the real world*. London: Sage Publications
- Gray, P. 2002. Organisational stress in the hospital: development of a model for diagnosis and prediction. *Health Services Research*, 19(3): 752-774.
- Grebe, E. 1997. *Culture as a transformative agent in a tertiary institution*. Unpublished thesis for Bachelor of Commerce, Port Elizabeth: University of Port Elizabeth.

- Greenberg, J. & Baron, R. 2003. *Behaviour in organisations: understanding and managing the human side of work* (8th ed.). Upper Saddle River: Pearson Education.
- Grier, K. 1982. A comparison of job stress in law enforcement and teaching (Doctoral dissertation, University of South Florida). *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 43, 870B.
- Grobler, P., Warnich, S., Carrell, M., Elbert, N. & Hatfield, R. 2002. *Human resources management in South Africa*. London: Thomson.
- Halonen, J. & Santrock, J. 1997. *Human adjustment*. USA: Brown & Benchmark Publishers.
- Handy, C. 1993. *Understanding organisations*. London: Penguin.
- Hellriegel, D., Jackson, S., Slocum, J., Staude, G., Amos, T., Klopper, H.B., Louw, L. & Oosthuizen, T. 2004. *Management* (2nd South African ed.). Cape Town: Oxford University Press Southern Africa.
- Hobfoll, S. 1988. *The ecology of stress*. New York: Hemisphere.
- Hobfoll, S. & Shirom, A. 2000. Conservation of resources theory application to stress and management in the workplace. *Handbook of Organisational Behaviour*, Marcel Dekker Inc., New York.
- Hoffmann, D. 1998. Stress: what is it and what causes it? Available from <http://www.healthy.net/scr/article.asp?lk=P598&ld=1609> [Accessed on 12 September 2012].
- Hofstede, G. 1991. *Cultures and organizations*. London: McGraw-Hill International.
- Hofstede, G. 1994. Uncommon sense about organisations: *Cases, studies and field Observations*. Thousand Oak CA: Sage Publications
- Hofstede, G. 1998. Attitudes, Values and Organisational Culture: Disentangling the concepts. *Organisation studies*, 19(3):477.
- Hofstede, G. 2001. *Culture's consequences: comparing values, behaviors, institutions, and organizations across nations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Hofstede, G. 2005. *Cultures and organizations: software of the mind* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Hoogendoorn, G. & Visser, G. 2004. Second homes and small-town re-development: the case of Clarens. *Journal of Family Ecology and Consumer Sciences*, 32: 105-115.

Howard, L. 1998. Validating the Competing Values Model as a Representation of Organisational Cultures. *International Journal of Organisational Analysis*, 6(3): 231-250.

International Labour Organisation. 2010. *Developments and challenges in the hospitality and tourism sector*. Available from

http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@ed_norm/@relconf/documents/meetingdocument/wcms_166938.pdf [Accessed on 5 March 2013].

Jacobs, H. 2002. *Political science*. USA: Yale University Press.

Jamal, M. & Baba, V. 2001. Type-A behavior, job performance, and well-being in college teachers. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 8: 231-240.

Kang, B., Twigg, N.W. & Hertzman, J. 2010. An examination of social support and social identity factors and their relationship to certified chefs' burnout. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29(1): 168-176.

Karatepe, O. & Babakus, E. 2011. Affectivity and organisational politics as antecedents of burnout among frontline employees. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(1): 66-75.

Kemp, S. & Dwyer, L. 2001. An examination of organizational culture – the Regent Hotel, Sydney. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 20(1): 77-93.

Khamseh, S. 2010, Primary characteristics of organisational culture. *Academy of Management Executive*, 19(4): 130-138.

Khan, I.U., Usoro, A., Majewski, G. & Kuofie, M. 2010. The organisational culture model for comparative studies: a conceptual view. *International Journal of Global Business*, 13(3): 53-82.

- Kilic, C. & Dursun, T. 2010. The effect of organizational culture on customer orientation. *The Journal of American Academy of Business*, 15(2):1-7.
- Kim, H. 2008. Hotel service providers' emotional labor: the antecedents and effects on burnout. *International journal of Hospitality Management*, 27: 151-161.
- Kim, H., Shin, K. & Umbreit, W. 2007. Hotel job burnout: the role of personality characteristics. *International Journal on Hospitality Management*, 26(2): 421-434.
- Kloot, L. & Martin, J. 2007. Public sector change, organizational culture and financial information: a study of local government. *Australian Journal of Public Administration*, 66(4): 485-497.
- Kokt, D. 2009. *The impact of organisational culture on service delivery in G4S: an empirical investigation of a major private security company*. South Africa: Lambert Academic Publishing.
- Kulkarni, M. 2010. Don't ask, don't tell: two views on human resource practices for people with disabilities. *IIMB Management Review*, 22:137-146.
- Kumar, R. 2005. *Research methodology: a step-by-step guide for beginners* (2nd ed.). London: Sage Publications.
- Kumar. R. 2008. *Research methodology*. London: APH Publishing Corporation.
- Langelaan, S., Bakker, A., van Doornen, L. & Schaufeli, W. 2006. Burnout and work engagement: do individual differences make a difference? *Personality and Individual Differences*, 40(1): 521-532.
- Lazarus, R. 1993. From psychological stress to the emotions: a history of changing outlooks. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 44: 1-21.
- Lee, R. & Ashforth, B. 1996. A meta-analytic examination of the correlates of the three dimensions of job burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81(2): 123-133.
- Lee, Y. & Chang, H. 2008. Relations between Team Work and Innovation in Organisations and the Job Satisfaction of Employees: A Factor Analytic Study. *International Journal of Management* 25(3): 732-779.

Leedy, P. & Ormrod, J. 2010. *Practical research: planning and design* (9th ed.). New Jersey: Pearson Education.

Leiter, M. & Maslach, C. 2005. *Banishing burnout: six strategies for improving your relationship with work*. San Francisco, CA: John Wiley & Sons.

Lievens, F. 2002. An examination of the accuracy of slogans related to assessment centres. *Personnel Review*, 31: 86-102.

Lo, K. & Lamm, F. 2005. Occupational stress in the hospitality industry – an employment relations perspective. *New Zealand Journal of Employment Relations*, 30(1): 23.

Lohr, S. 1999. Sample surveys: model-based approaches. In N.J. Smelser and P.B. Baltes (Eds.), *International encyclopedia of the social & behavioral sciences*. New York: Elsevier.

Love, J. 2007. How to beat job burnout. Available from <http://www.ilmandassociates.com/articles/jobburnout.htm> [Accessed on 12 September 2012].

Luthans, F. 2002. The need for meaning and the positive organisational behaviour. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, 23: 695-706.

Maddi, S. 1996. *Personality theories: a comparative analysis*. Toronto: Brooks/Cole Publishing.

Magennis, R. & Smith, D. 2005. All used up: factors associated with burnout among Missouri social service workers. *Missouri Electronic Journal of Sociology*, 5: 1-33.

Martin, J. 2001. *Organisational behaviour*. London: Thomson Learning.

Maru, M. 2002. Job burnout: a review of recent literature. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 106(1): 5-48.

Maslach, C. 1982. *Burnout – the cost of caring*. New York: Prentice Hall Press.

Maslach, C. 1996. *Burnout: a multidimensional perspective*. Washington DC: Taylor & Francis.

- Maslach, C. & Jackson, S.E. 1996. *Maslach Burnout Inventory Manual*. Palo Alto, CA: *Consulting Psychologists Press*.
- Maslach, C. & Leiter, M. 1997. *The truth about burnout: how organizations cause personal stress and what to do about it*. San Francisco, CA: John Wiley & Sons.
- Maslach, C. 1998. *A multidimensional theory of burnout*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Maslach, C. 2001. Job burnout. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52(1): 397-422.
- Maslach C., Schaufeli W. & Leiter M. 2001. Job burnout. *Annual Review Psychology*, 52: 397-422.
- Maslach, C. 2003. Job burnout: new directions in research and intervention. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 12(5): 189-192.
- Maslach, C. & Leiter, M. 2008. *Stress and burnout: the critical research*. Lancaster: CRC Press.
- Matthew, J. 2007. The relationship of organisational culture with productivity and quality. *Employee Relations*, 29(6): 677-695.
- Matthieu, M. & Ivanoff, A. 2006. Using stress, appraisal, and coping theories in clinical practice: assessments of coping strategies after disasters. *Brief Treatment and Crisis Intervention Journal*, 6(4): 337-348.
- McKay, D. 2001. Job burnout: part 1: burnout defined. Available from <http://careerplanning.about.com/od/workrelated/a/burnout.htm> [Accessed on 22 September 2012].
- McMillan, L., O'Driscoll, M. & Burke, R. 2003. *Workaholism: A review of theory, research and future direction*. New York: Wiley.
- Merritt, E. 1996. Hospitality management: a study of burnout in private club management, research project, Master of Business Administration, Pepperdine University, Malibu, CA. Available from <http://www.cmaa.org/publish/burnout/index.htm> [Accessed on 10 September 2012].

- Meyer, J., Stanley, D., Herscovitch, L. & Topolnytsky, L. 2004. Affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organization: a meta-analysis of antecedents, correlates, and consequences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 61: 20-52.
- Milner, K., Fisher, J. & Latif, J. 2007. Perceptions of electronic performance monitoring and burnout in a South African call centre. *Ergonomics SA*, 19(2): 31-41.
- Moorhead, G. & Griffin, R. 1989. *Organizational behaviour* (4th Ed). Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Mostert, K., & Joubert, A.F. 2005. Job stress, burnout and coping strategies in the South African police service. *South African Journal of Economic Management and Sciences*, 8(1): 39-53.
- Moynihan, D. & Pandey, S. 2004. The role of organizations in fostering public service motivation. *Public Administration Review*, 67(1): 40-53.
- Mullins, L. 1993. *Hospitality management*. London: Pitman Publishing.
- Murphy, R. & Hurrell, J. 1987. Stress measurement and management in organizations: development and current status. In A.W. Riley & S.J. Zaccaro (Eds.), *Occupational stress and organizational effectiveness*. New York: Praeger.
- Naicker, N. 2008. Organisational culture and employee commitment: a case study, Unpublished thesis for Master of Business Administration, Durban: Durban University.
- Naidoo, S. 2004. 'Waiters blamed for poor service, falling tourism'. *Business Day*, p2.
- Naidoo, M. 2012. Opportunities and constraints for development of tourism sector in Mangaung and Matjhabeng municipalities. *International Labour Organisation*, 24-29.
- Nazir, A. 2005. Person-culture fit and employee commitment in banks. *Vikalpa*, 30(3): 39-51.
- Ndetei, D., Ongecha, F., Mutiso, V., Kuria, M., Khasakhala, L. & Kokonya, D. 2008. The challenges of human resources in mental health in Kenya. *South Africa Psychiatry*, 10(2): 33-36.

- Nelson Mandela Bay Review. 2008. *An investigation into the guest's perceived services*. South Africa: Government Printer.
- Norton, G. 1998. Stress and coping. In D.A. Louw & D.J.A. Edwards (Eds.), *Psychology: an introduction for students in Southern Africa* (2nd ed.). Rivonia: Heinemann.
- Ogbonna, E. 1993. Managing organizational culture: fantasy or reality? *Human Resource Management Journal*, 3(2): 42-54.
- Ogbonna, E. & Harris, L. 2000. Leadership Style, Organisational Culture and Performance: Empirical Evidence from UK Companies". *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 11(1): 766-88.
- Ogbonna, E., & Harris, L. 2002. Managing organizational culture: Insights from the hospitality industry. *Human Resource Management*, 12(1): 33-54.
- O'Driscoll, M., & Cooper, C. 2002. *Job-related stress and burnout*. London: Penguin group.
- O'Leary, Z. 2004. *The essential guide to doing research*. London: SAGE Publications.
- O'Reilly, C. 1989. "Corporations, culture, and commitment: Motivation and social control in organisations". *California Management Review*, 31(4): 9 – 25.
- O'Reilly, C., Chatman, J., Caldwell, D., 1991. People and organizational culture: a Profile comparison approach to assessing person–organization fit. *Academy of Management Journal*, 34 (3): 487–516.
- Paine, W. 1982. *Job Stress and Burnout: Research, Theory, and Intervention Perspectives*. USA: SAGE publications.
- Papworth, M. 2003. *Stress busting*. UK: Continuum International Publishing Group Limited.
- Parker, R. & Bradley, L. 2000. Organisational Culture in the Public Sector: Evidence from Six Organisations, *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 13(2): 125-141.

- Pienaar, J. & Willemse, S. 2008. Burnout, engagement, coping and general health of service employees in the hospitality industry. *Tourism Management*, 29 (6): 1053-63.
- Quick, J., Nelson, D. & Hurrell, J. 1997. *Preventive stress management in organisations*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Quinn, R. & Rohrbaugh, J. 1983. A spatial model of effectiveness criteria: Towards a competing values approach to organizational analyses. *Management Science*, 29(3): 363–377.
- Reichers, A., & Schneider, B. 1990. Climate and culture: An evolution of constructs. In B. Schneider (Ed.), *Organizational climate and culture*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Robins, S. 2000. *Organization Behaviour*. New Delhi Prentice: Hall of India Private Limited.
- Roesch, S., Weiner, B., & Vaughn, A. 2002. Cognitive approaches to stress and coping. *Current Opinion in Psychiatry*, 15: 627–632.
- Rogerson, C. 2002. Tourism and local economic development: The case of highlands Meander Development Southern Africa, *South African Journal*, 19: 143-167.
- Rogerson, C. M., & Visser, G. 2004. *Tourism and development issues in contemporary South Africa*. Pretoria: Africa Institute of South Africa.
- Rogerson, C. 2005. Globalization, economic restructuring and local response in Johannesburg the most isolated ‘world city’, in Segbers, K., Raiser, S. and Volkmann, K. *Public problems-private solutions? New trends from globalizing cities in the South*. Aldershot: Ashgate.
- Rogerson, C. & Visser, G. 2006. International tourist flows and urban tourism in South Africa. *Urban Forum*, 17: 199-213.
- Rogerson, C. M., & Kiambo, W. 2007. The growth and potential of regional tourism in the developing world: the South African experience. *Development Southern Africa*, 24: 505-521.

Rogerson, C. M., & Kotze, N. 2011. Market segmentation and the changing South African hotel industry 1990 to 2010. *African Journal of Business Management*, 5(35): 13523-13528.

Rohrbaugh, G. 2003. Artworks as Historical Individuals. *European journal of philosophy*, 11(2): 177-205.

Ross, F. 1995. Work Stress and personality measures among hospitality industry employees. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 7(6): 9-14.

Rothmann, S., Jackson, L. & Kruger, M. 2003. Burnout and stress in a local government: The moderating effects of sense of coherence. *South African journal of industrial psychology*, 29 (4): 52-60.

Rowe, A., Mason, R., Dickel, K., Mann, R., & Mockler, R. 1994. *Strategic Management: A methodological approach*. New York: Addison-Wesley

Ruigrok, W. & Achtenhagen, L. 1999. Organizational Culture and the Transformation towards New Forms of Organizing. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 8- 4.

Ruyter, K. 2001. Role of Stress in call centres, its effects on employee performance and satisfaction. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 15(2): 23-35.

Sadri, G., Lees, B. 2001. Developing Corporate Culture as a competitive advantage. *Journal of management development*, 20(10):1-44.

Salkind, N. 2006. *Exploring research*. New Jersey: Pearson Prentice-Hall.

Sanchez, O., Spector, P. & Cooper, C. 2000. Adjusting to a boundary less world: Stress and the expatriate executive. *Academy of management executive*, 14: 96-106.

Schaufeli, W. 2003. Past performance and future perspectives of burnout research. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 29(4): 1–15.

Schaufeli W., & Enzmann D. 1998. *The Burnout Companion to Study and Research: A Critical Analysis*. London: Taylor & Francis.

- Schaufeli, W., Taris, T., & Van Rhenen, W. 2008. Workaholism, burnout and engagement: Three of a kind or three different kinds of employee well-being? *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 57: 173-203.
- Schein, E. 1990. Organizational culture. *American Psychologist*, 45(2): 109-119.
- Schein, E. 1992. *Organizational culture and leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Schein, E. 1999. Organization Culture. *American Psychologist*, 45: 109-118.
- Schein, E. M. 2004. *Organizational culture and leadership*. (3rd. Ed.). Jossey-Bass.
- Scheineider, K., & Northcraft, B. 1999. "Three Social Dilemmas of Workplace Diversity in Organizations: A Social Identity Perspective". *Human Relations*, 52(11):1467-1490.
- Scott, E. 2006. Stress and Burnout: Burnout Symptoms and Causes. Available from http://stress.about.com/od/burnout/a/stressn_burnout.htm [Accessed on 24th September 2012].
- Scott, T., Mannion, R., Davies, H. & Marshall, M. 2003. The quantitative measurement of organisational culture in health care: A review of the available instruments, *health services research*, 38(3): 923-925.
- Seymour, D. 2000. Emotional labour: a comparison between fast food and traditional service work. *International journal of hospitality management*, 19(2):159-171
- Semenchuk, E., & Larkin, K. 2008. Theories of Stress. Available from <http://www.severehypertension.net/hbp/more/theories-of-stress/> [Accessed on 24th September 2012]
- Shani, A. & Pizam, A. 2009. Work related depression among hotel employees. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 50 (4): 446-459.
- Silverthorne, C. 2004. The impact of organisational culture and person organisation fit on organisational commitment and job satisfaction in Taiwan. *The Leadership and Organisation Development Journal*, 25(7): 522 – 599.
- Sims, H. & Lorenzi, P. 1992. *The Social learning and cognition in organisations*. Newbury, CA: Sage Publications.

Smith, M.E. 2003. Changing an organisation's culture: Correlates of success and failure. *Leadership and Organisation Development Journal*, 24(5): 249 – 261

South Africa. Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT). 1996. *National White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism*. Pretoria: Government Printer.

South Africa. Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT). 2002. *National responsible tourism guidelines for South Africa*. Pretoria: Government Printer.

South Africa. Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT). 2003. *International Conventions and Protocols on Climate Change*. Pretoria: Government Printer.

South Africa. Department of Tourism. 2011. *National tourism sector strategy*. Pretoria: Government Printer.

South Africa. Department of Tourism, 2012. *The State of Travel and Tourism in South Africa, Collectively and Broadly Promoting Responsible and Sustainable Tourism for Benefit of all*. Pretoria: Government Printer.

South African Tourism (SAT). 2007. *The impact of tourism on the economy*. Pretoria: Government Printer.

South African Tourism (SAT). 2011. *2010 Annual tourism report*. Johannesburg: South African Tourism Strategic Research Unit.

Spangenberg, J., & de Villiers, A. 2007. Stress and its Implications for Family Practice. *South African Family Practice*, 49(6): 30-32.

Spielberger, C. 1991. *Preliminary test manual for the Job Stress Survey (JSS)*. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.

Spielberger, C. & Vagg, P. 1999. *Job Stress Survey. Professional Manual*. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.

Spielberger, C., Westberry, L., Grier, K., & Greenfield, G. 1981. *The Police Stress Survey: Sources of stress in law enforcement*. Tampa, FL: University of South Florida, College of Social and Behavioural Sciences.

Storm, K., & Rothmann, S. 2003. The Relationship between Burnout, Personality Traits and Coping Strategies in a Corporate Pharmaceutical Group. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 29(4): 35-42.

Sturman, M. 1999. *Differing Conceptualizations of the Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire's Dimensionality*, 1999 Academy of Management Conference.

Sunny Hu, H. & Cheng, C. 2010. Job Stress, coping strategies and burnout among hotel industry supervisors in Taiwan. *International Journal of Human Resources Management*, 21(8): 1337-1350.

Sutherland, V. J., & Cooper, C. L. 1996. Identifying distress among general practitioners: Predictors of psychological ill-health and job dissatisfaction. *Social Science Medicine*, 37: 575-581.

Tepeci, M. & Bartlett, A. 2002. The hospitality industry culture profile: A measure of individual values, organizational culture, and person organization fit as predictors of job satisfaction and behavioural intentions. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 21(2): 151–170.

Tesone, D. 2005. *Human Resource Management in the hospitality industry*. New Jersey: Upper Saddle River.

Testa, M., & Sipe, L. 2011. The Organizational Culture Audit: A Model for Hospitality Executives. *International Chrie Conference-Refereed Track*: Paper 8.

Theron, D. 2005. Beating Burnout: The Stress Menace. *Management Today*, 21(8):56-58.

Thoresen, C., Kaplan, S., Barsky, A., Warren, C. & de Chermont. K. 2003. The affective underpinnings of job perceptions and attitudes: a meta-analytic review and integration. *Psychol Bull*, 129(6): 914-945.

Tian, Q. & Qi, J. 2010. Assessing the influence of Organisational culture in SMEs of Macao. *The Leadership and Organisation Development Journal*, 5(1): 91-95.

Tourism, Hospitality and Sport Education and Training Authority Skills Plan (THETA).

2010. Available from:

http://www.cathsseta.org.za/skillsDev/default.asp?thepage=documents/download_docs.asp&DocID=1&isSubmit=true Retrieved 12 October 2012.

Trivellas, P. & Dargenidou, D. 2009. Organizational culture, job satisfaction and higher education service quality. *The TQM Journal*, 21(4): 382-389.

Trochim, W. 2006. The research methods knowledge base. Available from <http://www.trochim.human.cornelledu/kb/index.htm> [accessed 13-12-2013].

Vallen, G. 1993. Organisational climate and burnout. The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant. *Administration Quarterly*, 34(1): 54-60.

Van der post, W., De Coning, T.J., & Smit, E. 1997. An instrument to measure organizational culture. *South African Journal of Business Management*, 28(4): 147 – 169.

Veal, A.J. 2006. *Research for leisure and tourism*. Sydney: British library.

Villanueva, D. & Djurkovic, N. 2009. Occupational stress and intention to leave among employees in small and medium enterprises. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 16(2): 124-137.

Visser, G. 2004. South African tourism and its role in the perpetuation of an uneven tourism space economy. In C. M. Rogerson, & G. Visser (Eds.), *Tourism and development issues in contemporary South Africa*. Pretoria: Africa Institute of South Africa, pp. 268-289.

Visser, G. 2007. *Geography of tourism, Managing tourism in South Africa*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press, pp. 34-52.

Visser, G., & Kotze, N. 2006. The Free State tourism economy: Current dynamics, immediate challenges and future prospects. *South African Geographical Journal*, 88(1): 88–101.

- Wagner, J.A III. 1995. 'Studies of individualism-collectivism: effects on cooperation groups'. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38: 152–172.
- Wainwright, D., & Calnan, S. 2002. *Work stress: The making of a modern epidemic*. London: Open University Press.
- Waite, M., 1994. *The Oxford Dictionary*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Walters, G. & Raybould, M. 2007. Burnout and perceived organisational support among front-line hospitality employees. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 14 (2): 144-156.
- Wan, Y. 2010. Exploratory assessment of the Macao casino dealers' job perceptions. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29(1): 62-71.
- Wang, J. 2009. Issues, Challenges, and Trends that are facing Hospitality Industry. *International journal of Management Science and Engineering*, 3(4): 53-58.
- Waterhouse, J. & Lewis, D. 2004. Communicating culture change. *Public Management Review*, 6(3): 353-376.
- Watson, T.J. 2006. *Organising and Managing Work*. UK: Pearson Education Limited.
- Wilderom, C. & Van den Berg, P. 2004. Defining, Measuring, and Comparing Organisational Cultures. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 53 (4):570-582.
- Woods, R. 1989. 'More alike than different: the culture of the restaurant industry'. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 30(2): 82-97.
- Zammuto, R., Gifford, G. & Goodman, E. 1999. Managerial Ideologies, Organisation Culture and the Outcomes of Innovation: A Competing Values Perspective, in Ashkanasy N, Wilderom C and Peterson M (Eds) *The Handbook of Organisational Culture and Climate*. CA: Sage, Thousand Oaks.
- Xenikou, A. & Simosi, M. 2006. Organisational Culture and transformational leadership as predictors of business unit performance. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 21(6): 566-579.

ANNEXURE A: List of graded accommodation establishments in Bloemfontein and Clarens

Bloemfontein

African Skye Guest House
Altair Lodge
Anta Boga Hotel
At Home Guest House
Bloem Hotel
Camelia Guest House
City Lodge
College Lodge
De Akker Guest House
Emzini Guest House
Epozini Guest House
Hobbit Boutique Hotel
Lala Dene Lodge
La Vie & Rose Lodge
Lazy Lizard Guest House
Mabonza's Park Lodge
Palm Lodge
Protea Hotel
President Hotel
Queen's Park Lodge
Odessa Guest House
Road Lodge
Shawu Lodge and Conference
Southern Sun Hotel
Urban Hotel
Villa Bane Lodge

Clarens

Ashbrook Country Lodge
Born Free Lodge
Brookeside Self Catering
Lilliput House
Maluti Mountain Lodge
Millpond House
Mont d'Or Hotel
Patcham Place Bed and Breakfast
Protea Hotel
Riverwalk Bed and Breakfast
San Rock Guest House
Time Out Bed and Breakfast
Willow Creek
Wynott Country House

ANNEXURE B: Letter from Central university of Technology

Official letter from Central University of Technology



29 July 2013

Dear Participant

RE: MASTER'S STUDY: THE IMPACT OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE ON JOB STRESS AND BURNOUT IN SELECTED HOSPITALITY ESTABLISHMENTS IN THE FREESTATE PROVINCE

Thank you for your co-operation in the completion of this questionnaire.

The completion of this questionnaire is anonymous and the information will be handled confidentially. Your inputs are of extreme value and importance for the researcher and management.

The information will be used for research purposes only.

Please answer this questionnaire as honestly as possible.

Yours truly

Ms R Ramarumo
Study leader: Prof Deseré Kokt (051-5073114 Email: koktd@cut.ac.za)

ANNEXURE C: Survey Tool

Questionnaire



Central University of
Technology, Free State

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS

1. Please indicate your age:
_____ years

2. Please indicate your racial group.

1	Black
2	White
3	Coloured
4	Indian
5	Asian
6	Other

If OTHER, please specify your racial group:

3. Please indicate your gender.

1	Male
2	Female

4. Indicate your current position.

For office use:

<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1-3
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>		4-5
<input type="text"/>			6
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>		7-8
<input type="text"/>			9
<input type="text"/>			10

1	Owner
2	Manager
3	Front of house – includes staff in reception, reservations, restaurant staff, porters and concierges
4	Back of house - such as housekeeping, cleaning, kitchen, maintenance and security staff

SECTION B: ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE SECTION

5. A number of statements are provided. Indicate you're your level of agreement by circling the appropriate block.

GROUP (CLAN) CULTURE

		Not at all	Partly	Mostly	Fully	
5.1	I have a good relationship with the owner/manager .	1	2	3	4	11
5.2	I am loyal to the establishment.	1	2	3	4	12
5.3	The establishment values the development of people.	1	2	3	4	13
5.4	I can discuss work-related problems with my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	14
5.5	I can participate in making suggestions.	1	2	3	4	15
5.6	My supervisor cares for my feelings.	1	2	3	4	16
5.7	I am committed to the establishment.	1	2	3	4	17
5.8	I prefer to operate as part of a team.	1	2	3	4	18

DEVELOPMENTAL (ADHOCRACY) CULTURE

		Not at all	Partly	Mostly	Fully	
5.9	My supervisor makes innovative suggestions to better my performance.	1	2	3	4	19
5.10	My supervisor is a risk-taker.	1	2	3	4	20
5.11	I am given the opportunity to develop my skills and creativity.	1	2	3	4	21
5.12	The establishment offers a persistent, superior service to customers.	1	2	3	4	22
5.13	I am able to make decisions, should the situation arise, on my own.	1	2	3	4	23

5.14	Constant improvements are made to the service offered by the establishment.	1	2	3	4	24
------	---	---	---	---	---	----

HIERARCHICAL CULTURE

		Not at all	Partly	Mostly	Fully	
5.15	I know all the rules and regulations I am supposed to follow.	1	2	3	4	25
5.16	I always follow the rules and regulations.	1	2	3	4	26
5.17	My supervisor prefers to make all the decisions on procedures to follow.	1	2	3	4	27
5.18	Every action is coordinated for the smooth running of the organisation.	1	2	3	4	28
5.19	Everything must always be done according to plan.	1	2	3	4	29

RATIONAL CULTURE

		Not at all	Partly	Mostly	Fully	
5.20	My supervisor is focused on the task to be accomplished.	1	2	3	4	30
5.21	I know what is expected from me with regard to my tasks.	1	2	3	4	31
5.22	My supervisor sets clear goals.	1	2	3	4	32
5.23	The establishment is service -oriented.	1	2	3	4	33
5.24	The establishment is results-oriented.	1	2	3	4	34
5.25	I always strive to render the best possible service to customers/clients /employees /suppliers .	1	2	3	4	35

SECTION C: JOB STRESS SECTION

6. Please indicate your level of agreement to the following statements:

		Always	Mostly	Never	
6.1	Demanding customers make me feel stressed.	1	2	3	36
6.2	We are adequately trained to effectively deal with customers.	1	2	3	37
6.3	We are adequately trained to perform our duties.	1	2	3	38
6.4	Working long hours increases my stress.	1	2	3	39

6.5	Working irregular hours increases my stress.	1	2	3	40
6.6	I am not able to spend enough time with my family due to long, irregular work hours.	1	2	3	41
6.7	I often feel tired.	1	2	3	42
6.8	I often have heart palpitations and an increased heart rate.	1	2	3	43
6.9	I often feel anxious.	1	2	3	44
6.10	I am dissatisfied with my job.	1	2	3	45
6.11	I use alcohol, drugs and or other substances to help me relax.	1	2	3	46
6.12	There is often conflict amongst employees.	1	2	3	47
6.13	There is often conflict between employees and owner/manager.	1	2	3	48
6.14	I am able to complete the duties I must perform during my work hours.	1	2	3	49
6.15	I feel I work under a great deal of pressure.	1	2	3	50
6.16	I feel the work assigned to me requires a lot of effort.	1	2	3	51
6.17	I feel exhausted when I return home at night.	1	2	3	52
6.18	I know exactly what duties to perform.	1	2	3	53
6.19	I do not care about my work anymore.	1	2	3	54
6.20	I want to have a friendly relationship with my colleagues.	1	2	3	55
6.21	I have no control over the duties I need to perform.	1	2	3	56

SECTION D: BURNOUT SECTION

7. Please indicate the prevalence of the following feelings and symptoms:

		Always	Mostly	Never	
7.1	I feel emotionally drained.	1	2	3	57
7.2	I feel tired when I get up in the morning.	1	2	3	58
7.3	Working all day is a strain for me.	1	2	3	59
7.4	I can effectively solve the problems I encounter at work.	1	2	3	60

7.5	I am not interested in my job.	1	2	3	61
7.6	I am not making a contribution to the establishment.	1	2	3	62
7.7	In my opinion, I am good at my job.	1	2	3	63
7.8	I feel good when I do my job well.	1	2	3	64
7.9	I do not look forward to my job every day.	1	2	3	65
7.10	I am not effective in getting my job done.	1	2	3	66
7.11	I don't care to provide good service to customers.	1	2	3	67
7.12	Customers blame me for their problems.	1	2	3	68
7.13	The owner/manager does not assist me in dealing with customers.	1	2	3	69
7.14	I maintain good relationships with co-workers and customers.	1	2	3	70

Thank you for your participation.