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MANAGING THE AFTERMATHS OF CONTRACTING IN PUBLIC TRANSIT ORGANIZATIONS: EMPLOYEE PERCEPTION OF JOB SECURITY, ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND TRUST

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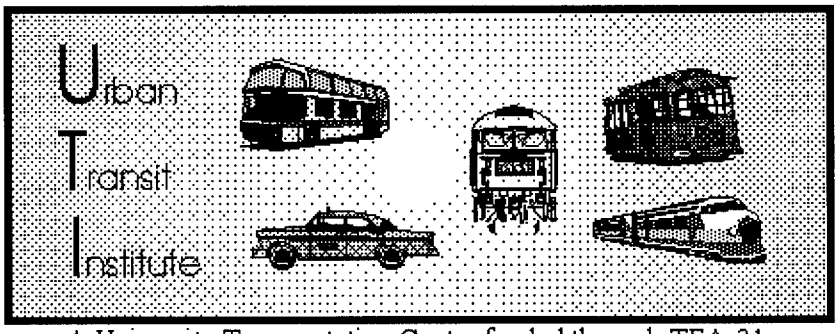

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Travel demand management (TDM) is a set of procedures that have been shown to alleviate unlimited use of automobiles. Demand is managed by limiting highway capacity to meet demand to travel by car and providing incentives or disincentives to increase average vehicle occupancy, to change the time and routes of travel, and to shift travel from the auto to transit. The objectives of this project are to

1. Identify potential TDM elements that would effectively reduce auto travel in the mid-sized urban area with a corridor connecting two urban centers,
2. Evaluate the acceptability of measures by the public, policy makers, and public officials,
3. Develop and illustrate a method to evaluate the effectiveness of TDM to reduce auto travel for specific areas and projects.

The research approach will be divided into two phases. In the first phase, there will be a review of a comprehensive list of successful TDM measures. From this list a questionnaire will be prepared that will determine which TDM measures are suitable for Greensboro/Winston-Salem/High Point Metropolitan area and other mid-sized urban areas. The survey instrument will be tailored separately for three different groups: local policy makers, local residents, and transportation engineers and planners. The questionnaire will list and concisely define each TDM measure and will ask each subject to evaluate each measure according to the perceived suitability in her/his community. In the second phase, a specific package of TDM measures will be combined with a proposed highway improvement. The impact on travel demand of the highway improvement will then be evaluated with and without the TDM package.

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MANAGING THE AFTERMATHS OF CONTRACTING IN PUBLIC TRANSIT ORGANIZATIONS: EMPLOYEE PERCEPTION OF JOB SECURITY, ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND TRUST

by

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16. Abstract This study assesses how to manage the effects or outcomes of organizational change on job security and employee commitment in transit systems using trust-building, empowerment, employee reassurance, and job redesign strategies. The major findings are that organizational restructuring, downsizing and lay offs have contributed to erosion of employees' trust in management, organizational commitment, and feelings of having power. These general conclusions suggest the need for management to do more to build employees' trust by focusing on maintaining behavior consistency and integrity especially on issues and decisions that affect employees' welfare. When employees perceive management as showing concern for their welfare, it could result in improved morale, increased job satisfaction, and improved productivity. Job redesign, employee empowerment, and reassurance are among the additional strategies the study recommends to be used to address the reduced levels of commitment, trust, and job security.			
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Executive Summary

Many public transit systems have undergone organizational changes and restructuring in an effort to improve operation efficiency and competitiveness since the 1980s. A notable change is increased level of contracting which has affected employee organizational commitment and perceptions of job insecurity because of job losses, changes in job features, and the feeling of powerlessness among lay off survivors.

This study assesses how to manage the effects or outcomes of organizational change of job security and employee commitment in transit systems using trust-building, empowerment, employee reassurance, and job redesign strategies. The major findings are that organizational restructuring, downsizing and lay offs have contributed to erosion of employees' trust in management, organizational commitment, and feelings of powerlessness among employees of public transit organizations.

These general conclusions suggest the need for management to take conscious steps to build employees' trust by focusing on maintaining behavior consistency and integrity especially on issues and decisions that affect employees' welfare and self determination. When management is perceived by employees as showing concern for their welfare, it could result in improved morale, increased job satisfaction, and improved productivity. Job redesign, employee empowerment, and reassurance are among the additional strategies the study recommends to manage the possible negative organizational consequences of restructuring and downsizing such as reduced levels of organizational commitment, trust, and perceptions of job insecurity.

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1. Introduction

Introduction

Since the early 1980s outsourcing or the practice of contracting some parts of an organization's functions to another organization, has been a widely used strategy to reduce cost, improve internal efficiency and organizational competitiveness. Often, an outsourcing is followed by downsizing, internal structure alignment and workforce reduction that in turn produce unpleasant organizational realities for employees who are laid-off and those who survive and remain with the organization.

The obvious reality for those laid-off is the economic hardship and psychological tremors that are often associated with the loss of jobs. Others are the erosion of trust, morale and heightened feelings of job insecurity, breach of psychological contracts that produce intents to quit, reduced organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Ashford, Lee and Bobko 1989, Fisher 1991). Cascio (1993), reported increased job stress and burnout in more than 50 percent of layoff survivors. In other cases, downsizing has caused survivors to increase their work efforts to take advantage of career growth opportunities (Isabella 1989; Henkoff 1994). This was particularly true in organizations where survivors perceived the layoff process to be fair, just, and equitable (Brockner, Grover & Blonder, 1988; Greenberg, 1987, 1990). Additionally, Brockner, Grover, Reed and Dewitt (1992) found evidence of an inverted-U relationship between layoff-induced job insecurity and survivors' work efforts. This finding suggests that a certain level of job insecurity (high enough to overcome complacency) leads to increased level of survivors' work efforts. Especially, this is true among those who have high economic need to work and would want to increase their chances of surviving future layoffs.

Mishra and Spreitzer (1998) grouped layoff survivors' behavior into two broad categories, constructive and destructive. Constructive survivors' behavior include obliging responses of feeling calm, relief, commitment and loyalty. A second category of constructive response is the feeling and expression of hope, excitement, optimism, and willingness to solve problems and take initiatives. Destructive responses are feelings and expressions of fear, anxiety, helplessness, withdrawal and procrastination. Others include cynicism, anger, disgust, retaliation and the tendency to badmouth the organization. Mishra and Spreitzer (1998) argued that "trust and justice . . . reduce the extent to which organizational downsizing (layoffs) is evaluated as a threat." Furthermore, they argued that empowerment and work redesign influence survivors' assessment of their capacity to cope with the threat.

Objective

Considerable research efforts have been devoted to the identification and analyses of personal and organizational consequences of outsourcing, downsizing and similar organizational change interventions. However, few studies have addressed the issue of how to restore layoff survivors' trust, organizational commitment and the sense of job security, though various theoretical frameworks have been offered on them in human resource and performance management literature. Therefore, the objective of this study is to assess the level of employee organizational commitment, perceptions of job insecurity and trust in transit systems that are contracting peripheral and core functions and suggest strategies for improving employee commitment,

organizational trust and job security. Additionally, the study assesses the perceptions of employees regarding trust-building, job redesign, employee assurance, and employee empowerment strategies that can be used to restore trust, job security, and organizational commitment. The study is questionnaire-based and targets supervisors and middle-level managers in selected transit systems.

Organization

The study is organized as follows. The next section deals with literature review and it is followed by management trust building. After them job redesign, reassurance, and employee empowerment and the relationships between them are discussed in that order. Next, the impacts of organizational change on job security and commitment are examined respectively to be followed by a discussion of how to choose strategies to manage the unfavorable outcomes of an outsourcing or contracting. The last section deals with the conclusion.

2. Literature Review

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment has been and continues to be of great interest to researchers of organizational behavior and management practitioners. Primarily this is because of its association with such desirable work behaviors as increased productivity, personnel stability, lower absenteeism rate, job satisfaction and organizational citizenship (Porter et al., 1974, 1976; Morris & Koch, 1979; Wiener & Vardi, 1980; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin & Jackson, 1989; O'Reily & Chatman, 1986; Shore & Wayne, 1993). Consequently, much of the earlier research focused on definition, identification of antecedents, measurement and development of organizational processes that enhance organizational commitment among employees (Buchanan, 1974; Hall & Schneider, 1972; Mowday *et al.*, 1979, Batement & Strasser, 1984). Among antecedents of organizational commitment are such personal factors as gender, marital status, age, work values, and employment tenure (Hrebiniak & Alluto, 1972; Brown, 1969; Dubin, Champous & Porter, 1975; Kidron, 1978). Beyond personal factors, reward systems, opportunity for employment, perceived organizational support, opportunity for career advancement, job security, values and goals are found to induce organizational commitment (Buchanan, 1974; Jamal, 1974; Shore & Wayne, 1993).

A review of organizational commitment research literature by Meyer and Allen (1991), and corroborated by Dunham, Gruba and Castaneda (1994) identified three types of organizational commitment: affective, continuance and normative. Allen and Meyer (1990), found, that these three classifications of commitment are conceptually and empirically separable. Though there may be some overlap between affective and normative commitment, both were relatively independent of continuance commitment.

Affective commitment is employee emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization and its goals. It results from an agreement between individual and organizational values so it becomes natural for one to become emotionally attached to, and enjoy membership in the organization (March & Simon, 1958; Hall et al., 1970; O'Reily & Chatman, 1986, Meyer & Allen, 1984).

Continuance commitment is willingness to remain in an organization because of personal investment in nontransferable investments. These investments include close working relationships with coworkers, retirement, career, and skills that are unique to a particular organization. They also include years of employment in a particular organization, involvement in the community in which the employer is, and other benefits that make it too costly for one to leave and seek employment elsewhere.

Normative commitment is that which is induced by a feeling of obligation to remain with an organization. Such a feeling often results from what Wiener (1982) characterized as "generalized value of loyalty and duty." This is an almost natural predisposition to be loyal and committed to institutions such as family, marriage, country, religion and employment organization because of socialization in cultures that place premium on loyalty and devotion to institutions. This view of commitment holds that an individual shows commitment behavior solely because she or he believes it is moral and right. They identified personal norms as the factor responsible for what Wiener called "internalized normative pressure" which makes organizational commitment a moral obligation because the individual feels he or she ought to do so. According to Wiener and Verdi (1980), this feeling of moral obligation is measured by the extent to which a person feels loyal to an organization, makes personal sacrifice to help it out, and not criticize the organization.

Common to the three types of commitment, according to Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993), "is the view that commitment is a psychological state that (a) characterizes the employee's relationship with the organization, and (b) has implication for the decision to continue or stop membership in the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment remain with an organization because they want to, those with a strong continuance commitment remain because they have to, and those with a strong normative commitment remain because they feel they ought to (stay)."

Over the years, two basic approaches have been used to study organizational commitment: Commitment-related attitudes and commitment-related behaviors. Each approach offers a different definition of organizational commitment. The commitment-related attitude approach defines organizational commitment as a partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake, apart from purely instrumental worth (Buchanan, 1974, p. 533). Porter, Crampton and Smith (1976), define it as the willingness of an employee to exert high level of effort for the organization, a strong desire for the organization, and an acceptance of its major goals and values. According to Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979, p. 225), attitudinal commitment represents a state in which an individual identifies with a particular organization and its goals and wishes to maintain membership to facilitate these goals.

Normative commitment-related behavior deals with a pattern guided by internalized normative pressures to act in ways that meet organizational goals and interests (Wiener, 1982). Wiener and Gechman (1977) argued that the pattern of behavior resulting from commitment should possess the following characteristics: (1) it should reflect personal sacrifices made for the

sake of the organization; (2) it should show persistence - that is, the behaviors should not depend primarily on environmental controls such as reinforcements or punishment, and (3) it should show a personal preoccupation with the organization; such as devoting a great deal of personal time to organization related actions and thoughts. In this sense, organizational commitment is viewed as: (1) a willingness of individuals to identify with and the desire not to leave an organization for selfish interests or marginal gains; (2) willingness to work selflessly and contribute to the effectiveness of an organization; (3) willingness to make personal sacrifice, perform beyond normal expectations and endure difficult times with an organization - a low propensity to "bailout" in difficult times; (4) acceptance of organization's values and goals - the internalization factor.

Job security

Feelings of job insecurity occur along the two dimensions suggested by Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984). The first is the feeling of threats to one's total job, i.e., threats to a total job. For example, one may be moved into a lower position within the organization, be moved to another job at the same level within the organization, or be laid-off temporarily. At the other extreme, the job loss may be permanent or one may be fired, or be forced into early retirement. The organizational change also may make the future of an entire division or a department uncertain in which case job losses may be imminent.

The second way in which job insecurity is manifested is in feelings of threats to job features, i.e., when some aspects of one's job (features), are threatened. For example, the organizational change may make it difficult to get ahead in the organization, maintain your current salary or pay increase. It may even affect your position in the company, freedom to schedule work, the variety of tasks performed, and the significance of jobs. Threats to job features may also take the form of difficulty in having access to resources that were previously readily available. Lastly, job insecurity may take the form of employees' feelings of lack of power or inability to control events that they oppose in their work environment, i.e., feelings of powerlessness.

When employees feel powerless, or feel that the features of their jobs or entire jobs are threatened we argue that it is a sign of feelings of job insecurity. It follows that some but not all job threats, threats to job features, and powerlessness must occur for there to be job insecurity. Brockner, Grover, Reed and Dewitt (1992) theorized that layoff survivors' level of job insecurity should be: (1) highest when perceived threats to job or job features are high and perceived power and control is low, (2) lowest when the perceived threat is low and perceived power and control is high, and (3) moderate when both threat and control are high or both threat and control are low.

Job security and organizational commitment

Many studies have established relationships between job security on one hand and organizational commitment and job satisfaction on the other. Rosenblatt and Ayalla (1996) studied the impact of job security on attitudes toward work. They found that job insecurity adversely affected organizational commitment, perceived organizational support, intention to quit, and resistance to change. The importance of employees' affective commitment to an organization was underscored by Meyer, Paunonen, Gallatly, Richard, and Jackson (1989). In their study they found a positive relationship between affective commitment and different measures of

employees' job performance, and a negative relationship between continuance commitment and employees' job performance. This negative relationship led Meyer et al to conclude that examining the policies they implement to increase commitment and the type of commitment they try to encourage is important to organizations. Specifically they discouraged the use of rapid promotion, non vested pension plans, organization-specific skills training et cetera to bind employees to the organization because they may not instill the desire to contribute to organizational effectiveness. Instead, they suggested that fostering affective commitment in employees may be prudent for companies than continuance commitment. In contrast studies suggest that the cancellation of benefits (which bind employees to an organization) have negative impacts on employee commitment. Also, Ting (1996), and Romzek (1990) suggest that organizations should try to increase employees' investment to reinforce employees' psychological ties or organizational commitment.

Luthans and Sommer (1999), Mone (1994), Tomasko (1990), and Esty (1984) examined the relationship between downsizing, organizational commitment, and job distress (job security) in organizations. Peripheral researches on outsourcing include recent works of Deavers (1997), Perry (1997), Sharpe (1997), and Abraham and Taylor (1996). These works address a wide range of issues from the effect of outsourcing on wages, union power, and organizational competitiveness, to reasons for outsourcing. They found that downsizing reduces organizational commitment, job satisfaction and job security. Additionally, organizations that downsized had less satisfied and more depressed employees.

Angle and Perry (1981) studied the relationship between organizational commitment, i.e., affective commitment of lower-level employees of organizations offering bus services, and organizational adaptability, turnover, tardiness, absenteeism and operating costs. They found a mixed perception of the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational adaptability. While lower-level employees perceived the association between organizational commitment and organizational adaptability as positive, managers did not. They also found organizational commitment to be associated with turnover, and tardiness but not with absenteeism and operating costs.

Begley and Czajka (1993) examined the moderating effects of organizational commitment on job satisfaction and intent to quit during organizational turmoil. Their findings show that organizational commitment buffered the relationship between stress and job displeasure interpreted to be job dissatisfaction. Kobasa, (1982) argued that commitment shields or protects employees from the adverse effects of stress such as caused by organizational hardship (layoffs), because it enables them to attach direction and meaning to their work. In their view, committed employees are better prepared to confront organizational problems that have employment-related implications, insecurity, and the threat to belonging. Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) found that organizational commitment gives employees a feeling of stability and belonging.

Trust and Psychological Contract

The role and importance of trust in employee and employer relationship have been recognized in employee and labor relations management literature. Muchinsky (1977) and Early (1986), found trust to have significant association with the effectiveness and quality of organizational communication. Employee citizenship and cooperative behaviors have also been significantly associated with trust (Mcallister, 1995; Axelrod, 1984). Mayer et al. (1995), Morris and Moberg

(1994) recognized the importance and usefulness of trust in such organizational variables as leadership effectiveness, team work, performance appraisal and labor relations.

Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard and Werner (1998) provide a three-facet definition of trust: First, trust in another person or party reflects an expectation or belief that the other person or party will act benevolently. Second, trust involves willingness to be vulnerable; it assumes the risk that the other person or party may not fulfill that expectation. Third, trust involves some level of dependency on the other person or party so that the outcomes of one individual are influenced by the actions of another. Robinson (1996) considers trust as an attitude held by one person or party (trustor) toward another person or party (trustee). In Whitener et al. (1998), this attitude is derived from the trustor's perceptions, beliefs, and attributions about the trustee, based on the trustor's observation of the trustee's behavior. Essential preconditions of trust according to Butler (1991), are trustors' beliefs about and perceptions of trustees' **competence, integrity and benevolence.** Whitener et al (1998) argue that these preconditions or antecedents of trust suggest that managers can have considerable impact on trust building and that managers' actions and behaviors provide the foundation for trust. Furthermore, it is the manager's responsibility to make the first move toward building relationships of trust. They therefore propose a conceptual framework of initiating managerial trustworthy behavior that includes, **behavioral consistency, behavioral integrity, sharing and delegation of control, communication and demonstration of concern.**

Behavior Consistency : One definition of trust Whitener et al (1998) provide is the extent to which a trustor is willing to be vulnerable to the actions of a trustee and the willingness to take the risk that the action of the trustee will meet or fulfill the trustor's expectation. The willingness to be vulnerable to an action of another, and the risk that the action will meet ones expectations, are greatly enhanced by the degree to which a trustor (employee) perceives the behavior of a trustee (manager) to be predictable and reliable. Therefore the extent to which an employee trusts a manager depends on an employee's perception of the reliability and predictability of the manager's behavior. Green and Uhl-Bien (1995) found that both positive and predictable behaviors reinforce trust.

Behavioral Integrity : Employees' attribution about management's integrity according to Dasgupta (1998) is predicated on the belief that management tells the truth and keeps its promises to employees. Whitener et al. (1998) argue that while behavior consistency and behavior integrity are similar in that both reflect a consistency that reduces employees' perceived risk of trusting management, they are distinct dimensions. While behavior consistency reflects the predictability and reliability of management's actions, behavior integrity refers to the consistency between what management says and what it does. Many studies have lent support to the notion that employees' trust in management is influenced by their attributions about management's behavior integrity and consistency (Butler, 1991; Ring & Van de Ven, 1992; Meyer, Davis & Schoorman, 1995).

Sharing and Delegation of Control : Sharing and delegation of decision-making authority is often seen by employees as an expression of the confidence, trust, and respect which management has in employees (Rosen and Jerdee 1977). Tyler and Lind (1992) found, that employees seem to attach value to their involvement and being a part of organizational decision-making process because it signifies how the organization values their contributions. The degree

to which employees' are involved and participate in organizational decision-making process varies from not being involved or having input at all, to full participation as equal partners in all aspects of the decision making process. However, according to Driscoll (1978), employees' trust in management is greater when they are content with the degree to which they are involved and participate in organizational decision-making processes and in the determination of their work roles. When managers involve employees in decision-making, it protects employees from management actions that may adversely affect them and increase the likelihood of decisions that have favorable outcomes for employees (Whitener et al. 1998).

Communication : Researches in organizational communication have identified accuracy of information, explanation of decisions and openness as three key attributes of employees' trust in management. In crises, especially, employees very often turn to grapevine sources for information when a formal source of organizational information is not considered credible. O'Reilly, (1977), O'Reilly and Robert (1974), research in organizational communication found a strong association between employees' perception of managers' or supervisors' trustworthiness and accuracy of information that come from the manager or supervisor to employees. Spapienza and Konovsky (1996), Konovsky and Cropanzano (1991) found that higher levels of employees' trust in management explain decisions and facilitate feedback to employees. Also, open and a free-flow of organizational information improve employees' trust (Butler, 1991). Organizational communication, therefore, should emphasize sharing and exchanging of ideas. This implies a two-directional instead of a top-down flow of information and emphasizes equity of information exchange.

Demonstration of Concern : Early studies of leadership found "employee-centered" or "consideration" leadership style with emphasis on friendly, trusting, respectful relationship with employee, and employee participation in decision to be associated with higher employee satisfaction and lower turnover rates (Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1973). Benevolence, another dimension of leadership behavior, is showing consideration and sensitivity for employees' needs and welfare. It also involves acting in a way that protects employees' interest, and refraining from exploiting others for one's own interest. Benevolence has been associated with trust building (Mishra,1996; McAllister, 1995; Mayer et al., 1995). Other studies on employee trust building emphasize showing concern for employees' needs and interest, respecting the rights of others and apologizing to others for unpleasant consequences (Greenberg, 1993 Lind, 1997; Konovsky and Pugh, 1994). To show concern for employees managers should resist the temptation of taking advantage of employees' vulnerability and other opportunistic behaviors such as taking credit for employees' work, ideas, use employees' personal information to the advantage of the organization or personal gains (Petitt, 1995; Bromily and Cummings, 1995; Kramer, Brewer and Hanna, 1996).

Job Redesign

A notable concern of many survivors of organizational restructuring, downsizing and layoff is inability to absorb and cope with increased work loads. Survivors' ability to cope with increase work loads that result from restructuring is not often given serious attention because for the most part, management attention is on how to survive the transitional period (Cameron et al. 1993). Meanwhile, survivors' level of intrinsic job satisfaction suffers. It is therefore argued by Brockner, Grover, Reed and Dewitt (1992), that job redesign that enhances the intrinsic job

quality is necessary to help survivors cope with increase job scope and depth. Mishra and Spreitzer (1998) suggested that the extent to which survivors' job has been changed as earlier noted by Brockner and Wiesenfeld (1993) will influence their response to downsizing. They further theorized that survivors who lack the ability and resources to do their newly assigned duties or jobs effectively are more likely to respond negatively to restructuring and downsizing. The objective of any job redesign following restructuring and downsizing is to return intrinsic job quality to its original level or increase it. In this way, as Brockner, Wiesenfeld, Reed, Grover and Martin (1993) argued, survivors' attention can be focused on coping with the demands of their increased job scopes that often require a variety of skills because of downsizing or restructuring instead of being distracted, consumed and often frustrated by it.

For more than three decades, much of the research on job design and redesign has been based on the work of Hackman and Oldham (1976, 1980). They argued that the intrinsic value and motivating potential of a job are based on certain task dimensions: Task variety, autonomy, identity, significance feedback and skills' variety. It is generally assumed that jobs that are high on these dimensions or attributes have higher motivating potentials than a job that is not. Salancik and Pfeffer (1978) added the role of individual differences but for the most part, Hackman and Oldham's task dimensions or attributes remain the focus of research on job design or redesign (Griffin, Welsh and Moorhead, 1981).

Mishra and Spreitzer (1998), identified job variety and autonomy as two attributes of the Hackman and Oldham task dimensions relevant to intrinsic job quality in restructuring and downsizing. They reasoned that because of restructuring and downsizing, survivors are asked to assume some duties and responsibilities of those who are laid-off. Therefore, survivors may need additional skills and resources to cope with the increased variety of their job. These new skills and resources may in turn reduce their sense of job insecurity. Secondly, they argued that job autonomy becomes more important if survivors are expected to assume more decision-making roles as more decisions are driven down when the organizational structure is "delayered" because of restructuring and downsizing. They reasoned that if survivors have more autonomy in decision-making and have more choices in doing their jobs, they are likely to feel more in control and are better able to manage.

Employee Empowerment

One of the most frequently referenced definitions of empowerment is that offered by Conger and Kanungo (1988). They define empowerment as "a process of enhancing the feelings of self-efficacy among organizational members through the identification of conditions that foster powerlessness, and through their removal by both formal organizational practices and informal techniques of proving efficacy information." This definition implies strengthening the effort-to-performance expectancy or increasing employee feeling of self-efficacy. According to Conger and Kanungo the effect of empowerment is "initiation and persistence of behavior by empowered employees to accomplish task objectives." These definitions are derived from the management theory of power and authority delegation that gives an employee the right to control and use organizational resources to bring desired organizational outcomes.

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) however, argued that the concept of empowerment is much more complex and could not be fully explained with unidimensional constructs such as self-efficacy. They therefore define it "as intrinsic task motivation that manifests itself in four cognitions reflecting an individual's orientation to his or her work roles." By intrinsic task motivation they mean "positively valued experiences that an individual derives directly from a

task that produces motivation and satisfaction." The four cognitions they identified are *meaningfulness, competence, impact, and choice or self-determination.* Meaningfulness is the value of the task goal or purpose in relation to the individual's own ideals or standards, and competence is the degree to which a person can perform task activities skillfully. Impact on the other hand is the degree to which behavior is seen as making a difference in terms of accomplishing the purpose of the task, while choice or self-determination is the causal responsibility for a person's actions. It reflects independence in the initiation and continuation of work behavior and processes (Deci, Connell, and Ryan, 1989).

A practical and process oriented definition of empowerment was offered by Bowen and Lawler (1992). They defined it "as sharing with front-line employees information about an organization's performance, information about rewards based on the organization's performance, knowledge that enables employees to understand and contribute to organizational performance, and giving employees the power to make decisions that influence organizational direction and performance." According to Zemke and Schaaf (1989), employee empowerment means turning the "front-line" loose, and encouraging and rewarding employees to exercise initiative and imagination.

In practice, employee empowerment centers on strategies or interventions that strengthen employees' self-efficacy or confidence in accomplishing task objectives. The management literature on employee empowerment identifies contextual factors and strategies that promote and support empowerment. For example, Burke (1986) suggests that a way to empower employees is to express confidence in them and by establishing realistic high performance expectations for them. Block (1987) adds the creation of opportunities for employees to participate in decision making, and giving employees autonomy from bureaucratic constraints as empowerment strategies. Comparatively, Benis and Nanus (1985) suggest the strategy of setting performance objectives for employees that are challenging and inspiring. Also, Oldham (1976), Kanter (1979), Strauss (1979), Hackman and Oldham (1975) suggest performance-based reward systems and enriched jobs that provide autonomy and control, task identity, opportunities for career advancement and task meaningfulness as ways to empower employees. At the organizational level, however, McClelland (1975) and House (1988) suggest that empowerment could be achieved through employee selection and training programs designed to provide required technical skills and cultures that encourage self-determination and collaboration instead of competition.

Thus, in organizations, employee empowerment is achieved by encouraging employees to respond to work-related problems and giving them the resources and authority to do so. Also, employees are delegated authority and allocated resources to improve decision-making in their jobs. To Colzon (1987) the empowerment strategy is to free employees from the rigorous control by instruction, policies, and orders and giving them the freedom to take responsibility for their ideas, decisions and actions, and releasing hidden resources to them.

3. Approach to the Study

The literature search assessed the current state of knowledge on the impacts of an outsourcing on organizational commitment and job security. It brought together the discourses and agreements in these areas. From it we can develop scales for the strategies (empowerment, management-employee relations, job redesign, reassurance, and communication) that management could use to address the outcomes (job security and organizational commitment) of an outsourcing. Whatever scale that is developed must be applied to data to understand employees' feelings about the consequences of restructuring that involves, i.e., job security, organizational commitment, and the strategies that can be used to manage them.

Since the early 1980s publicly transit systems have been required by the Federal Transit Administration (FTA) to contract out portions of their operation to private sector companies. The rationale for this requirement is the recognition that transit systems must focus on their core competencies which are providing fixed route services. Following this recognition, transit systems now contract out peripheral services such as information support systems and demand responsive services to private sector companies. Statistics from Section 15 sources show that ever more transit services were purchased in 1996 through contracting than in 1984. In fact in 1996 three times as many transit systems reported purchased services (contracting) compared with 1984. Initially, contracted services involved the core areas of transit system operations, particularly line haul operations. Today, it includes such areas as maintenance, and management information systems and involves layoffs and transfers of some employees to positions they may deem less visible, i.e., change their job features. Thus, the potentials for job losses and threats to job features may raise issues of job security and organizational commitment in public transit systems. We analyze these issues by developing a questionnaire instrument to survey employees in selected US public transit systems.

The Sample

Five transit systems were randomly selected based upon size and used in this study. Two of the transit systems were very small, one was medium size, and the other two were among the largest in the country. All were selected to typify US public transit systems. However, the major decision influencing criterion was our ability to agree with management for us to distribute the questionnaire, or the availability of an employee directory to us. There was resistance from some transit management so we were not able to include many agencies in the study.

Measures

Trust building : For trust building, i.e., management and employee relations, the measures are derived from Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard and Werner (1998). These authors identified the following five measures of employee and employer relations: Behavior consistency which deals

with the predictability of management actions, behavior integrity which is being believable, demonstration of concern, delegation of authority, and communication. Each is analyzed using a three-item scale and respondents were to express their levels of agreements or disagreements with these statements using a five-point Likert scale: Strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), neither agree nor disagree (3), agree (4), and strongly agree (5).

Jobs redesign: Oldham (1976, 1980) identifies task variety, skills' variety, task identity, task autonomy, feedback, and a category called others as measures of job redesign. Except task autonomy and the category of others, each measure is identified by a one-item statement. Task variety is assessed by the opportunity to do a variety of tasks. Skill variety is the opportunity to use a variety of skills on a job, task identity by an opportunity to complete an entire task an employee can call his own, and feedback by a job in which an employee can tell how well he is doing. The two statements regarding task autonomy are the freedom management gives employees to do their jobs in ways they see fit, and freedom to schedule own work. The other item statements in job design are opportunity to work with cooperative employees, and additional training and technology to handle the demands of a job. Thus, in all job redesign uses a seven-item statement scale.

Employee reassurance : Reassurance is assessed as the importance of information to employees about the future directions of their organizations, their involvement in determining the future direction of the organization, knowing how their jobs contribute to the survival of the organizations, and knowing that they are a part of the future of the organizations. The responses for reassurance and job redesign were based upon a five-point Likert scale, i.e., 1 - very unimportant, 2 - unimportant, 3 - neither unimportant nor important, 4 - important, 5 - very important.

Employee empowerment : Following Conger and Kanungo (1988), Mishra and Spreitzer (1998) we use four measures of empowerment. The first, **meaning,** is the value of a work objective compared with one's ideals or standards. The second, **competence**, is an individual's conviction or confidence in his or her ability or effectiveness in accomplishing the performance requirements of a task. **Self-determination** is the third measure and it reflects independence in the initiation and continuation of work behavior and processes (Deci, Connell, and Ryan, 1989). Fourthly, **impact** refers to the degree to which an individual can influence outcomes. Each measure of empowerment is assessed by a three-item statement giving twelve statements together. Respondents were to show their levels of agreement to statements about empowerment using a five-point Likert scale. The scale is as follows: 1 - strongly disagree, 2 - disagree, 3 - neither agree nor disagree, 4 - agree, and 5 - strongly agree.

Job security : Often, organizational change that involves downsizing, restructuring and layoffs cause feelings of job insecurity among employees. We used three measures of job insecurity in this study to assess the existence of feelings of job insecurity. Our use of multiple item measures of job security is, of course, different from the global measures often found in the management literature. For example, Hackman and Oldham's (1974) Job Diagnostic Survey, uses a one-item statement to measure job insecurity. Multiple measures of job security are superior to a single-item measure because they can capture the many different aspects of job security. Thus, we can analyze separately the different measures of job security and identify those demographic

variables that may be related to each of them. For threats to the total job we use an eight-item scale that asks employees to show how likely certain events might occur to them in their jobs. Threats to job features are measured with a twelve-item scale. Responses to both the threats to the total job and job features were based upon the following Likert scale: 1 - very unlikely, 2 - unlikely, 3 - neither likely nor unlikely, 4 - likely, and 5 - very likely. Powerlessness was measured using a three-item scale with respondents showing their agreements or disagreements with statements about their abilities to change events that may affect them and their jobs in their organizations. If employees disagree with the statements, it shows powerlessness. The Likert scale for powerlessness is, 1 - strongly disagree, 2 - disagree, 3 - neither agree nor disagree, 4 - agree, and 5 - strongly agree.

Organizational commitment : Meyer, Paunonen, Gallatly, Richard and Jackson (1989) identify three types of commitment: Continuance, normative, and affective. Continuance commitment deals with staying in an organization because one has to do so. It is a reflection of lack of choices that an individual may face because of some circumstances. Normative commitment comes from tradition, culture, and socialization process that require individuals to be loyal to organizations. Affective commitment comes from the love of and identification with an organization. The item statements for these measures of commitment come from these same authors. Survey respondents were to show their levels of agreement to statements about affective, continuance, and normative commitment using a five-point Likert scale. This scale is of the form, 1 - strongly disagree, 2 - disagree, 3 - neither agree nor disagree, 4 - agree, 5 - strongly agree.

Questionnaire

We developed a questionnaire addressed to middle and upper level management to assess their agreements to the item statements about their perceptions of certain aspects of job security, organizational commitment and strategies that deal with trust-building, empowerment, job redesign and employee reassurance. The questionnaire included requests for socioeconomic data from the respondents and was mailed with postage-paid return envelopes to employees whose systems agreed to the survey. Where employee directories were available, they were used in the direct mailing. Otherwise, an employee selected by management distributed the questionnaires for us. The employees returned the completed questionnaires in envelopes with prepaid postage. Overall we distributed 700 questionnaires and the employees returned 289 in usable form giving an effective response rate of 41.29%.

Statistical methods

The statistical methods used in the analyses are factor analyses to test the validity of the measures, Pearson correlation to assess the relationships between the scale items, Cronbach's alphas to test for the reliability of the scales, and step-wise regression equations to link the organizational consequences, (i.e., commitment and job security), to the organizational strategies and demographic variables. The equations are important to isolate the strategies that can be used together to manage job security and organizational commitment. In the step-wise regression the strategies and outcomes are the composite means of the measures. That is, the scores of the items in each measure are summed and the mean calculated as the composite mean. The dependent variables in these equations are the organizational consequences discussed earlier.

3. Management Trust Building Behaviors

An organization experiencing an erosion of employees' trust in management because of an organizational change such as layoffs, downsizing and outsourcing may rebuild that trust relationship by engaging in five trust-building behaviors: Behavior consistency, behavior integrity, sharing and delegation of authority, communication, and demonstration of concern. Behavior consistency deals with employees' ability to predict future actions of management based on management's past behavior. A consistent pattern of management behavior enables employees to predict, with little doubt, what management will do in the future. This is particularly important at a time when management is contemplating or carrying out an organizational change perceived as a threat to the foundation of employees' organizational commitment, trust and feelings of job security. If the behavior of management in times of change is predictable, it helps to alleviate employees' fear of the unknown. If, however, management's pattern of past behavior is inconsistent, employees' reactions to any form of organizational change may be irrational and based on fears and cynicism that may be counter productive.

An inconsistent pattern of management behavior raises questions about management's integrity, and whether it can be trusted at all. To maintain integrity with employees therefore, management must be believed and trusted to do what it says it will do always. Behavior integrity means that management can be believed and trusted to keep its promises to employees always. It also means that employees are not disappointed when they rely on what management promises to do. Integrity builds trust, and a relationship of trust between management and employees can have positive impact on employees' work behaviors. For example, an employer with a reputation of trustworthiness is likely to be attractive to employees who will be committed to the goals of an organization and be willing to work to meet or exceed those goals.

To build trust, management may seek to improve employee relations by establishing credible organization-wide communication systems continuously to share information, particularly about change and how it will affect employees and the future of the organization. Also, information that justifies the change should by readily available to all employees so that the needed change is fully understood. However, merely providing information to employees is not enough to build trust; the information must be accurate, timely and complete.

Another management trust building strategy is demonstration of concern for employee welfare. In general employees may not want to work for an employer who does not show concern for, or is indifferent toward their welfare. Management's lack of appreciation or an understanding of issues that affect employee welfare could fester discontent and even loss of goodwill. We assess the extent to which management shows concern through questions to employees about the priority management gives to employees' welfare, the extra steps management takes in protecting the interests of employees, and the sensitivity it shows toward the interests of employees when making critical decisions that affect them. Another way is to delegate some decision-making authority to employees. Yet another is seeking employee inputs in decisions that affect them, or involving employees in the organizational decision-making process. The results of the analyses are discussed below and shown in Table 1.

Table 1 - Management and Employee Relations

Behavior Consistency (α = 0.7410)	**Mean**	**Std. Dev.**	**Alpha**	**1**	**2**	**3**
					Correlations	
1. Based upon the past decision of management of this organization I am able to predict what management will do in the future.	3.1059	1.2550	0.6779	1.0000 (0.0000)		
2. Since my employment in this organization management behavior and decisions have been consistent.	2.7529	1.2335	0.5423	0.5690 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0000)	
3. I can always rely on every word of management of this organization.	2.1412	1.0818	0.7253	0.3749 (0.0004)	0.5171 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0000)
Behavior Integrity (α = 0.9131)	**Mean**	**Std. Dev.**	**Alpha**	**4**	**5**	**6**
4. Management of this organization tells the truth in all situations	2.2472	1.1009	0.8892	1.0000 (0.0000)		
5. The management of this organization always keeps its promises to employees.	2.3529	1.0988	0.8430	0.8029 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0000)	
6. I have never been disappointed whenever I rely on what management says in all situations.	2.1529	1.0178	0.8907	0.7309 (0.0001)	0.8028 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0000)
Sharing and Delegation of Authority (α = 0.8229)	**Mean**	**Std. Dev.**	**Alpha**	**7**	**8**	**9**
					Correlations	
7. In this organization, management seeks the inputs of employees when making decisions that affect employees.	2.5238	1.2072	0.7077	1.0000 (0.0000)	-	
8. In this organization management makes a great deal of effort to involve employees in all aspects of the decision-making process.	2.2941	0.9859	0.5819	0.7715 (0.0001)	1.000 (0.0000)	-
9. Whenever possible, management delegates decision-making authority to employees.	2.5647	1.0740	0.7979	0.5261 (0.0001)	0.5496 (0.0001)	1.0 (0.0000)
Demonstration of Concern (α = 0.9185)	**Mean**	**Std. Dev.**	**Alpha**	**10**	**11**	**12**
					Correlations	
10. The management of this organization is always sensitive to the interests of employees when making critical decisions.	2.5765	1.0508	0.8656	1.0000 (0.0000)	-	-
11. In this organization management gives employees' welfare high priority.	2.8353	1.1333	0.9078	0.7814 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0000)	-
12. In all situations management takes the extra step to protect the interests of employees.	2.4706	1.0070	0.8758	0.8319 (0.0001)	0.7683 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0000)
Communication (α = 0.7250)				**13**	**14**	**15**
13. The management of this organization provides employees with accurate information about the affair of the organization.	2.9186	1.2001	0.7274	1.0000 (0.0000)	-	-
14. The management makes an effort always to explain major organizational decisions to employees.	2.9186	1.0651	0.6405	0.3813 (0.0003)	1.0000 (0.0000)	-
15. The management of this organization freely shares ideas with employees.	2.5581	1.0012	0.5493	0.4788 (0.0001)	0.5726 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0000)

The probabilities are in the parentheses.

Behavior Consistency : As the table shows, respondents perceived management patterns of behavior to be inconsistent in the three areas. While most employees are indifferent about their abilities to predict future actions of management, a general feeling is that employees cannot always rely on word of management. Similarly, the responses regarding the overall measure of consistency (mean = 2.7529), show a tendency for employees to feel management behavior is inconsistent. The low standard errors emphasize the consistency in responses; a point well illustrated by the high alpha values of more than 0.57. For behavior integrity as a whole, the alpha value of 0.7410 shows that similar results will be obtained by responses drawn from other populations. Therefore, the results will be generally applicable to other transit system employees. A notable result in Table 1 is the highly significant correlation among the three items. Employees who rated one item lower did so for the other items. Since the three items measure the same thing, consistency, the result is expected.

Behavior Integrity : The behavior integrity scale measures the extent to which management is perceived to tell the truth to employees, keeps its promises, and is reliable in all situations. Table 1 shows the results obtained from the respondents. Again, as with behavior consistency, the mean values are less that 3.0 for each item showing that overall transit system employees do not feel that management behavior is consistent. Most of them appear disappointed whenever they rely on what management says (mean = 2.1529), do not feel that management keeps its promises (mean = 2.3529), and disagree that management tells the truth in all situations (mean = 2.2471). The low standard errors and high alphas suggest a pattern of consistency in responses. In fact, the high correlations between the responses also suggests that those who feel disappointed when they rely on what management says are those who disagree that management tells the truth or keeps its promises to employees.

Sharing and Delegation of Authority : The results of management trust-building behaviors about sharing and delegating authority are provided in Table 1. Here too, a three-item scale was used to measure the extent to which management shares and delegates authority by seeking the inputs of employees in decision-making, making a great deal of effort to involve employees in all aspects of the decision-making process, and delegating decision-making authority to employees. The results show consistency in responses (α = 0.8278) and, except in one case, low standard deviations for the items. The standard deviation for the item that asks if management seeks the inputs of employees in decision-making is high and suggests disparities in responses. Overall, those who strongly agree (disagree) with one statement also agree (disagree) with the others as revealed by the correlation between the items.

Examining the mean values of the items, again, there is a general disagreement among respondents that management shares or delegates authority to transit system employees regardless the item used in the assessment. The mean values seem to show that most respondents at least disagree with the statements. For example, the mean value of the statement asking if management seeks the inputs of employees when making decisions that affect employees is 2.5238, which is almost the same as that regarding management delegation of decision-making authority (mean = 2.5647).

Table 2 - Measures of Management and Employee Relations

Measures	Mean	Std. Dev.	1	2	3 Correlations	4	5
1. Consistency	2.6667	0.9595	1.000 (0.0000)				
2. Integrity	2.2510	0.9906	0.6683 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0000)			
3. Delegation	2.4603	0.9427	0.5149 (0.0001)	0.6909 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0000)		
4. Communication	2.1000	0.6617	0.5049 (0.0001)	0.7044 (0.0001)	0.6652 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0000)	
5. Concern	2.6275	0.9872	0.6563 (0.0001)	0.7825 (0.0001)	0.8133 (0.0001)	0.7685 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0000)
Demographic Variables							
Age (Logs)	3.7813	0.1593	-0.2384 (0.0271)	-0.2025	-0.3824	-0.1805	0.2920
Years of Education (logs)	2.7081	0.1605	-	-	-	-	-
Years in Organization (logs)	2.3278	0.9882	-0.1850 (0.0942	-0.2505 (0.0224)	-0.2852 (0.0094)	-	-0.2450 (0.0256)
Years in Position (logs)	1.5711	0.9789	-	-0.1991 (0.0694)	-0.1938 (0.0792)	-	-0.2655 (0.0146)
Hours Worked (logs)	3.7848	0.2469	-0.2310 (0.0324)	-	-	-	-
Number of dependents	1.7209	1.4196	0.2217 (0.0547)				

Probabilities are in parentheses. Only the statistically significant coefficients are shown in the table.

Demonstration of Concern : Another aspect of employee trust building for which we sought answers is the extent to which management showed concern for employees. Again, a three-item scale was used to measure demonstration of concern, and as before, the responses were based upon a five-point Likert scale. The first item asked employees to show their levels of agreement to the statement, "the management of this organization is always sensitive to the interests of employees when making critical decisions." The second statement is "in this organization management takes the extra step to protect the interests of employees," while the third is "in this organization, management gives employees' welfare high priority."

The results in Table 1 show a general disagreement that management shows concern. Again, the standard deviations are quite low and show similar responses. Similarly, the consistency in responses is shown by the high alpha values both for the items ($\alpha = 0.5656$ to $\alpha = 0.9078$) and the scale ($\alpha = 0.9185$). The correlation coefficients are positive and highly significant showing that those who disagree with one item also disagree with the others. The mean values of the items, however, seem to suggest that on the average the responses of the study participants border on being indifferent. That is, it appears that most respondents were close to neither agreeing nor disagreeing with these statements.

Communication: Our final measure of trust building behavior was communication. As in the others, a three-item scale was used. The items deal with the extent to which management provides employees accurate information about the affairs of the organization and try always to explain major organizational decisions to employees, and freely sharing ideas with employees.

Table 1 shows the results of the communication measure. Clearly, there is far stronger evidence here, compared with the previous measures, that the respondents are indifferent in their answers since the mean values are very close to three (3). Specifically, the respondents are almost equally split between at least agreeing and at least disagreeing with the statements. Both the first two items in this scale have the same mean values (2.9176) and the last item has a mean of 2.5647. As before, the alphas are quite high and are consistent with what one should obtain for an established scale. The positive and strong statistically significant correlations between the items suggest that they measure the same aspect of management and employee relations. Specifically, a high agreement with one item of the communication measure is associated with high levels of agreement with the other measures.

Relationships Between the Measures of Management Trust Building Behaviors: While the above results show that there is no aspect of employee trust building which transit system employees at least agree is good, a possibility exists that perhaps there is a trade off between the measures. If so, then one should expect that management may be focusing in some areas and neglecting others and that might be contributing to the low values reported above. To see if indeed such tradeoffs exist, we calculated an average score for each measure. This average is the sum of the ratings of the scale items for each measure divided by the corresponding number of items and is the same procedure used by Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) to obtain composite scores across items. Then, using correlation analysis, we found out the relationships among the measures of management trust building behaviors.

Table 2 shows the results of the correlation analysis and other data used for understanding management trust building behaviors. In particular we have included in this table associations between the five measures and demographic variables. As evident from the table the areas that fare poorly are communication and behavior integrity. Furthermore, there is no evidence in the table that employees perceive management as focusing on some areas of trust building while neglecting others. The correlations among the measures are positive and statistically significant and support the feelings that transit management does not perform well in terms of employees' trust building and employees' responses are uniform across all of the measures. These suggest the need for management to focus on improving all aspects of employees' trust building.

Relationships with Demographic Variables : We also tested for the distinctiveness of the five measures of management behavior using confirmatory factor analysis. We used factor analysis to replicate the five measures and to see if the items in the scales can be regrouped using the factor analysis procedure. Our results do not give a strong support for five measures, that is, for a five-factor solution since only one item loaded heavily on one factor. Sharing and delegation of authority and demonstration of concern loaded heavily on factor one, behavior integrity on factor two, communication on factor three, behavior consistency on factor four, and one item of sharing and delegation on factor five. This item deals with management delegating decision-making authority to employees. These results suggest that we could actually combine sharing and delegation of authority, and demonstration of concern to obtain one measure and eliminate factor five. They also suggest that combining all the measures to obtain a single measure of management trust building behavior will be inappropriate. Since we have shown that these measures are distinct, except in one case, we can now relate them to the demographic variables.

We use two approaches in establishing these relationships. In the first, we calculate the mean score for each measure and for each respondent based upon our initial five measures. Then we relate the scores to the demographic variables of the respondents. The second approach is the

same but we use the measures based upon factors one and five to provide additional results about the correlations. With respect to the first approach, the statistically significant associations are shown in the table. Most of these associations are quite strong indeed. Only a few demographic variables have weak associations ($p > 0.05$) with the measures of management and employee relations. Age has a statistically significant relationship with employee relations. This relationship is negative and shows that older employees may not perceive employee relations in transit systems favorably. Similarly, years in a position and years in an organization are inversely related to how employees perceive employee relations. Educational level affects only the measure that deals with management showing concern for employees. Though, here, the relationship is weak statistically ($p > 0.0616$), its negative sign suggests that the well-educated public transit employees may not perceive employee relations favorably, particularly in terms of management showing concern for employees. Similarly, transit system employees who work long hours may not perceive management and employee relations favorably. Only, the employees who have many dependents rate the consistency of management behavior highly. Here too, a cautionary note is appropriate. The significance level is 0.0547 which may be considered weak or outside the normally accepted range ($p > 0.05$) for hypothesis testing.

The second approach gave additional interesting results. The total measure of sharing, delegation, and demonstration of concern have negative and statistically significant associations with age, years in the organization and years in position. The correlations are respectively -0.3151 ($p > 0.0033$), -0.2691 ($p > 0.0139$), -0.2160 ($p > 0.0484$) between the total measures and age, years in an organization, and years in a position where the probabilities are in parentheses. Thus, older employees and those with long tenure in positions or in organizations, tend to disagree strongly that management seeks inputs from employees, involves them in decision-making, or shows concern for employees. Another important finding is that age, education and years in an organization are negatively related to factor five which is a single item measure dealing with management delegation of authority to employees. The correlations are respectively -0.4126 ($p > 0.001$), -0.2164 ($p > 0.0454$), and -0.2304 ($p > 0.0350$) for age, level of education, and hours required to work. Finally, management delegation of authority is positively associated with the hours required to work with a correlation of 0.2502 and a probability of 0.0202 implying that those working long hours tend to feel management delegates decision-making authorities to them.

4. Job Redesign

As previous studies have established, organizational changes that involve downsizing, restructuring and layoffs create feelings of job insecurity among employees. These feelings are particularly strong when employees feel they lack the ability to cope with increased demands of newly restructured jobs. A strategy that management can adopt to assure employees about job security is redesigning jobs to increase their motivational potential by increasing their intrinsic quality and to fit into the new organizational environment. Job redesign involves changing some tasks and elements of jobs to facilitate increased performance and productivity, and making employees take ownerships of their jobs, i.e., develop a sense of autonomy and control over jobs. We studied job redesign by asking employees to show the importance to them of changing certain attributes of their jobs.

Table 3 shows the results obtained for job redesign. The terms in the parentheses are the probabilities. Evident from the table are the high scores showing that if given the opportunity employees who participated in this study expressed the desire to change some of their job features. The feature employees consider most importantly to change is skills' variety (mean = 4.3256). This is followed closely by task autonomy in terms of freedom to perform their jobs in some manner they see fit (mean = 4.2558), and a job with self-assessment feedback built into it (mean = 4.1977). Next is an opportunity to experience a sense of community by working with cooperative workers (mean = 4.1628), and additional training and technology to handle the demands of their jobs (mean = 4.1628). Task autonomy in terms freedoms to schedule own work (mean = 4.0223), and task identity (mean = 3.9844), are also important to employees in terms of job redesign. Again, as in the discussion under management trust building behaviors, the low standard deviations show that there is not a wide variation in the responses, and that the results are nearly consistent across employees. Consistency of results across observations drawn from various populations is shown by the high Cronbach's alphas in the table. Overall, our measure of job redesign has an alpha value of 0.6574 that is also within the acceptable range for established scales.

Beside the mean, standard deviations and the alphas, the table shows the correlations between the items in the scale and the significance levels of the correlations in parentheses. While most of the correlations are statistically significant at the 0.05 level, a sizeable number is not. In particular, the responses regarding opportunity to experience a sense of community by working with cooperative employees, has no statistically significant relationship with any of the other items in the scale except feedback. Also, feedback is not statistically related in a significant way to most of the other items in the scale. The exception is the relationship between feedback and skills' variety. Therefore, it appears from these results that at least in transit systems, one cannot generalize about the relationships between the responses regarding feedback and an opportunity to work with cooperative employees on one hand, and the remaining scale items on the other. These responses are unrelated so a strategy to improve one will not be associated with the other. However, for the scale items whose responses are significantly correlated, a strategy to improve one will be associated with a positive outcome in the other.

An issue in job redesign is to decide which groups of jobs and workers would most likely benefit from it. The notion that all jobs can be redesigned and that all employees can benefit from job redesign does not always hold true because certain jobs may not be amenable to redesign. For

Table 3 - Job Redesign ($\alpha = 0.6574$)

Scale Items	Mean	Std. Dev	Alpha	Correlations 1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Opportunity to use a variety of my skills (task variety)	4.3256	0.07584	0.5995	1.0000						
2. Opportunity to complete an entire task that I can call my own (skills' variety)	3.9844	0.7275	0.6260	0.2841 (0.0080)	1.0000					
3. Freedom to schedule my own work (task autonomy)	4.0233	0.8537	0.6122	0.2789 (0.0093)	0.3603 (0.0007)	1.0000				
4. Freedom to perform my job in the manner I see fit (task autonomy)	4.2558	0.7060	0.6435	0.2162 (0.0456)	0.3265 (0.0022)	0.5170 (0.0001)	1.0000			
5. A job in which I can tell how well I am doing (feedback)	4.1977	0.8235	0.6236	0.3102 (0.0037)	0.0824 (0.4505)	0.0101 (0.9263)	-0.0273 (0.8030)	1.0000		
6. Opportunity to experience a sense of community by working with cooperative workers	4.1628	0.7493	0.6242	0.1541 (0.1566)	0.0251 (0.8186)	0.0492 (0.6529)	-0.0129 (0.9059)	0.6527 (0.0001)	1.0000	
7. Additional training and technology to handle the increasing demand of my job	4.1628	0.8521	0.6216	0.2811 (0.0087)	0.1739 (0.1093)	0.2211 (0.0407)	0.0082 (0.9404)	0.2554 (0.0176)	0.3450 (0.0011)	1.0000
Average weekly income (log)	6.6299	0.3887	-	-	-	-	-	-0.1300 (0.0640)	-	-
Years of education (log)	2.7073	0.1589	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.2929 (0.0062)	-0.1920 (0.0765)
Hours required to work per week (log)	3.6957	0.1204	-	-	-	0.2568 (0.0171)	-	-	-	-
Years in the organization (log)	2.3385	0.9874	-	-	-	0.2551 (0.0192)	-	-	-	-
Number of dependents	1.7126	1.4134	-	-	0.2246 (0.0400)	-	-	-	-	-
Gender (Female =1, Male = 0)			-	-	-	-	-	-	0.2207 (0.0437)	-
Years in position	1.5533	0.9875	-	-	-	-	-	-0.2144 (0.0484)	-	-
Marital Status (Married = 1, others = 0)	0.4067	0.5013	-	-	-	-	0.2207 (0.0437)	-	-	-

example, while those whose jobs are in areas affected by new production technologies may benefit from job redesign those whose jobs cannot be improved by redesign may not benefit from it. Moreover, job redesign and retraining may be appropriate for older workers and those with outmoded skills who need retraining to maintain their jobs. Alternatively, it may be applicable to those working in areas most affected by new technologies such as personal computers. Ideally, one would like to group job redesign according to types of jobs and examine the differences among the groups. Our data did not permit such a detailed analysis. Rather, it allowed us to relate job redesign to the demographic characteristics of the respondents. We accomplished this task by calculating the mean of overall job redesign for each respondent and relating it to the demographic variables. We did not find any demographic variable to be related to our average measure of job redesign. Therefore, there is no particular group of individuals but all seeking job redesign.

However, it is noteworthy from the tables that, except skills variety, there are important correlations between the other scale items and the demographic variables. There is a statistically significant and positive correlation between task identity and the number of dependents. Also, being female is positively associated with feedback in terms of self-assessment, and being married is positively associated with task autonomy in terms of the desire for a job with the freedom to do it in a way an employee sees fit. There are positive and statistically significant relationships between required work hours and tenure (years in the organization) on one hand, and task autonomy in terms of freedom to schedule own work on the other. Employees who have been with the transit agencies longer and those who work long hours would prefer to have some freedom to schedule their own work, a result consistent with the findings in the previous section of this study. These employees are those who have experience doing their jobs and know the intricacies of these jobs. Therefore, they feel they are in better positions to schedule some aspects of their jobs than their supervisors. Since transit system employees who work very long hours do so with less supervision anyway, as is the case of drivers, some discretion should be given them regarding job scheduling. Perhaps a cafeteria-style roster, where employees pick schedules from a menu, instead of an agency-developed roster will give drivers some control over their schedules if not already in place.

In contrast to these positive relationships, education, income, and years in a position are negatively associated with some scale items of job redesign. Education, in particular, is negatively associated with the opportunity to experience a sense of community by working with cooperative workers, and needing additional training and technology to handle the increased demands of jobs. But, while in the former case the association is highly significant statistically ($p > 0.0062$), the significance level is weak ($p > 0.0765$) in the latter case. This implies that the highly educated transit employees likely feel they can work independently of other employees and may not need training and new technologies to do their work, perhaps because they already have these technologies and training. In many organizations, resources are often distributed based upon rank and tenure. Since the highly educated employees are generally those in higher-level management positions, it is conceivable that they already have the technological resources and have availed themselves to the training opportunities necessary for them to do their jobs well. Income also has a negative and weak statistical relationship ($p> 0.064$) with feedback. Thus, higher income transit workers do not have strong desires for jobs that permit them to evaluate themselves. Perhaps they prefer jobs in which they are evaluated by others. This finding, though weak, reflects overall how compensation is awarded to employees in most organizations. Supervisors are the ones who evaluate employees in lower-level positions and give raises. The fear perhaps is that jobs with self-assessment do not allow the supervisors to see and appreciate the full contributions of employees to the organization and its mission. Thus, we may speak of the fear of being less appreciated as contributing to our finding.

5. Reassurance

Survivors of some forms of organizational change often feel job insecurity and uncertainty about their future. Therefore, as a natural reaction, they would want some form of reassurance from management about their future with the organization. Management actions that reassure employees of their future with an organization include letting them know their importance to the organization and their role in its future. This would alleviate their fear of the "unknown" and encourage them to support changes that are in the best interest of the organization. This is important because when employees feel that they are easily dispensable there is the tendency for them to feel less committed to the organization and express the desire to quit

Table 4 shows the results of the analyses. Consistent with the job redesign discussion above, we find that the transit system employees who responded to our questionnaire generally consider reassurance very important in times of uncertainty and organizational change. Compared with their mean values the standard deviations are very small which, again, show less deviation of the responses from the mean. Also, the alpha values are very high (more than 0.8) for the entire scale and each item in the scale. Furthermore, the table shows that the correlations between the items are highly significant statistically ($p > 0.0001$) and have the same positive sign. Thus, employees of transit systems consider the items in the scale equally important. Therefore, they will expect that in times of uncertainty, reassurance in terms of information about the future direction of the organization, employee involvement in charting the future direction of the company, knowing that

Table 4 - Reassurance (α = 0.8878)

Correlations

Scale Items	Mean	Std. Dev.	Alpha	1	2	3	4
1. Information about the future direction of the organization	4.1512	0.9269	0.8624	1.0000			
2. Involvement in determining the future direction of the organization	3.9651	0.9387	0.8349	0.7363 (0.0001)	1.0000		
3. Knowing how my job contributes to the survival of the organization	4.1279	0.9430	0.8842	0.5294 (0.0001)	0.6430 (0.0001)	1.0000	
4. Knowing that I am a part of the future of the organization	4.4186	0.8876	0.8398	0.6945 (0.0001)	0.7239 (0.0001)	0.6663 (0.0001)	1.0000
Number of dependents	1.7126	1.4135	-	-	-	0.2610 (0.0239)	0.2369 (0.0300)
Years in position (logarithm)	1.5533	0.9875	-	-	-	-	-0.2193 (0.0437)

The probabilities are in parentheses. Only the coefficients that are significant at the 0.05 level are shown.

the jobs they do contribute to the survival of the organization, and knowing they are a part of the future of the organization are given prime considerations by management. Management cannot in these times adopt a noninclusive policy that only informs a few about the future of the organization and expect employees to be content. For, that could create fear in employees, threats to quit, low morale, and reduced productivity.

To examine the relationship between reassurance and the demographic variables we followed the same procedure as before by calculating the mean for reassurance for each respondent and relating it to the demographic variables. Reassurance has a mean of 4.1657 and a standard deviation of 0.7995. Using this approach, reassurance is related only to the number of dependents of the respondents, and not to weekly income, years in position, years in the organization, and education among others. The correlation between reassurance and the number of dependents is 0.2464 with a probability of 0.0239. Therefore, it appears that in times of organizational change, employees with many dependents would need more reassurances than other employees. These employees must be constantly reassured of their values to the organization now and the future. Similarly, they must be reassured, if possible, that their jobs contribute to the future of the organization. The positive and statistically significant correlation also is understandable, because the potential of a job loss from organizational change and the resulting loss of income would affect large families more adversely than small families. When the reassurance of a continued employment with the organization is not possible, management must try to ease the transitions of these employees from being employed with the organization to other jobs.

Though a broader picture of reassurance is obtained from the analysis involving the mean score, a more detailed result is revealed by the correlations between the scale items and the demographic variables. Similar to the results in the preceding paragraph, the number of dependents is positively and significantly related to reassurance in terms of employees knowing that they are a part of the future of the organization. Contrariwise, this item of the reassurance scale is negatively and significantly related to the years an employee has spent in a position in the organization. What it shows is that those, who have long tenure in the organization, require fewer reassurances of their values to and being a part of the future of the organization. Most likely, these employees have seniority and would be the last to lose their jobs to the organizational change. Alternatively, they are the ones with enough years to qualify for early retirement or may have enough influences in the organization to affect decisions related to their jobs.

6. Employee Empowerment

Since the 1980s, the management literature has suggested that a way to increase productivity and improve job satisfaction is to empower employees to take control over their jobs. Consequently, some organizations empowered employees by creating autonomous work teams and making them responsible for their actions. Additionally, others created organizational cultures that recognized the importance of cross-functional collaborative efforts to produce high quality goods to meet customer satisfaction (Obeng and Ugboro, 1996), and emphasizing a strong top-level management commitment

to the quality missions of organizations. A tool that management used in accomplishing these tasks was the adoption of total quality management (TQM) with its strong emphasis on empowerment as a business practice. The successes of TQM and employee empowerment are well documented in the management literature and will not be discussed here (see Ugboro and Obeng, 2000). But, what is most important for our purpose is that after an organizational change that involved downsizing and layoffs it is ever so needed to increase employee feeling of self efficacy as they assume new roles and more challenging tasks.

Conger and Kanungo (1988) defined empowerment as a "process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy . . . through the identification of conditions that foster powerlessness and through their removal by both formal organizational practices and informal techniques of providing efficacy information." This definition is built around the notion of self-efficacy, a person's confidence in his or her ability to accomplish a task. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) however, argued that the notion of empowerment is much more complex and could not be fully explained in unidimensional constructs such as self-efficacy. Therefore, they defined empowerment as intrinsic task motivation manifested in four cognitions: meaning, competence or self-efficacy, self-determination and impact that reflect an individual's orientation to his or her work roles. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) define employee empowerment as reflecting "a personal sense of control in the workplace as manifested in four beliefs (*or dimensions*) about the person-work environmental relationship: Meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact."

Using these definitions, Table 5 shows the results of the analysis of empowerment. Consistent with the other findings discussed previously, the mean and alphas are high with low standard deviations and show high reliability. Furthermore, they show that most public transit system employees strongly agree that their jobs are meaningful to them. The employees also feel very competent in doing their jobs, exhibit self-determination in job performance, and recognize their values to their organizations in terms of their impacts in their departments. However, a recognizable result in the table is that these employees do not agree as strongly about self determination and their impacts as they do about their competence to do their jobs and the meaningfulness of their jobs to them. Examining the correlations between the items, it is observed that they are highly significant suggesting that the respondents are not divided about their levels of agreement to the items in the scale.

A question, of course, that may be asked is, are those who express a strong sense of self-efficacy the same as those who see themselves as having strong impact in their department? Another question is, are those strongly agreeing that they have self-determination also those who strongly agree

Table 5 - Empowerment

Meaningfulness (mean = 4.2273, std. dev. = 0.7724, α =0.8904)	**Mean**	**Std. Dev.**	**Alpha**	**Factor 1**	**Factor 2**	**Factor 3**	**Factor 4**	**Correlation**		
								1	**2**	**3**
1. The work I do is important to me.	4.3182	0.8782	0.8930	0.0453	0.8641	-0.0309	0.1450	1.0000		
2. My job activities are personally meaningful to me.	4.1011	0.8534	0.8097	0.0341	0.9240	-0.0391	0.0222	0.7036 (0.0001)	1.0000	
3. The work I do is meaningful to me	4.2584	0.8192	0.8286	0.0453	0.9198	0.0117	-0.0753	0.6785 (0.0001)	0.8074 (0.0001)	1.0000
Competence (mean = 4.5019, std. dev. = 0.4797, α = 0.7404)								**4**	**5**	**6**
4. I am confident of my ability to do my job.	4.6742	0.4713	0.6336	-0.0022	0.1815	0.1120	0.8351	1.0000		
5. I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities.	4.6067	0.5355	0.6043	-0.0283	0.0046	0.0239	0.8881	0.6121 (0.0001)	1.0000	
6. I have mastered the skills necessary for my job.	4.2247	0.7347	0.7555	-0.1443	-0.1063	0.3162	0.7117	0.4763 (0.0001)	0.4871 (0.0001)	1.0000
Self-determination (mean = 3.9026, std. Dev. = 0.8012, α = 0.8512)								**7**	**8**	**9**
7. I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.	4.2135	0.8044	0.9146	-0.0352	0.0107	0.8534	0.1913	1.0000		
8. I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.	3.8090	0.9756	0.6789	0.3352	0.0144	0.8430	0.0917	0.5883 (0.0001)	1.0000	
9. I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.	3.6450	0.9486	0.7322	0.4698	0.0042	0.7489	0.1773	0.5209 (0.0001)	0.8430 (0.0001)	1.0000
Impact (mean = 3.3258, std. Dev. 1.0224, α = 0.8644)								**10**	**11**	**12**
10. My impact on what happens in my department is great.	3.6292	1.1219	0.9329	0.7075	0.0159	0.3659	-0.0770	1.0000		
11. I have a great deal of influence over what happens in my department.	3.3146	1.2022	0.6992	0.9464	0.0520	0.0614	-0.1002	0.6351 (0.0001)	1.0000	
12. I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department.	3.0337	1.1327	0.7757	0.9102	0.0688	0.1116	-0.0231	0.5376 (0.0001)	0.8600 (0.0001)	1.0000

Probabilities are in parentheses.

that their jobs have meanings to them? Yet another question is what demographic characteristics of public transit employees are associated with a feeling of empowerment? Answers to these questions and others were sought as a part of this analysis by first calculating the mean scores for the measures of empowerment for each respondent, and determining the correlations between them and between these mean scores and the demographic variables. We did not find associations among all but some measures of empowerment. We found statistically significant positive association between competence and self-determination. The correlation between the two is 0.3126 with $p > 0.003$. Similarly, we found statistically significant relationship between self-determination and the impacts of employees in their departments; here, the correlation is 0.4461 with $p > 0.001$. Given these results it is deducible that employees who strongly feel empowered are likely to be those who strongly feel competent (self efficacy) in their jobs, or feel they have strong impacts in their departments, or have very strong self-determination.

A similar question as in the study of management trust building behavior arises here regarding the stability of the four measures of empowerment. The question is, can we replicate these four measures by a statistical approach? We answer this question using confirmatory factor analysis. We perform factor analysis on all the twelve items and request for a four-factor solution since we have four measures. If our original measures are valid, then the same statements in each measure would load on one factor. If the original measures of empowerment are not valid, we will expect their statements to load heavily on different factors. The results of the factor analysis in Table 5 clearly confirm that with a four-factor solution the scale items load on the factors as expected. The impact items load heavily on factor one, the meaningfulness items on factor two, the self-determination items on factor three, and the competence items on factor four. Therefore, the four measures are truly independent so, again, they cannot be combined into a single measure of empowerment.

Regarding the demographic variables, we did not find very strong statistical associations between them and the measures of empowerment. In fact, most of the demographic variables were not statistically related to empowerment. The exception is that being female is strongly associated with self-determination with a correlation of 0.2231 and a probability of 0.0389. Comparatively, there are weak statistical associations between income and impacts (correlation of 0.2079 and a probability of 0.0533), and hours required to work, and an employee's influence in a department (correlation of 0.2054 and a probability of 0.0535). These associations suggest that public transit employees required to work long hours or who receive high incomes may perceive themselves as having many impacts in their departments. This finding is supportable to the extent that individuals are paid based upon the values of their marginal productivity. Then those who work long hours or receive high weekly incomes may perceive themselves as adding more than others to the outputs of their departments. Also, we found a moderate and negative statistical relationship between education and job meaningfulness. The correlation between these two variables is -0.1955 with a probability of 0.0679. This negative relationship could reflect transit employees with higher education perceiving their jobs as not related to their qualifications, or that they have been given wrong jobs. It may also reflect underemployment in transit systems. For the manager this finding suggests a conscious effort to match jobs with qualifications. Particularly, it means that job redesign should be considered to match jobs with skills.

7. Relationships Between the Strategies

Our analyses so far have focused on management strategies for restoring employee trust, sense of job security, empowerment and organizational commitment without consideration of the relationships between them. Public transit employees however, may have different perceptions of the intent and effectiveness of these strategies or may perceive the levels of the strategies differently, and if so there could be tradeoffs between them. For example, if an organization focuses on one strategy while reducing the others, it should lead to a negative relationship between the strategies. On the other hand if employees perceive the strategies as complementary or existing simultaneously in their organizations, then there should be a positive relationship between them. A lack of relationship means that management considers them as independent. To find out the relationships we calculated mean scores for management-employee relations, job redesign, employee reassurance, and employee empowerment, and used them in a correlation analysis. That is, for each strategy without multiple measures, the item scores were summed and divided by the number of items to obtain an average score. For the strategies with multiple measures, the mean scores were calculated for each measure separately.

Table 6 shows the relationships between the strategies. Consistent with our earlier discussion, most respondents consider job redesign and employee reassurance as very important, while most do not agree that employee and management relationship is very strong in their organizations. This implies that this is an area of concern to employees and management must try to improve it. From the table also, some employee empowerment strategies are the only ones with statistically significant relationships with management and employee relations. Most of these relationships are positive, particularly those involving self-determination and impacts in a department while that involving competency has a negative and significant correlation. The other measures of empowerment are not statistically related to management and employees' relations. These results show that a good employee and management relation is associated with self-determination and a feeling of having an impact in one's department. Thus, it gives employees the confidence they need to perform their jobs. A notable result is the negative association between competency and authority delegation. Employees who feel competent doing their jobs are those who feel management does not delegate enough authority to them. Such employees would prefer having some authority to make job-related decisions. Because improvements in management and employee relations are not related to job redesign, or employee reassurance, according to our results, they may be pursued as independent strategies.

Similarly, empowerment and reassurance may be pursued as independent strategies since they are not related statistically. But, empowerment and job redesign have statistically significant and positive relationship suggesting that they complement each other. Therefore, job redesign could lead to employee empowerment. Job redesign and employee assurance too, have a positive and a statistically significant relationship. As well, there is a positive relationship between job redesign and self-determination. These results suggest that the employees who consider job redesign as very important also consider reassurance and self-determination very important. This finding is particularly relevant during periods of organizational change because this is the time when some jobs change and employees may feel their jobs are threatened.

Table 6 - Relationships between the strategies

Strategies	Mean	Std. Dev.	Behavior consistency	Behavior integrity	Delegation of authority	Communi-cation	Concern	Job redesign	Employee reassurance	Job meaning-fulness	Competency	Self-determi-nation	Impacts
Behavior consistency	2.6628	0.0955	1.0000 (0.0000)										
Behavior integrity	1.2481	0.9851	0.6683 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0000)									
Delegation of authority	2.4627	0.9373	0.5135 (0.0001)	0.6898 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0000)								
Communication	2.0988	0.6578	0.5049 (0.0001)	0.7045 (0.0001)	0.6646 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0000)							
Concern for employees	2.6279	0.9814	0.6557 (0.0001)	0.7821 (0.0001)	0.8132 (0.0001)	0.7683 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0000)						
Job redesign	4.1494	0.4482	-	-	-	-	-	1.0000 (0.0000)					
Employee reassurance	4.1657	0.7995	-	-	-	-	-	0.3510 (0.0009)	1.0000 0.0000				
Job meaningfulness	4.2273	0.7723	-	-		-	-	0.2155 (0.0463)	-	1.0000 (0.0000)			
Competency	4.5019	0.4797	-	-	-0.3110 (0.0038)	-	-	-	-	-	1.0000 (0.0000)		
Self-determination	3.9026	0.8012	0.2541 (0.0182)	0.2270 (0.0356)	0.2369 (0.0290)	0.2847 (0.0079)	0.3016 (0.0048)	-	-	-	0.3106 (0.0029)	1.0000 (0.0000)	
Impacts in department	3.3258	1.0224	0.2132 (0.0488)	0.3935 (0.0002)	0.3154 (0.0033)	0.3757 (0.0004)	0.4112 (0.0001)	-	-		-	0.4461 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0000)

The probabilities are in the parentheses.

8. The Impact of Organizational Change: Job Security

To what extent, does job insecurity manifest itself among the employees of transit companies that are going through change, particularly the outsourcing of some functions? Since an outsourcing is required of transit systems receiving federal subsidies, which means most transit systems, we included job insecurity as a part of our study of transit system employees. Our task is to assess the extent to which employees who remain after contracting feel their jobs are insecure.

Table A.1 in the appendix verifies the mutual exclusivity of the measures, threats to the total job, and threats to job features using confirmatory factor analysis with orthogonal rotation. The factor analysis does not include powerlessness since it uses a different Likert scale. As obvious from the table threat to job features loads heavily on factor one while threats to the total job load heavily on factor two. Therefore, job threats and threats to job features are independent so they cannot be added to obtain a single measure of job security. Tables 7, 8, and 9 show respectively job security concerning threats to the total job, threats to job features, and power respectively. Note from the table that a mean of less than three for power shows powerlessness. From the mean values of the item statements, most employees feel that the events that could affect their total jobs and job features are unlikely to occur. This feeling is the same across the item statements as evidenced by the positive and statistically significant relationships between most of them. Thus, there does not appear to be a strong indication of job insecurity in transit systems. Perhaps this is because employment with transit systems is often perceived as civil service, (i.e., government) jobs with more protections against job losses than in the private sector. But, the issue of having the power to control the things that affect one seems relevant regarding the employees. Public transit employees usually do not feel they have the power to control events that affect their jobs or prevent negative things from affecting their work situations. This reflects the structures of public and quasi-public agencies with strict guidelines about what can and cannot be done. At best, transit system employees seem indifferent in understanding their organizations well enough to control things that affect them or feeling that there are threats to their job features.

Using the data on job insecurity, we examined the relationships between job threats, threats to job features and having less power to control events. Here, as in the previous discussions, we calculated the mean rating for job threats, threats to job features, and power and related them using correlation. We found that only threats to job features and threats to the total job have a statistically significant relationship. The correlation between them is 0.331 with a probability of 0.0019. Neither is the threat to the job nor threats to job features related to power. However, when we consider the characteristics of the respondents, another picture emerges. We found that there are some characteristics of public transit employees that could lead to a feeling of job insecurity. While it may appear contrary to intuition, tenure in a position is negatively and significantly associated with the power to control events that surround a job, affect an employee, or prevent things that affect a person's work situation. The correlation between power and tenure in a position is -0.2610 with a probability of 0.0014 showing less power in affecting events, i.e., powerlessness.

Table 7 - Job Security: Severity of threats to one's job.

Items	Mean	Std. dev	Alpha	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
							Correlation				
1 Lose your job and be moved to a lower level within the organization.	2.0787	1.0597	0.8287	1.0000							
2. Lose your job and be moved to another job at the same level.	2.2584	1.1534	0.8424	0.6445 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0000)						
3. Find that the number of hours the company can offer you to work fluctuates from day to day.	2.2022	1.1888	0.8573	0.1860 (0.0809)	0.2921 (0.0053)	1.0000 (0.0000)					
4. Lose your job and be laid off for a while.	1.8539	1.1032	0.8056	0.4872 (0.0001)	0.3694 (0.0004)	0.3261 (0.0018)	1.0000 (0.0000)				
5. Lose your job and be laid off permanently.	1.7640	1.0662	0.8094	0.4600 (0.0001)	0.3000 (0.0043)	0.3250 (0.0019)	0.8881 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0000)			
6. Find your department and division's future uncertain.	2.2697	1.0741	0.8292	0.4812 (0.0001)	0.3933 (0.0001)	0.3484 (0.0008)	0.5994 (0.0001)	0.5325 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0000)		
7. Lose your job and be fired.	1.8427	1.1271	0.8271	0.4013 (0.0001)	0.2065 (0.0522)	0.2276 (0.0320)	0.6576 (0.0001)	0.6873 (0.0001)	0.3264 (0.0018)	1.0000 (0.0000)	
8. Lose your job by being pressured to accept an early retirement.	1.9663	1.1226	0.8402	0.3181 (0.00240	0.2701 (0.0105)	0.2181 (0.0401)	0.4456 (0.0001)	0.4775 (0.0001)	0.2809 (0.0077)	0.5346 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0000)

The probabilities are in parentheses.

Table 8 - Job Security: Threats to job features ($\alpha = 0.8863$)

Statements	mean	Std. dev	Alpha	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Your potential to go ahead in your organization.	2.793	0.966	0.891	1.000											
2. Your potential to maintain your current pay.	2.621	1.154	0.883	0.137 (0.20)	1.000 (0.00)										
3. Your potential to attain pay increases	2.989	1.176	0.886	0.295 (0.01)	0.605 (0.00)	1.000									
4. The status that comes with your position in the organization.	2.989	0.908	0.870	0.431 (0.00)	0.438 (0.00)	0.460 (0.00)	1.000 (0.00)								
5. Your current freedom to schedule your own work.	2.770	0.973	0.880	0.159 (0.16)	0.191 (0.08)	0.038 (0.72)	0.528 (0.00)	1.000 (0.00)							
6. Your current freedom to perform your work in a manner you see fit.	2.828	1.002	0.875	0.263 (0.01)	0.224 (0.04)	0.087 (0.42)	0.520 (0.00)	0.841 (0.00)	1.000 (0.00)						
7. Your current access to resources (people, materials, information) in the organization.	2.885	0.945	0.874	0.198 (0.07)	0.418 (0.00)	0.313 (0.00)	0.477 (0.00)	0.376 (0.00)	0.519 (0.00)	1.000 (0.00)					
8.Your sense of community in working with coworkers.	3.012	0.939	0.879	0.195 (0.07)	0.375 (0.00)	0.287 (0.01)	0.402 (0.00)	0.172 (0.11)	0.319 (0.00)	0.635 (0.00)	1.000 (0.00)				
9. The variety of tasks you perform.	2.954	0.932	0.874	0.330 (0.00)	0.336 (0.00)	0.299 (0.01)	0.509 (0.00)	0.475 (0.00)	0.529 (0.00)	0.403 (0.00)	0.417 (0.00)	1.000 (0.00)			
10. The opportunity to do an entire piece of work from start to finish.	2.930	0.980	0.879	0.195 (0.07)	0.218 (0.04)	0.366 (0.00)	0.521 (0.00)	0.397 (0.00)	0.378 (0.00)	0.420 (0.00)	0.321 (0.00)	0.538 (0.00)	1.000 (0.00)		
11. The significance of your job.	2.977	0.982	0.864	0.33 (0.00)	0.525 (0.00)	0.437 (0.00)	0.591 (0.00)	0.507 (0.00)	0.615 (0.00)	0.591 (0.00)	0.511 (0.00)	0.693 (0.00)	0.549 (0.00)	1.000 (0.00)	
12. The extent to which you can tell how well you are doing your job as you do it.	2.930	0.955	0.873	0.250 (0.02)	0.310 (0.00)	0.270 (0.01)	0.548 (0.00)	0.497 (0.00)	0.649 (0.00)	0.550 (0.00)	0.486 (0.00)	0.498 (0.00)	0.296 (0.01)	0.675 (0.00)	1.000 (0.0)

The probabilities are in the parentheses.

Table 9 - Job Security: Power

Statements	Mean	Std. dev.	Alpha	1	2	3
1. I have enough power in this organization to control events that affect my job.	0.24494	1.0661	0.5857	1.0000		
2. In this organization, I can prevent negative things from affecting my work situation.	2.7079	1.0575	0.5660	0.2488 (0.0187)	1.0000	
3. I understand this organization well enough to be able to control things that affect me.	3.0225	0.9997	0.3985	0.3956 (0.0001)	0.4147 (0.0001)	1.0000

The standard errors are in the parentheses.

This result is evidence that those who have spent many years in their positions feel powerless. Perhaps they are those who have been overlooked for promotion and, therefore, frustrated or who through organizational change no longer control resources. Also, white employees tend to feel their jobs are threatened. The correlation between these two variables is -0.2982 with a probability of 0.0048. Since most white employees tend to be in management and supervisory positions, this latter finding may reflect that organizational change usually affects middle and upper level management. It may also reflect the racial composition of the organizations with most employees being white. Also, that tenure in a position is negatively associated with power seems to show a shift in power balance in organizations with the newer or more recent hires having some control over what affects them in their jobs. If this is true then it may reflect the changing characteristics of public transit system employees with newer hires having more skills than others, or being in higher-level positions where they can control things that affect their jobs.

9. The Impacts of Organizational Change: Organizational Commitment

Taken together the three measures of job security above show public transit employees feel more secure in their jobs except having the power to change things that affect them. This sense of security may make some employees become committed to the organization. As we have noted earlier, commitment takes three forms. Some commitment may be described as continuance in which case a person is committed to an organization because of the personal investments he has made or because there is a slim chance of finding a comparative alternate job elsewhere. Continuance commitment also may arise in career oriented spouses both of whom work. Here, moving to a higher level position in another location is difficult for one unless the other spouse also finds a job. Such an employee would be committed to the organization and staying in his

current job because the cost of leaving is too much. Some employees, however, may be committed to an organization because of the value system imparted onto them by family, culture, and society. An employee who feels obligated to remain with an organization despite the good alternatives elsewhere may be exhibiting normative commitment. Since value systems take very long to change, or may not change at all, persons with normative commitment may remain with organizations for a long time. In fact, in organizations, one would expect to see more employees with long tenure exhibiting normative and continuance commitments. The last type of commitment arises from one's love for or attachment to an organization; it shows one's strong affection for the organization. This type of commitment is called affective commitment. As Ugboro and Obeng (2000) note, it refers to an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in an organization.

In periods of organizational change, such as caused by contracting or outsourcing, employees may feel that their attachments to the organization have waned. This is particularly true if the organizational change brings job insecurity because of layoffs. Even if only the potential for layoffs exists, it is still possible that the level of emotional attachment may reduce because of a perceived break of psychological contracts between employees and management, though normative and continuance commitments may be unchanged. Psychological contracts, as we have noted, are implicit and hold that employees put forth their best for organizations because they believe the organizations will look out for them and protect their jobs. If organizations cannot protect their jobs
then employees see this implicit contract as broken and no reciprocity in behavior. We assess the levels of commitment in this study.

Using the data we tested if the responses can be grouped into three factors corresponding to affective, continuance and normative commitments using confirmatory factor analysis with orthogonal rotation. Our results in Table 10 confirm the distinction among the three types of commitment using a three-factor solution. Normative commitment loads heavily on factor one, while affective and continuance commitments load heavily on factors two and three respectively. Given these three factors, the scale items for each factor can be added to obtain a composite score for affective, continuance and normative commitments. Alternatively, we may calculate a mean score for each type of commitment but not an overall mean for commitment.

Table 10 also shows the three types of commitments, some descriptive statistics, and the correlations between the statements. Examining the table, the alpha values are obviously more than 0.777 which are very high and fall within the acceptable range for an established scale. The mean values show a higher level of affective commitment compared with continuance and normative commitment. Specifically, except one statement whose mean is 2.6180, most public transit employees agree that they have affective commitment to their organizations but do not feel the organizations' problems are their own. For continuance commitment the employees appear indifferent regarding the statements about having too few options to consider leaving, the scarcity of available job alternatives if they leave, and having put so much of their lives into their organizations to consider leaving. Concerning normative commitment the responses are close to showing indifference toward most of the statements. They also show that most public transit employees do not agree they have this type of commitment.

Table 10 - Commitment

							Correlation					
Affective Commitment (α = 0.8877)	Mean	Std. Dev.	Alpha	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	3.7528	1.1209	0.8750	0.2721	0.6776	0.2996	1.0000 (0.0001)					
2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	2.6180	1.1727	0.8849	0.3922	0.5703	-0.1170	0.3942 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0000)				
3. I feel a sense of belonging to my organization.	3.3820	1.1629	0.8580	0.3188	0.7845	0.0221	0.5527 (0.0001)	0.5165 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0001)			
4. Ifeel emotionally attached to this organization.	3.2472	1.2181	0.8632	0.2237	0.8108	-0.0145	0.4864 (0.0001)	0.5681 (0.0001)	0.6706 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0000)		
5. I feel like I am a part of the family at my organization.	3.2889	1.1773	0.8608	0.1693	0.8540	-0.1057	0.5699 (0.0001)	0.4737 (0.0001)	0.7258 (0.0001)	0.6563 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0000)	
6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	3.0900	1.1836	0.8654	0.5520	0.6069	0.0783	0.6850 (0.0001)	0.5081 (0.0001)	0.5857 (0.0001)	0.5598 (0.0001)	0.5688 (0.0001)	1.00 (0.000)
Continuance Commitment (α = 0.7770)							**7**	**8**	**9**	**10**	**11**	**12**
7. Right now staying in this organization is a matter of necessity as much as I desire.	3.7416	1.0283	0.7648	0.1758	0.0538	0.5757	1.0000 (0.0000)					
8. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	3.3483	1.2523	0.7271	0.5000	0.1753	0.5793	0.4057 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0000)				
9. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization at this time.	3.2921	1.2810	0.7211	0.5070	0.1073	0.6081	0.3944 (0.0001)	0.8066 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0000)			
10. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving my organization.	2.8523	1.1894	0.7371	-0.1093	-0.0235	0.8006	0.2776 (0.0088)	0.2338 (0.0001)	0.2915 (0.0059)	1.0000 (0.0000)		

Table 10 (Continued)

Continuance Commitment	**Mean**	**Std. Dev.**	**Alpha**	**Factor 1**	**Factor 2**	**Factor 3**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**10**	**11**	**12**
11. If I had not put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.	2.8182	1.1095	0.7593	-0.0082	-0.0576	0.6517	0.0772 (0.4749)	0.3189 (0.0025)	0.3367 (0.0013)	0.5195 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0000)	
12.. One of the few negative consequences of leaving my organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	2.7614	1.0827	0.7473	-0.2296	-0.0620	0.7893	0.3756 (0.0003)	0.2225 (0.0372)	0.2240 (0.0359)	0.6417 (0.0001)	0.3654 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0000)
Normative Commitment ($\alpha = 0.8842$)							**13**	**14**	**15**	**16**	**17**	**18**
13. I feel an obligation to remain with current employer.	2.9951	1.1862	0.8905	0.5318	0.3517	0.01105	1.0000 (0.0000)					
14. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.	2.5169	1.0987	0.8612	0.7978	0.1572	0.0243	0.4104 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0000)				
15. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.	2.3034	1.1619	0.8524	0.8123	0.2105	0.0610	0.4635 (0.0001)	0.6680 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0001)			
16. This organization deserves my loyalty.	2.9888	1.2107	0.8618	0.7173	0.3902	-0.1099	0.4823 (0.0001)	0.5255 (0.0001)	0.6245 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0001)		
17. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	2.6966	1.2469	0.8487	0.7635	0.3570	-0.0051	0.4440 (0.0001)	0.6235 (0.0001)	0.7310 (0.0001)	0.7053 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0001)	
18. I owe a great deal to my organization.	2.7416	1.2016	0.8674	0.6395	0.3528	0.1354	0.4063 (0.0001)	0.6618 (0.0001)	0.5614 (0.0001)	0.5057 (0.0001	0.6070 (0.0001)	1.0000 (0.0001)

The probabilities are in the parentheses.

Next, we examined the relationships between affective, continuance, normative commitments and between these commitments and the demographic characteristics of the respondents. This analysis follows our earlier procedure of first calculating the mean score for each commitment and using it in a correlation analysis. The results reveal that continuance and affective commitment are not statistically related which is the same result obtained by Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, and Jackson (1989). However, as in the research findings of Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) and Allen and Meyer (1990), normative commitment has statistically significant relationships to affective commitment with a correlation coefficient of 0.7165 and a probability of 0.0001. Normative commitment too is correlated with continuance commitment. The correlation between them is 0.2193 (0.0400), where the probability is in the parentheses. Therefore, the employees who show normative commitment may also show affective or continuance commitment. According to our results, there is no statistical justification to expect that employees showing affective commitment may be also the ones showing continuance commitment. It follows then that continuance commitment and affective commitment measure different aspects of commitment but that each may subsume some aspects of normative commitment. Thus, we may add some aspects of the normative to continuance commitment to obtain one scale, or we may add some aspects of normative to affective commitment to obtain another scale.

Another set of relationships explored is that among the three types of commitments and demographic variables. The objective here is to find out if certain characteristics of individuals make them disposed to certain types of commitments. If management is interested in commitment then these relationships could help in recruiting. The results were mixed but encouraging. Education seems to have negative influences on continuance and affective commitments. This result is similar to what Baruch (1998) found, and what Angle and Perry (1981) found using public transit data. Similarly, it is consistent with the results of Glisson and Durick (1988). The correlation between education and affective commitment is -0.2106 (0.0476) while the correlation between continuance commitment and education is -0.2151 (0.0442) where the probabilities are in parentheses. These results are expected, for education may open opportunities for employment and make one less willing to stay if better opportunities arise despite personal investments one might have made in the organization. Similarly, education may reduce one's attachment to an organization and may make one see a job not as an end but as a step in developing one's career. Baruch (1998) also notes that education makes older employees redundant and those who stay may be young with higher levels of education and less organizational commitment.

Though the other correlations between commitment and the demographic variables are weak or statistically insignificant, two are relevant and must be discussed. Affective commitment is affected by years in a position and race. While white employees may show statistically weak affective commitment (correlation 0.1994 with a probability of 0.0625), the same type of commitment has a weak negative association with years in a position (correlation of -0.1921 and a probability of 0.0729). Thus, we may argue, though not strongly, that those who have been in their positions longer may not have affective commitments for their organizations. This finding is explainable as to lack of opportunities for growth that these employees may have experienced in their organizations. Also, it may reflect the fact that the politics of the organization over the years may be unsatisfactory to those who have been in their positions longer. Overall, some relationships between commitment and the demographic variables are similar to those that Luthans and Sommer (1999) found in their study of the impact of downsizing on workplace

attitude. They found that age, job tenure, gender and marital status were significantly associated with commitment. Women, married employees, older employees, and job tenure were positively associated with commitment.

10. Selecting the Most Effective Strategies

We have noted in the above discussions that organizational change could lead to job insecurity, lower levels of organizational commitment and lack of trust in management. We have also noted that transit management uses several strategies, and that employees perceive these strategies differently. For example, employees do not perceive their relations with management favorably, while they believe that job redesign could improve their jobs. For the public transit manager interested in fostering good relations with employees, a decision must be made regarding the effective strategies to adopt. An approach that can be used in selecting a strategy is to relate the outcomes of the organizational change, i.e., job commitment and job insecurity, to the strategies and select those strategies that are significantly associated with these outcomes. Such an approach, however, assumes that the strategies are independent and have no interaction effects. But, as we have seen in previous discussions, some of these strategies are correlated though the coefficients are not so large as to preclude them from being included in the same model. As a practical matter too, management often adopts a set of strategies so a model that only analyzes the independent effects of these strategies through simple correlations may not adequately reflect the interactions between policies. Despite these problems, we use simple correlations to identify those organizational strategies that have statistically significant associations with job security and commitment. Then, we use step-wise regression to select the strategies that may or not be used together. Table 11 shows the analyses using simple correlations. Only the statistically significant correlations are reported.

Improving Job Security

As we have noted, job security has three measures: the feeling of powerlessness, threats to the total job, and threats to job features. Each of these measures is an outcome of the organizational change process and can be addressed through different organizational strategies.

Power : Column one in Table 11 shows the strategies that are significantly associated with the feeling of having power. Here, as in the discussion earlier in the study, a negative coefficient shows that a strategy may be associated with powerlessness. No strategy has a negative and statistically significant relationship with the feeling of an employee having the power to control things that affect his job and self. Therefore, the feeling of having power may be improved significantly using strategies that deal with management-employee relations. For example improvements in communication, heightened concern for employees, and sharing and delegating some authority to employees particularly those associated with how they do their jobs, may cause employees feeling they are not powerless. Such feelings may be also increased through consistent management behavior, and behavior integrity such as telling the truth and being believable, all of which are required as parts of the employee-management relation. Other ways by which management can increase the feelings of employees that they have power or giving

Table 11 - Relationships between strategies and outcomes

	OUTCOMES					
Strategies	Power	Job threats	Threats to job features	Continuance commitment	Affective commitment	Normative commitment
Behavior consistency	0.3108 (0.0036)	-0.2714 (0.0115)	-	-	0.3770 (0.0003)	0.3628 (0.0006)
Behavior integrity	0.3821 (0.0003)	-0.1958 (0.0708)	-	-	0.5154 (0.0001)	0.4927 (0.0001)
Sharing and delegation of authority	0.3773 (0.0004)	-0.2241 (0.0392)	-	-	0.4985 (0.0001)	0.4880 (0.0001)
Communication	0.4109 (0.0001)	-0.2420 (0.0248)	-	-	0.5133 (0.0001)	0.3748 (0.0004)
Demonstration of Concern	0.4313 (0.0001)	-0.3027 (0.0046)	-	-	0.5784 (0.0001)	0.5041 (0.0001)
Job redesign	-	-	-	-	-	-
Employee reassurance	-	-	-	-	-	-
Job meaningfulness	0.2101 (0.0494)	-	-	0.2708 (0.0112)	0.3906 (0.0002)	0.3454 (0.0010)
Competency	-	-	-0.2683 (0.0125)	-	-0.2926 (0.0054)	-0.3671 (0.0004)
Self-determination	0.3108 (0.0030)	-0.4192 (0.0001)	-0.2899 (0.0068)	-	-	-
Impacts in organization	0.4257 (0.0001)	-0.2996 (0.0043)	-	-	0.3722 (0.0003)	0.2955 (0.0049)

Note: Only the significant correlations are shown. The probabilities are in the parentheses.

them meaningful jobs, and empowering them through programs that boost their self-confidence. Empowerment that makes employees feel they have impacts in the organizations are also associated with employees feeling they have power. Job redesign and employee reassurance, though important, are not significantly associated with employees feeling that they have power.

Threats to the total job : Job security may be improved by reducing threats to the total job. That is, when employees feel their jobs are not threatened they feel secure. Most of the strategies associated with power are also those associated with job threats, but here the signs of the coefficients are reversed as expected. Thus, improvements in trust building, i.e., management and employee relations, may not only lead to employees feeling they have power, but also to the perception of reduced threats to the total job. In the same way when employees are empowered they may feel less threatened about their jobs by the organizational change. However, we do not find an association between job meaningfulness and threats to the total job nor between job redesign and employee reassurances on one hand and threats to the total job on the other.

Threats to job features : Threats to the total job are only one job threat that could occur with organizational change. Sometimes, though a job may not be eliminated, some of its features may be removed to make it less appealing to do, or make it unattractive. When such changes occur, we have called them threats to job features. Table 11 shows that most of the strategies are not associated with threats to job features in a statistically significant way. We do not find management and employee relations, job redesign, job meaningfulness, and employee reassurances to be associated with threats to job features. What we find, however, is that reduced threats to job features may be achieved through employee empowerment. When employees are empowered, and they feel they are competent doing their jobs, it may lead to less feeling among them that their jobs' features are threatened. Similarly, when employees are empowered through programs that improve self-determination it may reduce the feelings among them that their job features are threatened.

Improving Organizational Commitment

We have said that organizational commitment may be adversely affected by organizational change. Consequently, it is important for transit systems going through changes to ensure that the commitments of their employees to the organization do not erode. Column five through seven of Table 11 show the relationships between the strategies and organizational commitment. Here too, only the statistically significant coefficients are shown. It is surprising that job redesign and employee reassurances are not associated with organizational commitment. Thus, they may not be relied upon as management strategies to increase organizational commitment. Surprising too, is the fact that self determination has no association with any type of commitment.

Continuance Commitment : People who remain with organizations because they have to, are described as having continuance commitment. Such people may add value to the organization through higher productivity because the cost of leaving is high so they must keep their jobs. As a result, we would expect that management would adopt strategies to maintain this type of commitment. Only the strategy of making each job meaningful to an employee is positively associated with continuance commitment. Though employees with continuance commitment are constrained by their inabilities to change jobs often, they still might not want jobs that are not meaningful to them.

Table 12 - Step-wise regression equations

Strategies	Power	Threats to job	Threats to job features	Affective commitment	Normative commitment	Continuance commitment
Intercept	3.7203*	4.7484*	6.3880*	3.425*	-0.7983	5.7587*
	(1.4449)	(1.4956)	(1.2384)	(0.8477)	(2.3338)	(1.7228)
Demonstration of concern	0.2256*	-0.3631*		0.5313*	0.5069*	
	(0.0861)	(0.1269)		(0.0851)	(0.0934)	
Employee self-determination	0.3076*	-0.3457*	-0.2265*			-0.2253*
	(0.1017)	(0.0999)	(0.0831)			(0.1121)
Competency			-0.3075*	-0.3422*	-0.5342*	
			(0.1383)	(0.1720)	(0.1778)	
Communication						
Job redesign		0.2812***				0.3353***
		(0.1666)				(0.1993)
Employee reassurance			0.2202*			
			(0.0823)			
Years in a position (in logarithms)	-0.2029*					
	(0.0856)					
Age (in logarithms)					1.2225*	
					(0.5645)	
Weekly income (in logarithms)		-0.3266***				
		(0.1993)				
Years of education (in logarithms)	-0.9045***		-0.7157*			-1.1449*
	(0.4989)		(0.4021)			(0.5502)
Gender: Male = 1, female = 0.			-0.0998**			
			(0.0471)			
R^2	0.3282	0.3198	0.2802	0.3957	0.3746	0.1240
F	8.9200	6.7700	6.04	24.56	14.7800	3.4900
Probability of F	0.0001	0.0001	0.0003	0.0001	0.0001	0.0198

* Significant at 0.05, ** Significant at 0.06; *** Significant 0.10. The standard errors are in the parentheses.

Affective and Normative Commitments : These are two different types of commitment but we treat them together because of the similarities in their associations with the strategies. Specifically, the same strategies that may increase affective commitment may also increase normative commitment. In particular, we find that all the strategies under trust building have the same positive effects on affective and normative commitments. It follows that these commitments may be improved through behavior consistency, behavior integrity, sharing and delegating authority, communication and demonstration of concern. Empowerment strategies focusing on increasing the impacts employees have in their departments and the organizations also may increase affective and normative commitments as are providing jobs that employees consider meaningful. But, if a strategy works against these types of commitment, it may be that related to competency. Our results show that employees who feel very competent doing their jobs may show less affective and normative commitment. In fact we have found that a sense of insecurity may surround such people since they tend to feel their job features are threatened. We may, therefore, say that the presence of this feeling of insecurity may make such employees not show affective or normative organizational commitment.

Combined Strategies

A note of caution is appropriate at this point. The relationships are true to the extent that the strategies are independent or mutually exclusive. If they are not then a possibility could exist that when used together they may lead to outcomes that are conflicting. The question to be asked then is, which strategies may be adopted together to yield favorable organizational outcomes? Alternatively, which strategies together explain more of the variation in the measures of job security and organizational commitment. To answer this question, we use step-wise regression to relate the outcomes to the strategies and some demographic variables such as age, education, years in a position, years in the organization, weekly income, and gender.

Job security : Table 12 shows the results of the step-wise regression analysis. Concerning the feeling of an employee that he has power in his department and the organization, the results reveal that when management adopts strategies that focus on showing concern for employees, and empower employees through programs that foster self-determination they may achieve that purpose. These same strategies are associated with reductions in threats to the total job. However, when they are combined with job redesign strategies their results may be conflicting, since job redesign strategies have a positive coefficient in the regression indicating they increase job threats. This coefficient is statistically weak and only significant at the 0.0958 level. What this implies is that while it is possible to reduce threats to the total job by embarking on job redesign efforts both may be contradictory and may be not pursued together. The combined strategies for reducing threats to job features are the empowerment strategies according to the step-wise regression results. These results show that the strategies that focus on promoting employee competency and self-determination are associated with reduced threats to job features. Here too, we find that these strategies may not be pursued with employee reassurance strategies, because they could lead to conflicting outcomes based upon our results. The coefficient of employee reassurance is positive which shows it may increase threats to job features. This means that there are some side-effects of continually reassuring employees about their jobs. Employees may begin to feel that something is really wrong in the organization to affect their jobs and, therefore, feel insecure.

The table also reveals that higher weekly income, years in a position, and being male may be potential sources of job insecurity. These variables are related to different aspects of job insecurity. Years in a position have a negative effect on power, and higher weekly income earners have a tendency to feel that their jobs may be affected by the organizational change. Also, male employees may feel that the organizational change may affect the features of their jobs. We find that educational level may reduce the feeling of having power and the feeling that the features of one's job are threatened.

Organizational commitment : Combined strategies to achieve organizational commitment may depend upon the type of commitment according to the step-wise regression results. Organizations can probably increase affective commitment through strategies that reflect the concern management has for its employees. Such strategies may not be applied together with those that focus on promoting employee competency for, the step-wise regression results show that promoting competency may actually lead to lower levels of affective commitment. This creates an anomaly for the managers of public transit systems. On one hand they want to promote employee competency through training programs, and on the other employees who feel competent doing their jobs have lower levels of affective organizational commitment which may show a propensity to leave the organization. If the focus of the training program is on productivity enhancement, it may still be desirable if its organization-wide benefits exceed the loss of affective commitment. Since affective commitment is a desirable characteristic of employees, the concern strategies are those on which management should focus its attention. Pointedly, focusing on this strategy alone may be worthwhile to the organization.

The strategies related to concern and competencies have the same effects on normative commitment as affective commitment and may not be used with strategies that promote competency if management is promoting and maintaining normative commitment. For, it appears that competency when used with concern has a tendency to reduce normative commitment. With respect to continuance commitment, improvements could occur with job redesign strategies. Here too, obtaining conflicting outcomes when job redesign strategies are used with employee self-determination strategies is possible because the table shows they negatively affect normative commitment. If we view continuance commitment as desirable, then job redesign strategies appear the most favorable to use since their coefficients are positive and statistically significant. However, if it is considered undesirable because it may create complacency among employees that will affect productivity, then management may consider employee self-determination strategies to reduce it. Also, we find that education may reduce continuance commitment showing that more training of employees is required for transit system employees. Again, if continuance commitment is undesirable, then educational programs will tend to lower its impacts.

11. Conclusion

A general conclusion from the results is that organizational restructuring, downsizing and lay offs contributed to erosion of employees' trust in management, organizational commitment, feelings of powerlessness and that management is perceived to have done very little to rebuild employees' trust, restore feelings of job security and employees' sense of organizational commitment because for the most part, management behavior and decisions are perceived by employees to lack consistency. Additionally, management is perceived as not showing concern for employee welfare and having questionable behavior integrity. Employees consider decision-making authority to be too centralized in their organizations. These general conclusions suggest the need for management to do more to build employees' trust by focusing on maintaining behavior consistency and integrity especially on issues and decisions that affect employees' welfare. When employees perceive management as showing concern for their welfare, it could result in improved morale, increased job satisfaction, and improved productivity.

A strategy to improve employee trust in management and employee relations is improved organizational communication. Constantly informing employees about the state of the organization could reduce discontent and cynicisms. Employees should be informed of the future directions of the organization and the changes, both favorable and unfavorable, that may affect them. For, it is only in this way that they in turn will understand and be receptive to certain management decisions. Furthermore, delegation of decision-making authority to employees and team building strategies could improve employees' understanding of certain management actions. Most often these actions would have been suggested by them anyway if they have been involved in the decision-making process.

These findings underscore the need for an effective and open communication between management and employees. Information about the rationale and extent of restructuring and downsizing should be available to survivors so that they can decide their future roles in the organization. Informing survivors of management decisions may not be sufficient. They must be involved in the decision-making process so their inputs are reflected in the implementation of the restructuring and downsizing process. Any effort by management to centralize decision-making authority during the planning and implementation of this process is bound to make survivors suspicious, cynical, and more reluctant to recommit to the organization.

Moreover, management must recognize work and role overload on survivors as some consequences of restructuring and downsizing. These consequences lead to stress among survivors as they struggle to meet the demands and expectations of their ill-defined roles and jobs. To resolve this problem requires a systematic analysis of personnel and skill inventory before restructuring and downsizing to ensure that employees can cope with the demand and expectations of their expanded jobs. Such an inventory ensures that there are variety of skills to respond to tasks effectively, and that employees are given autonomy to make job-related decisions. Furthermore, management must consider job redesign options that increase autonomy by delegating decision-making authority to employees. This can be accomplished with a decentralized organizational structure that actively involves lower-level employees in decision-making. Additionally, employees would need training to meet the demand and performance expectations of their expanded jobs.

Giving survivors more autonomy in making decisions and more choices over how to do their jobs would likely make them feel they have more control and enhanced personal resources to respond and cope with downsizing effectively. It should be noted that job redesign that enhances skills variety, autonomy, and job depth will also give employees a sense of empowerment and reassure them of their future with the organization. Furthermore, if the redesigned job gives employees feedback about their performance, their sense of job satisfaction could also increase. Certainly, employees are likely to question the need to commit to an organization with an uncertain future if their continuing employment is doubtful. Therefore, survivors need certain indicators of stability and of their value to the organization. This is particularly important to employees who have shown the ability to help the organization meet its economic and other performance goals. These employees are more likely to leave and find employment elsewhere and the organization will find it difficult competitively through decreased productivity. To reassure this class of employees, the organization needs to involve them in decision-making concerning the future direction of the organization, their role and place in that future.

A result of the study is that empowerment strategies that affect employee self-determination and competency, and strategies that affect management and employee relations have strong potentials to affect job security and organizational commitments. This is so when we examine joint strategies to use to improve job security and organizational commitment that are some outcomes of organizational change. Though important, communication strategies do not affect job security and organizational commitment. Furthermore, because of the differences in how the strategies may affect organizational outcomes, management should be careful when applying them together. If the focus of the improvements is on job security and organizational commitment separately then each strategy can be applied to accomplish different ends without overlapping it with the others. Overlapping the strategies has potential to result in outcomes that are conflicting as this study shows.

We also found that empowered employees are likely those who strongly feel competent (self efficacy) in their jobs, or they feel they have strong impacts in their departments, or very strong self-determination. Also, public transit employees required to work long hours or who receive high incomes often perceive themselves as having strong impacts in their departments while employees with higher education generally perceive their jobs as not related to their qualifications. To address these issues, management must try to match jobs with the qualifications of employees. For example, job redesign should be considered to match jobs with employees' skills. Also, a good employee-management relation is associated with self-determination, a feeling of having an impact in one's department and should be promoted. Additionally management should delegate some authority to employees who feel competent doing their jobs and should promote employee competency through training, and self-determination through empowerment.

There is a strong indication of job security in transit systems from our results with most employees feeling that it is unlikely for events that could affect their total jobs and job features to occur. Yet, there are employees with long tenure in their positions who often feel powerless perhaps they have been overlooked for promotion or are no longer in control of essential resources. Management should develop strategies to address the concerns of these employees. From this study, management could improve job security (in terms of having power and reduced threats to the total job) through strategies that deal with management-employee relations and empowerment but not job design. On the other hand threats to job features may be reduced

through employee empowerment, promoting employee competency and self-determination but not reassurance which may increase job threats. While our finding concerning the link between increased reassurance and threatened job features appears an anomaly, it is explained that persistent reassurance could signal to employees the potential threats to job features ahead.

Making a job meaningful to employees could increase continuance commitment. On the other hand management can increase affective and continuance commitment through improved behavior consistency, behavior integrity, sharing and delegating authority, communication, demonstration of concern, and empowerment strategies. But, promoting competency may lead to lower levels of affective and normative commitments as employees develop transferable not organization-specific skills. This does not mean that management should not promote competency through training. What it means is to recognize that for some employees the benefits to the organization for the acquired skills may be short.

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Appendix A.1: Factor Analysis of Job Insecurity

Item Statements	Factor 1	Factor 2
1 Lose your job and be moved to a lower level within the organization	0.3316	0.6168
2. Lose your job and be moved to another job at the same level.	0.1729	0.5235
3. Find that the number of hours the company can offer you to work fluctuates from day to day.	-0.0594	0.4916
4. Lose your job and be laid off for a while.	0.1081	0.8841
5. Lose your job and be laid off permanently.	0.1513	0.8498
6. Find your department and division's future uncertain.	0.0533	0.6944
7. Lose your job and be fired.	-0.0304	0.7713
8. Lose your job by being pressured to accept an early retirement.	0.0931	0.6030
9. Your potential to go ahead in your organization.	0.4535	-0.1522
10. Your potential to maintain your current pay.	0.4534	0.4722
11. Your potential to attain pay increases	0.4654	0.2252
12. The status that comes with your position in the organization.	0.8048	0.0146
13. Your current freedom to schedule your own work.	0.7061	-0.0254
14. Your current freedom to perform your work in a manner you see fit.	0.7599	0.0939
15. Your current access to resources (people, materials, information) in the organization.	0.7001	0.1913
16.Your sense of community in working with coworkers.	0.6010	0.1524
17. The variety of tasks you perform.	0.7249	0.1188
18. The opportunity to do an entire piece of work from start to finish.	0.6299	0.1173
19. The significance of your job.	0.8324	0.2766
20. The extent to which you can tell how well you are doing your job as you do it.	0.7589	0.1078