

**AN EXPLORATORY STUDY INTO
FACTORS AFFECTING THE MOTIVATION
AND PERFORMANCE OF BLACK
SOUTH AFRICAN MANAGERS**

by

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A B S T R A C T :

The development of black managers is one of the most important challenges facing South African companies as the society undergoes a transition to a non-racial order.

Despite considerable resources having been invested by South African organisations to develop black managers, the results of these efforts have been disappointing. This study attempts to show that such problems can be ascribed to certain factors which exist in the environment of the black manager, which according to Expectancy Theory negatively affect key elements in the motivation/performance process.

The sample was drawn from only one industry - the pharmaceutical and related products manufacturing industry, so as to control for intervening variables. It included 104 managers; 39 black South Africans, 30 black Zimbabweans and 35 white South Africans.

The responses of the white South Africans and black South Africans were compared, to assess the respective effects of economic, social and political advantage and disadvantage, on the attitudes and perceptions which affect motivation and performance. The Zimbabwean group were introduced to help gauge the effects which social policy changes, such as those which have taken place in Zimbabwe since independence, are likely to have on these attitudes and perceptions.

Data was collected during an in depth interview, using a projective test and interview schedule as instruments. The responses were subject to Content Analysis and the outcome of that was further analysed using the Chi-Square Test of Independence, and Factor Analysis. In addition a Regression Analysis was conducted to determine which of the most important variables emerging from the findings of the previous statistical analyses had the most influence on adaptation to management.

Whilst much that was found was known before, it is felt that some new ground has been broken; particularly from the comparison drawn between the two black groups.

The initial statistical analysis revealed that the self-perception of being a victim of racism occurred amongst the responses of the black South African managers - which has negative implications for their motivation. The black Zimbabwean sample showed no indication of victim consciousness, which implies that the attitudes and perceptions which result in the development of a victim consciousness are affected by changes in social and political structures and policies. However the response of both black groups suggested to their having marginal status, understood to be negatively related to performance. This implies that certain factors affecting motivation and performance of black managers are not likely to be modified by changes in social policy. As expected the white South Africans' response contained no negative implication for motivation and performance.

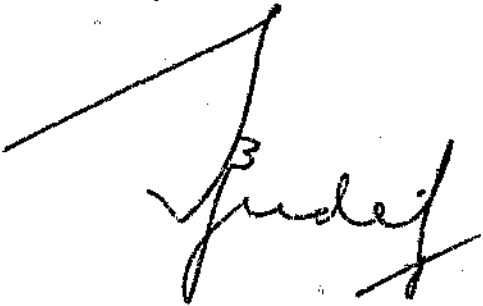
The Regression Analysis revealed (high) level of education and (low) victim consciousness to be most closely associated with managerial success. Both of these emphasise the self-reliance. This has negative implications for black South African managers who it has been shown perceive themselves to be victims, an attitudes which opposes that of self-reliance.

The topics for further research which were identified by the study, are as follows: i. the determination the exact elements of social and political change in Zimbabwe, which allowed the black Zimbabweans to overcome victim consciousness; ii. the exploration the development of a pre-tertiary education system, which could help ensure adaptation to management, and iii. the examination of the precise factors causing marginal status, and to determine why they are so persistent and pervasive.

D E C L A R A T I O N

I declare that this research report is my own, unaided work. It is being submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Management at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg.

It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other university.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'J. Yudelowitz', with a large, sweeping initial 'J' and a stylized 'Y'.

JONATHAN BRIAN YUDELOWITZ

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CHAPTER ONE

1.1. INTRODUCTION

1.1.1. Socio-political necessity for black management development.

South Africa is a highly polarised society with a long legacy of racial distinction and inequality.

This country is also in transition to a post apartheid order but any new system will be placed under severe strain if sharp socio-economic distinctions, according to race, persist.

The reduction of inequality and the establishment of common interest between groups is an essential part of nation building for a new order and for creating a positive climate for growth and development.

Amongst the common interests which need to be established, are shared occupational and career interests between blacks and whites in the private sector.

In an address to the Institute of Directors in October 1990, Mike Rosholt (Business Day 26/10/1990), past chairman of Barlow Rand Ltd, noted that "... unless and until blacks

are placed in responsible positions in key industries and companies, major and minor, the present economic system will not be supported." He goes on to say that in the current economic debate, "... the private sector argument would be immeasurably strengthened, if there were many more visible examples of blacks succeeding in, and benefiting from the private enterprise system. Greater and urgent efforts will have to be made, to produce successful role models."

The minister of constitutional development Dr Gerrit Viljoen, in an address to the Cape Town Chamber of Commerce, asserted that, "... one of the greatest concerns of black political and business organisations, was their lack of participation in the economy, and big corporations should investigate methods of promoting black economic empowerment. Business should intensify and accelerate advancement programmes for people with potential and greater support should be given to black business activities." (Business Day 26/4/1991)

Further, Jan Steyn, chairman of the Urban Foundation, warns that "whatever the grounds for political optimism, we dare not leave it (building of a new society), to political processes only. We cannot place representatives of the disadvantaged communities in a position in which they feel obliged to challenge the interests of advantaged South Africans" (Business Day 21/3/1990).

Addressing the Euromoney Conference in November 1990, Sam Motsuenyane the president of National African Federated Chambers of Commerce (NAFCOC) said that while the business community was concerned at how a post-apartheid government would solve the problem of redressing imbalances in the economy, it had the responsibility to make positive proposals as to how these could be addressed.

At the NAFCOC conference in September 1990 it was decided that in order to give expression and meaning to *black economic empowerment* companies must ensure that the numbers of blacks at management level in their organisations are increased significantly.

A resolution was in fact passed at that conference which states that at least 30% of JSE companies board members and 60% of their managers should be black.

Further, by *redistributing opportunity* in their organisations through actively promoting black management development, South African organisations are in effect offering a viable alternative to a direct *redistribution of wealth*. That is, it provides a means whereby the economic imbalances which threaten the stability of South African society can be redressed, whilst at the same time avoiding the potentially detrimental effects which a direct redistribution of wealth is likely to have on the economy.

1.1.2. Skills shortage.

South African organisations are also facing a critical skills shortage. The National Manpower Commission estimates that over 40 000 vacancies exist in the professional, technical and managerial categories. (Cooper et al, in Schlemmer & Van Antwerpen 1989). The Stellenbosch University Unit for Future Research estimates that by the year 2000 there will be a need for 579 000 highly qualified or very senior managerial employees, but that no more than 389 000 will be available. (Spies, in Schlemmer & Van Antwerpen 1989).

According to Gaunt (Weekly Mail 13/7/1990), South Africa is facing a 40% shortage of engineers, scientists and people qualified to work in advanced information systems. He says that this, coupled with the fact that South Africa has one of the lowest manager to worker ratios in the world which currently stands at 1:42 compared with an average of 1:10 in developed economies, will make it difficult to maintain current standards, let alone achieve the economic growth which the country needs if a stable society is to exist in the new South Africa.

If one examines the current demographic trends in South Africa, one will see that unless there is a major influx of relevant skills from abroad these shortfalls will have to be rectified by advancing Blacks.

Appelbaum (1987), estimates that based on current trends, the supply of top management personnel and entrepreneurs between 1980 and 2000 would have grown by only 94 000; whilst demand will have increased by about 197 000. This means a shortage of 103 000 managers and entrepreneurs in less than ten years.

She states that with more than half of the white managers being over fifty five and the number of white matriculants declining, it is becoming increasingly necessary for organisations to address the issue of black management development. Furthermore she states that "it is clearly unacceptable that whites who make up only 15% of the population in this country should continue to hold 95% of the managerial positions" (page 1).

* * * *

Therefore black management development not only has very salient *societal function*, but will better equip South African companies to address their *human resources and skill needs* and function effectively in a changing political structure.

In other words the advancement of blacks into management "... is not an option it is a strategic must. Not only does it help create a more equalised society, but furthermore it ensures continuity of the free enterprise system. The road will not be an easy one, but after the pain will emerge the gains of productivity, stability and an increased contribution to wealth creation." (Nasser 1989).

Black management development is therefore, "... an investment which cannot be avoided if we are to achieve the stable society and economy in which business can operate and all stakeholders can prosper." (Rosholt Business Day 07/08/1990)

1.2. RELEVANT LITERATURE AND PREVIOUS SIGNIFICANT RESEARCH:

Despite considerable effort by South African organisations to achieve high levels of blacks in management positions, the results of these programmes have to date been disappointing. Wiehahn (quoted in Schlemmer and Van Antwerpen, 1989) points out that out of sixty thousand top management positions which exist in South Africa, only ten are occupied by Blacks.

Forrest (Weekly Mail 17/8/1990) notes, that by 1987, of the total number of managers in South Africa, which stood then at 220 000, 92% were white and only 2,3% were African. Amongst South Africa's 90 000 professionals, he points out that the breakdown was similar: 91% white and 3,8% African.

There are various explanations offered for this lack of success; these will be discussed below.

1.2.1. Culture.

A very popular hypothesis is that blacks' cultural values and attitudes result in their lacking the initiative, drive and work ethic necessary for success in the business environment.

This hypothesis is supported by Coldwell and Moerdyk (1982, in Erwee 1988), Mjoli (1987) and McWilliam-Smith (1981), amongst others. According to these theorists the chief difference between Western and African culture is that Africans believe that a person's destiny is determined by a series of immutable laws of the universe, which govern, *inter alia* his status and authority. Further, the above theorists maintain that the socialisation practices amongst Africans differ significantly from whites', which contribute to the cultural differences which exist between the groups.

They say that "while a white child is typically socialised into patterns of early independence, self-responsibility and competitive materialism (resulting in a strong need for achievement), the black child in Africa is generally reared into patterns of group awareness, shared responsibility and the need to preserve and foster communal bonds - especially family and tribal bonds" (Moerdyk and Coldwell 1982 page 190 in Erwee 1988).

This they maintain, leads to a *communalistic orientation*, where the person's identity becomes embedded in the group, and group loyalty becomes paramount. Godsell (in Barling 1986), in her study into differences in value systems between senior white and black employees noted that

blacks seem to place a higher value on sharing and being part of a community than do whites.

Coldwell and Moerdyk (1981 in Erwee 1988), note too that blacks' concept of time is different to that of whites as it is based on a fatalistic world view, in which events either are certain to take place, or have in fact taken place. This they maintain makes it difficult for blacks to grasp the concept of planning which is so central to effective management.

Coldwell and Moerdyk (1981, in Erwee 1988) thus "... postulate that the constant struggle between dissonant cultural paradigms has a deleterious effect on black managerial performance and is a major source of stress" (Coldwell and Moerdyk 1981 in Erwee 1988, page 13).

Erwee (1988) cautions that the above view is based on a particular theoretical viewpoint and has not been tested through empirical research, which of course raises certain doubts about its validity.

Research done by Nasser (1979) (1980), Tabane (1979), Lange (1984), Chalmers B.E. (1988) and often following McClelland (1961) supports this view and has attempted to show how by applying relevant training programmes, a need for achievement and initiative, drive and work ethic can be developed, thus equipping Blacks for successful careers in Management.

However, not much success has been achieved in this regard, as is borne out by the above figures published by Appelbaum (1989), Cooper et al (in Schlemmer and Van Antwerpen (1989), Gaunt (1990) as well as Forrest (1990); which call the hypothesis into question.

Moreover, Pottas (1986) who has constructed a reliable achievement motivation interview schedule, found that samples of black university students actually obtained higher scores on all dimensions of achievement motivation than did their white counterparts. (Erwee 1988)

Human (interview, October 1989) supports Pottas and points out that in fact the cultural hypothesis has been damaging to black management development, as it has led to blacks being labelled as fundamentally incompetent for business. This stereotyping, she says, exacerbates the problems associated with black management (marginality etc.). Thus, she believes that the cultural hypothesis, becomes self fulfilling prophesy.

(1988), Human and Hofmeyr (1985), Human (1990a, 1990b), Schlemmer (1986), maintain that the so called hypothesis, is based on the erroneous that culture is innate and static. Haas (1988) in fact says that "... people everywhere operate their lives through operating on different sets of norms and values which are appropriate to specific situations, to different spheres of their lives" (page 6).

In addition, Human (1990) postulates that the aspects of African culture which, according to the above cultural hypothesis make it difficult for blacks to function in the so-called western business world, are common to most rural communities - be they Asian, African or European. She says that the fact that whites have, in the past, successfully adapted from rural to urban environments, suggests that Africans should be able to as well: that is if all socio-political impediments to black economic advancement in South Africa no longer existed. These impediments will be elaborated on further in this chapter.

She says, "... it seems rather odd to suggest that people do not have the wherewithal to advance at the same time as all sorts of legislative and attitudinal restrictions block any advancement that they would care to make." (Human 1990a page 9). (It should be noted that the situation for blacks vis-à-vis legislation, has altered considerably since this article was written).

Human (1989) (1990a), maintains that in fact many of the trends, along which management theory is developing in Europe and the United States and has developed previously in the Far East, stress the importance of concepts central to black culture - humanity and compassion or *Ubuntu*. Therefore, rather than regarding African Culture as providing impediments to successful Black management developme there is a great deal which business can learn from it. Hence the crude theories of cultural determination may miss the points.

1.2.2. Education.

1.2.2.1. Poor quality of education.

It might also be argued that the deficiencies in the black educational system are a main cause of the failure of black management development. As Haas (1988) says, "... the appallingly bad educational system does not equip them (black South Africans) for the sorts of challenges of the contemporary work-place." (page 7).

Mohlamme (1991) mentions that one of the main objects of so-called Bantu Education was to institutionalise the Apartheid policy through black schools.

In the words of the late Dr Verwoerd, the architect of Apartheid, "when I have control over native education I will reform it so that natives will be taught from childhood, that equality with Europeans is not for them" (in Mohlamme 1991, page 13).

Human and Human (1987) state that with the decline in importance of social origins, as a direct distributor of life chances (whether it be through nepotism or inheritance), there has been a simultaneous increase in its indirect influence via the educational system. In other words, education has come to play an increasing role as a distributor of life chances and transmitter of status from father to son, as it were.

According to Hofmeyr (1987), in that year the amount of money spent by the state on a white pupil's education, was six times the amount that was being spent on a black pupil's education. Further he points out that whereas in white schools the average teacher to pupil ratio was 1:25, the ratio in a black school was more likely to be 1:50. This problem is exacerbated by the fact that at that stage (and there is little reason to believe that this situation has improved), 70% of the teaching corps in black schools was underqualified.

* * * *

1.2.2.2.

Politics and education.

This problem has been exacerbated by the politicising of black education which has occurred in South Africa over the past fifteen years.

The situation was summed up in an editorial in Business Day of 9 January 1990. "The children who have been sacrificed will, except for rare people of unusual strength of character, go through life ignorant and untrained, fit only to be drawers of water and hewers of wood. A disclosure that in Soweto, nearly one third of the funds available for building schools must be spent on repairing vandalism inflicted by the pupils, sums up the problem. Nothing Verwoerd ever did, condemned a generation of black children to the lower rungs of society as the politicisation of schooling in the seventies and the eighties."

* * * *

It is, therefore, small wonder that in general the products of the black school system have serious communication difficulties, linguistically and socially; lack the independence ability to carry out task to a successful conclusion; and suffer from serious gaps in their knowledge. Hofmeyr (1987) believes that the result of all this is that the typical product of the black educational system is ill equipped to face the challenges and threats of the modern, technologically sophisticated and dynamic business environment - let alone assume a managerial position within it.

Furthermore, one of the results of the low black educational standard is a poor command of the English language which in turn might seriously limit a Black manager's potential for advancement.

1.2.3. Lack of inclusion of black management development into strategic focus of organisation

Charoux (1986, 1990), Hofmeyr (1986) Huss (1986), Human and Hofmeyr (1985), Human (1989, 1990a, 1990b) and Human and Human (1988) point to the following as key causes of problems in Black Management Development: lack of strategic planning for Black Management Development in firms, the lack of firm commitments and leadership from senior line management, inappropriate personnel used as mentors and coaches for black trainees and resistance of white managers.

There might in fact be some validity in the latter arguments. These factors are by their very nature variable, however and one would expect that there would be certain exceptions to prove the rule as it were. After all, many blacks have had the privilege of a so-called white university education and many companies have spent a great deal of money, time and expertise taking heed the recommendations as put forward by the abovementioned authors.

* * * *

However, the black products of the white educational system and sophisticated management development programmes are not sufficiently represented in the management strata of South African organisations to suggest that the problem will be solved by correcting the problems posited by the abovementioned theorists.

1.2.4. Expectancy Theory.

If one examines the direct experience which black Managers have of so-called white organisations, however, one can begin to see that the lack of success of black management in South Africa may in fact be attributable to *motivational issues* but of a particular type not necessarily addressed in previous research.

According to Expectancy Theory (Lawler and Porter 1967; Lawler 1969), motivation and effort are functions of effective links between effort performance and the probability of rewards which are valued.

To expand, it maintains that the following three elements have to be present in order for motivation to occur:

- i. Self-confidence (*effort-performance probability*): a belief that one is able to perform at a desired level. This in turn implies a positive self-concept and a belief that one is in control of one's life and one's future - what Rotter (1966, in Human and Hofmeyr 1985) refer to as *internal locus of control*.
- ii. Trust (*performance-reward probability*): a belief that behaviour will lead to specific outcomes, e.g. a perception of the likelihood that one's achievements will be recognised.
- iii. Value (*valence*): a belief that these outcomes will have positive value for oneself.

It is important to realise that we are talking about *perceived probability* or *subjective expectancy*, not

about actual probabilities. Hence, if an individual feels either that the situational factors affecting his performance are beyond his control, or because he believes that he lacks the necessary ability to perform the job well enough to deserve a reward; he is in effect saying, "no matter how much effort I put into the job I will not be successful." This is a reflection of a negative **effort-performance probability** or low **self-confidence**. (Lawler 1969)

Likewise, if an individual believes that a particular reward, for example promotion, is dependent upon belonging to a particular race group, or on his level of seniority, rather than on his work performance despite what the reality of the situation may be, he is saying, "no matter how well I do I will not receive the reward I deserve." This attitude reflects a negative **performance-reward probability**, or low **trust**. **Valence** too is essentially subjective, in that it is defined as the attractiveness of the possible rewards or outcomes to the individual.

Following Maslow (1954, in Barling 1983) Lawler and Porter (1967) believe rewards will be of value to the extent that they will provide satisfaction of individuals' needs.

Lawler (1969), maintains one should distinguish between **externally mediated rewards**, and **internally mediated rewards**. The former are usually material and satisfy what Maslow (1943) calls **lower order needs**, or what Herzberg (1968) terms **hygiene factors**. The latter however are intrinsic to the individual and satisfy what Maslow (1943) terms **higher order needs** and Herzberg (1968) refers to as **motivators**; such as needs for self-actualisation and self-worth.

He says that because they stem directly from performance itself, the reception of such rewards are seen to be connected with performance, in a far closer way than is the case with externally mediated rewards. They can, therefore, be excellent motivators due to the high performance reward probabilities which are established. Lawler (1969), believes that they also have the advantage that for many people rewards of this nature have a positive value.

Therefore one can see that the individual's feelings of accomplishment, achievement, self-worth and self-esteem are critical antecedents for motivation in a number of ways. Firstly, the belief in one's own ability (positive self-esteem), is crucial for the establishment of a positive effort-performance probability; what Vroom (1964) refers to as expectancy. Secondly, due to the fact that they serve as intrinsic rewards, ones through which the individual is able to reward himself; the connection between performance and reward is direct, thus helping to establish high performance-reward probability; what Vroom (1964) calls instrumentality. Thirdly, much of the work done by Maslow (1943, 1954, in Sarling 1983), Herzberg (1966, 1968) and Lawler (1969) focuses on the fact that these so-called higher order needs have high value for the individual.

Herzberg (1968) in fact states that whilst the absence of what he terms hygiene factors ie: those factors which satisfy what Maslow (1943) terms lower order or basic needs, may cause the worker to feel unhappy, their presence will not make him work harder. He states that the only way to make him work harder is to provide him with what he terms motivators, which are derived from work which allows him to trust his own competence and feel a sense of self-worth.

"In summary, then, it has been argued that the amount of effort that will be expended is a function of the sum of reward value multiplied by the perceived probability that effort leads to reward which comprises i. the effort-performance probability ii. performance-reward probability, where all rewards relevant to the list of needs suggested by Maslow (1954) are considered" (Lawler and Porter 1967 page 261).

1.2.4.1. Critical antecedents of performance.

In analysing motivational issues it is important to note that effort is not synonymous with performance. According to Lawler and Porter (1967) as well as Katz (1964), two other variables, ie; abilities and role perception, combine multiplicatively with effort in determining performance. (see appendix 3).

However, whereas they maintain that abilities are relatively independent of environmental circumstances, *role perceptions* are situationally defined, are therefore more dynamic in character and consequently more relevant to this study.

An individual's role perception determines the direction towards which his effort is to be applied, with the degree of accuracy of role perception determining the proportion of effort that is relevant to task achievement. (Lawler and Porter 1967, page 263).

According to Human and Hofmeyr (1985), Lee and Piper (1989), as well as Schlemmer (1986), the process

through which an individual develops an understanding of the role which he is expected to perform in an organisation is almost entirely informal.

The acquisition of the "... unconscious or semi-conscious armoury of precedents and gambles," (Schlemmer 1986), necessary for the individual to develop an understanding of his role, is largely dependent upon the degree of social intimacy which the individual experiences with his superior.

This is because, according to Lawler and Porter (1967), the accuracy of an individual's role perception is, *inter alia*, determined by the degree with which that individuals' understanding of his role corresponds with the views of those who will be evaluating his performance. (In most cases this would refer to his superior).

* * * *

Thus according to expectancy theory, effective job performance is dependent upon attitudes rather than on innate cultural factors. These attitudes are essentially subjective and situationally defined.

1.2.4.2. Expectancy theory and black management development

The remainder of this chapter will focus on how the abovementioned antecedents to effective job performance, as far as black South African managers are concerned are likely to be negatively affected by factors which exist in both the wider socio-political environment, as well as that of the

organisation. From now on, such factors will be referred to as *situational variables*.

As a result of the South African socio-political environment, the experience which shapes black managers differs markedly from those of white managers. According to Human & Hofmeyr (1985) and Schlemmer (1986) this negatively influences the extent to which black managers can adjust to, and perform comfortably in, the so-called white business world. As Prof. Linda Human (interview October 1989) puts it, "Because of their socio-economic political situation, and to a far lesser extent because of their culture, they remain marginal to the white business world".

**1.2.4.2.1. Effort-performance probability
 (self-confidence)**

As mentioned above, Lawler and Porter (1967) and Orpen (1976), stress that an important antecedent of a positive effort-performance probability, is **self-confidence**. They say that the individual's belief that he is able to perform a particular job is a vital precondition for successful task performance. Bradshaw (1981) maintains that the development of self-confidence requires amongst other things, a clear sense of being valued and accepted by others. As a consequence of their *marginal status*, black managers do not receive the kind of feedback which provides reassurance. Therefore, "their social marginality makes it difficult for them to develop that sense of self-worth that is a precondition for proper motivation". Schlemmer (1986 page 99).

As regards the likely affects of the socio-political environment on the self-esteem of South African black

managers, Horowitz (1985) observes that the individual's self-esteem in divided societies such as South Africa, is determined largely by the esteem accorded to his ethnic group in that society. In South Africa the esteem accorded to blacks is generally low. This assertion is corroborated by Lacayo (1989), in reference to the low self-esteem which exists amongst black Americans. He says "oddly the stereotype of the less qualified black is sometimes shared by blacks. The feeling is summed up in a wry phrase: 'the white man's ice is colder'" (page 34). Lacayo (1989) goes on to say, "if a black man is passed over for promotion, he may conclude, rightly or wrongly, that race held him back" (page 32).

In the words of a well known black South African executive Don Ncube (Business Day 25/02/1991), "the physical barriers which impede their (black managers') success are crumbling rapidly or tottering on the brink of collapse. However, there are some psychological barriers which remain entrenched due to the heritage of race discrimination. What is perhaps more frustrating and devastating is the feeling that as victims of the Apartheid legacy, they will never become competent and successful managers." He goes on to say, "there is a chronic lack of confidence and a debilitating feeling of helplessness which perpetuates the vicious syndrome of dependency and powerlessness."

According to Schlemmer (1990), "one cannot see opportunities if one feels like a victim. As a victim all one experiences is that of unfulfilled need. It

is a growth toward a sense of need, away from a sense of opportunity and capacity to do things" (page 81). Stamp (1991) notes that when a person perceives the external factors which surround him as controllable and feels at home in his environment "... inner resources are an exciting albeit unpredictable source of energy and creativity. But when the person is overwhelmed by external challenges (ie: feels like a victim), unpredictability becomes a persecution, energy dries up or becomes manic, and creativity is lost" (page 21).

Human and Hofmeyr (1985), conducted interviews with a cross section of white and black interviewees and found that a lack of self-confidence amongst black managers was noted by both white and black interviewees. Besides the issue of marginality, one of the black interviewees mentioned that the prolonged deprivation which blacks have experienced in South Africa has created a subculture of its own -

"blacks are constantly told that they are incompetent and they begin to believe it; they have feelings of being incapable. "This is complicated by prolonged affluence on the part of whites which leads to a subculture of feelings of superiority" (Human and Hofmeyr, 1985 page 115).

As mentioned above, this problem is not unique to South African blacks. In analysing the plight of the so-called black American underclass, Shelby Steele (1990) states that "you cannot be raised in a culture that was for centuries committed to the notion of your inferiority and not have some doubt in this regard - doubt that is likely to be aggravated most in

integrated situations" (page 25). The South African organisational environment clearly represents such an integrated situation.

Thus, the fact that so many factors in a black South African's life were prescribed by discriminatory laws may, according to Human and Hofmeyr (1985), have lead to a situation where black South Africans come to doubt that their efforts will be closely associated with performance. They say that this is due to a conviction which arises that situational factors on which their performance depends are beyond their own control - *external locus of control*. (Rotter 1966, in Human and Hofmeyr 1985). It would seem that demands of a managerial role would conflict with such an attitude, due to the fact that a manager is required to make decisions which require *inter alia* a belief in his own ability to affect changes in his environment (London 1985, Lee and Piper 1987, Schein 1981).

On the basis of the above, it seems most likely that black South Africans will lack the self-confidence necessary for them to be successful managers.

This is because not only does self-esteem form an integral part in determining the amount of effort the individual will be willing to expend in a work situation, but it would also seem that the job of a manager requires a an *internal locus of control*, or what London (1985), terms *career resilience*, for which positive self esteem is a prerequisite.

1.2.4.2.2.

performance-reward probability (trust)

According to Schlemmer (1986) even if black managers can develop self-confidence and believe that their efforts are likely to produce the necessary performance, a negative expectancy that they will not be rewarded on the basis of this performance, but instead on some other basis (low trust) will still impede their motivation to perform.

As mentioned above, one of the principles upon which Expectancy Theory is based is that effective motivation will result when the reward system recognises and caters for individual differences. Charoux (1985,1990) Human and Hofmeyr (1985) as well as Schlemmer (1986) have noted that one of the effects of Apartheid has been that white managers rely on stereotypes (which in the past were reinforced by government propaganda as well as the media), on which to judge and reward their black employee. This means that essential differences between individuals are often ignored.

Human and Hofmeyr (1985) also note that as a result of past discrimination black South Africans have often been denied the rewards which are usually associated with good performance.

For example, in the past job reservation laws prevented companies from promoting blacks to senior position as reward for good performance, thus exacerbating doubts in the minds of black employees as to whether performance would lead to reward. Although

such laws have now been scrapped, according to various authors (Charoux 1990 and Human 1990), as a result of caution, prejudice and stereotyped perceptions such promotions are often still denied blacks. This problem should not be overstated, however, as many companies are now spending considerable amounts of time and money on the development of black managers.

This situation is not, however, unique to the South African blacks. In fact Edward Wood, a Vice President of a large bank based in Atlanta Georgia, who is himself black, recently commented on the low performance-reward probability amongst black Americans. He said "slavery did one helluva (sic) job confusing people about our (referring to blacks') own worth. It's a psychological thing. I can't see that in my generation you will be respected for performance" (Business Day 5/4/1991). Stanley Grayson, New York City's deputy mayor for finance and economic development, recently reflecting on his own position as a black operating in within a white establishment, stated "... that no matter what I accomplish as an individual, I will always be judged by what people see first, ie: my colour" (in Lacayo 1989, page13).

This, together with the writings of Shelby Steele (1990), has serious implications for the problems of black South African managers; by showing that the effects of oppression live on in the mind of the individual, long after that oppression has been officially lifted.

Speaking of the changes brought about by American

civil rights legislation, Steele (1990) says, "... though it delivered greater freedom it did not deliver the skills and attitudes required to thrive in freedom" (page 68). "In this one begins to realise that high-key politics alone cannot remake a society. It can remake the appearance of a society for a while only. If social behaviour underlying political action has not changed, old patterns will reappear. "(Schlemmer 1990, page 77)

1.2.4.2.3.

Valence

According to expectancy theory, the third element of motivation is valence. As stated earlier in this chapter, Lawler and Porter (1967) maintain that individual needs largely determine which rewards will have value for an employee.

Nadler and Lawler (1977, in Human and Hofmeyr 1985), say that "because different people have different needs and therefore different valences, effective motivation must come through a recognition that not all employees are alike, and that organisations need to be flexible in order to accommodate individual differences." (page 120).

As mentioned above and on the basis of research conducted by Human and Hofmeyr (1987) it is suggested that in general, the white management establishment in South Africa judge blacks according to stereotyped views. They imply that white management regarded all blacks, no matter what their background, as having similar needs.

The so-called *cultural hypothesis* has served to support these assumptions by postulating that as a result of their cultural heritage blacks have a lower need for individual achievement and a higher social need (or needs) for affiliation, than do whites.

Vorster (1970, in Human and Hofmeyr 1985) maintains that it is not realistic to assume that there are certain aspirations or motives which apply specifically to black as opposed to whites. The findings of his research showed that with increased urbanisation and as he moves up the organisational hierarchy, his needs and aspirations come to closely resemble his white counterparts'. This is supported by the findings of research conducted by Natrass (1973, in Human and Hofmeyr 1985), which show a strong positive relationship between levels of need and levels of education and the degree of urbanisation. Further, even if blacks do have a higher need for affiliation and a lower need for individual achievement than do whites, there is as much reason to assume that this is connected with their *marginal position*, as with their culture (as discussed above).

In addition to the above, Kane-Berman (1990) and Schlemmer (1986) postulate, that the prevailing *ethos* in contemporary South African black urban society, has a negative effect on the motivation and performance of black managers. According to expectancy theory, positive motivation implies that the person perceives value for himself in the rewards that the organisation is able to provide for his contribution. One of the most salient rewards of

managerial status is the ability to translate work-place seniority, into an upper middle class lifestyle and status; particularly in the residential setting.

The environment of the township inhibits this conversion, having therefore, obvious negative implications for the black manager's commitment to his work-role, and his motivation to perform.

In the words of the late Sam Mabe (1988), former assistant editor of the Sowetan Newspaper, "the trouble with us black South Africans is that we have come to associate swimming pools, beautiful homes, good education, high salaries, and managerial positions as the white man's property. We have been forced to live in matchbox houses. Now we seem to have accepted them and we somehow prescribe them as the standard housing for blacks. We view anybody who aspires to something better as part of the system. This is utter rubbish. If we are happy to live in matchbox houses, what is our struggle all about?" (Sowetan 25/10/1988, in Kane-Berman 1990 page 45)

1.2.4.2.4. Role perception and the perception of key organisational processes.

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, motivation is not synonymous with performance. In fact according to Lawler and Porter (1967), for a motivated employee to perform effectively, he must understand and be committed to his work-role.

1.2.4.2.5. Politics and its effects on role perception.

According to Schlemmer (1986), it is necessary for an individual to identify with the managerial establishment in order to develop a clear perception of, and commitment to his, managerial work role.

Parsons (1977, in Schlemmer 1986) maintains that in a normal society community life and family should, through various subtle informal processes, provide opportunities for the re-affirmation of commitments to occupational roles.

However, in the majority of South African organisations, an *us and them* sentiment exists between management and workers, almost always coinciding with a black and white division. Giliomee (Star 20/5/1991) says, "South Africa unlike any other country which has made the transition, is divided first of all by race, ethnic group or community, not by class or income group. " Hence, "... a black businessman or teacher is more likely to side with blacks than with business or teachers." It follows, therefore, that blacks find it more difficult than whites to identify easily with the white managerial establishment.

Furthermore, Kane-Berman (1990), refers to the existence of what he terms a " ... curious phenomenon in South Africa, the inability or unwillingness of many people who oppose apartheid to recognise black achievers. Indeed, it sometimes seems as if new ceiling have been placed on black advancement to

replace job reservation. Blacks who succeed in business or are appointed to managerial jobs are frequently labelled as sellouts, collaborators, co-optees, pseudo-whites and so on. The implication is that blacks must neither seek or accept advancement, and that remaining true to blackness remaining a member of the proletariat forever." (page 43)

As Gordon Sibaya, South Africa's only black nuclear physicist, who ran a highly successful science tuition service for black matriculants, said regarding his decision to emigrate: "when black activists start destabilising the best efforts of their own people, then it's the last straw" (Business Day 19/11/1990).

1.2.4.2.5.1. Marginality and its effects on role perception.

Apart from the above, Charoux (1985) Human and Hofmeyr (1985) and Schlemmer (1986) maintain that black South Africans are at a further disadvantage as far as the development of a clear understanding of what the role of a manager should be in an organisation.

As mentioned above, managerial skills cannot be taught. Instead, they are acquired via an informal and subtle process of observation and communication in workplace-setting; which in turn depend upon close and informal contact with those already established in the organisation.

Through such interaction the individual should begin to perceive the subtle rules and processes which make up the organisational culture.

According to Schlemmer (1986), blacks in South African organisations are critically disadvantaged in this respect. He says they simply do not have sufficient informal social contact with the white organisational establishment, to have gained such knowledge.

He says they will thus be denied "... the critical resource that a white managerial recruit enjoys, of friendly, informal and often unwitting support from peers who have already mastered the codes of the organisation" (page 101). Further, due to the fringe positions they occupy in so-called white organisations black managers may have been denied "... exposure to white informal networks, and may feel ill-at ease with the subtle political interplays between the various interest groups within the organisation" (page 21).

Human and Hofmeyr (1985) point out that whereas the official company policy, as laid down by the top management, may be one of equal opportunity and non-discrimination, the black manager may still confront discrimination on a more subtle level in the organisation. Lacayo (1989), writing about the experience of black managers in American organisations, (which as discussed above, is in many ways analogous to black managers' experience in South African organisations), stated that "... for blacks the work-place can be a psychological minefield, seeded with racially fraught encounters that mostly whites never notice". He believes the problem is compounded by the fact that middle-class blacks are relatively isolated at work, typically finding themselves greatly outnumbered by white co-workers" (page 32).

Even if he has been able to attain a degree of equality with his white colleagues in the work environment, "... at the end of the working day when he leaves the office, the black manager once again becomes a black man in a society which rejects him on a public and political level." (Human and Hofmeyr 1985, page 20). Further, many black managers hold impressive titles and earn high salaries but their jobs are not properly defined and they have little real power.

All of this contributes to what Human and Hofmeyr (1985) term *marginality*. This is a term coined to describe those inconsistencies and ambiguities which confront the black manager in South African organisations, which result in i. his lacking self-confidence and, ii. his being confused regarding the role he is expected to perform, both within the organisation for which he works and as far as the society as whole, is concerned.

Stamp (1991) ascribes this phenomenon to what she terms a *glass ceiling*. She says that black managers are effectively restricted from advancing beyond a certain level in the organisation, because they do not share the values which are dominant in that organisation. This is due to the fact that "in any organisation, it is the members of the dominant group who define its values and mission and place in the local and international setting" (page 21).

She says that only when an individual's personal value system is congruent with that of the organisation, is he able to function effectively as a manager. When

this congruence is lacking however, the person suffers from anxiety which in turn diminishes his performance. The stress felt by the black manager is exacerbated by the fact that it is not understood by members of the dominant group. Very often the black manager's behaviour will be interpreted by the organisational establishment as belligerence, passivity or sabotage.

The findings of a study conducted by Human and Human (1987) into the composition of the South African business establishment, suggest "... that the élite is structured and that it organises, however subconsciously, its own perpetuation" (page 73). They conclude that this self-perpetuation is spurred by the fact that nepotism and group loyalty continue to be more important to the members of the élite, albeit subconsciously, than economic and sociological principles when it comes to recruiting new members to their ranks.

"All this does not auger well for the process of black mobility into the higher scallions of business." Moreover, "... the biographical profile of the business élite almost belies the possibility of blacks entering that élite with anything like a critical mass. [which is necessary for this situation to begin to change] (Human and Human 1987, page 73)

"In view of this unenviable position, there is small wonder that some black managers underperform; that they lack assertiveness; that they display tendencies towards affiliation; that they are tense and often dissatisfied." (Human and Hofmeyr 1985, page 22).

1.2.4.2.6. The position of black Zimbabwean managers.

According to the above arguments, the plight of the black manager is to be understood in terms of the direct and indirect effects which the socio-political environment has on his motivation and performance. On the basis of this logic, it would follow that black managers in Zimbabwe, who supposedly operate in an environment of social and political freedom should not, as a group, suffer from the problems discussed above. The situation of the black Zimbabwean manager is, however, far more complex than it seems to be on the surface. According to Murphree (1986), Nkomo (1990), Pasipanadya (Bulawayo Chronical 9/7/1989), Robertson (1990) and Strachan (1990), it seems that whilst the black Zimbabwean manager is in a less invidious position than his black South African counterpart, he still faces many problems in performing his role.

He maintains, that while overt discrimination is a thing of the past in Zimbabwe, black managers continue to be marginal in private companies.

This marginality means that like their South African counterparts, these managers are denied access to the informal system of rules and procedures, which according to Lee and Piper (1989) as well as Schlemmer (1986) are so vital to the manager developing a clear understanding of his role in the organisation, (The reasons for this are discussed above).

Murphree (1986) says that, on the whole, white Zimbabweans have adapted successfully to non-racialism, especially as far as social conduct is concerned. He says that by being forced to interact with blacks on the basis of equal status, whites are becoming less stereotypic and more individualistic in their evaluation of blacks. However, in the sphere of what he terms occupational placement, white Zimbabweans have generally been more resistant. He believes that whilst people adapt their modes of behaviour to suit what they perceive to be socially appropriate norms, attitudes are more resistant to change. He goes on to say that, "... attendance at private functions in many white homes will give the impression that racism is alive and well." "However a stroll through public functions in Harare gives the impression that integration is proceeding smoothly and harmoniously" (page 28).

As long as such attitudes continue to exist amongst white Zimbabweans, and as long as blacks remain a minority in the higher management echelons, (Strachan 1990) black managers will in all likelihood continue to be marginal to the organisation and thus lack access to those informal processes through which their white counterparts are able to gain clarity on what is expected from them as managers in their organisation.

Several other factors have contributed to the marginality of black managers in Zimbabwean organisations. These are as follows:

- Zimbabwean independence posed the challenge to the private sector of having to deal with a

predominantly *black* bureaucracy; an institution which they neither knew nor understood. According to Pasipandya (Bulawayo Chronical 9/7/1989), they responded to this challenge by appointing blacks to those positions of management which entailed close liaison with state departments. Instead of being judged on their competence, therefore, black managers were almost always assessed on how well they projected their companies' image to government, which is in effect a form of window dressing. Hence, according Pasipandya (1989), white Zimbabwean managers never came to trust the capabilities of the black managers; they were regarded as conduits of communication with government *first*, and managers *second*. In fact in 1986 the Minister of Manpower in Zimbabwe, (Zimbabwe Herald 5/2/1986) stated that *black* advancement was becoming increasingly cosmetic and meaningless.

- The black manager's *marginal position* was further complicated by the apparent contradiction of promoting black managerial advancement in the private sector, with the government's stated objectives of socialism (Strachan 1990).
- This is further complicated by the antagonism of other blacks in the work-place towards black managers, whom the former see as having betrayed them by joining the so-called oppressors; whereas many of them may have in fact been seen by their communities to have the potential to represent the interests of the working class to

management. However, they are in fact seen by the communities in which they live to be élitist. As Pasipandya (1989) says, "It's a classic "et tu Brute" scenario where the fatal knife thrusts are inflicted by those who one holds in trust and faith".

Pasipandya (1989) also notes that less competent black managers who were appointed to their positions for cosmetic reasons may resist the upward mobility of superior managers who are more qualified than themselves; who they perceive as threats to their positions of privilege.

Thus one can conclude, that despite the fact that blacks enjoy full economic and political rights in Zimbabwe, there is much evidence to suggest that black managers remain marginal to Zimbabwean organisations. This in turn, has clear implications as regards the precision with which the average black Zimbabwean managers understands his role.

Further, taking into account the above discussion on the effects of marginality, in all likelihood the self-confidence of black managers is also likely to be negatively affected by their marginal status. In spite of this, given the fact that according to Murphree (1987), in almost all aspects of Zimbabwean social and political life, means positions of power are occupied by blacks; with social norms being non-racial, this lack of self-confidence on the part of Zimbabwean black managers, is likely to be far less pervasive than is the case with their South African counterparts. (Murphree 1986)

Murphree (1986) in fact points out that "as formal non-racialism increasingly finds substantive implementation in the structures of Zimbabwean society,... and as black and white find common interest in these concerns, race will increasingly lose its salience since it is no longer co-terminous with these concerns" (page 28).

He therefore predicts that in time, race will cease to be an issue in the organisational environment thus helping to eliminate the problem of marginality.

* * * *

One can therefore conclude that in order to fully understand the problems associated with black management development, one must have an appreciation for: i. the various situational factors which exist in the black managers' environment, and ii. the way in which these factors impinge on these managers' motivation and performance.

Thus far, results from the literature would suggest that the bearing which these situational factors have upon the motivation and performance of black managers can be best understood in terms of Expectancy Theory. The following section will describe the propositions of this study, which have been based on the Expectancy Theory.

1.3. **PROPOSITION**

The black manager in South African organisations therefore finds himself in the invidious position in which:

- i. he may not feel confident that he will be able to perform to the required level or successfully meet the challenges posed by his environment;
- ii. he possibly cannot anticipate responses to his efforts, that is, his trust in the organisation suffers;
- iii. he may have doubts about whether potential rewards or outcomes will have positive value for himself or be sufficiently reliable to sustain his motivations;
- iv. because of a social distance between himself and his white peers, he may lack an understanding of his work-role and key organisational processes, such as the advancement process and, therefore, be at a disadvantage as far as his capacity to direct his efforts towards what the organisation defines as successful performance, is concerned.

It is therefore proposed that a lack of specific elements in the motivation/performance process could be the main reasons why black management development has met with such limited success in South Africa.

The black South African finds himself in a situation of competitive disadvantage, which is multiply determined.

A question then arises of how readily social policy changes will affect the plight of black South African

managers. A good test is the case of black Zimbabwean managers. One must assume that prior to independence, the black Zimbabwean managers, like the present day black South African managers, suffered from multiple disadvantages.

If the thesis holds that a transformation of national policy (which affects both society and organisations) can change this; the situation of the black Zimbabweans, as reflected in their responses to the research, should approximate that of the white South Africans, (or white Zimbabweans, had been included in the study)

If, however, certain effects of the disadvantages which black Zimbabweans faced are more pervasive, persistent and self-reinforcing one must expect some changes to have occurred but others not. Should this be the case, one would expect that in certain respects the black Zimbabweans' responses would resemble those of the black South Africans; whilst in others they would be more like those of the white South Africans.

The black Zimbabweans are, therefore, a suitable test case for effective recovery of the situation, once the problems have been identified. For that reason they were a suitable group for analysis, in the light of the conclusions to be drawn.

* * * *

On the basis of the outcome(s) of this research, it is proposed that various salient questions be formulated as to the key determinants of successful black management development. These will then be tackled in an in depth manner, at a later stage.

1.4. EXPECTED CONTRIBUTION OF THIS STUDY:

Black management development has an important role to play in establishing shared occupational and career interests between Black and White in the private sector. This will, in turn, reduce inequalities between the races and establish common interests between groups, which is an essential part of nation building and for creating a positive climate for growth and development.

However, it not only has very salient societal functions, but should better equip South African organisations to effectively address their human resource and skill needs effectively, as the country moves into a post apartheid structure.

By formulating research questions into the key determinants for the black management development process in South African organisations, it is hoped that this exploratory research will be able to make a contribution to finding a solution to the problem of black management development - one of the most vital challenges which is faced by businesses in South Africa today.

CHAPTER TWO

2.1. INTRODUCTION

The discussion in the previous chapter suggests that the problem is broadly understood. The critical question, however, is whether it is understood with sufficient precision and depth to allow strategies which will effectively address the problems to be formulated. For this reason I would argue that the topic requires further investigation, along the following lines.

The issues examined in this research were both highly complex and sensitive. The methodology employed was designed to cater for this, by using various indirect methods for obtaining in depth responses. These techniques, as well as those used to analyse the data, will be described below; together with the specific rationale for using them.

2.1.1. DATA GATHERING

It was decided to use triangulation (Jick 1979) i.e. more than one technique, so as to be able to examine motivational issues from different angles; thus providing greater quality of information from which the relevant research questions could then be formulated.

The techniques employed were the following: 2.1.1.1. a projective exercise and, 2.1.1.2. a structured interview schedule, with both open questions and fixed answer alternatives questions. (Closed questions.)

The exercises were applied during a face to face interview, each lasting approximately one hour. Such a technique was felt to be appropriate to the complexity of the issues being investigated and the consequent necessities for i. probing, and, ii. observations of non-verbal communication.

The interview was conducted in the following order:

- i. The projective exercise.
- ii. The interview schedule.

The interviews were conducted either by the researcher himself or a trained research assistant. The latter was employed by the Centre for Policy Studies (attached to the University of the Witwatersrand Graduate School of Business Administration), who agreed that she should assist the researcher for the data gathering phase of this study.

The research assistant, who was already an experienced and skilled interviewer, was, however, trained by the researcher as regards the specifics of this research. She was, for example, trained in giving instructions on how to respond, on how and when to probe, as well as how to pose sensitive questions in a non-threatening

In order to maximise reliability, standard introductions and instructions were also used throughout the interview. These were provisionally formulated, (see Appendix 1.1), and refined during the pilot testing process.

2.1.1.1. PROJECTIVE EXERCISE:

2.1.1.1.1. Reasons for using projective exercise:

The projective exercise was designed as an indirect means of assessing the respondents attitudes and feelings on a variety of issues.

It is important to note that the instrument was not designed to measure any particular psychological construct(s), or to focus on the idiosyncrasies of individuals. Its purpose was rather to provide an open ended stimulus, through which respondents could describe their experiences of the organisations in which they are employed, in as indirect manner as possible.

At no stage were the responses clinically interpreted. Instead the content analysis was used to scan the responses in order to determine whether or not shared perceptions, attitudes, meanings, beliefs, frustrations, rewards and patterns of identification were evident, within the responses obtained from each sub-sample.

Therefore, this instrument has not been validated in conventional psychometric terms, as it was designed merely to serve as a novel and creative means of eliciting the necessary responses from respondents, which were then analysed in terms of group rather than individual trends.

In a psychometric test a high level of reliability, usually eighty five percent or more, is required because individual scores have important consequences. In scores or ratings for categories of people, self-cancelling deviations tend to reduce the effects of test reliability.

Therefore, it must be emphasized that the black Zimbabwean managers were not included as *second control group* in a study of management development issues amongst black South African managers. Instead, their incorporation into this study, must be seen as being essential for the strategic analysis of the effects which socio-political empowerment of blacks is likely to have on black management development. (For a further expansion on this point see the propositions in the previous chapter, point 1.3.)

Further, it is important to note that this research is exploratory. Its outcome(s) will therefore lead to the formulation of *research questions* as to the key determinants of successful performance in Management, and not to any answers or conclusions.

2.5. ANALYSIS OF DATA

2.5.1. Content Analysis

2.5.1.1. Analysis of data emanating from the projective exercise.

The projective exercise was analysed by a process of content analysis. This process involved a number of steps, each of which will be discussed below.

2.5.1.1.1. Formulation of a coding structure

Step One :

Formulating Categories of Themes

- The first step of this process entailed reading through each response and making a

However, great stress was placed on controlling conditions under which this technique was applied, so as to ensure maximum reliability.

According to Kidder and Campbell (1969), projective techniques provide an effective means of indirectly examining social attitudes, whilst avoiding what they call "the barriers of conscious censorship." (Page 337)

They say "phenomenologically he (meaning the respondent) is describing the external, objective world, although in so doing he is inevitably reflecting his idiosyncratic view of that world, and can be unselfconsciously projecting in an important meaning of that word." "It does not occur to him that he is projecting instead of his view of the world, his hopes and fears, his prejudice and beliefs" (Page 337), thus giving an added advantage of providing the opportunity for "... noting novel attitude dimensions unanticipated by the author" (Kidder and Campbell 1969 page 343).

Kidder and Campbell (1969) go on to say that in order for a projective instrument to succeed, the respondent must feel relaxed and non-threatened. Great pains were taken to ensure that the respondents were at ease during the interview. This was done by giving warm and positive feedback, where appropriate.

2.1.1.1.2. Development of the instrument

The projective instrument was developed by the researcher and Professor Lawrence Schlemmer,

the supervisor of this project. It was based on i. The Four Picture test and, ii. on a similar instrument devised by Professor Schlemmer, for purposes of his own research. (Unfortunately his original material was destroyed in a fire).

During and after the piloting phase of this project, the instrument was refined and adapted a number of times until the present format was reached (see appendix 2).

It was decided that the *projective exercise* form the first part of the interview. It was felt that being asked to complete a task involving pictures would seem less demanding to the respondents, than the answering of questions requiring rational and logical answers. Thus putting the respondent at ease right at the beginning of the interview.

2.1.1.1.3. Content of the Instrument

The *projective exercise* comprises a series of five pictures which are ambiguous in nature, so as to have allowed each respondent to project his view of the world: his hopes, fears, prejudices and anxieties; whilst interpreting what he sees in the picture. In each picture there was a person (referred to below as the *focal figure*), whose racial identity is ambiguous and with whom the respondent is most likely to have identified with because of the prominence of the figure.

The pictures, each one of which was contained on a separate card, were as follows: (see Appendix 2.)

- i. A scene in a parking garage which is filled with high status Motor Cars. The *focal figure* is depicted walking through this garage.
- ii. A company social function, with a crowd of people, situated in a way which suggests social interaction. The *focal figure* is standing on the fringes of this crowd, near the door.
- iii. A scene depicting two figures, one of which being the *focal figure*, engaged in a conversation. The nature of the conversation could be either animated, acrimonious or possibly enthusiastic.
- iv. The *focal figure* is depicted walking towards a manager's office. The door of the office is open and the manager is shown sitting at his desk.
- v. A bedroom scene, full of shadows with a bed and a bookcase. The *focal figure* is depicted standing looking out a window.

All these pictures were designed to yield information regarding the respondent's self image, self-confidence, locus of control, attitudes towards the Organisation; its people, the rewards it offers, its rules, its value and its culture - which according to expectancy theory are all important determinants of the employee's motivation to perform.

2.1.1.1.4. Procedure for responding to Instrument (Process):

[see appendix 1.1]

- i. The respondent was told to place the five pictures in the sequence of his choice.
- ii. He was then required to make up and relate a story, according to what he saw taking place in the five pictures.
- iii. The story comprised a sequence of events, beginning with what he sees in the first picture and ending with what he sees in the last.

2.1.1.2. INTERVIEW SCHEDULE (See Appendix 1)

The first part of the *interview schedule* examined the management development requirements of the subjects' organisation, whilst the second focused on the subjects' own personal experience of managing in their organisation. It was felt it to be appropriate to begin with the seemingly less threatening section.

The *interview schedule* was primarily designed to examine the various factors, which according to expectancy theory, greatly affect the motivation and performance. These include the effort-performance probability, performance-reward probability, valence and role clarity.

The items were formulated in accordance with the relevant literature on expectancy theory, particular that written by Barling (1986) Human & Hofmeyr (1985), Lawler and Porter (1967), Lawler (1969), Schlemmer (1986), Schlemmer and Van Antwerpen (1989) as well as Vroom (1964).

In addition, various items were included to examine whether the so-called cultural hypothesis, as advanced by Nasser (1979) (1980), Tabane (1979), Lange (1988), Chalmers B.E. (1988) and McWilliam-Smith (1981), Coldwell and Moerdyk (1982 as in Erwee, 1988), has any credence.

Both open ended and closed ended questions were included in the interview schedule to provide variation and to make some of the items less vague or less threatening. However, emphasis has been placed on obtaining qualitative, i.e. in depth, information.

Furthermore, the items have been phrased in a way so as to make them as *non-threatening* and *non-directive* as possible. This has been done as a control for defensive responses which may have been elicited as a result of the sensitive nature of certain of the issues which were dealt with.

The disadvantage of this approach was that the responses elicited by these items were less directly related to the propositions of the research and, therefore, required more interpretation than would have been the case if the items had been more direct. It was, however, felt that this was a necessary price to pay in order to maximise the validity of the responses.

2.2. PILOT TESTING

The *projective exercise* and *interview schedule* were piloted on three black South African managers and three white South African managers. This was done in order to perfect both the content of the instrument, as well as the technique of interviewing. As a result of the piloting various alterations were made to both the interview schedule and the *projective exercise*.

2.3. SAMPLE:

2.3.1. Structure of Sample.

The total sample size consisted of 104 subjects. This was divided as follows:

- sub-sample 1, which comprised 39 black South African managers;
- sub-sample 2, which comprised 35 white South African managers;
- sub-sample 3, which comprised 30 black Zimbabwean managers;

2.3.2. Industries from which subjects were drawn.

The subjects for this study were drawn solely from The Pharmaceutical and Related Consumer Products Manufacturing Industries. These industries were grouped together due to there being considerable overlap between the two; in terms of organisational structures, production processes, as well as the sales, distribution and marketing methods they each employ.

It was decided to restrict the study to only one industry, so as to control for the possibility that differences between industries, may complicate the interpretation of the findings.

The abovementioned industries were felt to be fairly representative of the type of organisational environment in which the average manager has to operate, both in South Africa and in Zimbabwe. This is because, not only are all the major functions represented (see appendix 3), but the pressures and opportunities in the environment are fairly typical of those faced by businesses in both countries.

Furthermore, these industries are fairly stable when compared to other industries. This provides the advantage of allowing for follow up studies to be conducted at some later date without too much change having taken place in the environments in which such industries operate.

In total the samples were drawn from fifteen companies; ten of which were in South Africa and five in Zimbabwe. (See appendix 4 for a list of organisations from which the sample was drawn).

2.3.3. Seniority.

The sample included the following categories of employee.

- Any managers, apart from first line supervisors. It was felt necessary to make this exclusion due to the fact that, as the position of the first line supervisor in South African organisations, being the bridge between (often militant) workers and management, is somewhat unique. This seems to present

particular difficulties for the incumbents, which should therefore be researched separately from the problems of other managers.

- Professionals and specialists, who whilst not having people under their control, must cope with many of the same demands as managers, and who in the organisational context are clearly identified with management.

(see appendix 5 for a detailed description of how the sub-samples were matched on this criterion)

2.3.4. Selection of individual subjects and matching of sub-samples.

2.3.4.1. South African respondents

Investigations were made as to which companies involved in the manufacture of pharmaceutical or related consumer products, employed black managers who fitted the above criteria.

These organisations were then approached with regard to obtaining permission to allow their employees to participate in this study. For each black manager they were able to make available, they were asked to provide a white manager who occupied a position in the organisation which was equivalent to that of the black manager's, on as many of the abovementioned criteria as possible. The purpose of this was to ensure that the white South African and black South African subjects were matched on as many criteria as possible.

Particular emphasis was placed on matching these sub-samples on functional area and level of seniority.

Although one would have preferred to have controlled for variables such as age, years of experience and specific educational qualifications, the available population of black managers in the industry is too small to allow for this.

2.3.4.2. Zimbabwean respondents.

Every attempt was made to match the black Zimbabwean subjects on as many variables as possible to those from the two South African sub-samples. However, due to the fact that unlike the black South African and white South African subjects they were not drawn from the same organisations this was more difficult.

(For a detailed description of how successfully the sub-samples were matched, see appendices 3 to 10).

2.4. EXPECTED FINDINGS: (and reasons for structure of sample)

It was expected that recurrent themes would be noticeable from within the responses obtained from sub-sample 1, with regard to what expectancy theory defines as the preconditions for motivation and performance: the effort-performance probability, performance-reward probability, valence and role perception, as well as their respective determinants (alienation, self confidence, trust identification, locus of control etc.).

However it was not expected that such trends would emerge from the responses of sub-sample 2. The reason for this is that being white, the respondents were not expected to face the same social and political conflicts and pressures which are understood to erode *self-confidence*, *trust* and *valence* in black managers.

Should such trends emerge, however, interesting questions could be raised, about the relationship between *motivational issues* and *management*.

As far as the black Zimbabwean sub-sample (sub-sample 3) is concerned, it will be interesting to see which recurrent themes do in fact emerge from their responses. As was mentioned in the previous chapter (section 1.3.) it is proposed that as a result of residual prejudice amongst white managers in Zimbabwe, and despite social and political empowerment, black managers tend to remain marginal to Zimbabwean organisations. It is therefore expected that some evidence of *marginal status*, and/or its effects, e.g. *lack of role clarity*, will be noticeable amongst the responses of the black Zimbabwean managers. This would then provide support for the proposition of this study, that certain problems associated with black management are so pervasive and self-reinforcing that they are not likely to be resolved by social and political freedom alone.

On the basis of the responses of the black Zimbabweans, therefore, interesting questions could be raised as to the relationship between the socio-political environment on the one hand, and motivation and performance of black managers, on the other; particularly with regard to how readily social policy changes will affect the plight of black managers. Questions could also be formulated as to the relationship between culture and management issues depending on the similarities in response patterns which emerge.

list of all the themes which occur in the respective stories.

- It was then determined which themes belonged together in categories. Each theme was assigned a number or code.

The end result of this process were twelve categories of themes, which had emerged from the responses (see appendix 11).

- Each category was then given a descriptive label.

Step Two :

Formulating categories of plots.

- The responses were each read individually, in order to determine the basic structure of each plot.
- These plots were then grouped together, in accordance with the basic plot structures, mentioned above.
- Each category was then assigned a descriptive label, according to which plots of stories would be categorised. Each of these plot categories was assigned a code, according to which the responses were analysed. (see appendix 12)

Step Three :

Developing of coding structure according to which latent content was coded.

These codes were generated independently of the data, and derive from theory. (see appendix 10)

2.5.1.1.2. Analysis of Responses

Step One :

Analysis of data in accordance with latent content. A list of the issues examined will be contained in appendix 13.

Step Two :

This step entailed analysis of the responses in terms of the coding structure discussed above; as follows:-

- Classification of the plots. (see appendix 12).
- The analysis of the following themes, with the appropriate code being assigned in the appropriate column, each time a theme occurs. Up to three codes were allowed for each category of themes, to cater for complexity and ambiguity of the responses. The categories of themes were as follows:
 - Race issues (see appendix 11.1.)
 - Attitude towards work and the organisation. (see appendix 11.2.)
 - Relationship with direct superior. (see appendix 11.3.)

- Feelings arising from negative event or conflict. (see appendix 11.4.)
- Feelings towards work, prior to the work day. (see appendix 11.5.)
- The interview situation. (see appendix 11.6)
- Relationships with subordinates. (see appendix 11.7.)
- Social situations. (see appendix 11.8.)
- General attitude towards the future. (see appendix 11.9.)
- How the focal figure is seen. (see appendix 11.10)

2.5.1.2. content analysis of data emanating from the interview schedule.

The interview schedule data can be divided into that which emanated from the fixed response or closed items, and that which arose from the free response or open ended questions. As regards the former, due to the fact that they were precoded no further coding process was necessary. However, with regard to the free response answers, a process of content analysis, similar to the one used with the projective exercise, was undertaken for each specific item.

2.5.1.2.1. The development of a coding structure for open-ended items.

- The responses to each item of interview schedule were analysed separately; as per the following process:

- i. The first stage was to read through each response listing themes as they occur.

The list was then scanned in order to find, and subsequently eliminate duplication.

A code was then assigned to each individual theme.

- ii. The next stage involved grouping these themes into categories. These categories were formulated according to commonality which was seen to exist amongst individual themes.

A code was then assigned to each category.

- iii. Content analysis was then conducted according to the coding structure discussed above (see point 2.5.2.1.). This in turn entailed scanning the responses and determining which of the above themes were represented. In order to cater for complexity of response, up to three codes were allowed to describe the response to each item.

2.5.2. INITIAL STATISTICAL ANALYSIS.

The primary purpose of the initial data statistical analysis was to determine whether the themes which emerged from the responses of the three groups of respondents: the black South Africans, the white South Africans respondents and the black Zimbabwean respondents, differed significantly from one another.

2.5.2.1. The responses to the *fixed response items*, as well as the items where the number of responses equalled the number of subjects, were analysed using *The Chi-Square Test Of Independence* [contingency analysis] (Groebner and Shannon 1989). The purpose of this test is to determine whether or not two variables are statistically independent. Where two variables were not be proved statistically independent, an inference was made that a relationship exists between the two variables.

2.5.2.2. As far as the data emanating from the *free response items* of the *interview schedule* as well as the themes arising from the *projective exercise* was concerned, a contingency table (the first step in the *Chi-Square Test Of Independence*) was used. This was done to determine whether the three groups differed, as far as their respective *response patterns* were concerned. In order to determine whether differences in these *response patterns* were in fact statistically significant, the *SE TEST* was used. This test is designed to determine the *reliability of the differences between two percentages*. (Blalock 1972). (see appendix 14).

The findings which emerged from the above analyses, and their relevance *vis-à-vis* previous significant research and theory will be discussed in the third chapter.

2.5.3. FACTOR ANALYSIS

The purpose of the Factor Analysis was to establish more general or underlying variables which are reflected by the inter-relationships between the more significant variables in the analysis. In effect, the underlying variables are revealed by the extent to which items cluster together on the basis of multiple inter-correlations.

The variables on which the Factor Analysis was performed, were identified on the basis of the Chi-Square Test Of Independence, and the SE Test, as well as previous significant research and theory.

Furthermore, it was felt that identifying the existence of such response patterns would help one substantiate or refute the assertions which were made, on the basis of the results of the statistical techniques discussed under point 2.5.2..

- i. The first step in this process was to create *dummy* variables from the original biographical data (see appendix 15.1 for a list of dummy variables created).
- ii. The next step was to create *dummy* variables from those outcomes of the Chi-Square Test of Independence or SE Test which were shown to be statistically significant. (see appendix 15.2)

- iii. A series of factors were then created from the abovementioned variables, using the Varimax Method of Rotation.

The Varimax Rotation was conducted three times. Once with *sub-sample* being defined by the *dummy variable* black South African, once by the *dummy variable* white South African and once by the *dummy variable* black Zimbabwean. The reason for conducting this procedure three times was to ascertain whether any meaningful clusters or patterns of variables emerged, which were specific to any particular *sub-sample*. The findings emanating from the Factor Analysis, along with their relevance to previous significant research and theory, will be discussed in the fourth chapter. (The results of the Factor Analysis are contained in Tables 1, 2 and 3, in Chapter 4).

2.5.4. REGRESSION ANALYSIS

The purpose of the Regression Analysis was to ascertain the relative importance of key variables in determining the respondents' adaptation to management. The variables which were examined were derived from the significant findings which emerged from the Chi-Square Test Of Independence (see Chapter Three) as well as from the Factor Analysis (see Chapter Four). For a more detailed account of how these variables were formulated see point 2.5.4.1.

One must realise that the sample being dealt with is small and the dependent variable complex; which means that the data was not clear-cut, and could not be treated as precise. One of the reasons for this is that whilst the formulation of the dependent variable was based on various theoretical models (London 1985 Schein 1981 and Walker 1984a), the decision taken *vis-à-vis* each particular respondent's adaptation to the managerial role, was largely based on judgement. This means that despite the effort made to standardise the methods of scoring on the dependent variable, the final scoring remained discretionary. Consequently, it was not seen as being applicable to analyse the outcome of this statistical technique in the same way as one would with a dependent variable - which is both formulated and measurable by proper scientific methods.

Hence, the analysis of the outcome will focus primarily on the order of causality, denoted by the different operations, which comprise the overall regression analysis, as opposed to the specific correlations. In other words, the main concern of this chapter will be the order of contribution of the variables concerned, with regard to the dependent variable - adaptation. This level of analysis

was thought to be suitable, considering that the purpose of this research is exploratory - that is to say, its primary purpose is to formulate research questions; as opposed to prove a hypothesis.

For a more detailed description of the statistical operations which comprise the regression analysis, see appendix 16.1.

2.5.4.1. Formulation of Independent variables.

The biographical variables which were seen as being relevant to adaptation to management, were redefined, by grouping the existing categories (see appendices 3 to 10), thus transforming the existing scales, into three point scales - high, medium and low. (see appendix 16.2)

The other (non-biographical) independent variables were formulated according to the following steps:

- On the basis of the findings of the Factor Analysis, Chi-Square Analysis, and SE Test, as well as the previous significant research and relevant literature; it was decided which variables were most likely to affect adaptation to management.
- It was then determined which of the original findings (those which emanate from the Chi-Square Test of Independence), is able to provide a suitable measure of the above variables.

- If the respondent *scored negative or low* on all the above findings they were ranked *low* on the particular variable.
- If they *scored high* on *any one* of the above findings they were ranked *medium* on the variable concerned.
- If they *scored high* on *all* the above findings they were ranked *high* on the variable concerned. (See appendix 16.3.)

The detailed results of the regression analysis is contained in appendix 33. For a summary of these results on which the discussion was based, see table 4, in Chapter 5.

2.5.4.2. **Formulation and Definition of the Dependent Variable**

Unfortunately no independent measure of the respondents adaptation to management was available, as the development of effective measures is highly complex and would have entailed a study on its own. Therefore, it was decided to analyse each subject's response (including both responses to the projective exercise as well as those to the interview schedule), according to the criteria stated below. (A more detailed account of how this was done is given below).

Furthermore, given the *dynamics* of the interviewing situation, and the fact that the author is a manager in the pharmaceutical industry, absolute confidentiality had to be

guaranteed and names were not used. Hence, the research politics which were operating in this study made it impossible to gain a measure of role-performance of the respondent, e.g. independent ratings by superiors.

Moreover, due to the fact that the purpose of this project is to formulate research questions, it was felt that such a subjective measure of adaptation to work-role would suffice. Should further research be undertaken at later date, which attempted to answer the research questions, more rigorous methods would be employed.

It is commonly accepted that the competencies which a manager requires in order to be successful in his work-role, include the abilities to plan, direct, organise, lead and control. In order to be able to achieve the above, however, the aspirant manager must according, to London (1985), possess the following attributes:

- i. **career resilience:** which comprises having initiative and having sufficient self-confidence to believe in his own decisions, as well as being able to balance independence, with being able to operate effectively in a team.
- ii. **career insight:** which entails having career perceptiveness; which includes an appreciation of both one's own strengths and weaknesses, as well as a clear understanding of the work environment, and the opportunities and threats it contains. In

addition, career insight involves the ability to establish, and to work towards, clearly defined goals, (Related specifically to organising and planning.)

- iii. *career identity*: which comprises *career involvement*, covering the ability to identify with one's job, organisation and profession; and *desiring advancement*, which includes the attainment of what usually goes along with advancement - recognition, leadership, money etc.

Other qualities thought to be important for effective management are:

- i. flexibility, which includes, inter alia, the capacity to apply one's knowledge in changing conditions;
- ii. the ability to communicate effectively, both formally and informally, as well as inspire confidence both amongst one's superiors and subordinates;
- iii. being able to exercise discipline;
- iv. reliability (Schein 1981) (Schlemmer 1986).

A Stepwise regression analysis was conducted with the variables described above. The outcome of this procedure, and the implications thereof, will be discussed in detail in the fifth chapter.

* * * *

The results of the analysis described above will be discussed in the following three chapters. The discussion will focus on the relevance of these findings to other significant research and theories; reviewed at length in the first chapter.

CHAPTER THREE

3. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

3.1. Introduction.

This chapter comprises the findings which emanate from the Chi-Square Test of Independence and SE Test (see point 2.5.2. in chapter two). The discussion will focus primarily on the *recurring themes* which arose amongst the responses of each sub-sample, with particular regard to their relevance to various theories and previous significant research, which were discussed at length in Chapter One. Emphasis will be placed on those findings which have relevance for what Expectancy Theory sees as the critical antecedents for motivation and performance, namely: *effort-performance probability, performance-reward probability, valence and role-perception.*

Despite the fact that the Chi-Square tables represent the percentages of responses to two decimal places, these were rounded off and reported as whole numbers in this chapter. This method of presentation was felt to be appropriate, due to the exploratory nature of this research and the fact that this research examines response patterns or recurrent themes, rather than specific and clear cut data. However, levels of confidence have been reported in as much detail as possible.

3.2. *Victim Status and Racial Stereotyping.*

When asked what the most valuable advice which they would give to a person about to be appointed to a management

position in their organisation would be, over 10% of the response elements from the black South Africans concerned warnings about discrimination, as opposed to only about 2% of the white South Africans and under 1,5% of the black Zimbabweans. (see appendix 17).

In isolation 10% may not seem a very high proportion of response elements. However, given the broad range of possible answers that could have been given this question, as well as the fact that comparatively, so few of the responses of the other two sub-samples fell into this category; this finding may provide some clue as to some of the unique problems experienced by South African black managers.

Moreover, according to the SE Test, the difference between the above percentage of black South Africans and white South Africans is significant at the 1,73% level confidence, and the difference between the black South Africans and the black Zimbabweans is significant at the 5,62% confidence level.

* * * *

When asked what *obstacles and challenges* one should expect to encounter on being appointed a manager, the theme of discrimination was once again evident amongst the responses of the black South African managers.

Whereas under 3% of the white South Africans' response elements and 1,4% of the black Zimbabweans indicated a perception that discriminatory *obstacles* exist in the corporate environment; almost 19% of the black South Africans' response elements, concerned such *obstacles* (see appendix 18).

The difference in the percentages of black and white South Africans who responded as such, was shown by the SE Test to be significant at the 0,067% level of confidence. In addition, the difference between the black South Africans and the black Zimbabweans was shown to be significant at the 0,047% confidence level.

It is interesting to note that in spite of their inferior education (see chapter 1, point 1.2.2.), black South Africans did not mention poor education as an *obstacle* to their success as managers.

* * * *

The above finding is further supported by the fact that nearing 95% of the black South Africans felt that on the whole, people in organisations are judged on external rather than internal criteria. This is opposed to 67% of the black Zimbabweans and approximately 46% of the white South Africans who believed this to be true (see appendix 19).

The difference between the black South Africans' response pattern and those of the white South Africans (expressed in percentages), was shown by the SE test to be significant at the 0% level of confidence, whereas the differences between the responses of the patterns of the black Zimbabweans and the black South Africans, were shown to be significant at the 0,24% level of confidence. The difference between the response patterns of the black Zimbabweans and the white South Africans were not, however, shown to be statistically significant.

The perception that racial discrimination is a major obstacle in the organisational environment was prevalent

amongst the explanations given regarding the above responses of the black South Africans. (See appendix 20).

One sees that 22% of the response elements concerned racism as a common feature of organisational culture; almost 11% of the elements pointed to difficulty which blacks experience, as far as fitting in socially into the organisation. In addition over 7% of the response elements concerned general difficulties which black managers experience in the organisation.

In contrast 4% of the response elements of the white South Africans, and 3% of those of the black Zimbabweans, pertained to racism as a common feature of organisational life (culture). No response elements of either of these two groups concerned either difficulties which blacks experience in fitting in to the organisation, or problems of acceptance faced by black managers.

In total, 64% of the black South Africans' response elements concerned racism, as opposed to 16% of the black Zimbabweans' and 10% of the white South Africans.

The differences between the responses of the black South Africans and the black Zimbabweans, as far as organisational culture is concerned, was shown by the SE Test to be significant at the 0,28% level of confidence; and the difference between the two South African groups' responses on this issue, was shown to be 0,68%. As far as the responses which concerned the problems of social integration faced by blacks in so-called white organisations, the differences in the above percentages were shown to be significant at the 2,08% level of confidence for the two South African groups and 2,58% for the black South Africans and black Zimbabweans.

With regard the total number of response elements which concerned racism, the differences between the percentages of black South Africans responses and those of both the white South Africans and the black Zimbabweans', were significant at the 0% level of confidence.

3.2.1. Victim Status racial stereotyping and effort-performance probability.

According to Lawler and Porter (1967), fundamental to an expectation that performance is dependant upon effort, (a key determinant of motivation) is the belief in ones own ability to perform to the required level is.

self-confidence. In the words of Human (1990a), "... people confident of doing well tend to attribute failure to inadequate effort, whereas individuals expecting to fail will attribute failure to a lack of ability, which in turn will affect subsequent motivation." (page 19).

Humar (1990a) as well as Human and Hofmeyr (1985), maintain that barriers such as discriminatory attitudes (and legislation) are likely to raise doubts in the minds of black employees as to their own abilities, as a result of what Peters and Waterman (1982), term the Pygmalion Effect.

That is, they maintain that black South African managers internalise the negative stereotyped view that others in the organisation hold of them, as being fundamentally unsuited to holding management positions in organisations.

Howard and Hammond (1985), support this and maintain, that over time the individual internalises low estimation held by others. They say that this internalised negative expectancy may lead to a reluctance to try hard in the future, as well as a tendency to withdraw from competitive situations.

In other words, individuals who have internalised negative views which others hold of them, "... are not really losers or failures, they have just acquiesced in their own ordinariness to something they believe in so utterly that when they need to exert themselves, deep down they don't believe they are worth fighting for" (Howard and Hammond, 1985 page 13).

In discussing the plight of the modern American blacks Shelby Steele (1990) notes that one of the most damaging effects of discrimination, be it real or imagined, is the self-perception which develops, of being a *victim*. He says that as a result of this, people fail to take personal responsibility and compete with the rest of society on an equal footing. Further he states " ... that the hardest thing for any sufferer to accept is that his suffering excuses him from very little, and never has enough currency to restore him. To think otherwise is to prolong suffering." (page 54).

3.2.2. *Victim Status and racial stereotyping and the performance-reward probability.*

The perception in the mind of black South African managers that they are judged on the basis of their race, suggests that they believe that they will not be recognised for potential they may possess to contribute to the organisation, and the diligence they may show. Instead in all likelihood, they assume that they will be judged according to racial stereotypes. It seems therefore that the expectancy that reward is dependant upon effort, will be negative. (for further discussion of this theme, see point 3.4)

3.2.3. *Victim Status and racial stereotyping and valence*

According to expectancy theory, once an individual has established that reward will be forthcoming from his efforts, he attaches values to these rewards (Lawler 1969, Lawler and Porter 1967). It is important to note that these values will differ from individual to individual.

It is therefore dangerous for a *broad brush stroke* to be used, by which individuals are stereotyped, and consequently everyone of the same gender or race is seen to have the same needs (Herzberg 1968).

On the basis of the findings discussed above, it would seem that a South African manager is being rewarded according to stereotyped ideas of what others believe he desires, consequently not in a way designed to satisfy his individual needs.

In all likelihood, this will negatively affect the value he attaches to these rewards; thus having a negative effect on his motivation.

* * * *

Therefore, it appears one can say that judging of people, according to stereotyped perceptions not only negatively affects their expectation that their efforts will be recognised, as well as the self-confidence they have to be able to produce the desired performance, but also the extent to which they value the way their efforts are rewarded. This is corroborated by some of the results that follow.

These stereotypes are likely to persist as long as blacks do not represent a significant proportion of South African managers. It is well known that in the absence of real first hand experience of a situation, or group (in this case black managers), people (in this case white managers), tend to rely on preconceptions and stereotypes.

This lack of success, coupled with the dearth of blacks in management positions, serves in turn to reinforce the prejudice of white managers; thus perpetuating the conditions under which stereotyped views of black managers are borne.

Therefore, the problem of stereotypes seems to be self-perpetuating. As discussed above, stereotyping creates difficulties for black people to be successful in management.

3.3. *Plots of responses to Projective Exercise and effort-performance probability.*

In categorising the responses to the projective exercise, a pattern emerged which seems to suggest more of a negative expectancy, that effort will result in effective performance, amongst black South Africans and Zimbabwean managers, than amongst their white South African counterparts. (For a further description of the categories according to which the plots were classified, see appendix 21)

Some 31% of the black South Africans and 23% of the black Zimbabweans related stories in which not only were the efforts of the individual seen to be unsuccessful, but the situational factors in his environment which influence his

performance, were portrayed as being beyond the control of the individual. This is in contrast to less than 9% of the white South Africans' responses in this category.

However, 20% of the white South Africans, as opposed to only 7% of black South Africans and 3% of the black Zimbabweans, responded with stories in which the individual was portrayed as being successful in his efforts and able to achieve his objectives.

According to the Chi-Squared Test Of Independence, it was found that a statistically significant difference exists, at 3,7% level of confidence, between the types of plots given by the three groups of respondents.

According to the SE Test, the differences between the percentage of white South Africans and black South Africans whose responses to the projective exercise had plots which indicated a negative effort-performance probability, was significant at the 1,78% confidence level. Further, the differences between the percentage of responses of the white South Africans and black Zimbabweans, whose plots were classified as such, were shown to be significant at the 10% level of confidence. As one would expect, the difference between the Black Zimbabweans' responses and those of the black South Africans, was not shown to be statistically significant.

According to the SE Test, as far as the proportion of responses in which the individual was portrayed as being successful in confronting the challenges in his environment (positive effort-performance probability), the difference between the response patterns (expressed as percentages) of the white South Africans and the black South Africans, was shown to be significant at the 10% level of confidence.

In addition, the difference between the responses of the white South Africans and those of the black Zimbabweans, which conformed to the above criteria; were shown to be significant at the 5% confidence level. The percentages of the two black groups responses which fitted the above criteria, was not, however, shown (by a SE Test), to differ significantly.

The response pattern of the white South Africans, can be explained in terms of a general pattern amongst their responses, which seems to signify a positive *effort-performance probability*. The black South Africans' responses on the other hand, can be understood in terms of the *self-perception* of being victims, suggested by the results discussed previously (see point 3.2.). As mentioned earlier, this indicates low *effort-performance probability*.

However, as far as the black Zimbabweans are concerned, no connection can be made between this result, and indications of low *effort-performance probability* amongst other findings.

Perhaps this response pattern can be attributed to the fact that despite overt discrimination being a thing of the past in Zimbabwe (see responses of black Zimbabwean managers to item 1.8.1. of the interview schedule), the black managers' position in the average Zimbabwean organisation remains *marginal* (Murphree 1986 and Pasipanadya 1989).

According to Stamp (1991), when a person is marginal to the organisation (what she refers to as being out of flow with its values and culture), his expectation that his efforts will produce the desired performance becomes

diminished, thus negatively affecting the effort-performance probability. (For a further discussion of the marginality of the black Zimbabwean manager, see chapter 1 and point 3.4.2 and 3.6. of this chapter).

Further, black Zimbabwean managers' continued marginality in the organisation, which exists despite their equality in the society as a whole, might be contributing to feelings of frustration, pessimism and confusion, which in turn could help to explain the negativity of their responses to the Projective Exercise.

Ironically, it may be that despite the low effort-performance probability amongst black South Africans, this group may have a more positive outlook than black Zimbabweans. Perhaps this is ascribable to the high expectations which black managers understandably might have of the so-called, new South Africa. In other words, they may be hopeful that pending political equality will have positive consequences in all aspects of their lives; including their positions in the business world. Black Zimbabweans on the other hand, have lived through eleven years of political and social empowerment, and in spite of any initial optimism, may have discovered that political processes alone do not change society, and that success in the business world is far more elusive than it may have seemed at first.

This may account for the greater degree of frustration and resignation evident amongst the plots of the black Zimbabweans' responses to the projective exercise, compared to those of the other two groups.

This is borne out by the fact that 46% of the black Zimbabweans' responses to the Projective Exercise, had plots in which the focal figure was seen to be resigned or frustrated, and the dominant mood was one of lethargy, apathy or indifference. This is opposed to under 23% of the black South Africans responses, and 26% of the white South Africans' responses, whose plots could be described similarly. (see appendix 21)

According to the SE Test, the difference between the percentage of black Zimbabweans and black South Africans who fell into this category was significant at the 4% level of confidence. Further, the difference between the percentage of black Zimbabweans and white South Africans who fell into this category was significant at the 10% level of confidence.

The notion of black Zimbabweans being more negative than the other two groups is further supported by the fact that the overall proportion of plots with negative connotations amongst the black Zimbabweans' responses to the Projective Exercise, is greater than amongst either the white South Africans or the black South Africans (the definition of negativity includes those plots which indicate a negative effort-performance probability as well as general negativity). Approximately 54% of the black South Africans and 37% of the white South Africans could be described as having negative plots, and close to 70% of the black Zimbabweans responded to the projective exercise, negatively. (see appendix 21).

According to the SE Test, the difference between the percentage of black Zimbabwean respondents whose stories were negative, and that of the white South Africans is significant at the 0,82% level of confidence. The

difference between the percentages of the two South African groups of respondents, and the difference between the black South African and black Zimbabwean groups' responses were on the other hand, not shown to be significant.

However, due to the fact that white Zimbabwean managers were not included in this study, it is difficult to ascertain whether such negativity is attributable to something specific to black Zimbabwean managers' experiences, or can be attributed to the experiences of Zimbabwean managers in general.

3.4. *Understanding of the advancement process, role perception and their respective relationships with marginal status.*

As mentioned in Chapter One (point 1.2.4.2.), according to Lawler and Porter (1967) as well as Katz (1969), effort is not synonymous with performance. In fact other variables, such as abilities and role perceptions combine (multiplicatively) with effort, in determining performance levels.

As regards the individual's eventual success as a manager, of equal importance as the accuracy of his role perception, is the extent to which he properly recognises and understands the processes whereby his career objectives are likely to be accomplished; what Lee and Piper (1989) term, the advancement process.

3.4.1. *Understanding of the advancement process and its relationship to Marginal Status.*

In analysing the means by which the respondents intend to achieve their career objectives (referred to below as the action plan) an interesting pattern emerged.

The Chi-Square Test of Independence found that the relationship between sub-sample, and the type of action plan envisaged by the respondents was found to be significant at the 10% level of confidence, (see appendix 22). Whereas roughly 82% of the white respondents felt that their objectives would best be reached through actions taken in the corporate environment, for example; through hard work, getting to know the right people etc, just over 54% of the black South Africans and less than 37% of the black Zimbabweans, felt the same.

According to the SE Test, the difference between the percentage of responses of the two South African groups was shown to be significant at the 0,96% level of confidence. The difference between the white South Africans' response pattern, and that of the black Zimbabweans (expressed as percentages), turned out to be significant at the 0,03% confidence level, whilst that of the two black groups were not shown to be significant. The difference was shown to be significant at the 15,28% level, which is passed the accepted cut-off level of 10%)

50% of the black Zimbabweans and approximately 35% of black South Africans, compared with only about 17% of the white South African sub-sample, felt that their objectives would best be reached by engaging in activities outside of the corporate environment; such as the furthering of education.

The SE Test found that the percentages of the black and white South Africans' responses which fell into this category, were significantly different from one another, at the 10% level of confidence. The difference between the percentages of black Zimbabwean and white South Africans whose responses were of the above type, was shown to be

significant at the 0,56% confidence level. The response patterns of the black South African and black Zimbabwean groups were not shown to be significant.

This may be a reflection of the real disadvantages which black South African and Zimbabweans find themselves, as far as the inferior quality of their education is concerned. As mentioned in the first chapter, education remains one of the greatest distributors of life chances in the modern world. (Human and Human 1987)

However, it may also be indicative of another problem which exists amongst black South Africans, and even more so amongst black Zimbabwean respondents. This regards the extent to which they understand the *subtle processes*, through which skills and knowledge, essential for the development of successful managers, are imparted.

Various theorists have identified a link between social integration in an organisation on the one hand and successful performance of work-role on the other. Amongst the responses to the projective exercise, it was found that whereas only 7% of the black South Africans' responses and 5% of the black Zimbabweans' indicated that they perceived a connection between social success and work success, 19% of the white South African responses pointed to such a link. (see appendix 23)

According to the SE Test, the differences between the above percentages of the black South Africans and white South Africans is significant at the 10% level of confidence. As far as the black Zimbabweans and the white South Africans are concerned, the difference between the percentages was found to be significant at the 7% level of confidence. As one would expect, the difference between the groups of black respondents' response pattern was not statistically significant.

Schlemmer (1986), maintains that the learning process through which an individual acquires the skills and knowledge he requires, in order for him to become a successful manager, is almost entirely informal. This process, he says " ... involves acute observation and absorption of correct approaches in work-place experience", (page 100). He says the critical experience of informal socialisation, which is so essential for success, depends upon a social intimacy which as a result of the legacy of Apartheid, only very rarely exists between whites and blacks.

Lee and Piper (1989), conducted a study concerning the key factors affecting the management advancement of graduate managers working for the Midland Bank plc., in England. They found that the extent to which a person is cognisant of the informal processes which operate in organisations, greatly influences his success, and his prospects for promotion, in the corporate world.

As far as the black South African respondents are concerned therefore, the above result could be explained in terms of the black managers *marginal position* within South African organisations through which they are denied access to the *informal system* operating in organisations.

Research done by Human and Icely (1987), Human and Hofmeyr (1987) and Human and Hofmeyr (1988) suggests that despite the decline in direct discrimination, the attitudes of whites toward black management development remain negative.

They say that despite white managers paying lip service to such activities, the majority of white managers still doubt the inherent capabilities of blacks. (As corroborated by the fact that black South African respondents themselves perceive this to be the case; see point 2.3.)

This problem is exacerbated by what Stamp (1991) terms the *glass ceiling*, and Human and Human (1987,1988) refer to as *social closure*.

Through these subtle mechanisms non-white males are prevented from becoming effective managers, in white organisations. From a study which Human and Human (1987) conducted into the composition of the South African business élite, it was concluded that "... nepotism and group loyalty (which seem to be one of the critical antecedents, of social closure), are, however subconsciously, more important to the élite than profitability and competitiveness." (Human and Human 1987, page 73)

As a result of the continued existence of such subtle discrimination, they maintain that blacks are denied access to the informal processes in the organisation through which white managers are generally able to gain i. clarification of their roles as managers and, ii. an understanding of the types of behaviours in which they would have to engage, in order to ensure successful managerial careers.

This assertion is supported by Wendy Luhabe (Tribute 5/1990), a prominent black executive with one of the top German vehicle manufacturers represented in South Africa. She believes that one of the major reasons for the lack of success of black managers in South Africa, is that they do not understand the *dynamics of the corporate world*. She goes on to say that, "... one cannot play the game if you don't know the rules. It is only by mastering these rules that you can find a way to go around them or rise above them" (page 62).

She ascribes this lack of knowledge to the fact that blacks are denied access to *influential social networks* in

the organisation. She regards these network groups as, "... the forums at which candidates were groomed and coached on corporate politics," (page 62) and found that in the United States, where she received much of her training; that these networks played a very influential role in career development.

Therefore, "black managers quickly master the explicit culture i.e. the recognised and easily observable standards of corporate culture. However implicit culture i.e. the unarticulated assumptions, present a particular problem to black management trainees, as their interface with white management is limited to formal contacts." (Khosa 1987, as in Erwee 1988; page 13)

* * * *

As discussed in Chapter One, (and briefly under point 3.6. of this chapter), despite discriminatory practices in Zimbabwe being largely a thing of the past, blacks are still not completely integrated into the Zimbabwean corporate environment. In fact according to Pasipanodya (1989), black managers were originally employed by Zimbabwean organisations as conduits of communication between private business and the state, rather than on the basis of their managerial competence. This implies that they were never trusted sufficiently to allow for the social intimacy which is necessary for the development of a thorough understanding of the process whereby managers are advanced.

Murphree (1986) says, that whilst white Zimbabweans (who comprise the majority of the managerial establishment), have adapted their public behaviour to suit the new social norms of non racialism; in many cases racist attitudes

have remained entrenched. This, together with various other problems associated with marginality, (discussed in Chapter One as well as further on in this chapter), might explain why despite having political and social freedom, black Zimbabweans still lack access to the subtle processes of informal observation and communication, which exist in organisations and are so critical to gaining a true understanding of how organisations operate, as well as how to ensure a successful management career.

It seems therefore, that both the above argument, as well as the argument which explains the above finding in terms of the black respondents wanting to compensate for deficiencies in the quality of their education; are tenable.

3.4.2. *Marginal Status and Role perception.*

Human and Hofmeyr (1985), as well as Schlemmer (1986), maintain that role clarity is negatively affected by marginality. This is corroborated by the following finding which shows a significant relationship to exist, at the 10% level of confidence, between sub-sample and how important the respondents saw improving the definition of the managers' role in the organisation.

Whereas only 20% of the white South African respondents indicated that they felt it was urgently or very necessary for managerial positions to be better defined; 60% of the black Zimbabweans and black South Africans indicated that this was either urgently or very necessary, (see appendix 24).

According to the SE Test, the difference between the above percentages of the two South African groups is significant

at the 0,03% level of confidence, and the difference between the percentages of the white South Africans and the black Zimbabweans, is significant at the 0,1% level of confidence.

It has been said by Lee and Piper (1989), Schlemmer (1986), amongst others, that a clear understanding of how one is expected to perform one's role as a manager, is not only contingent upon one's understanding of the formalised demands made by the organisation; in terms of the objectives and duties, which have been set. As discussed under the previous point, (3.4.1.), it also requires an understanding of the informal system of such unwritten rules and processes which operate in an organisation. Although these are seldom overtly defined, having an appreciation for them is an absolutely essential ingredient of a successful career in management. According to Schein (1981) this system of rules can only be absorbed through an osmosis type process, which can only occur through informal and relaxed social contact with those who are already established in the organisation.

The marginal position of black managers in so called white organisations, as described by Human and Hofmeyr (1985), Luhabe (1990), Murphree (1986), Pasipanodya (1989), Schlemmer (1986), Strachan (1990) as well as Stamp (1991) through which these managers are said to be denied access to the informal social networks discussed above, could help to explain why a greater proportion of black respondents (both South African and Zimbabwean), than white respondents, felt it was very/urgently necessary for managers' jobs to be better defined.

This problem is exacerbated by the fact that in both South Africa and in Zimbabwe, the private business sector is regarded with some suspicion by the black community. This

means that black managers may become caught between two *paradigms or value systems*; the primarily *capitalist orientation* of the business establishment, and the *socialist ideological stance* of the black communities.

According to Human (1989), Kane-Berman (1990) Pasipanodya (1989) and Schlemmer (1986) this inevitably produces a *crisis of loyalty and identification*, which results in black managers having greater difficulty than whites, when it comes to identifying easily with the *managerial establishment*. Consequently they seem to suffer a *greater degree of role conflict and role ambiguity*, than do white managers.

* * * *

Three jobs were described to the respondents, from which they were asked to choose what they perceived to be the most difficult (see appendix 1.1.10). The nature of the first of these jobs was to train people to operate computers, and involved a great deal of travelling. The second job involved the checking of a great deal of statistics which necessitated a great deal of after hours work. The third, required taking decisions on where and how capital should be invested; which entailed making choices based on various reports, generated by highly qualified subordinates.

With the first two jobs, the correctness of the outcome of the managers' decision was able to be predicted with some degree of certainty, i.e. there are correct ways of training, and of checking production statistics. In contrast however, with the third job, the onus is placed upon the *judgement and discretion* of the manager, there being no standard technical procedure to follow to help make the correct decision.

The third job also involves supervision of highly qualified staff which requires a great deal of flexibility on the part of the manager, to cater for the myriad of demands which highly qualified staff are likely to make.

Therefore, one can say that by recognising the third job to be the most difficult the respondents are indicating that they understand the essential differences between managerial and non-managerial or technical tasks and thus probably have a clearer perception of the managers' role in the organisation, as defined by London (1985), Schein (1982) and Walker (1984). Despite the fact that according to the Chi-Square Test of Independence, the relationship between sub-sample and the responses to this particular item being significant only at the 17,2% level, some interesting patterns did emerge amongst the responses, that corroborated with the other findings which concerned *role perception*. (see appendix 25.)

Whereas 50% of the black South Africans and black Zimbabweans saw either of the first two as being the most difficult management jobs; only slightly more than 31% of the white South Africans did so.

This provides further support for the assertion that black managers, be they South African or Zimbabwean, have a less accurate perception of their work-role than do white managers. The differences between the above percentages, as far as the black and white South Africans are concerned, were shown by the SE Test to be significant at the 9% level of confidence. The difference between the white South African and black Zimbabwean percentages, was however shown to be significant only at the 13% level of confidence; which is above the accepted cut-off point of 10%. Despite the differences between the percentages of the black Zimbabweans

and the white South Africans not having been shown to be statistically significant, the fact that the response pattern supports other findings to do with role perception, suggests that it is still worthy of consideration.

As discussed, this can be attributed to black managers' **marginal position** in the organisation, which denies them access to the intimate social relationships, through which they would gain knowledge of the many subtle cues and innuendos, which would have helped them to attain a more accurate perception of what is expected of them as managers.

3.5. Performance-reward probability, and Victim Status

The Chi-Square Test Of Independence, found that a significant relationship exists, at the 0,9% confidence level, between sub-sample, and the urgency with which the respondents believe improvements should be made to the organisations' effectiveness as far as their reward and recognition of effort is concerned. (see appendix 26).

More than 92% of the black South Africans indicated that they felt that they were *not being rewarded effectively*, whereas around 60% of the black Zimbabweans and 68% of the white South Africans felt as such.

According to the findings of the SE Test, the difference between the above percentages, as far as the two South African groups are concerned, is significant at the 0,9% level of confidence. Further the difference between the black Zimbabweans and the black South Africans, is significant at the 0,14% level of confidence.

Given the facts that; i. in all likelihood the same systems govern the reward of both the white and the black South Africans, and ii. white South Africans and black Zimbabweans responded similarly to this item one can only assume that the above response pattern of the black South Africans is ascribable to something peculiar to the experience of the black South African manager. In examining the earlier responses, the perception of being a victim of racism (which was linked earlier in the discussion to the issue of rewards), whilst not featuring in the responses of the black Zimbabweans or white South Africans, recurs amongst the answers of the black South Africans (see points 3.1., 3.2., 3.3.).

On this basis one could, therefore, argue that the black South Africans indication that they are dissatisfied with the way in which they are rewarded by the organisation for which they work, is in some way connected to perceiving themselves to be victims of racism.

This supports the hypothesis mentioned above that the perception that black South Africans have, of being judged according to racist stereotypes, negatively affects their expectation that their performance will produce rewards [such an expectation is according to Lawler and Porter (1967), a key determinant of motivation]. This perception suggests that no matter how hard they work, black South Africans feel that they will not be recognised and rewarded for their individual achievements. Instead they believe that they will be judged according to racial stereotypes. (see point 3.2.2. for previous discussion of the relationship between victim status and the performance-reward probability.

3.6. Valence and Victim Status.

As mentioned above (see point 3.2.3.), being judged according to racial stereotypes suggests that even if rewards are forthcoming for the individual's effort, the likelihood is that these rewards will be seen by the black South African, to be based on stereotyped views of what that his needs are, rather than on individual needs. This implies, that apart from signifying a low performance-reward probability, this response may also be indicative of the rewards that are available having low valence for the individual.

3.7. Social Needs and marginal status.

It is interesting to note that whereas only 60% of the white South Africans saw it as either very necessary or urgently necessary to improve communication in their organisation, 97% of the black South Africans and 100% of the black Zimbabweans saw this as a priority. One should note that all respondents saw it as at least fairly necessary to improve the communication in the organisation. (see appendix 27).

According to the SE Test, the differences between the percentages of the white South Africans and the black South Africans as well as the white South Africans and black Zimbabweans, are significant at the 0,01% level of confidence. Further, 80% of the black Zimbabweans and nearing 85% of the black South Africans identified the development of more of a team spirit amongst its managers as either urgently or very necessary. In contrast however, only around 60% of the white South Africans saw this to be such a priority. (see appendix 28).

These percentages were shown by the SE Test to be significantly different, at the 2,64% level as far as the white South Africans and black South Africans were concerned; and at the 8,18% level as far as the white South Africans and black Zimbabweans are concerned.

Therefore, whilst all the respondents perceived it to be necessary to improve both communication in the organisation, as well as camaraderie amongst its managers there was a significantly higher priority assigned to such improvements by the black Zimbabweans and black South Africans.

This finding is supported by research conducted by Human (1982). In comparing personality profiles of black and white South African managers, she found that blacks indicated a greater need for appreciation, support, feedback and access to superiors than do whites. The similarity between the black South Africans and black Zimbabweans as far as the abovementioned responses are concerned, suggests that such affiliative tendencies are likely to be attributable to something which these two groups have in common; such as culture. This would seem to confirm the hypothesis held by, amongst others, Nasser (1979) (1980), Tabane (1979), Lange (1988), Chalmers B.E. (1988) and McWilliam-Smith (1981), regarding blacks being culturally disposed towards having a strong need for affiliation.

However Human (1990a), maintains that the greater need for feedback, support and feedback noticeable amongst blacks is linked to the marginal position, in which many blacks find themselves in so-called white organisations.

Based on their experience of marginality, discussed above under point 3.4., as well as in the first chapter, it would indeed make sense to argue that the *greater social needs* which are suggested by the responses of the black South Africans, as well as black Zimbabweans, are linked to these managers feeling *marginal*, in the organisations in which they work.

One cannot, of course rule out the possibility that the strong *social needs* amongst the black South Africans and black Zimbabweans, may in some way be linked to the *common cultural heritage which these two groups share*.

It may be, therefore, that the strong *affiliative tendencies* amongst black South African and black Zimbabwean respondents, stems, " ... as much from the conflicts, inconsistencies and ambiguities which confront the black manager, as from cultural discrepancies", (Haman and Hofmeyr 1985, page 18).

They go on to say that "... the cultural argument must (therefore), always be qualified by the vast and complex web of interconnecting factors, which affects the black manager's position in *other than* cultural ways".

It is important to realise that even if the evidence was found to suggest that blacks are *culturally disposed* towards having a strong need for affiliation, this would not necessarily have negative implications as far as these two groups' suitability for management is concerned.

According to Haman (1989), the importance of certain concepts central to black culture, and associated with a strong need for affiliation (which are commonly grouped

under the broad heading of *Ubuntu*), is currently being stressed by management theorists in Europe and the United States. This represents a critical lesson which western theorists have learned from the economically successful Asian businesses, for example those of Japan. As Adair (1986) points out, Japanese society is characterised by a much greater prominence being given to the organisation and group and the relatively low development of the concept of individuality. He goes on to say that the ideology of *individualism* is based upon a half-truth in that it ignores the essential interdependence of human beings.

3.8. Need for achievement and culture.

According to theorists such as Nasser (1979, 1980), Thabane (1979), Lange (1988), Chalmers B.E. (1988) and McWilliam-Smith (1988); as a result of their cultural heritage, blacks not only have an over developed need for affiliation, but they lack the necessary ambition, drive and need for individual achievement, thus preventing them from being successful managers. This was not however, borne out by the findings of this research:

The respondents were asked about the career objectives which they had set themselves for the following five years. Their responses were then categorised according to whether the objectives were; i. clearly defined, ii. vague, or iii. non-existent. In accordance with the logic of the cultural hypothesis, one would expect the black respondents, both Zimbabwean and South African, to have less clearly defined personal career objectives than the whites.

In fact, slightly more than 14% of the white South Africans had clearly defined career objectives, compared to around

26% of the black South Africans and black Zimbabweans. On the basis of the Chi-Square Test of Independence, no significant relationship was found between sub-sample and type of career objectives set, (see appendix 29). Furthermore, the SE Test found that the differences between the above percentages, were not significant. Therefore, on the basis of this finding one could not support the notion of blacks being less ambitious than whites.

* * * *

The respondents were then asked which they would choose, if offered a choice between two jobs. The first job would offer minimal risks in terms of making mistakes, and would suit the individuals' experience; the second however, would be more complicated, outside the individuals' experience, with more possibility of making mistakes. (See appendix 1.2.7.1.)

On the basis of both the Chi-Square Test of Independence and the SE Test, no significant differences were found, between the responses of the white South Africans on the one hand and the responses of the black South Africans and black Zimbabweans on the other.

In fact approximately over 33% of black South Africans, 23% of white South Africans and 36% of the black Zimbabweans chose the job that would involve more risk. (appendix 30).

On the basis of this result, therefore, there are no grounds to support the view that due to their cultural heritage, a propensity exists amongst Africans to avoid taking risks.

* * * *

The respondents were asked to indicate whether or not they believed it to be wise for senior managers delegate tasks which are new, difficult and the outcomes of which are uncertain, to more junior managers. (see appendix 1.1.9.1.)

Lange (1984), maintains that as a result of their cultural heritage, Africans are fundamentally conservative; unwilling to take risks and intolerant of ambiguity. One would therefore expect, that due to sharing a common African cultural heritage, the black South Africans and black Zimbabweans would respond similarly to the above questionnaire item.

However this was not borne out by the findings. In fact whereas just over 94% of the white South Africans and approximately 74% of the black South Africans, indicated that they saw such delegation to be positive; only about 33% Zimbabweans said that they felt that this advisable. (see appendix 31)

According to the SE test, the differences in the proportion of white South Africans as opposed to black South Africans who answered as above is significant at the 2,04% level of confidence. The differences between the proportions of black South Africans and those of black Zimbabweans, were however found to be even more significant; ie: at the 0,067% level of confidence.

This suggests, that even if conservatism is a feature of African culture, the different circumstances which have shaped the experiences of the two groups of black respondents, are likely to have had greater influence in shaping attitudes towards change and ambiguity, than have cultural factors.

The experience of tokenism, which saw people being promoted *beyond their level of competence*, often for *political ends*; has according to Harding (1990), and Strachan (1990), made business people in Zimbabwe cautious, when it comes to advancement of people in organisations.

It may in fact be that caution amongst the black Zimbabweans, as far as delegation involving relatively high risks, as is suggested by the above response pattern, could be explained by this negative experience of tokenism.

* * * *

Therefore, whilst the findings of this research provide some support of the view that strong *social needs* are a feature of Southern African black culture; there is nothing in these findings to suggest that this is necessarily associated with a *lack of personal ambition, initiative and work ethic*, seen by supporters of the cultural hypothesis as indicative of a low need for achievement, and associated with a lack of managerial potential.

3.9. *Locus of control, culture, and victim status.*

Proponents of the so called cultural hypothesis maintain that an **external locus of control** is associated with a low need for individual achievement; a feature of African culture which is likely to hinder the individuals' success as a manager. Further, Coldwell and Moerdyk (1982 as in Erwee, 1988) maintain that a prominent aspect of black culture is a belief that the individual's future is determined by a set of immutable laws which govern the universe.

This is not however supported by the finding under discussion. In fact, whilst more than 15% of the black South Africans indicated that they believed that their futures were dependent outside forces such as fate, luck or chance (as opposed to their own efforts); no white South Africans or black Zimbabweans felt this way. This is despite the fact that the two black groups share a common cultural heritage. (see appendix 32)

The SE Test found that the responses of the black South Africans differed significantly from those of the white South Africans, at a 1,56% level of confidence. Further, the differences between the two black sub-samples' responses was shown to be significant at the 2,5% level of confidence.

Moreover, according to the Chi-Square Test of Independence, the relationship between the whether individual accepts that his success depends on his own efforts or not, and sub-sample, was found to be significant at the 5% level. (see appendix C1). (see appendix 1 question 1.6.2.)

According to Khosa (1987, as in Erwee, 1988) and Memela (1988a), black managers have become adept at copying the behaviours and outwardly espousing the attitudes which the white establishment deems acceptable, while not accepting the underlying world view. With both interviewers being white, the black respondents may have responded to this item in a way which seemed most acceptable in terms of western values; particularly as far as this item is concerned, as the idea of the individual as master of his own destiny is such an overt and fundamental aspect of the value system of western business.

This finding however, seems to provide further support for the assertion stated above, that black South African

managers are more likely not to perceive performance to be dependant upon effort, than either white South Africans or black Zimbabwean managers.

This could be linked to black South Africans believing that they are discriminated against, which in turn implies an attitude that no matter how much effort one expends, there are likely to be other factors in the environment, which will affect whether one will be successful or not; a low effort-performance probability.

* * * *

3.10. Conclusion.

The above findings suggest the existence of the following significant relationships:

- i. *Perception of being a victim*, and low effort-performance probability, low performance-reward probability and low valence.
- ii. *Marginal Status* and low role clarity, lack of appreciation for key organisational processes eg: the advancement process, and to a lesser extent self-esteem (shown above to be an important determinant of a positive effort-performance probability).

On this basis one can conclude that situational factors, are likely to play a key role in affecting the motivation and performance of managers.

This assertion is further confirmed by the outcomes of the Factor Analysis; to be discussed in the following chapter.

* * * *

CHAPTER FOUR

4.1. INTRODUCTION

The pattern emerging from the Factor Analysis was that no single factor appeared to be dominant in explaining the variance in the data. Even in the non-rotated Principle Component Analysis, no single factor emerged as dominant. One must, therefore, assume that the phenomenon studied is so complex that consequences flow from fairly marginal contributions of a fairly large number of factors.

The tables below (figures 1 to 3), contain the array of factors which emerged from the Factor Analysis. Table 1 contains the outcome of the first Factor Analysis, in which the first variable was black South African; Table 2 contains the results of the second Factor Analysis, in which the first variable was white South African; and Table 3 contains the outcome of the third factor analysis, in which the first variable was black Zimbabwean. Only those variables which have values of at least 0,3, were considered to be significant, in contributing to the overall factor. Those variables with values marginally below 0,3 were also however, considered. The variables which were thought to be significant are presented in bold type in the tables below.

For a detailed description of the variables on which the Factor Analysis was conducted, see appendix 15.

The discussion of the results of the Factor Analysis, will focus primarily on those factors which relate in some way

to the propositions of this study, and/or are relevant to the findings, discussed in Chapter Three.

In other words, emphasis will be placed on those factors which are thought to have relevance to either; the *effort-performance probability*, the *performance-reward probability*, *valence* or *role perception*.

Furthermore, those factors which highlighted differences between the three sub-samples, as far as the abovementioned antecedents of motivation and performance are concerned, and consequently have direct relevance to the propositions of this research will be emphasised in the discussion. The remaining factors will be mentioned, only in terms of any specific relevance they may have with regard to discussion at hand.

* * * *

Figure 1.

FACTOR ANALYSIS 1.

VARIABLES:	FACTOR 1.1.	FACTOR 1.2.	FACTOR 1.3.	FACTOR 1.4.	FACTOR 1.5.	FACTOR 1.6.	FACTOR 1.7.
Black S.African	0,83065	-0,19262	0,11155	0,00001	0,09870	-0,14130	0,04872
Gender	0,18041	-0,11778	0,49691	0,20431	-0,15685	-0,16128	0,08134
Age	-0,26433	-0,07662	-0,08843	0,05174	0,77975	0,05336	-0,01064
Education	0,07630	0,00946	-0,14845	0,72753	0,24420	0,18464	-0,03557
Job type	-0,06129	0,07536	0,58572	-0,06283	-0,00277	0,10736	-0,11578
Level	0,17710	0,09538	-0,08404	0,71280	-0,28633	-0,14198	0,11671
Time in org.	-0,09538	-0,10656	0,42185	-0,08291	0,49786	-0,03918	0,27261
Time in position	-0,35513	-0,14545	0,33776	-0,04531	-0,41868	-0,26123	-0,03363
Wants Aff. Act.	0,33838	0,25152	0,35754	-0,01346	0,48307	-0,22838	0,31723
Ready for prom.	0,26274	0,11989	0,06978	-0,52444	-0,07864	-0,08141	-0,07912
Wants comm	0,14243	-0,67695	0,13267	0,18019	0,30560	-0,08652	-0,10032
Wants more und	-0,01553	-0,38324	-0,15285	0,15741	-0,02568	-0,40908	-0,37192
Team spirit	0,20220	-0,50557	-0,17575	-0,44391	-0,04909	0,08936	0,10466
More recog/reward	-0,16750	0,74960	0,18495	-0,02455	-0,14957	0,15667	-0,16103
Stereotyping	-0,57777	0,30912	0,03744	0,05025	0,24311	-0,07334	0,17696
Perceived racism	0,83813	-0,03676	0,03210	-0,02021	-0,06879	-0,02114	-0,01715
Understands mngmnt	-0,14709	-0,11450	-0,61947	0,24918	0,10056	-0,05093	0,04637
Wants more def.	-0,13814	0,50005	-0,34742	0,15672	-0,05504	0,31930	-0,03262
M.B.O.	-0,11958	0,01098	0,17258	0,17131	0,05937	0,76164	-0,15235
Action Plan	-0,05367	-0,20942	0,13908	0,05691	-0,04410	-0,64872	-0,40536
Likes delegating	0,25344	0,46236	-0,51441	0,14555	0,00024	-0,27010	0,19511
Enjoys risk	-0,08417	-0,10680	-0,12777	0,13524	-0,04909	0,03004	0,77612
CONTR. TO VARIANCE	2,407060	2,233723	2,007086	1,786437	1,65039	1,635690	1,267979

Figure 2.

FACTOR ANALYSIS 2.

VARIABLES:	FACTOR 2.1.	FACTOR 2.2.	FACTOR 2.3.	FACTOR 2.4.	FACTOR 2.5.	FACTOR 2.6.	FACTOR 2.7.
Wh. S.African	0,61564	-0,05215	-0,33108	0,15466	0,42816	-0,05274	-0,19041
Gender	-0,22208	0,33708	0,12113	-0,03997	-0,18957	0,20545	0,39398
Age	0,50745	-0,60020	0,02051	-0,15938	-0,18953	0,03340	0,15157
Education	-0,04525	-0,36740	-0,05182	0,03980	-0,04614	0,73880	0,00706
Job type	0,05139	0,23343	-0,01424	0,20973	-0,42136	-0,09762	0,24433
Level	-0,20220	0,17590	0,05043	0,09785	0,28496	0,71493	0,03518
Time in org.	-0,00516	0,72172	-0,08003	-0,05867	-0,14078	-0,05383	0,04173
Time in position	0,19585	0,62497	0,28642	-0,00964	-0,13658	-0,06464	-0,06726
Wants Aff. Act.	-0,00306	-0,17076	-0,09532	0,04644	0,09476	-0,04097	0,78817
Ready for prom.	-0,28913	0,01304	0,00977	0,10102	0,04786	-0,052844	0,12466
Wants comm	-0,33680	0,28211	0,29335	-0,48836	-0,22950	0,20871	-0,12401
Wants more und	-0,01550	-0,01739	0,62224	-0,22471	0,06967	0,09741	-0,21581
Team spirit	-0,29958	-0,05580	-0,07228	-0,55211	-0,04487	-0,37335	-0,11090
More recog/reward	0,07095	0,07771	-0,16318	0,80259	-0,05572	-0,04882	0,03480
Stereotyping	0,68181	-0,11110	-0,05817	0,20214	0,11112	0,04070	0,09672
Perceived racism	-0,74174	-0,08724	-0,04475	-0,05465	0,14983	-0,02625	0,23176
Understands mgmnt	0,16919	-0,29137	0,06039	-0,20471	0,133617	0,26924	-0,37159
Wants more def.	0,17046	-0,14315	-0,32948	0,44197	0,21767	0,14155	-0,35542
M.B.O.	0,03697	-0,12497	0,44656	0,17068	-0,55352	0,19384	-0,26371
Action Plan	-0,03724	0,9950	0,80596	-0,01891	-0,02125	-0,00583	0,09817
Likes delegating	-0,04288	-0,17237	-0,08669	0,20013	0,78991	0,11053	0,03701
Enjoys risk	0,20636	0,22633	-0,44229	0,40922	0,29862	0,22444	0,015053
CONTR. TO VARIANCE:	2,181752	1,945425	1,902549	1,878034	1,822426	1,790489	1,42496

Figure 3.

FACTOR ANALYSIS 3

VARIABLES:	FACTOR 3.1.	FACTOR 3.2.	FACTOR 3.3.	FACTOR 3.4.	FACTOR 3.5.	FACTOR 3.6.	FACTOR 3.7.
Black Jim	0,01557	0,86371	0,03940	0,11811	0,05175	-0,04184	-0,08065
Gender	-0,14877	0,08175	0,18962	0,54497	0,13394	-0,12881	-0,19475
Age	0,03019	-0,02830	0,08425	-0,07319	-0,25014	0,05626	0,79517
Education	-0,01831	0,05027	0,72314	-0,01590	-0,37872	0,13754	0,05421
Job type	0,09759	0,04388	-0,04960	0,43637	0,34034	0,19799	0,11452
Level	0,02818	-0,04498	0,67884	0,04770	-0,11432	-0,17932	-0,43006
Time in org.	-0,06755	0,00616	-0,07793	0,16619	0,73329	0,07783	-0,20406
Time in position	-0,01277	0,22252	-0,02362	0,05116	0,68380	-0,20026	-0,05019
Wants Aff. Act.	0,11610	-0,49488	-0,00363	0,55761	-0,10323	-0,09403	0,28543
Ready for prom.	0,04174	-0,03811	-0,54974	0,18298	-0,16745	-0,11067	-0,23576
Wants comm	-0,67410	0,24545	0,16605	0,09471	0,16277	-0,12723	-0,21820
Wants more und	-0,36661	-0,04949	0,17917	-0,26943	0,22189	-0,39692	0,13268
Team spirit	-0,53451	0,15241	-0,46201	-0,04609	-0,24030	0,00147	-0,11863
More recog/reward	0,72263	0,17755	-0,02918	0,14084	-0,30798	0,14911	-0,23577
Stereotyping	0,52983	0,23065	0,05198	-0,03825	0,01054	-0,11312	0,37326
Perceived racism	-0,34618	-0,54696	-0,04254	0,24124	-0,15864	0,05636	-0,37450
Understands angmt	-0,08875	-0,06700	0,27382	-0,61622	-0,12699	-0,08318	0,14297
Wants more def.	0,46739	-0,22246	0,17674	-0,44882	0,05072	0,36278	-0,02580
M.B.O.	0,04905	0,20018	0,16431	0,02635	-0,00067	0,747784	0,09514
Action Plan	-0,13224	0,22768	0,06161	0,10247	0,9696	-0,68517	0,01433
Likes delegating	0,29470	-0,56842	0,013917	-0,22242	-0,25886	-0,24651	-0,20423
Enjoys risk	-0,08865	-0,14338	0,13228	-0,05786	0,09607	0,06457	0,01707
CONTR. TO VARIANCE:	2,282393	2,015227	1,792047	1,728292	1,664030	1,623151	1,545766

turn corroborate the assertions made by Lee and Piper (1989), as well as Schlemmer (1986), regarding the connections between marginality and having an understanding the subtle rules and procedures which seem to govern the individual's successful performance of his role as a manager.

In addition, by implying a connection between low social needs on the one hand and high effort-performance probability and performance-reward probability on the other, further evidence is provided as regards the connection between situational factors and motivation of black managers. This in turn serves to support the propositions of the research, as regards the connection between situational factors in the environment of a manager, and his motivation and performance.

4.2.3. Factors which concern marginal status and lack of role clarity amongst black managers.

**4.2.3.1. Factor 2.3. (see figure 2. column 3.)
black managers with high social needs, experiencing role conflict.**

This factor, provides further evidence to support the notion that situational factors as they affect both black South African and black Zimbabwean managers, are likely to inhibit these managers from developing the attitudes which, according to Expectancy Theory, are necessary for them to be motivated and to perform their duties to the required standards. This factor's contribution to variance was 02549

It links being black, and being in a position in excess of five years, with a need for affiliation. The

According to Breakell (1991), London (1985), Lee and Piper (1987) as well as Schlemmer (1986); the degree to which the individual develops an understanding of his role in the organisation, as well as an appreciation of how best to attain his career objectives in an organisation, depends on the extent to which he is cognisant of the informal system of behavioural norms and rules, which exist in the organisation. Awareness of these "... myriad unwritten codes of behaviour, rites of passage, status symbols and patterns of deference" (Schlemmer 1986, page 101), which potential managers have to learn in order to be successful in their chosen careers, hinges to a large extent upon tutelage provided informally, which in turn depends on social intimacy with those already established in the management ranks of the organisation.

As mentioned earlier, the need to improve communication in the organisation and to become more understanding of the managers' aspirations, reflects a need amongst black managers to compensate for their marginal position in the organisation. According to Human and Hofmeyr (1985), as a result of the heritage of Apartheid, black South Africans remain marginal to most organisations. They say that affiliative tendencies noticeable amongst blacks in organisations, "... might result as much from the stresses of his fringe position in the white organisation, as from the cultural background from which he has emerged." (page 19)

The fact that these variables are correlated with, i. a need to have their role in the organisation clarified, and ii. the belief that their careers would best be served by activities undertaken outside of the

Figure 3. Cont.

FACTOR ANALYSIS 3
Cont.

VARIABLES:	FACTOR 3 3.8.
Black Zin	-0,14641
Gender	0,03787
Age	-0,01463
Education	0,00299
Job type	-0,22795
Level	0,19149
Time in org.	0,16131
Time in pos.	-0,04176
Wants Aff Act.	0,07415
Ready for prom.	-0,07414
Wants comm	-0,03843
Wants more und	-0,37524
Team spirit	0,18571
More recog/reward	-0,14361
Stereotyping	0,33385
Perceived racism	-0,23460
Understands mgmnt	0,08117
Wants more def.	-0,9401
M.B.O.	-0,12235
Action Plan	-0,33300
Likes delegating	0,13812
Enjoys risk	0,75766

CONTR.TO VARIANCE:1,248779

4.2. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS OF FACTOR ANALYSIS.

4.2.1. Factors signifying perceptions of victim status.

4.2.1.1. Factor 1.8. (see Figure 1. column 1.) *Perception of being a Victim amongst black South African managers.*

The first factor indicates a generalised perception of racial discrimination, amongst black South Africans who have been in their positions for five years or less as well as a belief that in some way they should be compensated for these past inequities. The contribution of this factor to overall variance is relatively high, compared to other factors (2,407060).

It shows a correlation between the following variables: i. being black South African, ii. being in their positions for five years or less, iii. a belief that blacks deserve to receive some sort of reparation for past injustices they may have suffered, iv. a perception that people are judged on external factors, and that v. these stereotyped judgements are largely made on the basis of race.

According to Human and Hofmeyr (1985), Schlenmer (1986) and Steele (1990), the perception of oneself as being a victim of racism, whether it be based in reality or not, has a negative effect on the individual's motivation to perform.

In the words of Mark Mathabane (Sunday Times 09/12/1990), " ... to dwell on racism and to somehow

have the attitude that white people are in a conspiracy against you and they are therefore omnipotent and that whatever you do you can't fight this power - it leads to a fatalism."

This fatalism implies that there are factors in the environment e.g. racism, which are beyond the individual's own control, which affect his performance, which in turn indicates a **low effort-performance probability**.

Further, as mentioned in the previous chapter, the perception that racism is a prominent feature of organisational life, suggests a belief that despite one's efforts, or how much one is able to achieve in a given situation. A person believes that he will not receive recognition for effort instead is likely to be judged according to *racial stereotypes*. This suggests a *low performance-reward probability*, which according to Expectancy Theory, will **negatively** affect motivation and hence performance.

The propositions of this research state that as a result of Apartheid, South African blacks are likely to have a negative expectation that their efforts will produce performance, that performance will produce rewards, and that these rewards when they are forthcoming, will be valued positively. The factor was therefore found to be relevant to this proposition.

4.2.2. Factors signifying Western Rational business orientation.

4.2.2.1. Factor 2.1. (see figure 2. column 2.) self-sufficient rational white South African manager.

This factor suggests that there is a positive correlation between being white South African and over thirty five, and a classic western orientation towards business. The variation in the data, which is explained by this factor is relatively high at 2,131752.

It was found that these variables (being white and over thirty five), were negatively correlated with i. perceiving promotion as being elusive, ii. a need to improve organisational communication, iii. a belief that affirmative action for blacks should be instituted, in order to compensate blacks for past iniquities in the system iv. a perception that despite good intentions people are judged according to stereotypes, rather than on abilities, skills and diligence, as well as, v. a perception that racism remains a factor in organisational life.

This pattern creates an image of a self-sufficient white South African manager; one who sees the individual as master of his own destiny, as confident of his prospects for promotion, and who feels included, and at home in the organisation (low need for improving organisational communication).

This factor, therefore, confirms the proposition that white South Africans are more likely than black South Africans to have a positive expectations that performance depends upon effort, and that rewards depend upon performance.

* * * *

The relationships implied by this factor, are corroborated by various other factors, which unlike those mentioned above, are not directly relevant to the propositions of the research; in that they do not relate specifically to any particular sub-sample(s). In spite of this, these factors were regarded as pertinent to this discussion, to the extent that they are comprised of correlations, which are similar to those in the factor discussed above. Hence, they help to reinforce various arguments put forward both in this chapter, as well as in the previous chapters, regarding the influences on the motivation and performance of black South African managers. These factors are as follows:

4.2.2.2.

Factor 1.2, like the above factor, represents an outlook commonly associated with the resilient, rational, western business world. Broadly speaking, it points to the existence of relationships between the following variables: a self perception of being the master of ones own destiny, self-reliance (as suggested by low social needs), a positive effort-performance probability, performance-reward probability, valence, and an inclination towards accepting risk.

The overall contribution to variance of this factor which is 2,181752, is relatively high.

The actual variables which contribute significantly to this factor are as follows;

- i. a low priority attached to improving communication in the organisation,

- ii. a low need to become more understanding of the needs and aspirations of its managers,
- iii. a low need to create more of a team spirit amongst its managers,
- iv. a low priority attached to achieving the more effective recognition and reward of effort,
- v. a belief that people are judged on internal rather than external characteristics,
- vi. a low need for managers' roles to be better defined,
- vii. a willingness to accept risks.

It is interesting to note that this factor links low social needs, with high effort performance and high performance-reward, probabilities; as well as a relatively high degree of role-clarity. This supports the hypothesis as put forward by Human (1990a & 1990b), as well as Human and Hofmeyr (1985), that affiliative tendencies are related to a need for increased support, so as to compensate for lack of security and self-confidence, rather than cultural heritage, as suggested by amongst others, Coldwell and Moerdyk (1982, in Erwee 1988), Mjoli (1987), McWilliam-Smith (1981). As discussed above, self-confidence and security are critical antecedents to positive motivation and performance, and hence a positive effort-performance probability, positive performance-reward probability, as well as role clarity.

According to Expectancy Theory therefore, this factor represents the preconditions for positive motivation. In fact, its depictions of an individual who believes in self-reliance, and who sees little need for improvements made in the way in which a person has his efforts recognised and rewarded, and who understands his role in the organisation should all contribute to positive motivation and performance.

4.2.2.3. Factor 2.4, points to a link between a low need to improve communication in the organisation, a low need for promoting a team spirit amongst the managers of the organisation, and a low priority attached to gaining improved role clarity.

4.2.2.4. Factor 3.1, shows a connection between the following variables;

- i. low social needs, as suggested by low priorities being accorded to the improvement of organisational communication, as well as the creation of more of a team spirit amongst its managers,
- ii. a low need for improved role definition, iii. a belief that individuals in organisations are judged on their diligence, skills, and abilities rather than on external characteristics (particularly race),
- iv. a high effort-performance probability suggested by satisfaction, with the recognition and reward an individual receives for his efforts, and

- v. a belief that managers should delegate difficult and untried tasks to subordinates, who are not all that experienced. This factor had a relatively high contribution to overall variance of 2,015227.

4.2.2.5.

Factor 2.2, indicates a link between a need to see improvements in organisational communication, and not understanding the manager's role in an organisation. In the previous discussions, the high social needs, as implied by the need to improve organisational communication, was said to represent an attempt to compensate for the sense of social isolation that they feel as a consequence of their marginal status in the organisation. As mentioned above, Lee and Piper (1987) and Schlemmer (1986) amongst others have suggested that one consequence of marginal status is that the individual will lack access to the informal systems of rules and procedures which are essential as far as his gaining an understanding of the role of a manager is concerned. It was with regard to the connection which is implied between social needs and role perception, both of which are seen to be related to the issue of marginality, that this factor was seen to be relevant to this discussion.

* * * *

By pointing to an association between the social needs on the one hand, and lack of role clarity, and appreciation for key organisational processes on the other; the factors discussed under point 4.2.2. provide further support for the assertions made in Chapter Three under point 3.4. These in

need for role clarification, not having an appreciation of the advancement process, as well as an unwillingness to take risks.

In other words, it paints a picture of an experienced black manager who lacks a clear understanding of both his role in the organisation (requires more role definition), as well as the advancement processes which exist in the organisation; who avoids taking risks, and who seeks the support of his colleagues (strong social needs).

In fact it was found that being black, and having more than five years experience, was correlated with the following variables;

- i. a high priority assigned to improving organisational communication,
- ii. a need for organisations to become more understanding of the needs and aspirations of its managers,
- iii. a need to improve definition of one's role; iv. a need to have clear objectives set, through a management by objectives programme,
- v. a belief that one's career objectives will best be served through activities outside the organisation, and
- vi. a preference to minimise risk.

organisational environment; confirms previous arguments which have been presented regarding the connection between marginality on the one hand and role confusion and lack of appreciation of the tacit system of rules and processes which Schein (1981) terms the informal system of the organisation, on the other.

This factor also supports the notion introduced in previous chapters, regarding the marginal status of black managers in Zimbabwean organisations. Murphree (1986; and Pasipanadya (1987) and Strachan (1990) observe that although overt racism is no longer a significant factor in Zimbabwean organisations, blacks still encounter subtle resistance from the predominantly white managerial establishment. This has been exacerbated by *inter alia*, token appointments having been made in the past, as well as the insecurity of white managers. They argue that as a result of this, and despite social and economic empowerment, Zimbabwean blacks continue to lack social intimacy with established white managers. Possible consequences of this marginal status are, therefore, that black managers, both South African and Zimbabwean, not only try to compensate for this sense of isolation, through seeking the support of others (as suggested by high social needs), but come to lack an appreciation of the tacit codes of conduct, which provide the basis for understanding the unstated expectations which organisations have of their managers.

The fact that the black manager described by this factor has more than five years of experience in his position, can be explained in various ways:

- Firstly, it could mean that the problems associated with black management (as discussed above) become worse as the black manager remains in his position for longer. This would imply that the black manager becomes increasingly *marginal* and isolated in the organisation with time and experience. This has alarming implications as regards the future prospects for black managers in so-called white organisations.

- An alternative explanation could be that those black managers who were appointed to their positions more than five years ago, were victims of some of the misguided black advancement programmes, which consisted largely of *window dressing* and token appointments, and hence were bound to experience difficulties. Furthermore, it may be that organisations have recently become more aware of some of the problems confronted by black managers, and consequently take more heed of the recommendations concerning the selection and development of black managers, made by amongst others; Charoux (1985,1990), as well as Human and Hofmeyr (1985); which in turn would have put them at a considerable advantage *vis-à-vis* their more experienced colleagues. However, there is little evidence which emerges from the findings which suggests that organisations surveyed in this research have in recent years developed a more serious approach to the development of black management, or that earlier appointments were tokens.

Whatever the correct interpretation of this finding may be, the determination of which of these explanations is the most valid is beyond the scope of this study, and would have to be ascertained by a more in depth study which focuses primarily on this issue.

As regards, the preference for minimising risk amongst blacks, this, in all probabilities, is attributable to a need for increased security, which could also be said to stem from a feeling of being marginal to, and not having a clear understanding of, ones' role, in the organisation.

This factor was found to be relevant to the research proposition in a number of ways; as follows:

- i. The fact that due to the affect of certain situational factors, white South Africans are at a relative advantage *vis-à-vis* the black South African managers, regarding certain critical antecedents of motivation and performance.
- ii. That black Zimbabwean managers, despite being politically empowered, still face certain problems which affect their performance as managers. This can be attributed to the fact that certain attitudes, which are thought to be connected to motivation and performance, are too ingrained and self-reinforcing, to be altered by changes made to national social policy.

4.2.4. Role clarity and black Zimbabwean managers.

Black Zimbabwean managers suffering from lack of role clarity, not believing in delegation but seeing the individual as master of his own destiny. (see figure 3. column 2.)

This factor shows that being black Zimbabwean is negatively correlated with; i. a belief that blacks should be entitled to reparations, in the form of affirmative action, to compensate for injustices of the past, ii. a perception that people in organisations are judged according to race, and iii. not subscribing to the notion that new difficult tasks should be delegated to less experienced managers.

It seems that black Zimbabweans do not perceive discrimination as a major issue in their lives and therefore do not believe that reparation for past wrongs are necessary. This indicates that, unlike their South African counterparts, the black Zimbabweans do not perceive themselves to be victims of racism. This has interesting implications as regards the relationship between political empowerment on the one hand and victim consciousness on the other. Black Zimbabweans have full political and social rights, as opposed to black South Africans. Further, by highlighting a difference between black South Africans and black Zimbabweans as far as this issue is concerned, it is confirmed that victim consciousness is more likely to arise from situational factors than from culture.

In addition, the black Zimbabweans showed a preference for minimising risks, by not recommending the

delegation of new and untried tasks to less experienced managers.

According to Blanchard *et al* (1989) delegation is one of the keys to successful management. Hence, besides the issue of wanting to minimise risk, this phenomenon may be an indication of the Zimbabwean black managers' unsuitability for management.

Coldwell and Moerdyk (1981, in Erwee 1988), maintain that African Culture is characterised by a belief that the individual's influence in his society is rigidly determined by an inflexible authority structure, according to which power is distributed in accordance with a series of immutable laws, which regard, *inter alia*, age and seniority, rather than ability and skill, as being the most important criteria when deciding on the distribution of authority. This of course would have serious negative implications, regarding the adaptability of black managers to managing in a western business environment.

However, the fact that elsewhere a positive correlation, (albeit one that was too weak to include in the description of the 4.2.4.1. see figure 1. column 1. i.e.: 0,25344), was found to exist between being black South African and subscribing to the notion of delegating new tasks in which success is uncertain; suggests that this caution cannot be attributed to so-called African cultural heritage which after all, black South Africans and Zimbabweans share.

Further, not having included white Zimbabweans in the sample, it is difficult to say whether this caution

is a unique attribute of black Zimbabweans, or whether in fact it is common to all Zimbabwean managers.

4.3. CONCLUSION

The findings which emerged from the Factor Analysis therefore confirm the relevance of various propositions of this study. Not only were positive *effort-performance probability*, *performance-reward probability*, *valence*, *role-clarity* and *cognisance of key organisational processes* found to be negatively associated with being a black South African manager, but these essential antecedents for motivation and performance were found to be positively associated with being white South African.

Further, it was found that the black Zimbabweans resembled the white South Africans in terms of the positive *effort-performance probability*, *performance-reward probability* and *valence*, whilst resembling the black South Africans' responses with regard to issues surrounding *role perception*.

Thus, one can conclude that besides corroborating the findings discussed in Chapter Three, the Factor Analysis supports the various propositions of this research which state that:

- i. The lack of success of black managers can be explained in terms of the negative effects which certain environmental factors have on specific elements in the motivation process; which in turn negatively affect these managers' motivation to perform.

- ii. Whilst in certain respects the black Zimbabwean manager is in a preferable position relative to his black South African counterpart (particularly as regards the critical antecedents for motivation); in other ways (with regard to the antecedents of performance), the plight of the black Zimbabwean manager is similar to that of the black South African manager. This is due it seems, to the fact that certain attitudes, particularly those which directly affect performance are firmly entrenched and are not easily changed.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.1. INTRODUCTION

Conducting the Regression Analysis was the final step in the sequence of Analyses employed in this study. Its purpose was to ascertain the relative importance of certain variables which have been established as being relevant in determining the respondents' adaptation to management.

The discussion will focus mainly on the *order of causality*, denoted by the various operations which comprise the Regression Analysis, as opposed to specific correlations. In other words the main concern of this chapter was the *order of contribution* of the variables concerned, *vis-à-vis* the dependent variable - adaptation to management. As was mentioned in Chapter Two, this level of analysis was thought to be suitable, given the fact that the purpose of this research is exploratory, which means that it is designed to generate research questions, as opposed to testing hypotheses (or answering research questions).

5.2. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The measures of the overall contribution of the independent variables to the dependent variable, namely the *R-Square* and *ADJ-R-Square* values, which stand at 0,1184 and 0,0542, respectively, are low. One explanation for these low values could be that the wrong variables were selected. However, in studying the findings which emanated from the Chi-Square Test Of Independence, as well as the Factor Analysis, no other variables which emerged from this research, came to light which could

compete with these; as far as their possible causal relationship with the dependent variable is concerned.

What the relatively low R-Square and Adj R-Square do signify however, is the complexity of the phenomenon of adaptation to a managerial role, and the marginal contribution to this variable, of a large variety of specific factors. (For a full list of the various correlations involved, see appendix 3)

The table below contains the order of contribution of the independent variables as far as the dependent variable adaptation to management is concerned - on which the analysis contained in this chapter is based. (The detailed outcome of the Regression Analysis is contained in appendix 33).

* * * *

Table 4.

ORDER OF RANK

Description of table.

Order of rank denoted by various statistical operations which comprise the Regression Analysis (1) represents the most influential independent variable and (7) the least. (For the detailed output of the Regression Analysis see appendix 33.)

KEY

ISS = Type I SS.
 IISS = Type II SS.
 SE = Standardised Estimates.
 SPCT1 = Semi-Partial Correlation Type I.
 SPCT2 = Semi-Partial Correlation Type II.
 PCTI = Partial Correlation Type I.
 PCTII = Partial Correlation Type II.

REGRESSOR	ISS	IISS	SE	SPCT1	SPCT2	PCTI	PCTII	SUMMARY
Education	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	4x1; 3x2
- Victim Consciousness	2	1	2	2	1	2	1	3x1; 4x2
Hi-Risk/ Self-sufficiency	3	4	4	3	4	3	4	3x3; 4x4
Role Clarity	4	6	6	4	6	4	6	3x4; 4x6
T-Position	5	3	3	5	3	5	3	3x5; 4x3
Seniority	6	5	5	6	5	6	5	3x6; 4x5
Social Need	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7x7

It seems after reviewing the outcomes of the statistical operations, that *level of education* and *victim consciousness* are the independent variables which most affect the dependant variable - *adaptation to management*.

5.2.1. *Level of education.*

As mentioned previously, education is one of the most critical distributors of life chances in the modern world. Human and Human (1987) found in their study into the biographical profile of the white South African economic élite, that the educational background of their sample (which included the bulk of chief executive officers of South African corporations of the time), is remarkably homogeneous. It was, in fact, found that the majority of the sample had the privilege of attending exclusive educational institutions.

According to Human and Human (1987) this trend implies that being educated at a private institution has given these directors "an enormous 'pre-market' advantage. Thus it seems that "the foundations for the socialisation of the new economic élite are firmly laid in the private and exclusive educational system" (page 71). Human and Human (1987) go on to suggest that the majority of their sample came from families where education was highly valued.

Furthermore, they argue that the abovementioned homogeneity of educational background amongst South Africa's business élite, must be seen in context of the way in which they (the business élite) structure themselves (and the membership criteria), to ensure its own exclusivity and perpetuation (*social closure*). However, this argument does not explain why a connection should have been made in this study, between *level of education* and *adaptation to management*.

In examining the nature of the variable, *level of education*, one sees that those subjects who were rated low, had matric (or equivalent, such as O-levels) or less as their highest qualification; those rated medium had a bachelors degree (or part thereof); whereas those who were rated high on this variable, had a post-graduate qualification. (see appendix 16.1.)

One must take into account that the respondents who were classified as having tertiary education (and therefore rated high on the above mentioned scale) were academically, as opposed to technically, qualified. Hence, the discussions which follow, concerning the nature of this variable, and its consequent relationship with adaptation to management, will regard tertiary education to mean academic i.e. university type, tertiary education.

In order to gain insight into the relationship which is indicated between having a tertiary education and adaptation to management, one must understand the critical qualitative differences which exist between secondary level and tertiary level education.

It would seem that a crucial factor which distinguishes university education from a high school education, is its emphasis on self-reliance, and being able to grasp concepts, as opposed to memorising facts. Whereas at school the emphasis is on the role of the teacher, who most often determines which information is important to learn. In the university environment the emphasis is on the individual student, who is required to take responsibility for his own learning, with the teacher generally performing a facilitating role. It remains up to the student to ensure that he understands concepts, to decide which information is important, and also to be able to communicate his understanding of the concepts to others.

In addition, at school the pupil is required to follow a predetermined curriculum, with limited choice being available in terms of course of study. However, in most cases the direction of one's university education is determined according to personal choice, where the student must choose a degree, based on his personal goals, and what he believes he is capable of achieving. Further, once he has made this decision, his success is mainly dependent on his own efforts and aptitudes, and to a lesser extent on the motivation and abilities of his teachers.

Walker (1984), who has developed a programme entitled Super Management, designed to bridge the gap between non-management and management positions in organisations, holds that a key requirement of being in management, is critical thought, and an ability to understand one's environment, including people, and one's role on a conceptual level. He asserts that it is this requirement which distinguishes managerial from non-managerial positions.

Furthermore, according to the Paterson System of job evaluation (Cogill 1990), management and non-management jobs can be distinguished from one another, according to the amount of discretion which the individual is required to exercise in his job. It is logical to assume that the extent to which one is able to successfully exercise discretion, is roughly commensurate with one's conceptual understanding of one's environment.

This notion is supported by von Hirschveld (1990), who maintains that an essential component of any management development programme, particularly those which focus on training educationally disadvantaged people for management

positions (which of course applies to many black management development programmes), is the encouragement of what Pearn and Downs (1988, in von Hirschfeld 1990), term *active learning*. This process stresses the need for individuals to assume responsibility for their own learning experience. In addition, it emphasises the development of the skills which are necessary for the individual to develop an understanding of his environment. As Dr Johan Van Zijl (1991) said in determining what was required of the educational system, for South Africa to become as economically successful as countries such as South Korea or Singapore, "... it was essential for people to learn to think, to learn to learn, and learn to create" (page 85).

Furthermore, an important characteristic of universities is that they are *elitist*. It is well known that to qualify for a university education, one needs to have attained a relatively high level of academic achievement.

This serves to encourage individuals with a university education to identify with society's *élite*, with whom managers in organisations are generally identified. Not only does this assist the individual in developing a clear understanding of his role as a manager (*career insight*), but it helps him identify personally with his job as a manager (*career identity*).

The relative importance of level of education with regard to influencing adaptation to management, as indicated by the results of the Regression Analysis (see figure 5), can therefore be understood in terms of the fact that university education encourages the development of those skills, attitudes and abilities which can help managers to exercise discretion, which forms such a crucial aspect of their job.

As mentioned above, the relationship between level of education and adaptation to management, as indicated by the Regression Analysis, was, in relative terms, not very strong. Moreover, there are many managers who do not have a university degree, who nevertheless, have had successful careers. Therefore, one must stress, that it is not the university education itself which will ensure success as a manager, but the attitudes of self-reliance, self-confidence, (career resilience) critical thought, conceptual thinking, (career insight) and élitism (career identity), which such an education helps to engender which are so necessary for effective management.

Taking this into account, the fact that the majority of black managers in South Africa are products of so-called Bantu Education, has negative ramifications as far as the prospects of these managers are concerned. In the words of Dr Thekiso Khati, the principal of Promat college (which attempts to provide an alternative to the black education system, as it stood prior to the proposals for changes to South African education policy tabled in June 1991), "the general style of black education is very autocratic and demotivating. Teachers pronounce, pupils listen passively" (Leadership April/May 1991, page 59). The ANC too, has expressed concern at the inability of the black education system to produce people who are able to run the country. (in Lee, Schlemmer et al, 1991). The Promat colleges recognise the importance of active learning, by following a system in which "... education is based on activity by the pupil; that knowledge and skills are not merely to be learned, but to be used. Students will themselves to a large extent learn through research rather than having information pumped into them" (Leadership April/May 1991, page 59). It will take some time however, to assess whether, in fact, the graduates of the Promat colleges will be more successful as managers, than the products of the regular state run black schools.

5.2.2. Victim Consciousness.

According to the regression analysis victim consciousness, was found to be the second most important variable with regard to influencing the dependent variable - adaptation to management. (see table 4) It was found that victim consciousness was negatively related to adaptation to management.

As discussed under the previous point, one of the key determinants of a person's suitability for management, is his ability to exercise discretion effectively. This in turn, implies his being capable of conceptualising the problems which exist in one's environment, as well as the self-confidence to: i. believe that one's assessment of a particular issue is accurate; ii. be able to trust one's own judgement sufficiently to decide on a solution to the problem, to be able to convince others of the viability of one's idea, but iii. to have the maturity and honesty, to admit when another person's idea seems better. In other words, the successful manager must believe that the outcomes of the decisions he as an individual makes, will be positive, or put another way, he must perceive a positive effort-performance probability. As Steele (1990) says, "personal responsibility is the brick and Mortar of power (of which management is an example)" (page 33).

Victim consciousness, on the other hand, removes responsibility from the individual, which means that the individual comes to lack career resilience. As Steele (1990) says, "when we do think of ourselves as victims, we are released from responsibility for some difficulty, spared some guilt and accountability. Our innocence is restored

because an injustice was done to us. Injustice is what gives the claim of victimization its magic, its power to spray the onus of responsibility onto others, and to recompose inner fears into external threats." (page 67)

Victim consciousness therefore, not only erodes a person's career resilience, but allows a person to "... suppress his individuality and create a distorted view of himself and the world" (Steele 1990, page 70), thus preventing the development of career insight, which depends upon the clear and rational assessment of ones environment, and its various problems.

It is important to realise that having career resilience - which includes the self-confidence necessary for a manager to accept responsibility, does not mean that the individual should not experience feelings of inferiority in response to real failure.

Steele (1990), says that such self-doubt, when properly confronted, assists one to learn from one's mistakes, and hence to take personal responsibility for one's actions; both positive and negative. As was stated above, this is an essential prerequisite for the development of career resilience, and hence for adaptation to management.

He goes on to show how *victim consciousness* allows the individual the opportunity to deny these feelings of self-doubt and inadequacy, and to recompose his anxieties into a sense of being victimised. This in turn results in the person failing to accept responsibility for his actions. Therefore, he says that "without a frank account of one's anxieties, there is no clear direction, no concrete challenge." (page 53)

The self-reliance and self sufficiency which is required in management, is in many ways analogous to Satre's (in Steele 1990), conception of freedom which he describes as being, "stressful, difficult and frightening - a burden because of the responsibility it carries." Hence people, especially those who have suffered real oppression, may lack the self-confidence to accept the challenges it poses, e.g. the confrontation of one's own self-doubt and feelings of inadequacy. Instead they opt for *victim consciousness*, which would in turn release them from responsibility and spare them accountability.

Further, Steele (1990) comments that it should not be surprising that people who have been oppressed (like black South Africans and black Americans), do not subscribe to notions such as individual responsibility, delayed gratification, self-interested hard work and individual initiative; all of which are essential prerequisites for successful management. This is because oppression *conditions* people away from such attitudes - "In oppression these things don't pay off and are therefore negatively reinforced. It is not that these values have never been present in black life, only that they were muted and destabilised by the negative conditioning of oppression. I believe that since the mid-sixties our weakness in this area has been a far greater detriment to our advancement than any remaining racial victimization" (page 69).

* * * *

The fact that the findings discussed in the Chapters Three and Four, show that *victim consciousness* is prevalent amongst black South African managers, does not augur well for the future prospects of black managers in South African organisations. Whether or not this situation will improve,

once black South Africans obtain full political and social emancipation in the so-called New South Africa, is difficult to foretell. The reason for this is that two conflicting scenarios concerning the effects of social and political emancipation on *victim consciousness*, are depicted by the respective experiences of; i. black Zimbabweans , and ii. black Americans.

The conclusions drawn about the former group, are based primarily on the findings of this research, reviewed in previous chapters; whereas the conclusions made about the latter, were based mainly on the analyses presented in the writings of Lacayo (1991) and Steele (1990).

It seems in fact, that whereas the black Zimbabweans subscribe to a notion that the individual should be responsible for his own actions and his own future; the black Americans continue to perceive themselves as *victims* of racism. In fact feature articles, which appeared in Time Magazine (13/3/1989) and the Economist (1/4/1991), as well as in Steele (1990), suggest that the problems associated with *victim consciousness* amongst American blacks, have become worse under conditions of social and political freedom. This seems to have occurred, they say, because the increased competition which is a consequence of integration, brings with it feelings of anxiety and self-doubt. As mentioned above, *victim consciousness* allows one to recompose one's vulnerability into a self-perception of being a victim, so as to deflect responsibility away from oneself, and thereby release oneself from experiencing feelings of anxiety. Steele (1990) says, "we (American blacks) reconstitute the boundaries of segregation just as they become illegal. By averting opportunity and curbing effort for fear of awakening a sense of inferiority." (page 54) He goes on to say, "I believe that one of the greatest problems black Americans

currently face - one of the greatest barriers to our development, is that our memory of oppression has such power, magnitude, depth and nuance that it constantly drains our best resources into more defence than is necessary" (page 151).

The attainment of political power may have been the key factor in making sure that Zimbabwean blacks overcome any *victim consciousness*. This of course has positive implications for black South Africans, who like their Zimbabwean counterparts are likely to gain political power. Perhaps however, it was the *psychological triumph*, which resulted from black Zimbabweans feeling that their actions had produced the political and military humiliation of their former oppressors, which was the decisive factor which allowed the black Zimbabweans to come to avoid perpetual *victim consciousness*. As an ex Zimbabwean freedom fighter said during a television interview, screened by the Zimbabwean Broadcasting Corporation in April 1990, "... you have to be self-confident to win a war, and winning a war makes you self-confident."

Whether the black South Africans will experience a similar *psychological victory*, in the course of attaining full political and social emancipation in South Africa, will remain to be seen. One must however not underestimate the tendency for *victim consciousness* to perpetuate itself. As Steele (1990) says (referring again to black Americans), "for us freedom has so long meant the absence of oppression that we have not yet realised it also means conquering of self-doubt" (page 54).

5.2.3. *Victim consciousness and level of education.*

The regression analysis indicated that, of the independent variables which were included in the exercise, level of

education and victim consciousness, were the most significant as far as influencing the dependent variable - adaptation to management, is concerned. Despite these two variables being discreet, each one does have important implications *vis-à-vis* the other.

It is clear from the above discussion, that for a person to succeed at university he must be self-reliant, and he must be able to trust his own judgement and abilities. In other words, he must perceive a positive effort-performance probability. Victim consciousness, on the other hand, indicates that the individual believes that despite his abilities and talents, the odds are stacked against him, because of his gender, race or religion, and therefore he perceives a negative effort-performance probability. Alternatively, victim consciousness may also lead the individual to believe negative stereotypes, according to which he imagines (erroneously or not), that others judge him. As mentioned in the third chapter, Horowitz (1985) points out that in a society like South Africa which is characterised by racial division, the individual's self-esteem is, as a rule, determined by the esteem accorded to their ethnic group.

Therefore, it seems that the black South African manager finds himself in an invidious position *vis-à-vis* adaptation to management. This is because, as was made evident by the findings discussed in Chapters Three and Four, black South African managers perceive themselves to be victims of racism. This has both a direct as well as an indirect negative effect on adaptation to management, (see point 5.2.2, table 4 and appendix 32), in that it implies that the individual lacks the self-reliance and trust in his own abilities to perform a manager's job, (effort-performance probability), and moreover does not have the attitudes which which, according to Steele (1990), are so necessary to attain success at university, or level of education, as it has been termed in this chapter.

Steele (1990), in fact believes that *victim consciousness* is one of the chief causes of failure at university amongst American blacks. He suggest that the university environment, like other situations which are racially integrated, and are essentially competitive, arouses feelings of self-doubt amongst black students, which instead of being acknowledged and dealt with, are *recomposed* into *victim consciousness*.

Steele (1990) therefore stresses that the *victim consciousness* of black Americans students, is more a result of racial equality than inequality. He ascribes this to the fact that black Americans have always lived with the accusation that they are inferior on account of their colour. He goes on to say that "... this accusation has been too uniform, too ingrained in cultural imagery, too enforced by law, custom, and every form of power not to have left a mark. Black inferiority was a precept accepted by the founders of this nation; it was the principle of social organization that relegated blacks to the sidelines of American life. So when young black students find themselves on white campuses surrounded by those who have historically claimed superiority, they are also surrounded by the myth of their inferiority" (page 133). One can see that this description is equally applicable (if not more so) to the position of the South African black student.

It is, of course normal for any student to experience anxiety on entering university. However, it is not the anxiety itself that is the problem; it is the recomposition of this anxiety into perceiving oneself as being a *victim of discrimination*, which occurs amongst black American students (Steele 1990), that lies at the root of the problem. This is further compounded by the "... terror that

somehow through one's actions or by some proof (a poor grade or a flubbed response in class), one's fear of inferiority - inculcated in ways large and small by society - will be confirmed as real. On a university campus where intelligence is the ultimate measure, this anxiety is bound to be triggered" (page 135).

One should realise that he has based his book on the American situation, and the fact that a significant proportion of the black South African respondents, have obtained university degrees, often overcoming great odds to do so; testifies to the fact that with this phenomenon one cannot generalise completely, as far as the black South Africans are concerned. Besides, as was mentioned above and in the first chapter, the South African blacks have been greatly disadvantaged *vis-à-vis*, education; through the markedly inferior black educational system, which must account in some way for the relatively low success of South African blacks at university. Having said this, however, segregated educational facilities will soon be a thing of the past, and it seems that the black South Africans' situation will come to resemble that of the American black Students even more closely.

The relevance of Steele's (1990) analysis to South African blacks is evidenced by the words of the recently appointed vice chancellor of the University of Cape Town, Mamphela Ramphele, (Sunday Times 20/1/1991) who is herself black. She says, "tertiary education needs a change of attitude on the part of white and black students as well as academics ... the combination white guilt and black students image of themselves as having inferior education can cast them into the role of victims." She notes that this creates a situation in universities, where "... being black becomes an excuse for failure and we end up with double standards."

As remarked by Sandile Memela, a well known black journalist (Frontline Magazine 6/1988), on the plight of the South African Blacks, "The line between disability and excuse is so fine that we scarcely know when we have passed it; so fine that we often blame Apartheid for our personal failures. One thing accounts for a great deal of our getting nowhere, our setbacks and failures as people. It is the fact that we are not true to ourselves." "Everybody knows that we reel from oppression. But deep down some of us know that we throw dust into our own eyes and thereafter complain that we cannot see."

5.3. CONCLUSION

In indicating that having a university education and not perceiving oneself to be a victim, are relatively important as far as adaptation to management is concerned; the assertions made in the previous chapters, that a positive effort-performance probability is a crucial factor in determining the individual's success as a manager, are corroborated.

The fact that these two variables were shown to influence adaptation to management, underlines how important it is for a successful manager to be self-reliant; to exercise discretion, to conceptualise the problems which confront him, to have the self-confidence necessary to make decisions, to balance independence with the ability to work within a team, as well as to be able to communicate and defend them effectively. All of these attributes are included in London's (1985) definition of a successful manager, which is described more fully under point 5.2.

It is important to qualify the points made in the above discussion, by pointing out that the overall contribution of the

independent variables to the dependent variable, is relatively low. (see point 5.1.) This suggests that there are probably many other variables which make an important contribution to a manager's adaptation to his work-role, certain of which have been highlighted by the findings of this research, discussed in Chapters Three and Four.

The immediate implications of the findings discussed in this chapter are negative, as far as black South African managers are concerned. This is because according to the findings reviewed in the previous chapters, there is strong evidence to suggest that black South African managers perceive a low *effort-performance probability*.

Whether the black South Africans respond to their social and political empowerment, in a way similar to their Zimbabwean counterparts, and overcome their *victim consciousness*, or like the black Americans, continue to perceive themselves as *victims*, despite the fact that they have full political and social freedom, is at this stage open for conjecture, and would have to be addressed in a study which includes black Americans in its sample.

Furthermore, and perhaps most important, the South African social environment is unique in many respects and one cannot make clear predictions as to its future based solely on experiences of other societies. So whilst it may be possible to make certain predictions as to how the problems associated with South African black management development are likely to be resolved, based on experiences of black managers elsewhere, one must always realise that there are certain aspects of the South African situation which are unique and therefore all predictions based on what occurred in other countries will, almost always, be inexact.

On the basis of the above discussion, it does seem clear, however, that the only way in which this problem of victim consciousness amongst black South Africans can be solved, to a point where they will be in a position to: i. attain success in the university environment, and ii. develop a positive effort-performance probability; both of which will serve as catalysts for career resilience, career identity and career insight will be if self-doubt can be acknowledged and dealt with as a challenge rather than recomposed, or succumbed to.

In the words of the late Dr Martin Luther King (in Steele page 138), "when you are behind in the footrace, the only way to get ahead is to run faster than the man in front of you. So when your white room mate says he's tired and goes to sleep, you stay up and burn the midnight oil."

CHAPTER SIX

6.1. INTRODUCTION

This study examined a very important topic. Although it has uncovered much that was known before, it has in the author's view, advanced the debate by specifying more precisely than previous research, the relative importance of certain major factors, in affecting the motivation and performance of black South African managers.

This chapter will attempt to show the significance of these factors, by summarising the conclusions which have been drawn from this study and discussing their implications in terms of the various hypotheses reviewed in Chapter One, which concern the lack of success of black managers in South African organisations.

6.2. IMPLICATIONS OF RESEARCH FINDINGS FOR HYPOTHESES

This section will examine the implications which the findings have for the various theories that have attempted to explain the problems associated with *black management development*.

6.2.1. *Cultural hypothesis*

The so-called *cultural hypothesis* suggests, that as a consequence of a "teleological" or circular world view and what is termed as communalistic orientation, the black manager does not appreciate certain concepts which are fundamental to management e.g. planning, and in addition lacks the initiative, personal ambition and drive; which he would

require to *inter alia* accept risks and make decisions where outcomes were uncertain - also an essential requirement for successful management. Hence, the proponents of this view say, that as a rule, the black manager does not have the self-reliance or the ability to deal effectively with his environment which is necessary for him to be an effective manager.

However the research findings show no relationship between being black and an external locus of control. (implied by a teleological world view). In fact, whereas a proportion of the black South African subjects evinced an external locus of control, none of the black Zimbabweans did so; this is in spite of their common cultural heritage. This implies that an external locus of control should be understood in context of the unique experience of black South African managers, rather than in terms of aspects of African culture. The most noticeable (unique) feature of the experience of black South African managers, which emerged consistently from the findings of this study, is victim consciousness - that is various findings of this study show that South African blacks perceive themselves to be victims of racism. Further implications of victim consciousness, vis-à-vis management, will be discussed below, under point 6.5.2.1.

In addition, whereas the findings show an unwillingness on the part of black Zimbabweans to delegate new and untried tasks - suggesting belief in a rigid authority structure, and a willingness to minimise risks; the black South Africans were found to support such delegation.

This disputes the notion, which is central to the cultural hypothesis, that African culture (and the elements of which it is composed), should be seen as static and absolute. Instead

these two findings show that factors which are purported to be culturally determined, such as an external locus of control and belief in a rigid authority structure, should be seen in relation to their context - as adaptations which have been made in response to situational factors. For a more detailed discussion of this point see 6.5.

Furthermore, the findings produced no evidence to support the argument that Africans lack the need for (individual) achievement, which is necessary to be successful as a manager. In fact it was found that the black respondents were able to define their personal career plans with the same degree of clarity as the white respondents.

On the other hand, the findings provided strong evidence to suggest that African respondents (both Zimbabwean and South African) had stronger social needs (needs for affiliation), than did the white respondents. However the results of the Factor Analysis indicated the existence of positive correlations between social needs on the one hand, and variables such as lack of role clarity and appreciation for the advancement process, on the other.

This therefore supports the notion put forward by Human and Hofmeyr (1985) that the black managers' high social needs are to be understood in terms of attempts to secure compensation for the sense of isolation experienced in the work place. In other words a consequence of marginal status. [understood by Lee and Piper (1989) as well as Schlemmer (1986) to be connected to lack of role clarity.]

This, and the fact that no clear pattern emerged with regard to the need for achievement, therefore corroborates the argument that social needs are to be seen in context of

situational rather than cultural factors. Further implications of this as far as the performance of managers is concerned, will be discussed below, under point 6.2.5.2.

6.2.2. Proper planning preparation and support for black Management Development.

It must be stressed, that giving more attention to planning and implementing, carefully formulated programmes for the selection and development of black managers can only be of benefit to the cause of black management development. However the research findings suggest that the problems associated with black managers are too ingrained, persuasive and complex to be fully solved by such efforts.

Therefore, whilst one cannot dispute the necessity for proper planning and support of black management development, one must ensure that the emphasis given to the formulation and implementation of such programmes, does not reinforce the view that the sole requirement for successful black management development; is the investment of resources, carefully planned programmes, clearly defined objectives, and the commitment of the organisations' executives to the advancement of blacks. The danger of such an approach, is that it might in fact contribute to some of the problems and frustrations of those involved; by obscuring the fact that the motivation and performance of black managers are affected by certain complex attitudes and values, and cannot be easily modified by creating new policies, or engaging in strategic planning. (This will be discussed in more detail in the discussion on marginal status.)

6.2.3. *Educational Hypothesis.*

There can be no doubt that the *Bantu education*, which was designed to complement the legal framework of the Apartheid system, has negatively affected the suitability of its products for management.

In fact, popular wisdom suggests that the problems experienced by blacks in management are largely ascribable to the inferior quality of their education, and that the only solution for this is to increase spending so as *inter alia* teacher to pupil ratio's in black schools can come to resemble Western norms.

Such improvements would of course ensure that blacks are better equipped for management, from a point of view of skills and knowledge, which can only be seen positively. However as with the issue discussed above (planning etc.), exclusive and narrow focus on the need to improve educational standards may serve to conceal the more important issues which exist beneath the surface; these are discussed below.

Steele (1990) in fact points out that despite attending the same (inferior) schools, in the same (poor) neighbourhoods, children of certain immigrant communities have achieved greater success in later life than American black children. This suggests that whilst quality of education may have some affect the suitability of a person for management, there are more subtle and pervasive attitudes which allow certain individuals to overcome hardship and go on to achieve personal success, whilst others remain victims of their misfortune.

Nevertheless, of all the independent variables included in the Regression Analysis, level of education was found to be

the one with the most significant relationship to adaptation to management.

On analysing this independent variable, it became evident that its relationship with adaptation to management can be understood in terms of the fact that success in a university environment (which is what is implied by a high level of education,) hinges on the same attitudes and abilities required of successful management. That is to say, the university system like management, requires one to be: self-reliant; to be able to think critically and conceptualise one's environment; to compete as an individual, or at least to succeed in a competitive environment; to prioritise information, and to identify as a member of an élite.

Therefore whilst there is nothing amongst the findings of this research to suggest that the inferior black educational system is the primary reason for lack of success amongst black managers, the issue of education, particularly level of education was shown by the findings of this research to be of great importance as regards adaptation to management. Further, the relationship, between level of education and adaptation to management, corroborates the assertion which will be expanded upon below, that factors such as self-reliance and critical thinking etc. are key determinants of managerial success.

6.2.4. Expectancy Theory

As was mentioned previously, this study has found that the problems associated with the motivation and performance of black managers are subtle, complex, and are fundamentally connected to wider socio-political issues. This creates difficulties for organisations who would like to find solutions to these problems, using a similar approach to

those they generally adopt in solving other more *regular business problems* (see point 6.2.3.).

The patterns which emerged from the responses suggest that the problems affecting the motivation and performance of black managers can be seen in terms of two major components: *Victim consciousness* and *marginal status*. In this section evidence to support this proposition will be cited, in terms of Expectancy Theory, and the implications for *black management development in South Africa*, will be examined.

6.2.4.1. *Victim Consciousness and Motivation*

The theme which recurred most noticeably amongst the responses of the black South African managers, was *victim consciousness*. This should not of course be surprising, as of the three *sub-samples*, the black South Africans have (in recent times) experienced the most blatant discrimination. *Victim consciousness* has negative implications for both the *effort-performance probability*, *performance-reward probability* and *valence*. As mentioned in the previous chapters, these expectancies represent the key elements in the *motivational process*, and must all be positive for motivation to occur (Lawler and Porter 1967).

The black South African managers' subjective perception of being *victims of racism*, was strongly manifested amongst the findings which emerged from the Chi-Square Test Of Independence and SE Test. This has several implications *vis-à-vis* their motivation to perform. Firstly, by believing that he is being judged on the basis of his race and not on his performance, the black

manager is likely to assume that the rewards he receives will be based on stereotypes, rather than being contingent upon and commensurate with his actual performance. According to Lawler (1969) this leads to a negative perceived probability of reward for performance.

Secondly, the perception that one is being judged according to racial stereotypes also implies that the individual is not being rewarded in accordance with his needs, which defies a basic rule of motivation - that is that individuals must be rewarded according to their individual needs and not according to stereotypes [racial or other] (Maslow 1943,1954 and Herzberg 1968 as well as Lawler and Porter 1967).

Thus one can see how victim consciousness has a negative effect on both the perceived probability of reward for performance and what is termed valence. This is confirmed by the fact that almost all black South African respondents (as opposed to under 70% of the black Zimbabweans and white South African respondents) indicated that they believed that the company should recognise and reward effort more effectively, which signifies both a low performance-reward probability and low valence.

The belief that racism is a pervasive factor in one's environment, also erodes the expectation that one's efforts will produce performance; effort-performance probability. As Horowitz (1985), points out there is a tendency in societies characterised by racism for those who are labelled inferior, to internalise negative attitudes about themselves. As a consequence of this they come to lack self-confidence, which is according to

Expectancy Theory, an essential prerequisite for a positive effort-performance probability, and hence motivation.

Furthermore, according to Lawler and Porter (1967) a positive effort-performance probability is contingent upon the individual's ability and willingness to assume responsibility for his actions and their consequences, whether they be positive or negative.

By perceiving himself to be a victim of racism however, the black manager is able to deflect responsibility for his actions, particularly when they fail. Steele (1990) maintains that by not acknowledging responsibility for his actions, and not facing up to self-doubt and weaknesses, the individual will be unable to come to terms with his own true potential and hence will be incapable of motivating himself to compete successfully with his peers. Instead he will wait for others to do things for him. The fact that the only respondents who believed that their futures were determined for them by circumstances beyond their own control, [external locus of control] (discussed briefly under point 6.2.1) were black South African, this provides further evidence to support the notion of South African blacks perceiving a negative effort-performance probability.

The Factor Analysis provided further evidence to support the above, by showing an association between being black South African, and a belief that people in organisations tend to be judged according to race. Moreover, there was a further association between these variables and a belief in affirmative action. This corroborates what was

said above regarding a tendency amongst black South African managers to place the responsibility for their success elsewhere. Even though support for affirmative action may indeed be justified, it still signifies a lack of self-sufficiency self-reliance and a low effort-performance probability, which as mentioned previously have negative implications as far as the motivation and hence performance of black South African managers is concerned.

In contrast, the Factor Analysis indicated an association between being white South African or black Zimbabwean, and a perception that people in organisations are judged according to their individual abilities and skills (rather than on the basis of race), as well as a rejection of the concept of affirmative action.

The fact that the black Zimbabweans' responses resembled those of the white South Africans, and not the black South Africans, was thought to have particular significance with regard to the propositions of this research, in that it provides further support for the assertion, that problems associated with motivation and performance of black managers are situationally and not culturally defined. The implications of this fact, for black management development in South Africa, will be discussed below.

6.2.4.2.

Victim Consciousness, Level of Education and Adaptation to Management.

The low effort-performance probability, performance-reward probability and valence amongst black South African managers, which seem to be a

consequence of their *victim consciousness*, have negative implications as far as their motivation and performance is concerned. The findings which emerged from the Regression Analysis, discussed below, point to even further negative implications of *victim consciousness*.

The Regression Analysis represented the final manipulation of the data, to assess the relative importance of certain key variables with regard to adaptation to management.

It was in fact found by the Regression Analysis that a high level of education and a low *victim consciousness*; both of which hinge on a positive *effort-performance probability*, were the two most significant of the independent variables, as far as ensuring adaptation to management is concerned. This corroborates the assertions made above regarding the negative implications which a low *effort-performance probability* has for the motivation and performance of Black South African managers.

The attitudes and abilities which are implied by low *victim consciousness*, complement those which are required for success in management. These include: i. the self-confidence to accept risks and to balance independence with being able to work within a team; ii. the ability to make decisions, requiring *inter alia* an understanding of one's environment and an acknowledgement of one's strengths and weaknesses; as well as iii. the self-assurance which one needs to be able to defend the decisions one makes whilst being able admit when another person's idea is superior to one's own.

Furthermore, like management and low victim consciousness, a high level of education (a university degree), entails a positive effort-performance probability. Its emphasis on: i. the role of the learner, as opposed to the teacher, ii. the ability to prioritise and understand complex data, by exercising critical thought; as well as iii. the stress it places on individual competition and achievement, implies that for an individual to succeed at university, he must have be self-sufficient and self-confident.

The fact that the black South African managers' responses suggested a low effort-performance probability, has clear negative implications for their performance of their work role. This is because not only does their victim consciousness imply that they will lack the motivation, self-confidence and self-reliance which are such essential prerequisites of successful management, but their negative effort-performance probability contradicts the requirements of attaining success at university (high level of education).

Given the fact that prior to Zimbabwean independence the conditions for blacks in that country resembled those of South Africa in the present day, it seems safe to assume that they would have shared perceptions of being victims. The fact that this seems to have dissipated with the social and political empowerment of blacks brought about independence, has positive implications as far as prospects for black management in a new South Africa is concerned.

Nevertheless, this prediction is not conclusive, owing to the that various authors such as (Steele 1990) and Lacayo

(1989) have pointed out that *victim consciousness* remains a pervasive factor within American black communities, despite blacks having been granted full social and political empowerment more than twenty five years ago.

Whether this difference between American and Zimbabwean blacks is due to other social factors which have relevance in America, such as minority status, or whether it was the *psychological victory* which the black Zimbabweans experienced, by being able to politically and militarily humiliate their former oppressors; remains a point for conjecture. To resolve this question satisfactorily, a study would have to be undertaken, which includes American blacks.

What is important however, is that the lack of *victim consciousness* amongst black Zimbabweans, suggests a possibility that *victim consciousness* and its negative consequences, are relatively susceptible to social and political changes.

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It is important to realise that the relationship between *adaptation to management* on the one hand and *victim consciousness* and *level of education* on the other, was shown by the Regression Analysis to be relatively weak. This suggests that whilst the importance of these variables should not be discounted, there are other factors which must be considered, in trying to understand the key factors affecting the motivation and performance of black managers.

6.2.4.3.

Marginal Status.

Lawler and Porter (1967) stress that motivation is not synonymous with performance. In fact they say that in order to perform effectively in the organisation an individual not only has to be motivated, but he requires a clear understanding of both his work-role as well as certain key organisational rules and processes which govern *inter alia*, organisational advancement.

Lee and Piper (1989) and Schlemmer (1986), stress that the expectations which the organisation has of its managers, are often subtle, tacit and informal, and not easily understandable, to an outsider. The same can be said for the rules according to which the advancement process operates.

Consequently, knowledge of these expectations and rules, is acquired through intimate informal contact with those who belong to the so-called organisational establishment, who will pass this information on, via a series of informal, comradely hints and rebukes.

The findings of this study indicate that black South African managers and black Zimbabwean managers, are more likely than white managers to lack role clarity and an understanding of the advancement process.

In addition, it was found that the black South African and black Zimbabwean managers, have far

stronger social needs than the white South Africans. Human (personal interview 1989) ascribes such strong social needs to a these managers wishing to compensate for the real sense of social isolation, and confusion they feel as a consequence of their *marginal status*.

The connection between strong social needs and lack of understanding of work-role, amongst black South Africans and black Zimbabweans was further confirmed by the Factor Analysis, which showed a correlation between social needs and requiring role-definition on the one hand and being black South African or Zimbabwean on the other.

Moreover, given the fact that the literature (Human and Hofmeyr 1985, Lee and Piper 1989 as well as Schlemmer 1985) suggests that both role clarity, understanding of key informal organisational processes and social needs are negatively related to marginal status; it was inferred that black Zimbabweans and black South Africans have *marginal status* in the organisations for which they work. This has serious negative implications as regards the future of South African black managers. Firstly, it suggests that the black manager lacks the appreciation for his role, which could help explain lack of successful performance of amongst black managers.

Secondly, the fact that despite social and political empowerment, the black Zimbabweans retain *marginal status* (and consequently lack

role definition), suggests that the ways in which people respond which contribute to such marginality, are unlikely to be affected by the social policy changes and changes in political structures, which are likely to occur in the so-called new South Africa.

Therefore whereas the responses of the black Zimbabweans suggest that the problems of victim consciousness amongst black South African managers may dissipate in the social and political order, which is about to emerge in the country; marginal status and its implications for managers' performance, may remain a factor in negatively affecting the performance of black South African managers.

This supports a the proposition of this research which states that certain attitudes, which affect performance are highly complex, self-reinforcing and pervasive, and therefore not as amenable to change as those, for example which result in victim consciousness. Further this implies that social policy changes alone will not solve the problems associated with black management development. What is required is a change in deep seated, often unacknowledged attitudes and ways of responding amongst both white managers, who comprise the so-called organisational establishment; members of both black and white communities, as well as the black managers themselves. The means by which this may be achieved; may become more apparent from the findings of more in depth research, which attempts to answer the research questions formulated on the basis of the outcomes of this study.

6.3. RESEARCH QUESTIONS EMANATING FROM THE RESEARCH.

It is believed that this study has various important implications as far as the motivation and performance of South African black managers is concerned. However it must be remembered that the industries in which this study was done - the pharmaceutical and related consumer products industries, do not necessarily represent all industries in South Africa, and further are not the industries where black participation is most urgently required. [According to recognised experts (Viljoen, 1991 and Garret 1991), the engineering and electronics industries are those where this is most necessary].

Nevertheless, certain important questions did emerge from the findings, which are seen to have relevance to black management development throughout the South African economy. These are summarised below:

- i. The fact that *victim consciousness* was found to be pervasive amongst black South Africans and not black Zimbabweans, suggests that *victim consciousness* can be modified through status of changes in political situation. Whether the key factor in overcoming this *victim consciousness* was the attainment of political and social equality, or whether this was a result of the symbolic or *psychological victory* which accompanied the political and military humiliation of their former oppressors, is a question which can be dealt with in depth research to be undertaken at a later date. What the decisive elements of this symbolic victory were, and how they can be reproduced in the South African situation, given the fact that a military and

political victory similar to the one which took place in Zimbabwe, is unlikely to happen in South Africa; could also form the basis of future in depth research.

- ii. The fact that level of education was found to be the most influential factor in affecting adaptation to management raises interesting questions about the type of pre-tertiary education which should be developed, which would encourage the self-reliance necessary, for successful management. The research findings suggest that such an education system should make the student responsible for his own learning and would emphasise the importance of research, prioritising of information, understanding of concepts rather than memorising of facts.
- iii. The Zimbabwean managers' continued marginal status raises interesting questions for further research, as to the conditions which give rise to such marginal status. The theory suggests that this problem results primarily from subtle isolation and identity problems of black managers, caused by attitudes prevailing in both the white managerial establishment and the black community. However, precisely what these attitudes are and why they are so pervasive and resilient, is not known. One therefore needs to develop a much more intricate understanding of the antecedents of marginal status, if solutions are to be found for this problem. This could form the basis for a very in depth qualitative study into the causes of marginal status.

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It is believed that this study has drawn attention to various important factors, which seem to be connected the motivation and performance of black South African managers: However, the solutions to these problems can only be formulated on the basis of in depth information, which will hopefully emerge from more in depth studies, of the type suggested above.

Given the social, political and economic implications of ignoring these problems; one should regard the quest for findings of suitable solutions to them, as representing one of the foremost challenges facing the so-called new South Africa.

The survival of the present economic system depends in a large part on the extent to which blacks are able to identify with and strive to become members of the economic élite. For this to happen is vital that blacks can be seen to succeed in the corporate world, and other key aspects of the of the country's economy.

Unfortunately, the problems associated with black management development are complex and self-reinforcing and consequently, will be difficult to solve. One must therefore caution against underestimating the complexity of the issues involved, as this can result in a great deal of frustration and wasted resources.

However the fact that the research findings imply that these problems are situationally, rather than culturally based; does suggest that whilst finding suitable solutions may be difficult and complex, there is some cause for optimism.

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Editorial	<u>Business Day 09/01/1990.</u>
Rosholt	<u>Business Day 25/02/1990.</u>
Rosholt M.	<u>Business Day 07/08/1990.</u>
Rosholt M.	<u>Business Day 26/10/1990.</u>
Gibaya G.	<u>Business Day 19/11/1990.</u>
Steyn J.	<u>Business Day 21/03/1991.</u>
Grayson	<u>Business Day 05/04/1991.</u>
Viljoen G.	<u>Business Day 26/04/1991.</u>
Pasipanadya	<u>Bulawayo Chronical 09/07/1989.</u>
Feature Article	<u>The Economist 1/4/1991.</u>
Khati T.	<u>Leadership April/May 1991.</u>
Giolomee H.	<u>Star 20/05/1991.</u>
Mathabane M.	<u>Sunday Times 09/12/1990.</u>
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Forrest	<u>Weekly Mail 17/08/1990.</u>
Nkomo J.	<u>Zimbabwe Herald 05/02/1986.</u>

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APPENDIX 1.1

STANDARD INTRODUCTION TO INTERVIEW

1. INTRODUCE SELF

2. THIS RESEARCH IS BEING CONDUCTED UNDER THE AUSPICES OF THE WITS BUSINESS SCHOOL.

IT EXAMINES FACTORS AFFECTING THE MOTIVATION AND PERFORMANCE OF MANAGERS IN COMPANIES OF SUBSTANTIAL SIZE IN THE PHARMACEUTICAL MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY.

3. THE INTERVIEW WILL BE CONDUCTED AS FOLLOWS:

3.1 An exercise involving five pictures

3.2 An exercise during which you will be asked to answer various questions on this topic.

IN ORDER TO FACILITATE THE INTERPRETATION OF THE RESULTS, I WILL BE RECORDING ALL YOUR RESPONSES (ON PAPER).

STANDARD INTRODUCTION TO QUESTIONNAIRE:

DURING THIS INTERVIEW, YOU WILL BE ASKED

VARIOUS QUESTIONS CONCERNING :-

1. YOUR PERCEPTION OF WHAT FUTURE
DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES FOR MANAGERS WORKING
WITHIN THE PHARMACEUTICAL INDUSTRY SHOULD
COVER;
2. THE MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT NEEDS OF YOUR
ORGANISATION;

AND
3. THE FACTORS IN THE ORGANISATIONAL
ENVIRONMENT WHICH MOTIVATE YOU.

WHEN ANSWERING, PLEASE KEEP THE FOLLOWING POINTS IN MIND :

- 1) THERE ARE NO "RIGHT / WRONG" ANSWERS BECAUSE
EVERYONE HAS THE RIGHT TO HIS OWN VIEWS.
- 2) YOU MAY FEEL THAT SOME QUESTIONS DO NOT APPLY TO YOU
VERY WELL, BUT GIVE YOUR BEST GUESS. SOME QUESTIONS
MAY SEEM PERSONAL, BUT REMEMBER THAT THE ANSWERS ARE
KEPT CONFIDENTIAL AND AT NO STAGE WILL YOUR RESPONSE
BE MADE AVAILABLE TO ANYONE BUT THE RESEARCHERS.

STANDARD INTRODUCTION TO FIRE PICTURE EXERCISE

3.1 FIRE PICTURE EXERCISE

YOU HAVE IN FRONT OF YOU, FIVE SEPARATE PICTURES.

3.1.1 EXAMINE THEM / HAVE A LOOK AT THEM.

3.1.2 PLACE THEM IN THE ORDER OF YOUR CHOICE

3.1.3 MAKE UP A STORY BASED ON WHAT YOU SEE
HAPPENING

IN THESE PICTURES:-

3.1.3.1 USE YOUR IMAGINATION

3.1.3.2 THE STORY MUST BE LOGICAL i.e. HAVE A
BEGINNING, A MIDDLE AND AN END

REMEMBER, THERE IS NO "RIGHT / WRONG" WAY OF RESPONDING TO THIS
EXERCISE.

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE .

NAME: _____

AGE: _____

POSITION: _____

GRADE (IF APPLICABLE): _____

LENGTH OF TIME IN PRESENT POSITION: _____

LENGTH OF TIME WITH ORGANISATION: _____

HIGHEST EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS: _____

SUBSAMPLE: A _____ B _____ C _____

DATE OF INTERVIEW: _____

TIME OF INTERVIEW: _____

NAME OF INTERVIEWER: _____

ANALYSED: _____

DATE: _____

1. The first section deals with Management development needs of your Organisation.
 - 1.1 What would be the most valuable advice which you could give to a person who is about to be appointed as a Manager in your Organisation?
 - 1.2 What obstacles and challenges should he expect to encounter?
 - 1.3 What could a Management Development Programme include to cater for people in your position in your Organisation?

1.4 Should there be additional opportunities for staff development and staff promotion for Blacks; what might these be?

1.5 How would you rate the difficulty of the job of a senior manager in your Company?

Very difficult

☐

Fairly difficult

☐

Neither difficult nor easy

☐

Fairly easy

☐

Very easy

☐

Explain your answer:

1.6 With which one of the following statements do you agree most?

_____ Future success depends largely upon the
amount of effort and initiative with which
the individual approaches his day to day
_____ life.

_____ Our futures are largely determined for us by
circumstances which are beyond our own control
e.g.: fate, luck and chance and depends little
_____ on the efforts of the individual.

Explain your answer; using examples if necessary.

- 1.7 Effective staff and Personnel Development in your Organisation may or may not require certain changes. Here is a range of possible Human Resource policy changes. Please mark them as follows:

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1 | Urgently necessary / of utmost importance |
| 2 | Very necessary |
| 3 | Fairly necessary |
| 4 | Less necessary |
| 5 | Unnecessary |

☐

Better communication

☐

Managers job to be better defined

☐

To become more understanding about the needs and aspirations of managers

☐

To develop more of a team spirit amongst its managers

☐

To recognise and reward effort more effectively

☐

Increase size of Training Department

☐

Needs analyses to be linked to Performance Appraisal

☐

Develop a Management by Objective programme

☐

Mentoring / coaching programme

☐

More socialising encouraged between staff (or staff and managers)

5./.....

- 1.8 Despite all the good intentions, people in organisations are still assessed more on external factors such as appearance, age, sex, race; rather than internal factors such as ability, skill and diligence.

☐

TRUE

☐

FALSE

Explain your answer:

- 1.8.1 Can you give some specific examples of prejudice that you have experienced in your job?

1.9 How wise is it for senior managers to give less senior managers who work under them tasks or assignments which are new, difficult and in which success is uncertain?

1.10 Which of the following three managers has the most difficult job?

- (i) A manager in charge of computing equipment who has to ride around to many branches and train people to use equipment.
- (ii) A manager who has to check weekly operating results and for a few days each week has to take a great deal of statistics home and work at night to finish checking.
- (iii) A manager who has a large staff of well qualified people working for him who are preparing reports and statistics for him to take decisions on where and how to invest capital.

(i) ☐

(ii) ☐

(iii) ☐

2. The following section deals with your own experience as managers in your Organisation.

This information will be used as input for the development of a specification for Management Development in the Pharmaceutical Manufacturing Industry.

- 2.1 What career goals and aspirations have you set yourself for the next five years?

- 2.2 How do you believe you are going to get there?

- 2.3 Suppose an opportunity for promotion of people at your level in the Organisation, were to arise soon. How ready would you consider yourself to be for promotion?

☐

Fairly ready

☐

Completely ready

☐

Not yet ready

- 2.3.1 If not fully ready, what do you consider you would require in order to be completely ready for promotion; you may think of anything at all?

2.4 Describe something that has occurred in your job which has made you feel:

- (i) Completely satisfied
- (ii) Completely dissatisfied

(These must be occurrences from your present job and be a story with a beginning, middle and end).

(i)

(ii)

2.5 Do you believe that in your job you are in a position to make a meaningful contribution to achieving the success of the Company?

☐

YES

☒

NO

Explain your answer:

1.6 Do you believe that your role in the Organisation has been explained to you clearly?

10./....

2.7 If you were offered promotion and given the choice of two jobs with equal salary:

(i) The first job would suit your experience and you would not risk making mistakes.

(ii) The second job would be more complicated outside your experience and you would risk making mistakes and feel less assured of success.

Which would you choose?

(i)

☐

(ii)

☐

2.8 What are the most difficult parts of your job?

2.8.1 Please give an example of what makes it difficult?

12./....

2.9 To whom in your Organisation do you feel closest to? (Can be a person or a group of people).

2.10 How would you describe your relationship with:

- (i) Your supervisor
- (ii) Your immediate colleague
- (iii) Your sub-ordinate

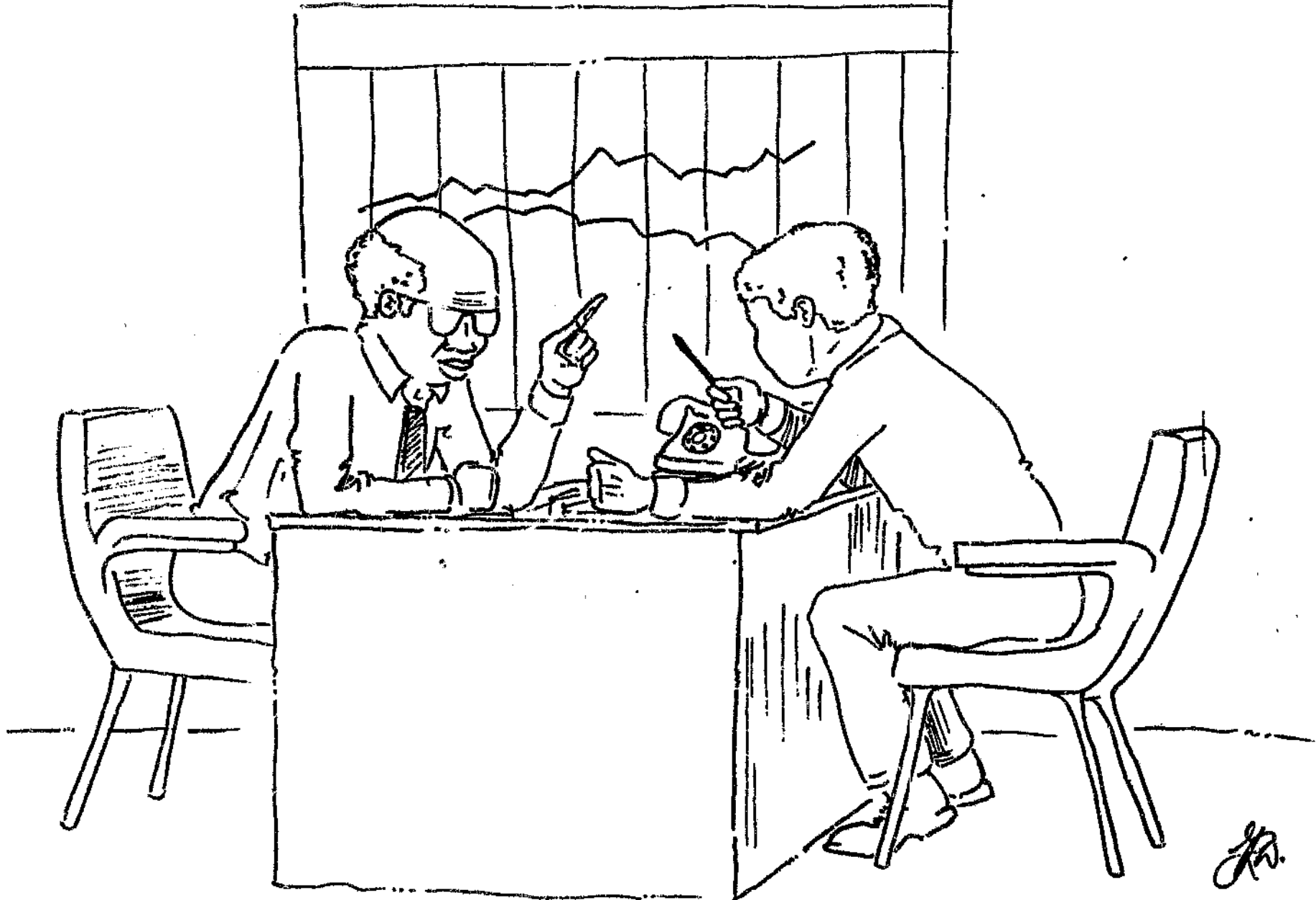
(i)

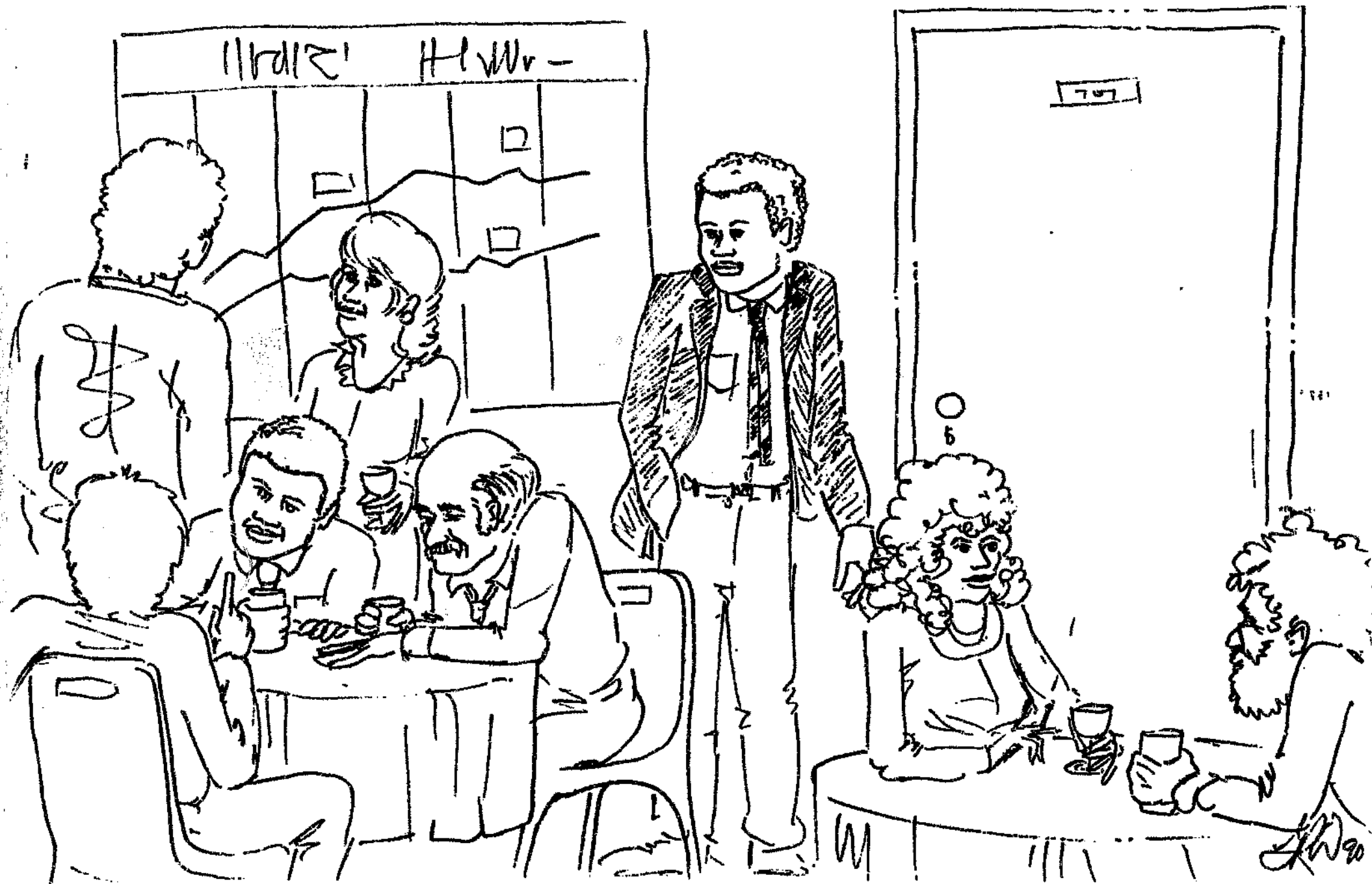
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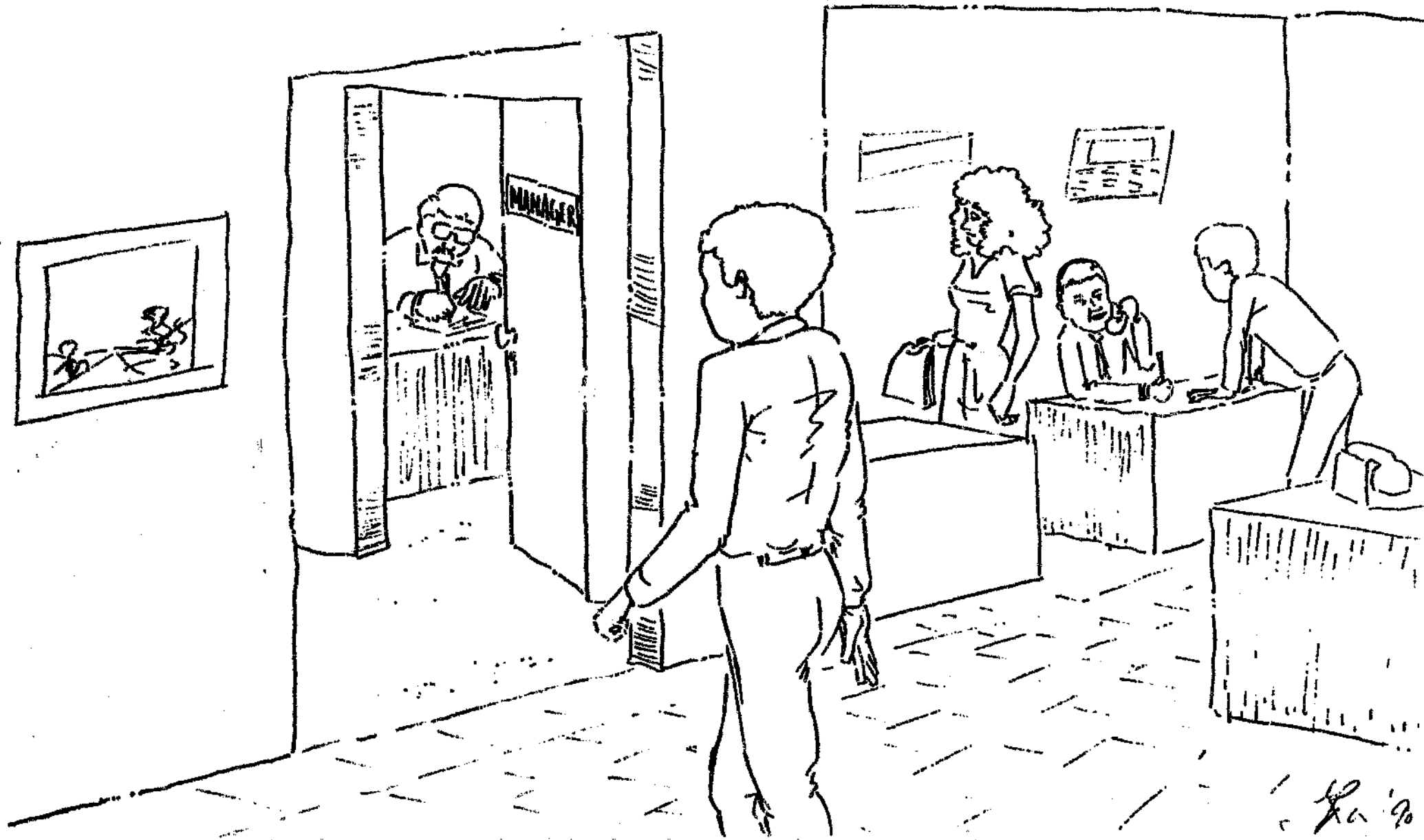
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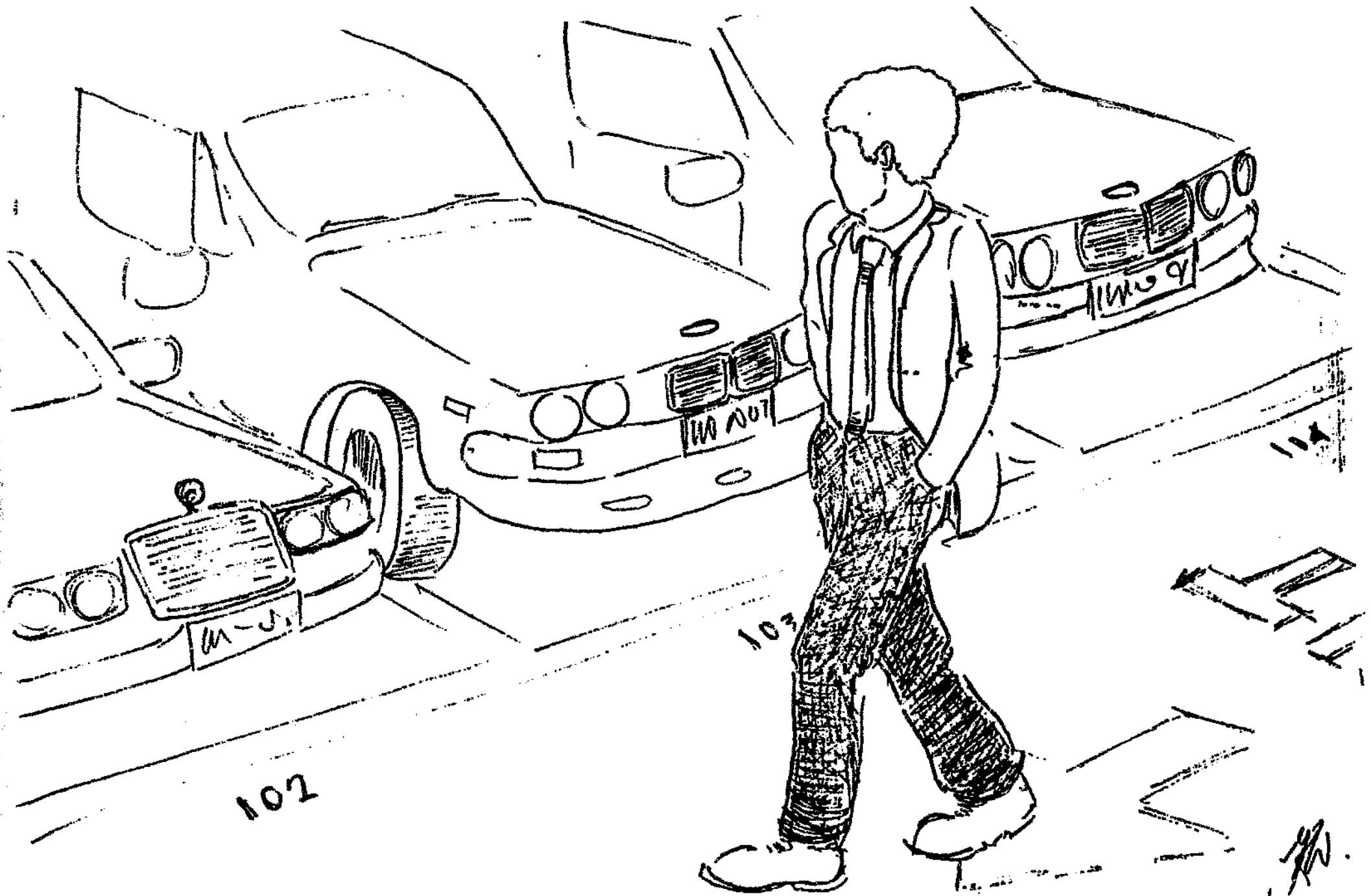
2.11 Who has been most helpful and supportive to you in helping you cope with the problem of your job?

How have they helped?



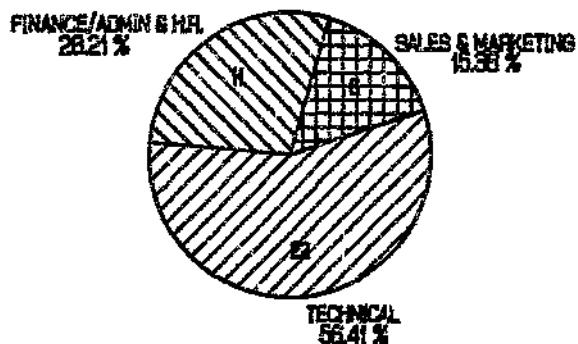






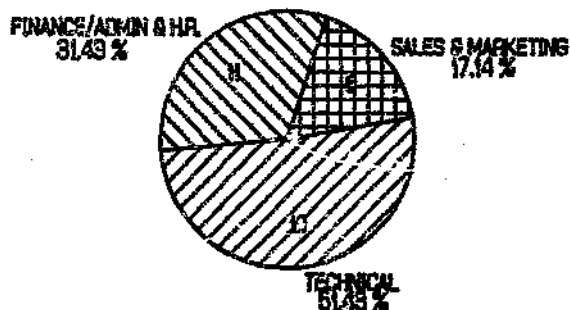


FUNCTIONAL AREA Black South African



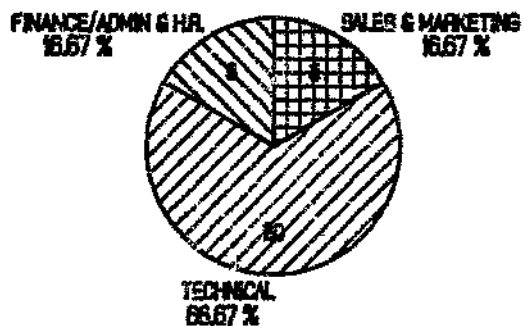
Percentages are of Total Black Sample

FUNCTIONAL AREA White South African



Percentages are of Total White Sample

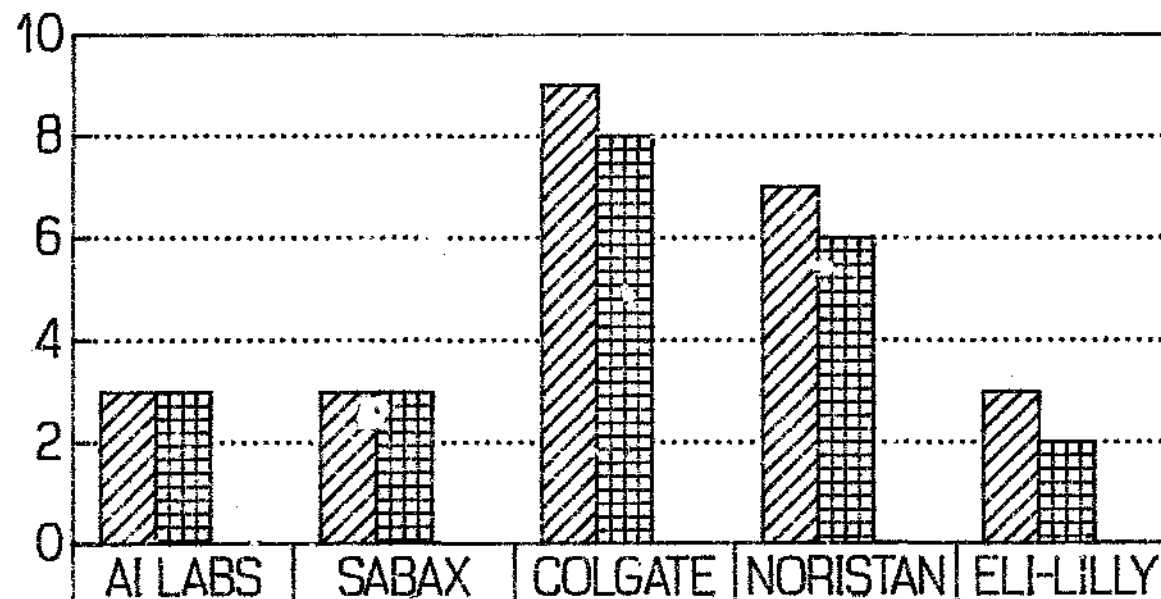
FUNCTIONAL AREA Zimbabweans



Percentages are of Total Zimbabweans

APPENDIX 3

ORGANISATIONS FROM WHICH THE SAMPLES WERE DRAWN

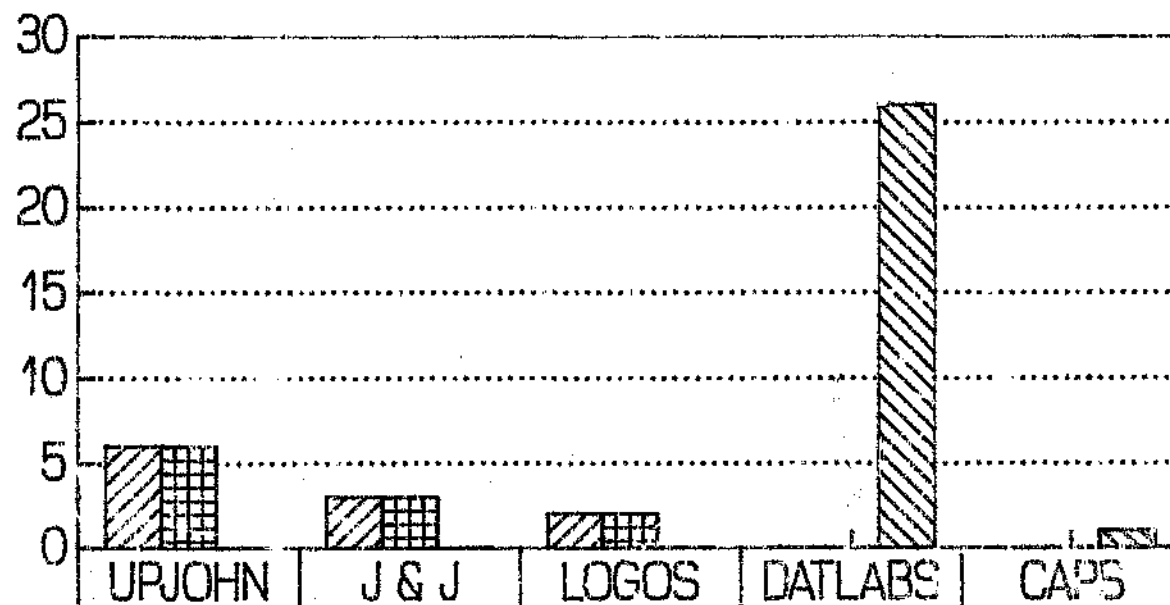


	AI LABS	SABAX	COLGATE	NORISTAN	ELI-LILLY
BLACK S. A.	3	3	9	7	3
WHITE S. A.	3	3	8	6	2
ZIMBABWEAN	0	0	0	0	0

 BLACK S. A.
  WHITE S. A.
  ZIMBABWEAN

APPENDIX 4

ORGANISATIONS FROM WHICH THE SAMPLES WERE DRAWN

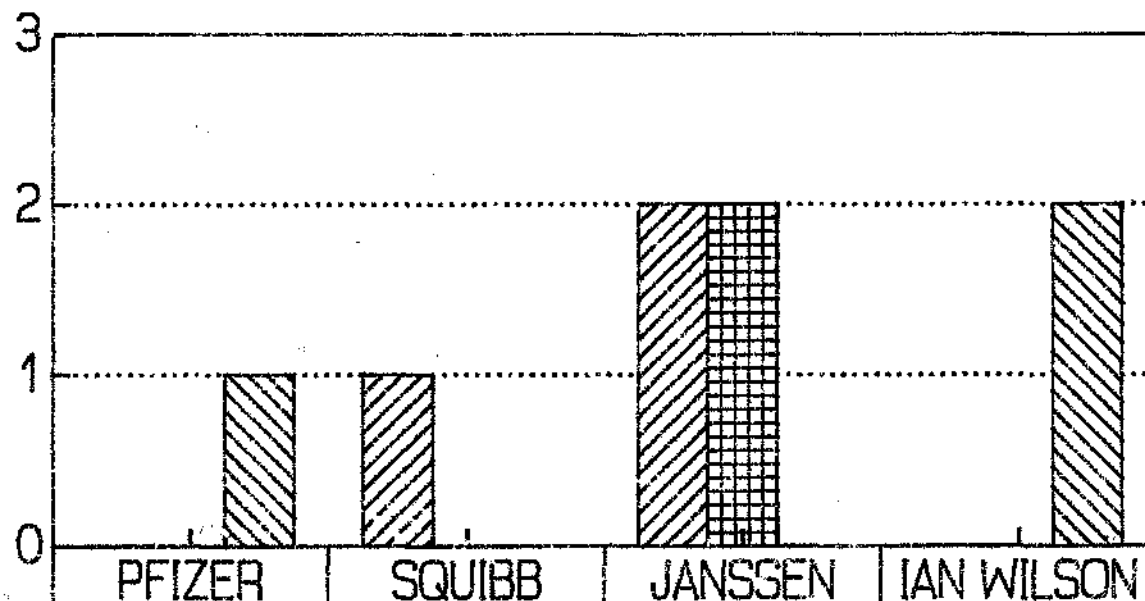


	URJOHN	J & J	LOGOS	DATLABS	CAPS
BLACK S. A.	6	3	2	0	0
WHITE S. A.	6	3	2	0	0
ZIMBABWEAN	0	0	0	26	1

BLACK S. A.
 WHITE S. A.
 ZIMBABWEAN

APPENDIX 4. Cont.

ORGANISATIONS FROM WHICH THE SAMPLES WERE DRAWN

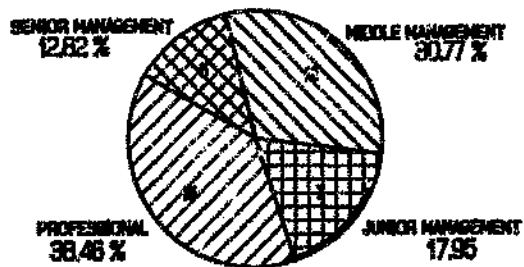


	PFIZER	SQUIBB	JANSSEN	IAN WILSON
BLACK S. A.	0	1	2	0
WHITE S. A.	0	0	2	0
ZIMBABWEAN	1	0	0	2

 BLACK S. A.
  WHITE S. A.
  ZIMBABWEAN

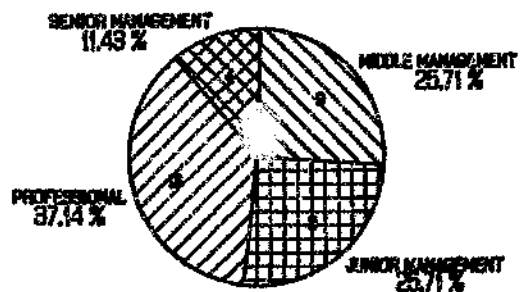
APPENDIX 4. Cont.

LEVEL IN ORGANISATION Black South African



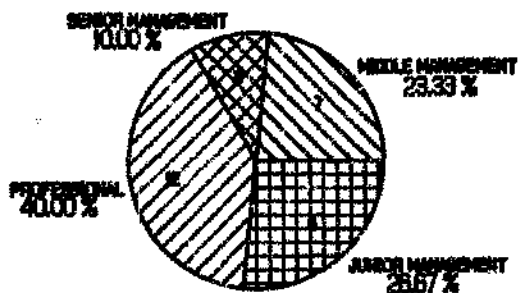
Percentages are of Total Black Sample

LEVEL IN ORGANISATION White South African



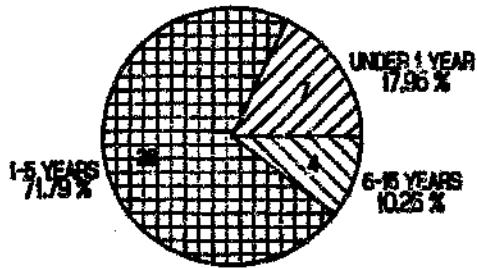
Percentages are of Total White Sample

LEVEL IN ORGANISATION Zimbabweans



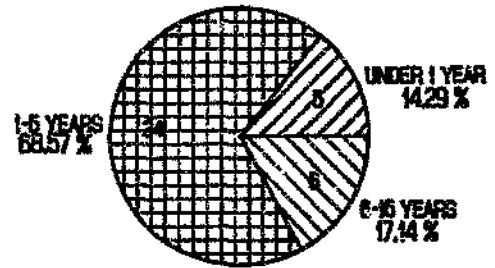
Percentages are of Zimbabwean Sample

LENGTH OF TIME IN POSITION Black South African



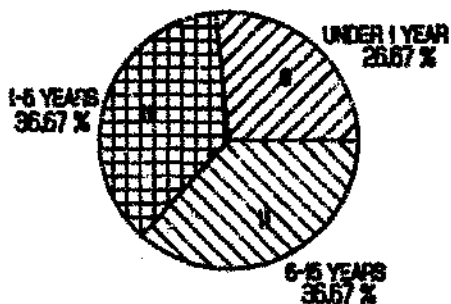
Percentages are of Total Black Sample

LENGTH OF TIME IN POSITION White South African



Percentages are of Total White Sample

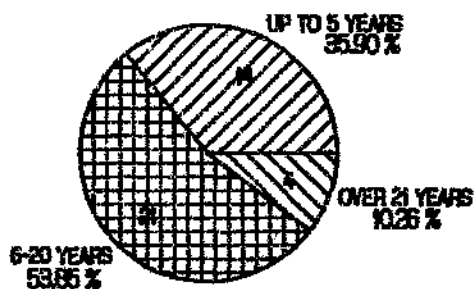
LENGTH OF TIME IN POSITION Zimbabwean



Percentages are of Zimbabwean Sample

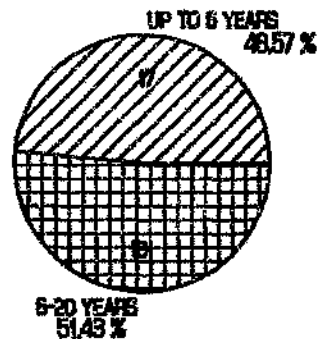
APPENDIX 6.

LENGTH OF SERVICE Black South African



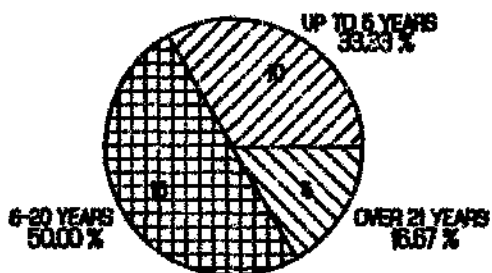
Percentages are of Total Black Sample

LENGTH OF SERVICE White South African



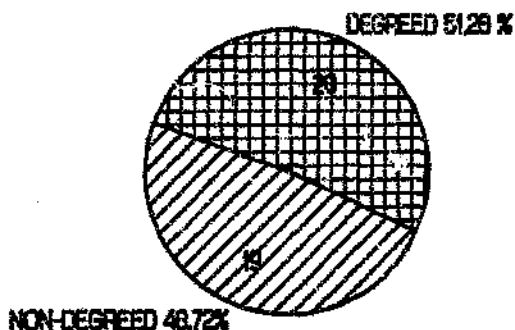
Percentages are of Total White Sample

LENGTH OF SERVICE Zimbabweans



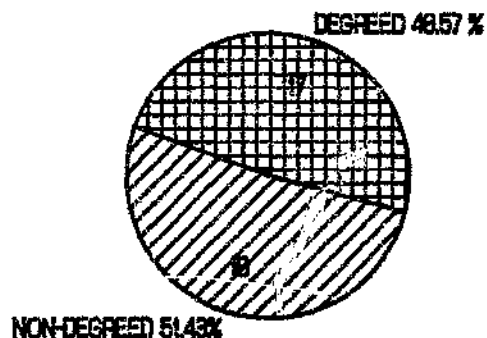
Percentages are of Zimbabwean Sample

LEVEL OF EDUCATION Black South African



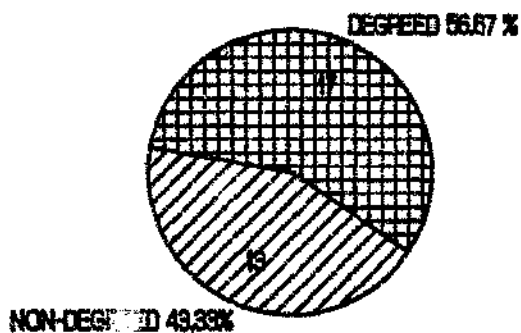
Percentages are of Total Black Sample

LEVEL OF EDUCATION White South African



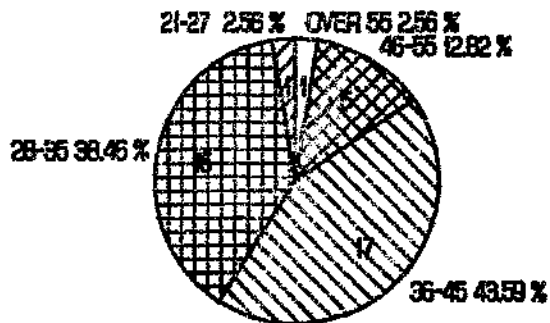
Percentages are of Total White Sample

LEVEL OF EDUCATION Zimbabweans



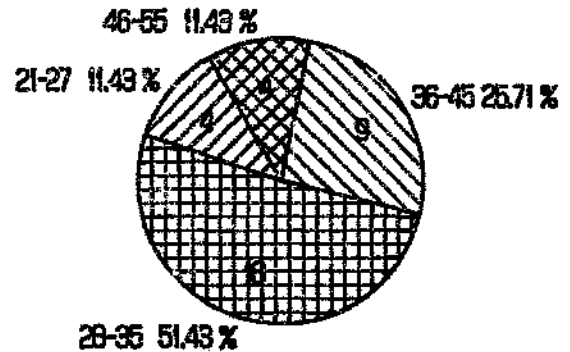
Percentages are of Zimbabwean Sample

AGE Black South African



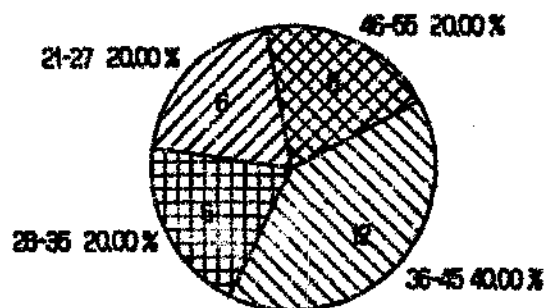
Percentages are of Total Black Sample

AGE White South African



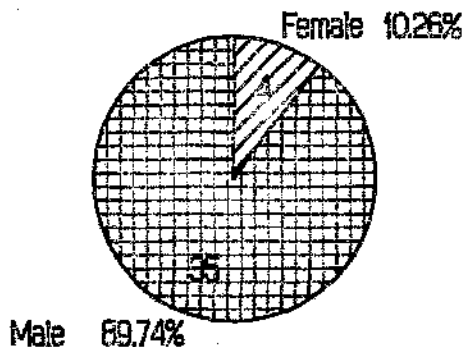
Percentages are of Total White Sample

AGE Zimbabweans



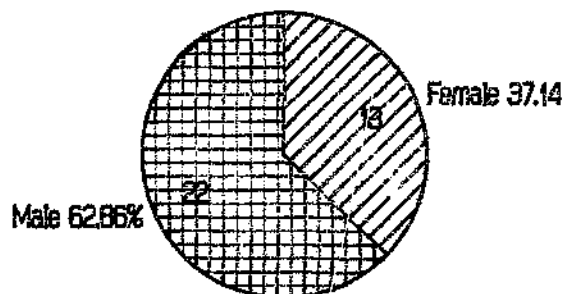
Percentages are of Zimbabwean Sample

GENDER Black South African



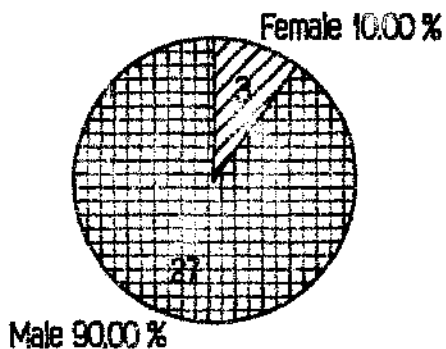
Percentages are of Total Black Sample

GENDER White South African



Percentages are of Total White Sample

GENDER Zimbabwean



Percentages are of Zimbabwean Sample

APPENDIX 11:

CATEGORIES OF THEMES

11.1: RACE ISSUE

1. Whites not trusting blacks.
System rigged - discriminated against generally.
2. Blacks disadvantaged (because of race).
3. Township life causes difficulty in being a manager
(stayaways, transport problems, lateness etc.).
4. Generalised race consciousness.
5. Association of company with whites.
6. Whites not understanding Blacks and their dilemmas.
7. Compares oneself in organisation unfavourably with
Whites.
8. Optimistic about race.
9. No race elements.
0. No reply.

11.2: ATTITUDE TOWARDS WORK AND ORGANISATION.

1. General pessimism - Dissatisfaction with working
conditions (money, benefits etc.).
2. Specific pessimism - Performance related demotivation
and dissatisfaction (negative feedback, lack of
success at work etc. and sales figures).
3. General optimism / good performance / sense of
achievement.

APPENDIX 11: Cont.

4. Pending resignation.
5. Pending firing (being fired).
6. Specific optimism - being promoted.
7. Impatient; wants higher status (ambitions) aspires to more.
8. Active anger - disobeying procedures.
9. No response to organisation; neutral towards the organisation.
0. No reply.

11.3: RELATIONSHIP WITH BOSS / MANAGER.

1. Anxious about meeting with boss.
2. Lack of recognition from boss.
3. Boss unhappy; perceives work standards as being unsatisfactory.
4. Authorisation uncompromising, unsympathetic boss.
5. Boss does not care for him - (feels disliked).
6. General conflict / altercation with boss.
7. Subordinate threatens boss.
8. Communication with a positive outcome - positive, two way communication with boss - mutual problem solving.
9. Boss shows confidence and faith in subordinates.
10. Subordinate assertive towards boss.
11. Boss does not understand - lack of communication.
12. No mention of boss (or relationship with him).
13. No reply
14. Discipline and/or warnings - Specific conflict with boss - Performance related.
15. Boss constructive - Positive.

APPENDIX 11: Cont.

11.4: FEELINGS RESULTING FROM CONFLICT (negative situation).

1. Perceiving oneself as a victim of system. (General).
2. Feeling satisfied / vindicated.
3. Perceiving oneself as a failure in terms of specifics
- work output / performance (despite assertion to contribute).
4. Feeling happy and satisfied with one's performance
(specific).
5. Comparing oneself unfavourably with peers.
6. Comparing oneself favourably with peers.
7. Feeling motivated to continue dealing with challenges.
8. Feeling demotivated - tempted to bow out.
9. Neutral / No conflict.
0. No response / Reply.

11.5: FEELINGS TOWARD WORK (BEFORE CRITICAL EVENT).

1. Anxiety about the workday; apprehensiveness / anxiety
about the job (General).
2. Despondency, lack of enthusiasm towards workday ahead.
3. Inadequacy / Feels like a victim.
4. Perceiving oneself as being master of one's own
destiny.
5. Wildly hopeful - optimistic / air of expectation.
6. Drink to escape / other avoidance behaviour.

APPENDIX 11: Cont.

7. Slight apprehensiveness / anxiety / uncertain.
8. Neutral.
9. N/A.
0. No response.

11.6: THE INTERVIEW SITUATION.

1. Feeling unconfident (despondent / hopeless) about the interview.
2. feeling confident / hopeful and positive about going for the interview.
3. Reflecting positively about the interview.
4. Reflecting negatively about the interview.
5. Nervous about the interview.
6. -
7. -
8. Neutral about the interview.
9. No interview mentioned.
0. No reply.

11.7: RELATIONSHIP WITH SUBORDINATES.

1. (10) Experiencing difficulty with subordinates.
2. (20) Having a constructive relationship with subordinates.
3. No mention of subordinates.
4. No reply.

APPENDIX 11: Cont.

11.8: SOCIAL SITUATIONS.

1. Social isolation.
2. Anxiety about fitting in with the "in group".
3. Perceived link made between fitting in socially and good work prospects.
4. Fitting in, functioning effectively in a social situation / social adeptness.
5. New guy in town, (possibilities do exist to fit in).
6. Feels persecuted.
7. "
8. "
9. Neutral, social situation not an issue.
10. No reply.

11.9: GENERAL ATTITUDE TOWARDS FUTURE (IMMEDIATE).

1. Anxiety about meeting with boss (diffidence).
2. Confident / positive about meeting with boss / relationship with boss.
3. Pending censure over something one has done.
4. Pending reward.
5. Anxiety about losing job / not getting a job.
6. Confident of promotion / achieving goal - getting job.
7. Generalised anxiety about the day ahead (diffidence).

APPENDIX 11: Cont.

8. Positive / motivated attitude re: day ahead / future (broad, general) - sense of future appears.
9. Neutral attitude / future not mentioned.
10. No reply.
11. Realistic ambition.
12. Hopelessness (general) cannot perceive future.
13. Positive / motivated specific - implies commitment.
14. Ambivalent (unsure).
15. Positive re: having left - telling him off - fantasy / escape.
16. Lost opportunity, sense of failure / dejectedness.
17. Compromise / humbled - see error of ways (positive).
18. Anger / Frustration.
19. Anxiety - not fitting in.

11.10: HOW IS HE SEEN ?

1. Popular.
2. Assertive.
3. Diffident / shy.
4. Angry / frustrated.
5. Nonchalant - inappropriate disrespect for established ruler and power.
6. Anxious.
7. Enthusiastic / positive.
8. Dissatisfied.
9. Not specified.
0. No reply.

APPENDIX 11: Cont.

11.11: COMPANY CARS.

1. Envy (sour grapes) - demotivated (I have not made it).
2. Open ended aspiration (secondary goal; no clear plan set).
3. Clearly defined aspirations (strong or primary motivation; clear plan).
4. Recognises strength. Not responding to car - incidental (crossing street).
5. Identification with luxury car.
6. Car would provide convenience (to get to work) haven't the money to own.
7. Anger / Frustration (tempted to stone vehicle).
8. Car associated with situation superior to oneself - boss in car (does not identify with it).
9. No response to company cars.
0. No reply.

APPENDIX 12

CLASSIFICATION OF PLOT TYPES

OVERALL CLASSIFICATION OF STORIES.

1. Powerless efforts are not successful, where did I go wrong.
2. General apathy, lethargy, unhappy.
3. Opportunity opening up.
4. Taking responsibility acting on and changing one's environment to suit one's own objectives. Setting out and achieving one's objectives.

APPENDIX 13:

ORDER OF PICTURES

13.1 - 13.5: PICTURES

1. Bedroom.
2. Parking lot.
3. Walking into office.
4. Altercation.
5. Social scene.

13.6: VARIABLE: DOMINANT MOOD AND CODE.

1. Hope.
2. Despair.
3. Neutral (bad, but not desperate).

13.7: VARIABLE: SUBJECTIVE / OBJECTIVE.

1. Personal / subjective involvement.
2. Objective descriptive.

13.8: VARIABLE: DOMINANT THEME.

1. Aspirational (hope).
2. Conflict related (active negative).

APPENDIX 13: Cont.

3. Consensus (resolution).
4. Protest.
5. Frustration.

13.9: VARIABLE: CONSTRUCTIVE / DESTRUCTIVE.

1. Constructive.
[Coping with and acting on difficult situations /
overcoming problems / dealing with issues].
2. Resigned.
[Apathetic, lethargic].
3. Destructive.

13.10: POSITIVE / NEGATIVE.

1. Starts negatively, and positively.
2. All negative.
3. All positive.
4. Starts positive, ends negative.
5. Starts neutral, ends negative.
6. Starts negative, end neutral.
7. Starts neutral, ends positive.
8. All neutral.
9. Starts positive, ends neutral.

13.11: FOCUSED / GENERALISED.

1. Focused (wants something specific).
2. Generalised (moves all over the place).

APPENDIX 13: Cont.

EXPECTANCY THEORY.

13.12: Any mention of capability.

- 0 No mention.
- 1 Positive.
- 2 Negative.

13.13: Any mention of trust.

- 0 No mention.
- 1 Positive.
- 2 Negative.

13.14: Any mention of reward.

- 0 No mention
- 1 Positive.
- 2 Negative.

Blalock, *Statistical Theory*, 1979, p. 243. The Binomial, Sign and Difference of Probabilities do not require the assumption of no multiple.

this t falls well below the .05 level of 2.00. There is no evidence, therefore, that the incentive increased variability of response to the test.

debutant
nominal
scale.

III. The Significance of the Difference between Percentages and Correlation Coefficients

Blalock 1. The reliability of the difference between two percents

(1) *SE OF THE DIFFERENCE WHEN PERCENTS ARE UNCORRELATED*
On page 196, the formula for the *SE* of a percentage was given as

$SE_{\%} = \sqrt{\frac{PQ}{N}}$ where P = percent occurrence of the observed behavior, $Q = (1 - P)$, and N is the size of the sample. One of the most useful applications of the *SE* formula is in determining the significance of the difference between two percents. In much experimental work, especially in social and abnormal psychology, we are able to get the percent occurrence of a given behavior in two or more independent samples. We then want to know whether the incidence of this behavior is reliably different in the two groups. The following problem which repeats part of Example (1), page 196, will provide an illustration.

Example (1) In a study of cheating* among elementary-school children, 144 or 41.4% of 348 children from homes of good socioeconomic status were found to have cheated on various tests. In the same study, 133 or 50.2% of 265 children from homes of poor socioeconomic status also cheated on the same tests. Is there a true difference in the incidence of cheating in these two groups?

Let us set up the hypothesis that no true difference exists as between the percentages cheating in the two groups and that, with respect to cheating, both samples have been randomly drawn from the same population. A useful procedure in testing this null hypothesis is to consider P_1 (41.4%) and P_2 (50.2%) as being independent determinations of the common population parameter, P ; and to estimate P by pooling P_1 and P_2 (see p. 224). A pooled estimate of P is obtained from the equation:

$$P = \frac{N_1 P_1 + N_2 P_2}{N_1 + N_2}$$

Q being, of course, $(1 - P)$.

* Data from Hartshorne, H., and May, M. A., *Studies in Deceit* (New York: Macmillan, 1928), Book II, p. 161.

The estimated percentages, P and Q , may now be put in formula (59) to give the *SE* of the difference between P_1 and P_2 .

$$\sigma_{D_{\%}} = \sigma_{P_1 - P_2} = \sqrt{\sigma_{P_1}^2 + \sigma_{P_2}^2} \quad (59)$$

$$= \sqrt{PQ \left[\frac{1}{N_1} + \frac{1}{N_2} \right]}$$

(*SE of the difference between two uncorrelated percentages*)

In the present example, $P = \frac{348 \times 41.4 + 265 \times 50.2}{348 + 265}$ or 45.2%

and $Q = (1 - P)$ or 54.8%. Substituting these two values in (59) we get

$$\sigma_{P_1 - P_2} = \sqrt{45.2 \times 54.8 \left[\frac{1}{348} + \frac{1}{265} \right]} = 4.06\%$$

The difference between the two percents P_1 and P_2 is 8.8% (50.2 - 41.4); and dividing by 4.06 ($CR = \frac{(P_1 - P_2) - 0}{\sigma_{P_1 - P_2}}$) we get a

CR of 2.17. Entering Table D, last line (there are 611 df), we find that our CR exceeds 1.90 (.05 level) but does not reach 2.58 (.01 level). We can be reasonably confident, therefore, that our two groups do not come from a common population and that the occurrence of cheating in the two groups is reliably different.

(2) *SE OF THE DIFFERENCE WHEN PERCENTS ARE CORRELATED*

Responses recorded in percentages may be, and usually are, correlated when individuals have been paired or matched in some attribute; or when the same group gives answers (e.g., "Yes"—"No") to the same questions or items. To illustrate with an example:

Example (2) A large group of veterans (250*) answered as follows the two questions:

1. Do you have a great many bad headaches? Yes 150 No 100
2. Are you troubled with fears of being crushed in a crowd? Yes 125 No 125

	#1		
	No	Yes	
Yes	25	100	125
No	75	50	125
	100	150	250

	#1		
	No	Yes	
Yes	(b) 10%	(a) 40%	50%
No	(d) 30%	(c) 20%	50%
	40%	60%	100%

* The data have been simplified for illustrative purposes.

APPENDIX 15.

FACTOR VARIABLES

15.1: BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES.

ITEM			
	BLACK SOUTH AFRICAN WHITE SOUTH AFRICAN BLACK ZIMBABWEAN	YES NO	2 1
	GENDER	MALE FEMALE	2 1
	AGE	UNDER 35 OVER 35	2 1
	EDUCATION	DEGREED NON-DEGREED	2 1
	JOB TYPE	TECHNICAL NON-TECHNICAL	2 1
	LEVEL	SENIOR JUNIOR	2 1
	TIME IN ORGANISATION	5 YEARS + LESS THAN 5 YEARS	2 1
	TIME IN POSITION	5 YEARS + LESS THAN 5 YEARS	2 1

APPENDIX 15: Cont.

15.2: NON-BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES.

ITEM			
1.4.	EXTRA TRAINING FOR BLACKS (AFFIRMATIVE ACTION)	YES NO	2 1
2.3.2.	PROMOTION ELUSIVE	YES NO	2 1
1.7.1.	NEED FOR COMMUNICATION	YES NO	2 1
1.7.3.	NEED TO BECOME UNDERSTANDING TO NEEDS AND ASPIRATIONS OF MANAGERS	YES NO	2 1
1.7.4	NEED FOR TEAM SPIRIT	YES NO	2 1
1.7.5	NEED TO RECOGNISE AND REWARD EFFORT MORE EFFECTIVELY	NO YES	2 1
1.8.1	PEOPLE JUDGED ON EXTERNAL CHARACTERISTICS	NO YES	2 1
1.8.2.	STEREOTYPING ON BASIS OF RACE	YES NO	2 1
1.10.1	UNDERSTANDING MANAGERS JOB	YES NO	2 1
1.7.2	NEED MORE ROLE DEFINITION	NO YES	2 1
1.7.8.	WANTS M.B.O.	NO YES	2 1
2.2	ATTAINMENT OF CAREER OBJECTIVE INVOLVE WORK IN ORGANISATION	NO YES	2 1
1.9.1.	BELIEVES IN DELEGATING DIFFICULT TASKS	YES NO	2 1
2.7	WANTS HIGH RISK JOB	YES NO	2 1

APPENDIX 16:

REGRESSION ANALYSIS

16.1: RECODED BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES FOR REGRESSION ANALYSIS.

Length of Time in Position

If Column 13	OLD CODE	
Under 2 year	01	NEW VARIABLE CODE 0
1 year to 5 years	02 and 03	NEW VARIABLE CODE 1
5 years to 15 years	04 and 05	NEW VARIABLE CODE 2

Education

If Column 7	OLD CODE	
Matric and under	01 and 02	NEW VARIABLE CODE 0
A level or Bachelors degree	03 and 04	NEW VARIABLE CODE 1
Post Graduate Degree	05 and 06	NEW VARIABLE CODE 2

Seniority

If Column 10 and 11	OLD CODE	
Junior management or less	01 and 02	NEW VARIABLE CODE 0
Middle manager	03	NEW VARIABLE CODE 1
Senior Management	04	NEW VARIABLE CODE 2

OF SUBSAMPL BY QUE1_1

SUBSAMPL QUE1_1

Frequency						
Percent						
Row Pct						
Col Pct	1	2	3	4	5	Total
BLACK_SA	9	7	7	17	17	88
	3.80	2.95	2.95	7.17	7.17	37.13
	10.23	7.95	7.95	19.32	19.32	
	75.00	21.80	53.85	28.81	40.48	
WHITE_SA	2	9	5	22	19	78
	0.84	3.80	2.11	9.28	8.02	32.91
	2.56	11.54	5.41	28.21	24.36	
	16.67	28.13	38.46	37.29	45.24	
ZIMBABWE	1	16	1	20	6	71
	0.42	6.75	0.42	8.44	2.53	29.96
	1.41	22.54	1.41	28.17	8.45	
	8.33	50.00	7.69	33.90	14.29	
Total	12	32	13	59	42	237
	5.06	13.50	5.49	24.89	17.72	100.00

(Continued)

1. Discrimination, racism/sexism
2. Follow rules
3. Be forward looking innovative
4. Theory X
5. Theory Y

APPENDIX 16: Cont.

Social Needs

	Response Equal	
If column 98 AND Column 101	01 or 02 or 03 01 or 02 or 03	NEW VARIABLE CODE 0
If column 98 AND Column 101 OR If column 98 AND Column 101	01 or 02 or 03 04 or 05 04 or 05 01 or 02 or 03	NEW VARIABLE CODE 1
If Column 98 AND Column 101	04 or 05 04 or 05	NEW VARIABLE CODE 2

TABLE OF SUBSAMPL BY QUE1_1

SUBSAMPL QUE1_1

Frequency					
Percent					
Row Pct					
Col Pct	6	7	8	9	Total
BLACK_SA	3	26	2	0	88
	1.27	10.97	0.84	0.00	37.13
	3.41	29.55	2.27	0.00	
	17.65	44.93	66.67	0.00	
WHITE_SA	4	16	0	1	78
	1.69	6.75	0.00	0.42	32.91
	5.13	20.51	0.00	1.28	
	23.53	27.59	0.00	100.00	
ZIMBABWE	10	16	1	0	71
	4.22	6.75	0.42	0.00	29.96
	14.08	22.54	1.41	0.00	
	58.82	27.59	33.33	0.00	
Total	17	58	3	1	237
	7.17	24.47	1.27	0.42	100.00

Frequency Missing = 75

STATISTICS FOR TABLE OF SUBSAMPL BY QUE1_1

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	16	36.595	0.002
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	16	38.154	0.001
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	0.111	0.739
Phi Coefficient		0.393	
Contingency Coefficient		0.366	
Cramer's V		0.278	

Effective Sample Size = 237

Frequency Missing = 75

WARNING: 24% of the data are missing.

WARNING: 44% of the cells have expected counts less than 5. Chi-Square may not be a valid test.

6. Shrewdness
7. Conventional
8. Caution
9. Watch your back

APPENDIX 16: Cont.

DEPENDANT VARIABLE

Adaptation to Management

Column 185	LOW	= 0
	MEDIUM	= 1
	HIGH	= 2

APPENDIX 16: Cont.

16.2: RECODED BOB-BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES FOR REGRESSION ANALYSIS.

INDEPENDENT VARIABLES
(Regressor)

Victim Status

KEY

0 = Low.
1 = Medium.
2 = High.

	Response Equal	
If column 108 and 109 AND Column 110, 111, 112 and 113 AND Column 80, 81, 82 and 83	02 or 01 00 or 05 or 09 or 10 or 11 or 12 01 or 02 or 03 or 04 or 11 or 12 or 13 or 14 or 16	NEW VARIABLE CODE 0
If column 108 and 109 AND Columns 110, 111, 112, and 113 AND Columns 80, 81, 82, and 83 OR If columns 108 and 109	02 or 01 00 or 05 or 09 or 10 or 11 or 12 15 or 21 or 22 or 23 or 24 or 25 or 26 or 27 or 28 or 29 or 30 or 31 or 32 01	NEW VARIABLE CODE 1

APPENDIX 16: Cont.

Victim Status Cont.

	Response Equal	
AND Column 110, 111, 112 and 113 AND Column 80, 81, 82 and 83	00 or 03 or 04 or 05 or 15 or 16 or 17 or 18 or 19 or 20 or 21 or 27 or 28 or 29 or 30 or 31 or 38 or 44 or 45 or 51 or 52 or 53 or 54 or 55 or 56 or 57 or 61 or 62 or 63 or 64 or 66 or 67 or 68 01 or 02 or 03 or 04 or 11 or 12 or 13 or 14 or 16 or 17 or 18 or 19 or 20 or 21 or 27 or 28 or 29 or 30 or 31 or 38 or 44 or 45 or 51 or 52 or 53 or 54 or 55 or 56 or or 61 or 62 or 63 or 64 or 66 or 67 or 68	NEW VARIABLE CODE 1 (Cont.)
If column 108 and 109 AND Column 110, 111, 112 and 113 AND If columns 80 and 81	01 00 or 03 or 04 or 15 or 16 or 17 or 18 or 19 or 20 or 21 or 27 or 28 or 29 or 30 or 31 or 38 or 44 or 45 or 51 or 52 or 53 or 54 or 55 or 56 or 57 or 61 or 62 or 63 or 64 or 66 or 67 or 68 15 or 21 or 22 or 23 or 24 or 25 or 26 or 27 or 28 or 29 or 30 or 31 or 32	NEW VARIABLE CODE 2

APPENDIX 16: Cont.

Role Clarity.

	Response Equal	
Column 99 AND Column 105	01 or 02 or 03 01 or 02 or 03	NEW VARIABLE CODE 0
Column 99 AND Column 105 OR Column 99 AND Column 105	04 or 05 01 or 02 or 03 01 or 02 or 03 04 or 05	NEW VARIABLE CODE 1
Column 99 AND Column 105	04 or 05 04 or 05	NEW VARIABLE CODE 2

APPENDIX 16: Cont.

Performance - Reward Profitability

	Response Equal	
If column 100 AND Column 102	01 or 02 or 03 01 or 02 or 03	NEW VARIABLE CODE 0
If column 100 AND Column 102 OR If column 100 AND Column 102	04 or 05 01 or 02 or 03 01 or 02 or 03 04 or 05	NEW VARIABLE CODE 1
If column 100 AND Column 102	04 or 05 04 or 05	NEW VARIABLE CODE 2

Self Sufficiency - High Risk

	Response Equal	
If column 114 and 115 AND Column 158 and 159	02 01	NEW VARIABLE CODE 3
If Column 114 and 115 AND Column 158 and 159 OR If column 114 and 115 AND Column 158 and 159	01 01 02	NEW VARIABLE CODE 1
If column 114 and 115 AND Column 158 and 159	01 02	NEW VARIABLE CODE 2

E OF SUBSAMPL BY QUE1_2

SUBSAMPL QUE1_2

Frequency						
Percent						
Row Pct						
Col Pct	1	2	3	4	5	Total
BLACK_SA	21	11	1	7	18	93
	8.57	4.49	0.41	2.86	7.35	37.96
	22.58	11.83	1.08	7.53	19.35	
	39.62	25.58	33.33	46.67	85.71	
WHITE_SA	13	19	1	4	2	81
	5.31	7.76	0.41	1.53	0.82	33.06
	16.05	23.46	1.23	4.74	2.47	
	24.53	44.19	33.33	26.67	9.52	
ZIMBABWE	19	13	1	4	1	71
	7.76	5.31	0.41	1.53	0.41	28.98
	26.76	18.31	1.41	5.53	1.41	
	35.85	30.23	33.33	26.67	4.76	
Total	53	43	3	15	21	245
	21.63	17.55	1.22	6.12	8.57	100.00

(Continued)

1. Obstacles regarding subordinates
2. Obstacles regarding peer colleagues
3. Obstacles regarding superiors
4. Obstacles regarding uncertainty of role
5. Obstacles regarding discrimination

TABLE OF SUBSAMPL BY QUE1_2

SUBSAMPL QUE1_2

Frequency						
Percent						
Row Pct						
Col Pct	6	7	8	9	10	Total
BLACK_SA	3	1	4	14	13	93
	1.22	0.41	1.63	5.71	5.31	37.96
	3.23	1.08	4.30	15.05	13.98	
	23.08	12.50	44.44	41.18	28.26	
WHITE_SA	6	1	3	15	17	81
	2.45	0.41	1.22	6.12	6.94	33.06
	7.41	1.23	3.70	18.52	20.99	
	46.15	12.50	33.33	44.12	36.96	
ZIMBABWE	4	6	2	5	16	71
	1.63	2.45	0.82	2.04	6.53	28.98
	5.63	9.49	2.82	7.04	22.54	
	30.77	75.00	22.22	14.71	34.78	
Total	18	8	9	34	46	245
	5.31	3.27	3.67	13.88	18.78	100.00

Frequency Missing = 67

STATISTICS FOR TABLE OF SUBSAMPL BY QUE1_2

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	18	41.922	0.001
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	18	41.934	0.001
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	0.015	0.901
Phi Coefficient		0.414	
Contingency Coefficient		0.382	
Cramer's V		0.292	

Effective Sample Size = 245

Frequency Missing = 67

WARNING: 21% of the data are missing.

WARNING: 47% of the cells have expected counts less than 5. Chi-Square may not be a valid test.

6. Obstacles regarding disadvantages
7. Obstacles technical
8. Challenges technical
9. Challenges management (general)
10. Challenges people management

APPENDIX 19

OF SUBSAMPL BY QUE1_8_1

QUE1_8_1

Percent	1	2	Total
Row Pct			
Col Pct	1	2	Total
BLACK_SA	37	2	39
	35.58	1.92	37.50
	94.87	5.13	
	50.68	6.45	
WHITE_SA	16	19	35
	15.38	18.27	33.65
	45.71	54.29	
	21.92	61.29	
ZIMBABWE	20	10	30
	19.23	9.62	28.85
	66.67	33.33	
	27.40	32.26	
Total	73	31	104
	73.19	29.81	100.00

STATISTICS FOR TABLE OF SUBSAMPL BY QUE1_8_1

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	2	21.555	0.000
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	2	24.488	0.000
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	7.918	0.005
Phi Coefficient		0.455	
Continuity Coefficient		0.414	
Cramer's V		0.455	

Sample Size = 104

1. True

2. False

TABLE OF SUBSAMPL BY QJEL_8_2

3_2

Frequency						
Percent						
Row Pct						
Col Pct	3	4	5	6	7	Total
BLACK_SA	1	1	5	15	16	67
	0.63	0.63	3.13	9.38	10.00	41.58
	1.49	1.49	7.45	22.29	23.88	
	100.00	14.29	13.51	83.33	64.00	
WHITE_SA	0	4	19	2	3	48
	0.00	2.50	11.88	1.25	1.88	30.00
	0.00	9.33	39.58	4.17	6.25	
	0.00	57.14	51.35	11.11	12.00	
ZIMBABWE	0	2	13	1	6	45
	0.00	1.25	8.13	0.63	3.75	29.13
	0.00	4.44	28.89	2.22	13.33	
	0.00	28.57	35.14	5.56	24.00	
Total	1	7	37	15	25	160
	0.63	4.38	23.13	11.25	15.63	100.00

(Continued)

3. Personal experience

4. Prejudice a thing of the past

5. Changing for the better

6. Discrimination exists

7. Blacks discriminated against in selection

TABLE OF SUBSAMPL BY QUE1_8_2

SUBSAMPL QUE1_8_2

Frequency						
Percent						
Row Pct						
Col Pct	8	9	10	11	12	Total
BLACK_SA	7	5	3	9	0	67
	4.38	3.13	5.00	5.63	0.00	41.88
	10.45	7.46	11.94	13.43	0.00	
	100.00	100.00	23.53	40.91	0.00	
WHITE_SA	0	0	14	5	1	48
	0.00	0.00	8.75	3.13	0.63	30.00
	0.00	0.00	29.17	10.42	2.08	
	0.00	0.00	41.18	22.73	25.00	
ZIMBABWE	0	0	12	8	3	45
	0.00	0.00	7.50	5.00	1.88	28.13
	0.00	0.00	26.67	17.78	6.67	
	0.00	0.00	35.29	36.36	75.00	
Total	7	5	34	22	4	160
	4.38	3.13	21.25	13.75	2.50	100.00

Frequency Missing = 152

STATISTICS FOR TABLE OF SUBSAMPL BY QUE1_8_2

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	18	63.503	0.000
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	13	71.729	0.000
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	0.619	0.431
Phi Coefficient		0.630	
Contingency Coefficient		0.533	
Cramer's V		0.445	

Effective Sample Size = 160

Frequency Missing = 152

WARNING: 49% of the data are missing.

WARNING: 50% of the cells have expected counts less than 5. Chi-Square may not be a valid test.

8. Extra effort to fit in
9. Black managers discriminated against
10. Non-racist
11. Sexism
12. Nepotism etc.

APPENDIX 21

OF SUBSAMPL BY COL30

ROW PCT	PERFORM	LETHARGY	FUTURE	RESPON-	
COL PCT	/ PROB			SIBILITY	TOTAL
BLACK_SA	12	9	15	3	39
	11.54	9.65	14.42	2.88	37.50
	30.77	23.08	33.45	7.69	
	54.55	27.27	39.47	27.27	
WHITE_SA	3	10	15	7	35
	2.98	9.62	14.42	6.73	33.65
	8.57	23.57	42.35	20.00	
	13.64	30.30	39.47	63.64	
ZIMBABWE	7	14	3	1	30
	5.73	13.46	7.69	0.96	29.85
	23.33	46.67	26.67	3.33	
	31.82	42.42	21.05	9.09	
TOTAL	22	33	33	11	104
	21.15	31.73	36.54	10.58	100.00

STATISTICS FOR TABLE OF SUBSAMPL BY COL30

STATISTIC	DF	VALUE	PROB
CHI-SQUARE	6	13.486	0.036
LIKELIHOOD RATIO CHI-SQUARE	6	13.900	0.031
MANTEL-HAENSZEL CHI-SQUARE	1	0.184	0.668
PHI		0.360	
CONTINGENCY COEFFICIENT		0.339	
CRAMER'S V		0.255	

SAMPLE SIZE = 104

WARNING: 25% OF THE CELLS HAVE EXPECTED COUNTS LESS
 THAN 5. CHI-SQUARE MAY NOT BE A VALID TEST.

APPENDIX 22

OF SJBSAMPL BY QUE2_2_3

QUE2_2_3

Percent Row Pct Col Pct	17	18	25	Total
BLACK_SA	20 19.80 54.05 33.33	13 12.87 35.14 30.24	4 3.96 10.81 57.1	37 36.63
WHITE_SA	28 27.72 82.35 46.67	6 5.94 17.65 17.65	0 0.00 0.00 0.00	34 33.66
ZIMBABWE	12 11.88 40.00 20.00	15 14.85 50.00 44.12	3 2.97 10.00 42.86	30 29.70
Total	60 59.41	34 33.66	7 6.93	101 100.00

Frequency Missing = 3

STATISTICS FOR TABLE OF SUBSAMPL BY QUE2_2_3

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	4	13.655	0.003
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	4	16.009	0.003
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	0.000	0.988
Phi Coefficient		0.368	
Contingency Coefficient		0.345	
Cramer's V		0.260	

Effective Sample Size = 101

Frequency Missing = 3

WARNING: 33% of the cells have expected counts less than 5. Chi-Square may not be valid test.

17. Involves action to be taken
in corporate environment

18. Education etc.

19. Opting out

APPENDIX 23

OF SUBSAMPL BY SOC_SIT

	NEGATIVE	SOCIAL / SUCCESS	SOCIAL ADAPT	NON ISSUE	TOTAL
BLACK_SA	33	5	7	27	72
	18.44	2.79	3.91	15.08	40.22
	45.83	5.94	9.72	37.50	
	40.24	25.32	33.33	47.37	
WHITE_SA	25	12	5	18	61
	13.97	5.70	3.35	10.06	34.08
	40.98	19.67	9.84	29.51	
	30.49	63.16	28.57	31.58	
ZIMBABWE	24	2	8	12	46
	13.41	1.12	4.47	6.70	25.70
	52.17	4.35	17.39	26.09	
	29.27	10.53	38.10	21.05	
TOTAL	82	19	21	57	179
	45.81	10.61	11.73	31.34	100.00

FREQUENCY MISSING = 133

STATISTICS FOR TABLE OF SUBSAMPL BY SOC_SIT

STATISTIC	DF	VALUE	PROB
CHI-SQUARE	6	11.044	0.087
LIKELIHOOD RATIO CHI-SQUARE	6	13.560	0.103
MANTEL-HAENSZEL CHI-SQUARE	1	1.257	0.260
PHI		0.248	
CONTINGENCY COEFFICIENT		0.241	
CRAMER'S V		0.176	

EFFECTIVE SAMPLE SIZE = 179

FREQUENCY MISSING = 133

WARNING: 43% OF THE DATA ARE MISSING.

APPENDIX 24

OF SUBSAMPL BY QUE1_7_2

Percent Row Pct Col Pct	1	2	3	4	5	Total
BLACK_SA	8	16	11	3	1	39
	7.69	15.38	10.58	2.88	0.96	37.50
	20.51	41.03	28.21	7.59	2.56	
	47.06	50.00	33.33	15.79	33.33	
WHITE_SA	4	3	14	12	2	35
	3.85	2.88	13.46	11.54	1.92	30.65
	11.43	8.57	40.00	34.79	5.71	
	23.53	9.38	42.42	63.16	66.67	
ZIMBABWE	5	13	8	4	0	30
	4.81	12.50	7.69	3.85	0.00	28.85
	16.67	43.33	26.67	13.33	0.00	
	29.41	40.63	24.24	21.05	0.00	
Total	17	32	33	19	3	104
	16.35	30.77	31.73	18.27	2.88	100.00

STATISTICS FOR TABLE OF SUBSAMPL BY QUE1_7_2

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	8	20.114	0.010
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	8	22.413	0.004
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	0.261	0.610
Phi Coefficient		0.440	
Contingency Coefficient		0.403	
Cramer's V		0.311	

Sample Size = 104

WARNING: 27% of the cells have expected counts less than 5. Chi-Square may not be a valid test.

1. Urgently necessary
2. Very necessary
3. Fairly necessary
4. Less necessary
5. Unnecessary

APPENDIX 25

OF SUBSAMPL BY QUE1_101

QUE1_101

Percent	1	2	Total
Row Pct			
Col Pct			
BLACK_SA	20	19	39
	19.23	18.27	37.50
	51.28	48.72	
	43.48	32.75	
WHITE_SA	11	24	35
	10.58	23.08	33.65
	31.43	68.57	
	23.91	41.38	
ZIMBABWE	15	15	30
	14.42	14.42	28.85
	50.00	50.00	
	32.61	25.86	
Total	46	58	104
	44.23	55.77	100.00

STATISTICS FOR TABLE OF SUBSAMPL BY QUE1_101

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	2	3.516	0.172
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	2	3.584	0.167
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	0.061	0.805
Phi Coefficient		0.184	
Contingency Coefficient		0.181	
Cramer's V		0.184	

Sample Size = 104

1. First and second choice
2. Third choice

OF SUBSAMPL BY QUE1_7_5

Frequency						
Percent						
Row Pct						
Col Pct	1	2	3	4	5	Total
BLACK_SA	20	16	2	1	0	39
	19.23	15.38	1.92	0.96	0.00	37.50
	51.28	41.03	5.13	2.56	0.00	
	51.28	41.03	11.11	14.29	0.00	
WHITE_SA	10	14	5	5	1	35
	9.62	13.46	4.81	4.81	0.96	33.65
	28.57	40.00	14.29	14.29	2.86	
	25.64	35.90	27.78	71.43	100.00	
ZIMBABWE	9	9	11	1	0	30
	8.65	8.65	10.58	0.96	0.00	28.85
	30.00	30.00	36.67	3.33	0.00	
	23.08	23.08	61.11	14.29	0.00	
Total	39	39	18	7	1	104
	37.50	37.50	17.31	6.73	0.96	100.00

STATISTICS FOR TABLE OF SUBSAMPL BY QUE1_7_5

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	8	20.290	0.009
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	8	19.830	0.011
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	6.214	0.013
Phi Coefficient		0.442	
Contingency Coefficient		0.404	
Cramer's V		0.312	

Sample Size = 104

WARNING: 40% of the cells have expected counts less than 5. Chi-Square may not be a valid test.

1. Urgently necessary
2. Very necessary
3. Fairly necessary
4. Less necessary
5. Unnecessary

APPENDIX 27

OF SJBSAMPL BY QUE1_7_1

QUE1_7_1

Percent Row Pct Col Pct	1	2	3	Total
BLACK_SA	24	14	1	39
	23.08	13.46	0.96	37.50
	61.54	35.90	2.56	
	50.00	31.11	9.09	
WHITE_SA	10	15	10	35
	9.62	14.42	9.62	33.65
	28.57	42.86	28.57	
	20.83	33.33	90.91	
ZIMBABWE	14	16	0	30
	13.46	15.38	0.00	29.85
	46.67	53.33	0.00	
	29.17	35.56	0.00	
Total	48	45	11	104
	46.15	43.27	10.58	100.00

STATISTICS FOR TABLE OF SUBSAMPL BY QUE1_7_1

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	4	21.795	0.000
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	4	22.742	0.000
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	1.107	0.293
Phi Coefficient		0.458	
Contingency Coefficient		0.416	
Cramer's V		0.324	

Sample Size = 104

WARNING: 33% of the cells have expected counts less than 5. Chi-Square may not be a valid test.

1. Urgently necessary
2. Very necessary
3. Fairly necessary

APPENDIX 28

OF SJBSAMPL BY QUE1_7_4

Percent						
Row Pct						
Col Pct	1	2	3	4	5	Total
BLACK_SA	21	12	5	1	0	39
	20.19	11.54	4.81	0.96	0.00	37.50
	53.85	30.77	12.82	2.56	0.00	
	52.50	31.58	31.25	14.29	0.00	
WHITE_SA	7	14	7	4	3	35
	6.73	13.46	6.73	3.85	2.88	33.65
	20.00	40.00	20.00	11.43	8.57	
	17.50	35.84	43.75	57.14	100.00	
ZIMBABWE	12	12	4	2	0	30
	11.54	11.54	3.85	1.92	0.00	28.85
	40.00	40.00	13.33	6.57	0.00	
	30.00	31.58	25.00	28.57	0.00	
Total	40	38	16	7	3	104
	38.46	35.54	15.38	6.73	2.88	100.00

STATISTICS FOR TABLE OF SUBSAMPL BY QUE1_7_4

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	8	14.890	0.061
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	8	16.007	0.042
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	1.337	0.248
Phi Coefficient		0.378	
Contingency Coefficient		0.354	
Cramer's V		0.268	

Sample Size = 104

WARNING: 47% of the cells have expected counts less than 5. Chi-Square may not be a valid test.

1. Urgently necessary
2. Very necessary
3. Fairly necessary
4. Less necessary
5. Unnecessary

APPENDIX 29

The SAS System

09:51 Tuesday, June 11, 1991

6

E OF SUBSAMPL BY QUE2_1

SUBSAMPL		QUE2_1					
Frequency	Percent	Row Pct	Col Pct				
			1	2	3	4	Total
BLACK_SA	9	5	2	34	93		
	4.05	2.25	0.90	15.32	41.89		
	9.68	5.38	2.15	36.56			
	75.00	35.71	10.53	68.00			
WHITE_SA	3	4	8	10	67		
	1.35	1.80	3.60	4.50	30.18		
	4.43	5.97	11.94	14.93			
	25.00	28.57	42.11	20.00			
ZIMBABWE	0	5	7	6	62		
	0.00	2.25	4.05	2.70	27.93		
	0.00	9.06	14.52	9.63			
	0.00	35.71	47.37	12.00			
Total	12	14	19	50	222		
	5.41	5.31	8.56	22.52	100.00		
(Continued)							

1. Undefined clear break from organisation
2. Own business
3. Change of function
4. General position with organisation

TABLE OF SUBSAMPL BY QUE2_1

SUBSAMPL		QUE2_1			
Frequency					
Percent					
Row Pct					
Col Pct		51	61	81	Total
BLACK_SA	35	4	3		93
	16.22	1.80	1.35		41.89
	3.71	4.30	3.23		
	36.36	19.13	50.00		
WHITE_SA	29	12	1		67
	13.06	5.41	0.45		30.18
	43.28	17.91	1.49		
	29.29	56.65	16.67		
ZIMBABWE	34	6	2		62
	15.32	2.70	0.90		27.93
	54.84	9.58	3.23		
	34.34	27.27	33.33		
Total	99	22	6		222
	44.59	9.91	2.70		100.00

Frequency Missing = 90

STATISTICS FOR TABLE OF SUBSAMPL BY QUE2_1

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	12	375	0.000
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	12	531	0.000
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	2.936	0.084
Phi Coefficient		0.421	
Contingency Coefficient		0.388	
Cramer's V		0.298	

Effective Sample Size = 222

Frequency Missing = 90

WARNING: 29% of the data are missing.

WARNING: 33% of the cells have expected counts less than 5. Chi-Square may not be a valid test.

5. Defined career path
6. Stay where he is
7. Close to retirement

APPENDIX 30

OF SJBSAMPL BY QUE2_7_1

QUE2_7_1

Percent Row Pct Col Pct	1	2	Total
BLACK_SA	13 12.50 33.33 40.63	26 25.00 66.67 36.11	39 37.50
WHITE_SA	8 7.69 22.86 25.00	27 25.96 77.14 37.50	35 33.65
ZIMBABWE	11 10.58 36.67 34.38	19 18.27 53.33 26.39	30 28.85
Total	32 30.77	72 69.23	104 100.00

STATISTICS FOR TABLE OF SUBSAMPL BY QUE2_7_1

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	2	1.639	0.441
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	2	1.681	0.432
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	0.040	0.841
Phi Coefficient		0.126	
Contingency Coefficient		0.125	
Cramer's V		0.126	

Sample Size = 104

1. The first job would suit your experience and you would not risk making mistakes
2. The second would be more complicated outside your experience and you would not risk making mistakes.

APPENDIX 31

IF SUBSAMPL BY QUE1_9_1

QUE1_9_1

Percent			
Row Pct			
Col Pct	1	2	Total
BLACK_SA	29	10	39
	27.88	9.62	37.50
	74.36	25.64	
	40.28	31.25	
WHITE_SA	33	2	35
	31.73	1.92	33.65
	94.29	5.71	
	45.83	6.25	
ZIMBABWE	10	20	30
	9.62	19.23	28.85
	33.33	66.67	
	13.89	62.50	
Total	72	32	104
	69.23	30.77	100.00

STATISTICS FOR TABLE OF SUBSAMPL BY QUE1_9_1

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	2	28.944	0.000
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	2	30.460	0.000
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	11.112	0.001
Phi Coefficient		0.528	
Contingency Coefficient		0.467	
Cramer's V		0.528	

Sample Size = 104

1. Wise
2. Unwise

APPENDIX 32

OF SUBSAMPL BY QUE1_5_1

QUE1_6_1

Percent Row Pct Col Pct	1	2	Total
BLACK_SA	33	5	39
	31.73	5.77	37.50
	84.62	15.38	
	33.67	100.00	
WHITE_SA	35	0	35
	33.65	0.00	33.65
	100.00	0.00	
	35.71	0.00	
ZIMBABWE	30	0	30
	28.85	0.00	28.85
	100.00	0.00	
	30.61	0.00	
Total	98	6	104
	94.23	5.77	100.00

STATISTICS FOR TABLE OF SUBSAMPL BY QUE1_6_1

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	2	10.612	0.005
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	2	12.391	0.002
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	8.022	0.005
Phi Coefficient		0.319	
Contingency Coefficient		0.304	
Cramer's V		0.319	

Sample Size = 104

WARNING: 50% of the cells have expected counts less than 5. Chi-Square may not be a valid test.

1. Future success depends largely upon the amount of effort and initiative with which the individual approaches his day to day life.
2. Our futures are largely determined for us by circumstances beyond our own control e.g. fate, luck and chance and depends little on the efforts of the individual.

DEP VARIABLE: ADAPT

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

SOURCE	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE	F VALUE	PROB>F
MODEL	7	9.19799041	1.31399863	1.843	0.0872
ERROR	96	68.45585575	0.71308183		
C TOTAL	103	77.65384615			
ROOT MSE		0.8444417	R-SQUARE	0.1134	
DEP MEAN		1.057692	ADJ R-SQ	0.0542	
C.V.		79.83813			

PARAMETER ESTIMATES

NOTE: PARTIAL AND SEMI-PARTIAL CORRELATIONS ARE SQUARED

VARIABLE	DF	TYPE I SS	TYPE II SS	STANDARDIZED ESTIMATE	SEMI-PARTIAL CORR TYPE I
INTERCEP	1	116.34615	7.48280199	0	
VICTIM	1	1.97885500	1.88919923	-0.16077553	0.02545727
CLARITY	1	1.08154719	0.24219129	0.06073341	0.01392780
SOC NEED	1	0.004741607	0.08222075	-0.03519171	0.000061061
H RTSK	1	1.45555282	0.72384080	0.10182894	0.01874412
T-POS	1	1.07350000	0.87077503	-0.11151699	0.01382417
EDUC	1	3.03432376	1.78823911	0.13716452	0.03971888
SENIORITY	1	0.52147004	0.52147004	0.09322548	0.006715315

VARIABLE	DF	SEMI-PARTIAL CORR TYPE II	PARTIAL CORR TYPE I	PARTIAL CORR TYPE II	TOLERANCE
INTERCEP	1				
VICTIM	1	0.02432247	0.02805729	0.02685618	0.94118482
CLARITY	1	0.003118552	0.01555346	0.003525447	0.84555190
SOC NEED	1	0.001053911	0.000064260	0.001199636	0.85494391
H RTSK	1	0.009321377	0.02081996	0.01046320	0.99895430
T-POS	1	0.01121355	0.01543952	0.01256047	0.90169763
EDUC	1	0.02302834	0.04311317	0.02545750	0.82408956
SENIORITY	1	0.006715315	0.007560021	0.007560021	0.77267547

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