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Trust in the manager - subordinate relationship

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TRUST

IN THE

MANAGER - SUBORDINATE

RELATIONSHIP

Debora Ann Blackburn

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ABSTRACT

Trust is considered by some management experts to be a critical element in organisational relationships. This factor is especially important in South Africa where organisational relationships are often obstructed by mistrust.

There has been very little empirical research conducted on this topic. The literature reviewed proposed that the managerial behaviours and attitudes that build subordinate trust are those that relate to the managers' own level of integrity. There was almost no literature available that examined the behaviours and attitudes that destroy trust.

The aim of the study, therefore, was to develop guidelines for managers by exploring the element of trust in the manager-subordinate relationship. It endeavoured to identify which managerial behaviours and attitudes build and which ones destroy subordinate trust. It also distinguished differences in the perception and experience of subordinate trust between four identified job grade levels and three sites.

The research was conducted within three diverse manufacturing sites of one company. The data was collected by means of the Nominal Group Technique, which elicited a

broad set of views from employees within a disciplined structure.

The research findings differed significantly from the literature review. The managerial behaviours that build subordinate trust are those that empower the subordinate to develop and grow as well as reduce their dependency upon managers. Whereas, the managers' own lack of personal integrity destroys subordinate trust. Thus, management style has more impact on destroying subordinate trust than it has on building it. It was identified that trust building and trust destroying behaviours are not polarised.

A parallel between trust building and motivation was identified in that both approaches satisfy subordinates' needs. Trust was discovered to have a reciprocal aspect to it. Trust can be built through certain trust building behaviours, however, these behaviours will not be effective unless trust is already present in the relationship.

The scope of the study was exploratory, and as such it has opened up many areas for further research.

DECLARATION

I declare that this research report is my own, unaided work. It is being submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Management in the University of Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other University.

D A Blackburn

14th day of December, 1992

DEDICATION

I dedicate this research project to my children,

Taryn and Clayton Hood

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I am sincerely grateful to:

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"Trust - or the lack of it - is at the root of success or failure in relationships and in the bottom-line results of business, industry, education, and government."

(Covey, 1992, p. 31)

CHAPTER ONE : INTRODUCTION

"Research is concerned with the systematic gathering of information. Its purpose is to help us in our search for the truth. While we will never find the ultimate truth....ongoing research adds to our body of knowledge by supporting some theories, contradicting others, and suggesting new theories to replace those that fail to gain support" (Robbins, 1989, p. 19).

1.1 BACKGROUND

"Trust building is a dynamic process, an investment in the future....Trust is the miracle ingredient in organisational life - a lubricant that reduces friction, a bonding agent that glues together disparate parts, a catalyst that facilitates action. No substitutes - neither threat nor promise - will do the job as well" (Shea, in Mishra and Morrissey, 1990, pp. 449-450).

Pat Carrigan, the first female plant manager at General Motors Corporation has led dramatic improvements in two plants. To what does she attribute her success? She believes her job is to "create a climate of trust" (Kouzes and Posner, 1990, p. 24). Carrigan's honesty and trustworthiness were the key contributors in her attempts to gain the support of tough and hard-nosed unionists to improve quality and reduce costs in her plant. And what do the union men have to say about Carrigan? "She ain't

got a phoney bone in her body" (Whyte, in Kouzes and Posner, 1990, p. 24).

It is no surprise that trustworthiness has been claimed by many management 'gurus' as being one of the key ingredients to effective leadership. "If we are willing to follow someone, whether it be into battle or the boardroom, we first must assure ourselves that the person merits our trust - we must be certain that he or she is being truthful, ethical and principled" (Kouzes and Posner, 1990. p. 24). Managers simply cannot be effective without the trust of their subordinates.

However, the spotlight is not only on trust as a key leadership attribute. Trust also facilitates the development of satisfying interpersonal relationships. "Trust is a prerequisite for the development of warm personal relations" (Copley, 1991, p. 1). Trust is, therefore also critical for the personal psychological health of individuals.

The business environment is complex and undergoing rapid and extensive changes. "I have never experienced a time when the environment was as unpredictable as it is now....it is dicey, spastic, fluid, ambiguous" (Bennis, 1991, p. 16). For those people operating in the business environment the changes bring opportunities, but also insecurity, stress and confusion which arise out of

unpredictability (Rotter, 1980). Now, more than ever, managers and employees need consistency, honesty and reliability to bring back the balance and security that is currently missing in their lives. Amongst the rapid and complex changes around them, employees need secure and reliable relationships with the organisational people with whom they interact. They also need to be able to trust their work colleagues (Covey, 1992).

In a world where resources are scarce the competition is fierce - organisations are pitted against each other, and employees within those organisations are often pitted against other employees. However, there is a paradox in this competitive equation. Co-operation, the opposite of competition, is equally critical to the organisation. It enables the employees within the organisation to function effectively. In so doing, the organisation becomes powerfully competitive. Competitiveness and co-operation are dichotomous and require an essential 'miracle' ingredient to gel the two together. Trust is "the only factor that will create a balance between the two extreme behaviours " (Cronje, 1988, p. 15).

The importance of trust in business relationships is currently receiving increasing attention, especially in the United States. Bennis (1991) in an interview with Fortune Magazine stated that he believed the critical issue for 1992 was to build trust in business relationships. Covey

(1992, p. 31) credited trust, or the lack of it, as being "at the root of success or failure in relationships and in the bottom-line results of business, industry, education and government".

Within the South African business context the issue of trusting business relationships has an even greater importance. The socio-political history has created a social environment that is characterised by mistrust between the diverse peoples of South Africa. Fuhr (1991, p. 10) summarises the situation thus: "this country has been scarred by an ever widening chasm of mistrust and it is safe to say that any company that fails to address that mistrust is destined to remain firmly rooted in the old South Africa" and further, "Mistrust is probably the single most formidable obstacle in the way of meaningful change". (Fuhr, 1991, p. 1)

"The real importance of trust in human relationships becomes apparent when we consider the mind-boggling consequence of a world totally devoid of trust. Human interaction, enterprise and satisfaction would grind to a sickening halt if people did not trust each other" (Copley, 1991, p. 1).

Hence, trust building appears to be absolutely critical to the psychological health and bottom-line success of organisations. However, corporations spend huge sums of

money on training their managers in interpersonal skills and conflict resolution, but pay scant attention to the issue of trust (Sinetar, 1988). Why is it that so little research has been conducted internationally on the topic of trust? The answer perhaps lies in the fact that trust can only be built by the leaders, the managers and the supervisors of organisations, when they behave in a trustworthy manner (Kouzes and Posner, 1990). Managers can not build trust merely by changing structures and systems. Organisational trust building is thus dependent on determined changes in the managers' behaviours (Covey, 1989). Changing ones' behaviour is significantly more difficult to achieve than changing structures and systems. It requires determination and a willingness to take the risk of trusting oneself as well as others (Covey, 1989). Above all it requires the maturity to make personal sacrifices. Too many managers are simply not prepared to make this kind of personal commitment.

1.2 OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

Managers, as leaders of their subordinates, undoubtedly have an important role to play in developing trust within their organisations (Campbell, 1988). However, in much the same way as with the phenomenon of respect, managers cannot command their subordinates to trust them. Trust is given to the managers by their subordinates and the criteria for giving is based on the individual's perception of the manager's behaviour, attitude, etc. (Campbell,

1988).

Therefore, the obvious point of entry for empirical research on trust building in organisations is:

* to establish which managerial behaviours and attitudes build trustworthiness, and
* to ask subordinates.

The researcher has been unable to locate empirical research that followed this route.

1.3 IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

Very little empirical research has been undertaken worldwide in the area of organisational trust (Bernstein, 1988). The need for empirical research was further confirmed by several local change management consultants, and it is felt that more knowledge on this topic is urgently required by South African managers (Fuhr, 1991).

No other research was located that asked subordinates what managerial behaviours would make them trust managers. All other research asked managers their views of the topic. Additionally, no available research has identified what managerial behaviours destroy subordinate trust

The research undertaken by Schuitema (1987) attempted to identify the level of trust that Black South African miners hold for various roles, functions and institutions. His

research identified that "management style" had the most impact on trust levels. However, the research identified only one behaviour, or attitude, as having a positive impact, viz. concern for employees' wellbeing. This research project aimed to identify a range of behaviours that have a positive impact on trust as well as behaviours that destroy trust in the manager-subordinate relationship.

1.4 THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The primary concern of this study was the specific behaviours and attitudes that managers demonstrate, that impact on the trust that their subordinates hold for them, or more simply stated: that impact upon their own level of trustworthiness.

The associated research questions were:

Question 1: What managerial behaviours and attitudes build subordinates' trust?

Question 2: What managerial behaviours and attitudes destroy subordinates' trust?

Question 3: What are the differences of opinion on the above two questions between subordinates from different job grade levels and different sites?

1.5 KEY ASSUMPTIONS

The first key assumption was that the degree to which subordinates trust their managers has a strong impact on the nature and the outputs of the relationship.

The second key assumption was that where trust is high the relationship is more co-operative and beneficial, and productive to both parties, than where trust is low.

The third key assumption was that respondents would be able to articulate their views on trust and write in a group situation.

1.6 DEFINITION OF TERMINOLOGY

To facilitate clarity the following words have been defined:

* Manager: any person who is responsible for the performance of people who report to him/her, at any point in the hierarchy. This includes CEO's, foremen and supervisors. The word "manager" shall also be taken to include "leader".

* Trustworthiness: being worthy of other peoples' trust

* Trusted: someone in whom others place their trust

* Inter personal: between people

* Inter group: between groups

* Intra group: within a group

* Intra organisational: within an organisation

1.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

The study was essentially a qualitative sociological research project. Further, it was exploratory and aimed to develop constructs rather than to test previously identified behaviours.

The scope of the study was limited in that the sample was taken from three different manufacturing sites of one company. Therefore the study does not claim to be generalisable to the entire South African work population.

During the data collection phase respondents were asked to identify managerial behaviours that build, or destroy, subordinate trust. It was difficult to establish whether the respondents clearly extracted trust producing, or destroying, behaviours, or whether they included other managerial competencies.

The limitations imposed by the field situation are outlined in section 3.5.

1.8 SUBSEQUENT CHAPTERS OF THE REPORT

Chapter Two, The Literature Review, consists in the main of journal articles which reflect the views and theories of a number of authors. This chapter relates expert definitions of trust. It also delineates trust into two categories, viz. trust as a skill or trust as a process and examines the views of authors under these two groups. The review appraises the impact of trust on managerial effectiveness as well as organisational development interventions that have been introduced in certain organisations in an attempt to build intra-organisational trust. The role of trust in the industrial relationship is explored. The benefits of trust in relationships as well as the manager behaviours that engender, as well as destroy, trust are investigated. Lastly, the influence of the external environment on trust between managers and their subordinates is examined.

The Research Methodology, outlined in Chapter Three, examines certain key issues that pertain to the study, such as the limitations imposed on the research by the field situation, ethical considerations and the implications of respondents being involved in qualitative research on the climate of the organisation. The sampling procedure is outlined. Certain pre-data collection activities, including the pilot study, were considered to be an important influencing factor in the success of the research. The rationale for using the Nominal Group Technique for the data collection is outlined and the

technique is described in detail. An evaluation of the data collection method is also submitted. The chapter finishes with a description of the approach taken for the analysis of data.

Chapter Four consists of the presentation of the research findings, without discussion. This includes various tables and figures.

A full discussion on the findings is covered in Chapter Five. The discussion examines the critical managerial behaviours that build trust and the critical managerial behaviours that destroy trust. Differences, similarities and relationships between job grade groups and sites are discussed. Certain key issue become evident in the analysis and discussion of the research findings, such as: the absence of polarisation of trust and mistrust, and the reciprocity factor of trust. These issues are discussed, as are other trust linking outcomes, such as: trust and motivation.

Chapter Six includes the conclusion as well as recommendations for further research projects.

CHAPTER TWO : REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

"A critical attitude will characterize his (the researcher's) activities in this phase.....he will be examining his problems from as many perspectives as possible....in order to discover data that provide him with new understanding" (Denzin, 1970, pp.10).

2.1 INTRODUCTION

There is a dearth of both literature and empirical research on the topic of trust (Godsell, 1983 and Schuitema, J., 1991). In the main, the literature reviewed consisted of psychology and management journal article which express the views, opinions and assumptions of a variety of overseas authors. Very little of this literature made reference to empirical research.

For the purposes of this study, the literature review has been restricted to the dynamics of trust within an organisational, or work place, context. Focus is placed on interpersonal trust. Notwithstanding this focus, intra-organisational trust was also examined as it was viewed as being an influencing factor upon interpersonal trust (Driscoll, 1978).

2.2 DEFINITION OF TRUST

Traditionally trust has been viewed as a somewhat mystical factor that defies definition by the layman (Rotter,1971).

The Pocket Oxford Dictionary definition of trust (a noun) was "firm belief that a person or thing may be relied upon, state of being relied upon" (Fowler and Fowler, 1970, p. 919). Giffin (1967, p. 105) defined trust as "reliance upon the communication behaviour of another person in order to achieve a desired but uncertain objective in a risky situation". Rotter (1971, p. 444) further defined trust as "an expectancy held by an individual or a group that the word, promise, verbal or written statement of another individual or group can be relied upon", and "a belief in the goodness of others or in the nature of the world" (1980, p.1). Maddux (1988, p. 37) spoke of trust "as an assured reliance on the character, ability, and strength or truth of someone or something".

Within the parameters of this study the researcher defined a subordinate's trust for a manager as: "A state of being able to rely on the manager to consistently take into account, as well as endeavour to protect, the subordinate's well being and goals when making decisions that concern that subordinate. This, the manager will do without being reminded or manipulated to do so". It goes without saying, that in order for the manager to be able to do this a fair amount of one-on-one open and honest communication would have taken place between the manager and the subordinate in an effort to establish the subordinate's personal life, their values, their concerns and their career and personal aspirations. The author's definition of trust, at the

outset of the research, therefore implies that good interpersonal communication is a precursor to trust building.

2.3 "BEHAVIOUR" DEFINED

This study aims to identify the managerial behaviours that build, or destroy, subordinate trust. It would therefore, be appropriate to briefly define "behaviour", as well as to explore what influences individual behaviour.

2.3.1 Behaviour

Behave (verb) is defined as "conduct oneself, act, work, in specified manner" (Fowler and Fowler, 1969, p. 66). Individuals behave in a unique way, or pattern (Robbins, 1987).

Individual behaviour finds its foundations in biographical characteristics, personality, values, attitudes and ability (Robbins, 1989). These six elements influence perception, which together with motivation, induce certain behaviours in an individual (Robbins, 1989). Figure 2.1, developed by the researcher, illustrates this concept.

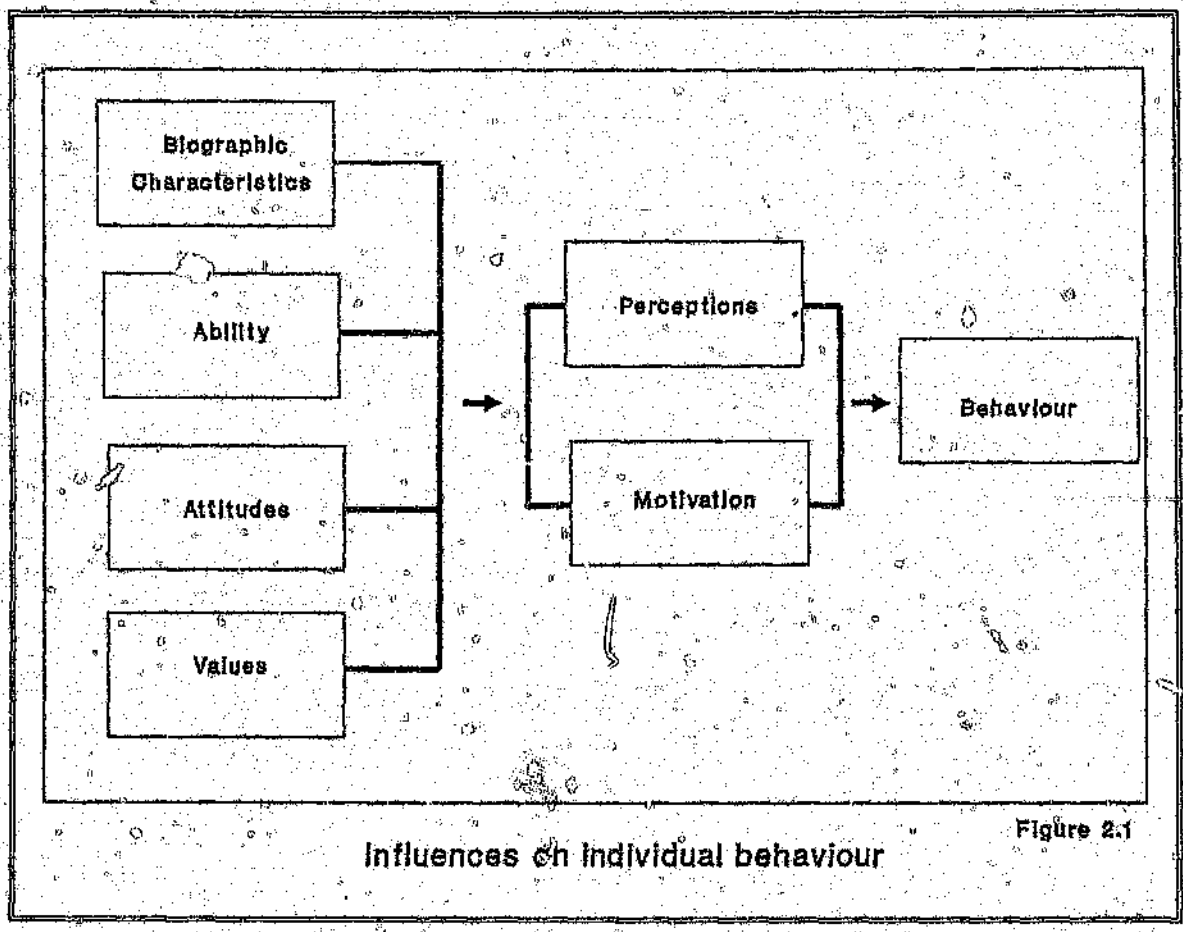

Figure 2.1

Influences on individual behaviour

2.3.2 Values

Values represent "basic convictions that a specific mode of conduct, or end state of existence, is personally or socially preferable" (Robbins, 1989, p. 117). Values are established in early years and are influenced by society, culture and parents. Values

are developed over time and are continually reinforced. As such, they are fairly stable (Robbins, 1989).

2.3.3 Attitudes

Attitudes are not the same as values, and are less stable (Jenks, Kinghorn, Nieuwoudt and Sutherland, 1989). They are less specific, whereas values are more expansive and encompassing. The two are however, affiliated (Robbins, 1989). Robbins (1989, p. 121) defined attitudes as "evaluative statements or judgements concerning objects, people or events".

Individual attitudes are learned through a conditioning process activated by parents, peer group members, teachers, or through experience (Jenks, et al, 1989).

2.3.4 Perceptions

Perception is "a process by which individuals organise and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment" (Robbins, 1989, p. 88). Perceptions are influenced by: factors within the individual who is perceiving, the objects being perceived and the situation, or surroundings, in which the perception is being made (Robbins, 1989).

Perception is important to this study because workplace behaviour is based on individual perception of reality, which may not necessarily be objective reality. Various individuals may experience or observe, a manager's behaviour, and may respond differently to that behaviour. The differing reactions are influenced by individuals' diverse perceptions.

Thus, it is evident from the literature, that values and attitudes influence perceptions, which in turn, influence managerial and subordinate behaviour. (See Figure 2.1).

2.4 TRUST AS A SKILL OR PROCESS

The reviewed literature is classified into two distinct areas. The distinctions are made on the grounds of the base from which trust may arise, viz. "either from an assessment of the current situations or from a personality predisposition or trait" (Driscoll, 1978, p. 46).

The first category examines trust as a personality trait, behaviour or skill. The research reviewed in this category was usually approached from a psychological point of view.

The second category views trust as a process and examines the factors that make people more, or less, willing to trust others or to behave in a trustworthy manner. The factors that impact on the degree of willingness are either

situational and/or the individual's life experiences. This category of reviewed research was usually approached from a sociological point of view.

2.4.1 Trust as a personal skill or personality trait

The aim of this study was to identify the managerial behaviours, attitudes, etc. that engender trustworthiness, as perceived by subordinates. Hence, any literature that examines personality traits and behaviours related to trust and managerial effectiveness was of interest to this study.

Schuitema (1987) carried out research using as subjects black mine workers from seven mines in South Africa. He identified that factors such as trade unions, the labour mix and physical conditions did not have a significant influence on employees' trust levels. As an instance, when union activity was at its most active, trust in the union did not increase significantly nor did trust in management decrease. Furthermore, Schuitema cited examples whereby trust in management was very high at an old mine, despite the appalling living conditions and, conversely, a very low level of trust in management at a new mine, where all the modern hostel facilities and comforts are enjoyed (Schuitema, 1991).

However, Schuitema identified that management style has the most significant influence on employee trust levels (Schuitema, 1987). He described 'style' as 'attitude'. The level of trust in management was determined by the extent to which management's attitude was perceived as being one of caring for and attending to their employees' personal problems and welfare. This 'caring' attitude was exemplified in the managerial behaviour of prompt attendance to grievances (Schuitema, 1987). Workers perceived that attendance to grievances was associated with "a general expectation to be treated as a human being and to have one's dignity honoured and acknowledged" (Schuitema, 1987, p. 17).

Hence, Schuitema's research appeared to indicate that, the employee trust climate is positively influenced to the degree that employees view their management as providing leadership which looks after the interests of employees. The research approach of this study endeavoured to establish a number of managerial behaviours, in ranked order of importance, that develop trust in the manager-subordinate relationship. In so doing, this study thus expanded upon Schuitema's study.

Mishra and Morrissey (1990) sampled attitudes and perceptions of managers towards trust in the

employee/employer relationship. 143 Managers from West Michigan, USA completed close-ended questionnaires. Their research indicated that managers believed that the following phenomena were most likely to build trust in organisations:

* open communication (96.4% agreed)
* giving workers greater share in the decision making (90.4% agreed)
* sharing of critical information (87.6% agreed)
* true sharing of perceptions and feelings (85,4% agreed)"

(Mishra and Morrissey, 1990, p. 443).

Managers are able only to express their own assumptions or perceptions about the subordinates' level of trust. Whereas, it is only the subordinates who can truly talk with absolute accuracy about their own levels of trust managers and what managerial behaviours influence their level of trust in management (Kouzes and Posner, 1990). Therefore, unlike the Mishra and Morrissey research, this study elicited the opinions of subordinates, and not managers, in an effort to establish an accurate view of the situation.

Chartier (1991) developed a questionnaire, "The Trust Orientation Profile", based on the work done by Giffin

on trust. Chartier suggested that the behaviours that develop mistrust could best be described as those that are directly opposite to those that build trust, viz closed behaviour, versus open behaviour, develops mistrust and positive trust, respectively. Based on this assumption, an individual's trust orientation can be positioned on a continuum somewhere between two opposite behaviours on each side of the continuum, ie an individual's trust orientation can lean more towards closed behaviour on the one side of the continuum or towards open behaviour on the opposite side of the continuum. (See Figures 5.4 and 5.5).

Chartier's (1991) assumption also suggests that the two opposing behaviours are equally important in developing trust or mistrust, viz. that genuineness is equally important in the development of trust as is its opposite, hypocritical behaviour, in the development of mistrust. This would further suggest that the two opposite behaviours would enjoy the identical position on ranked scales measuring the potential to impact on the development of trust the destruction of trust.

This study supports the proposition that opposing behaviours develop either trust or mistrust but, however, it does not postulate that the two opposing behaviours have the same capacity to influence

negative or positive trust. For instance, hypocritical behaviour may have a strong potential to develop mistrust, and would thus be ranked highly. However, the opposite to hypocritical behaviour, genuineness (as identified by Chartier, 1991), may have a much lower potential to develop trust, and would thus receive a much lower ranking position.

This study aimed to identify, by means of subordinate perceptions, which managerial behaviours, skills or personality traits and attitudes have the capacity to develop trust as well as those that develop mistrust. The study also aimed to rank the behaviours in order of importance. Thus, the study also endeavoured to show that an individual's trust orientation cannot be realistically identified on a continuum.

2.4.2 Trust as a process, or, in response to a situation

Some of the literature appears to indicate that trust develops over a period of time, or it develops in response to a situation, rather than in direct response to a behaviour trait.

Zand's Model of Trust (in Kreitner and Kinicki, 1992) (see Figure 2.2) was based on the work done by Gibbs (1964) which was primarily aimed at creating a climate of trust in T-Groups. Zand's Model demonstrates the reciprocal nature of trust, or, as aptly phrased by

Kreitner and Kinicki (1992, p. 405) "we tend to give what we get - trust begets trust: distrust begets distrust".

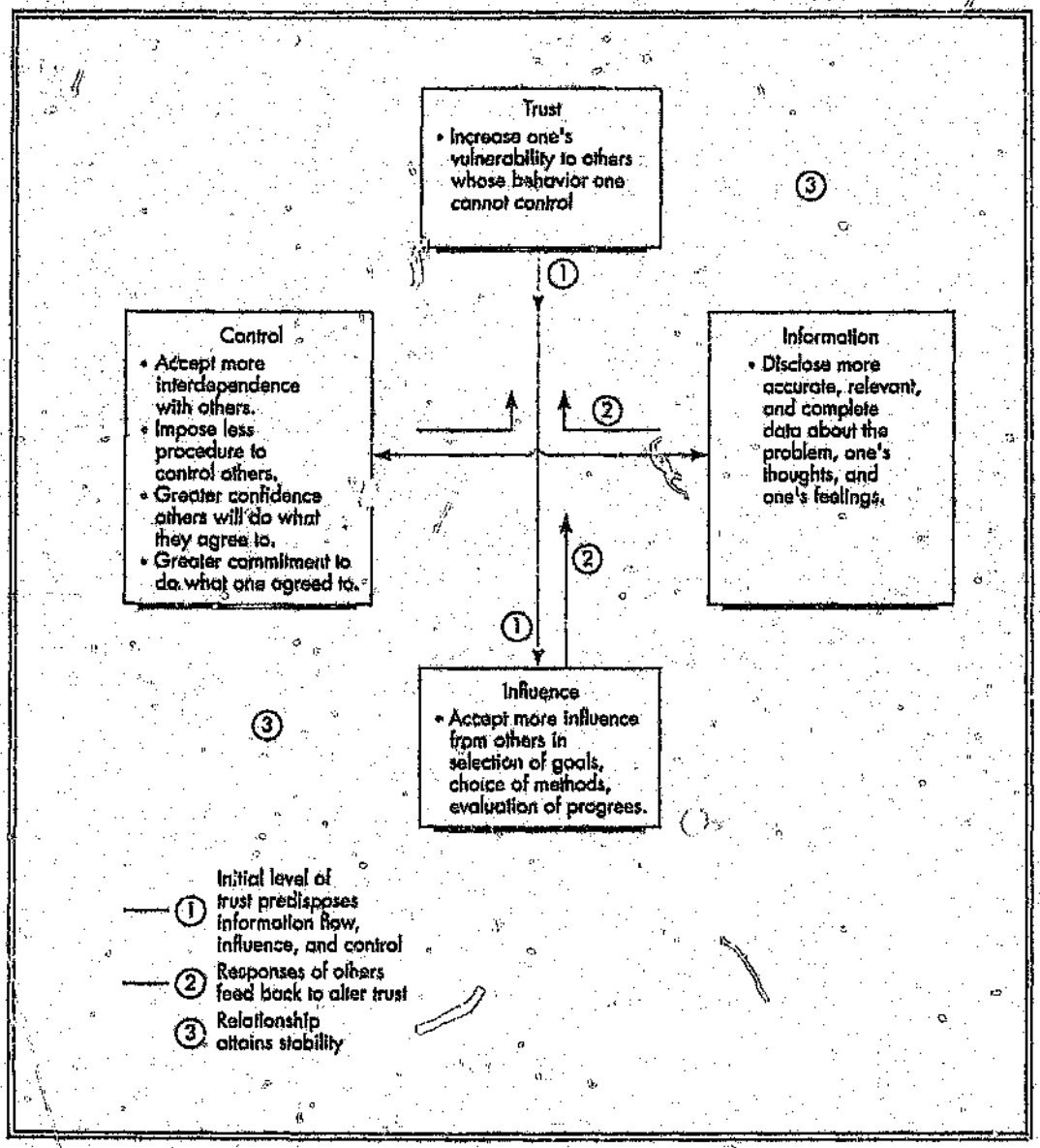

Figure 2.2

ZAND'S MODEL OF TRUST

Source: reprinted from Organisational Behaviour by R Kreitner and A. Kinicki, second edition, published by Irwin Publishers, Homewood, in 1992.

Zand (1972) tested his model by researching the issue of trust in the problem solving process. He used as his target population a sample of managers in the USA. He chose to view trust as an attitude that could be induced, or altered, in response to a particular situation, or behaviour or attitude, of others. Zand observed that the groups operating under high trust conditions performed significantly better than their counterparts.

Zand (1972, p. 238) concluded that the "results indicate that it is useful to conceptualize trust as behaviour that conveys appropriate information, permits mutuality of influence, encourages self-control, and avoids abuse of the vulnerability of others". This study therefore adds value to Zand's research by identifying which managerial behaviours and attitudes help to create a climate of trust, which in turn, encourages better performance.

A survey undertaken by Driscoll (1975) made use of a questionnaire on a sample of employees in an arts faculty of an unnamed New York university to "assess the usefulness of trust and participation in decision making in predicting satisfaction" (Driscoll, 1978, p. 44). Driscoll concluded that trust in the decision makers is a stronger predictor of overall satisfaction within the organisation than is participation in the

decision making. Additionally, those who trusted the decision makers were more satisfied with their own level of participation. Thus, Driscoll's research tends to support Gamson's claim (in Zand, 1972) that high-trust groups were more likely to accept the decision makers, and conversely, that low-trust groups believed that their views would not be considered. As a result of this phenomenon, they tended to view the decision makers as incompetent and biased.

Within the context of the South African work environment it is commonly accepted that trust between managers (predominately white) and worker groups (predominately non-white) is low (Fuhr, 1991). Many South African companies have attempted to improve management-worker relationships, as well as job satisfaction, through the mechanism of participative management. However, the success rate of participative management programmes have been very poor (Manning, 1988). Driscoll's research therefore, suggests that, given the context and dynamics of relationships in the South African business environment, trust building programmes have greater potential to improve overall satisfaction than do participative management programmes.

Schuitema's (1987) research identified that where trust in mine management was positive, trust in black

and white supervisors was also positive, as was trust in other institutions, such as head office, own home government, white South African Government, etc. Schuitema therefore, concluded that "the man who trusts management (the leadership of the enterprise), not only trusts the enterprise and all associated with it, but also the wider establishment in which the enterprise is situated" (Schuitema, 1987, p. 32).

Research carried out by Rotter (1971) in the USA identified that peoples' life experiences can have a strong impact on their trust patterns and expectations as well as their willingness to trust, i.e. the parents of high trusting respondents were themselves more likely to be trustworthy as well as hold trust for their children. Rotter's research has relevance to the South African situation, and thus to this study. The socio, economic and political history of the country is one that entrenched mistrust through the mechanisms of separate development (apartheid), unequal reward and privileges and protection of a minority race group (Fuhr, 1991 and Schuitema, in a personal interview, 1991).

Therefore, it was anticipated that the research findings would reflect some of the impacts of the socio, economic and political history on trust levels.

2.5 THE ROLE OF TRUST IN MANAGERIAL EFFECTIVENESS

Bennis (1984) identified four critical competencies evident in the behaviour of effective leaders, viz. the management of attention, management of self, management of meaning and the management of trust. "Management of trust" (Bennis, 1984, p. 18) is accomplished by leaders trusting others as well as their own reliable, predictable and accountable behaviour.

Fiedler (1976) claims that managers who are trusted (as well as being liked and accepted) by their subordinates find it easy to make their influence felt. Hence, the manager "who is trusted and accepted does not need much position power to influence his group" (Fiedler, 1976, p. 141).

Even in the ordered world of the military, trust has a part to play. Clark (in Bass, 1960) undertook a research project that looked at successful infantry squad leaders. He discovered that subordinates were most likely to describe their effective leaders as being trusted, warm and understanding, good listeners and sympathisers. The research undertaken by Sgro, Worchel, Pence and Orban (1980) using a sample of American army personnel, indicated that leaders with high interpersonal trust levels were most successful at facilitating intra-organisational communication as well as intergroup communication.

Numerous management specialists claimed that one of the roles of effective managers is that of being counsellor (de Board, 1985 and Kellogg, 1969) and coach (Fiedler, 1967) to their subordinates. Therefore, the extensive research carried out by Rogers (1961) in the USA on the requirements of the helper/counsellor relationship bears relevance to this study. Rogers concluded that the development of trust was a critical and necessary requirement for this type of relationship to be effective.

Rogers (1970) further identified that trust was causally related to a number of factors within the counsellor relationship, such as: more rapid intellectual development, increased originality, increased emotional stability, increased self-control and decreased psychological arousal to defend against threat. All of which are generally regarded as positive factors in workplace relationships.

Whilst many managerial and leadership specialists claimed that the management of trust is a critical managerial skill none of them specifically suggested what managers should do to develop and manage trust. Therefore, this study aimed to identify the behaviours and attitudes that will assist managers to develop subordinate trust. It also aimed to alert managers to the behaviours that destroy subordinate trust.

2.6 TRUST BUILDING AS A PLANNED ORGANISATIONAL DEVELOPMENT INTERVENTION

This section examines a number of case studies whereby trust building was introduced as an organisational development, or change management, intervention.

Dwivedi (1985, p. 82) developed a programme, Management by Trust (MBT), which he defined as a "dynamic system, based on definable, measurable and developable units of trusting behaviour". He introduced his six-phase MBT programme into two companies in India with the specific objective of improving organisational performance through the mechanism of trust building. Dwivedi's programme included: formalising objectives, policies and expectations, improved communications, employee involvement in the decision making and resolution of conflict. The programme was backed up by comprehensive supervisory skills training and interpersonal trust development through the use of sensitivity training and transactional analysis.

After a period of one year Dwivedi (1985) reported a small increase in trust levels and morale as well as a significant improvement in production; and a significant decrease in absenteeism, accidents and a lesser decrease in distrust and turnover.

In an effort to improve relationships in a small South African retail company, Super Mart, Fuhr (1991) supported

Driscoll's (1978, p. 54) claim that "organizational trust, rather than participation, may provide a better lever for change". Fuhr identified that honest team building and participative management would be undermined by the lack of trust between managers and workers. Fuhr (1991, p. 12) made reference to his views thus "Participation needs to be broken down into two phases - participation in the creation of a trust culture and (participation) in work-related decision making".

In an analysis of the industrial relationship in Super Mart Blackburn (1991) asserted that some of the key factors that contributed to the development of trust were the willingness of senior management to:

* Identify with the political and social struggle of their workers and customers.
* Empower their workers by acknowledging the diversity of values, by recognising worker and human rights, by actively encouraging workers to overcome their perceived inferiority in South African society as well as to trust their own abilities and integrity.
* Empower their managers by trusting their ability and integrity and by removing racial prejudice and other deep-rooted barriers in the way of their advancement.
* Consult with their employees on all issues that directly concern them and to embark on joint decision making processes on all major issues.

Another South African company, Cashbuild, improved trust levels between its management and labour through the introduction of a joint management and participative decision making process, called 'Venturecomm' (Koopman, Nasser and Nel, 1987). Employee representatives were elected by their colleagues to serve on a committee for each site. These committees had the authority and power to change, correct or improve issues such as safety, labour, merchandising and quality of life issues.

Thus, trust was built in Cashbuild through the process of:

* Joint management and participative decision making at all levels
* Extensive and effective communication
* Comprehensive training

(Koopman, Nasser and Nel, 1987).

During the early 1980's a climate of trust was indoctrinated into the Nissan factory in Smyrna, Tennesee with the objective of achieving higher levels of performance. Self supervision and excellent communication systems were introduced as the two key interventions that would build a trust culture. Employees were entrusted with a lot more responsibility especially in the areas of maintenance and quality. As people began operating with less supervision, this control was required decreasingly. This, in turn, resulted in a flattened hierarchy structure.

The results were reported as being favourable quality standards, low absenteeism and turnover (Bernstein, 1988).

An organisational development programme in the Volvo Truck Plant at Tuve in Sweden was initiated in the 60's by the Managing Director, Per Gyllenhammar (Bernstein, 1988). The objective was to reduce high absenteeism levels. Six independent teams ran assembly stations, each being responsible for their own maintenance, acquisition of materials, maintaining of quality standards and planning. All teams held joint responsibility for safety and efficiency. Each station was managed by a representative appointed after consultation with the workers. All workers learned several skills which they practised through job rotation (Sieff, 1991). The improved trust levels that developed from this programme resulted in high productivity levels and significantly lower absenteeism (Bernstein, 1988).

Thus, an analysis of all of the above mentioned cases reveals that all relied on the introduction of various systems, or processes, to build trust levels, as well as other positive attributes, within their organisations. The systems, or processes, common to all these case studies were:

* Joint management and, or, participative management
* Self management, or, increased individual or group responsibility

* Employee election of representatives or supervisors
* Extensive and open multi-directional communication
* Skills training
* Team, or, group work

As mentioned in a previous section, employees' perceptions of their organisations are strongly influenced by the relationship which they have with the person who directly manages them (Driscoll, 1978 and Schuitema, 1987 and 1991). Thus, whilst various systems and processes may create a climate of trust and encourage the development of intra-organisational trust, subordinates will only be likely to perceive a high level of organisational trust to exist when they experience their relationship with their own immediate superiors to be one of high trust (Driscoll, 1978).

Further, in all the above case studies the intra-organisational trust building systems were facilitated, or energised by the managing director of the company or an outside consultant. Whereas, interpersonal trust building between managers and their subordinates can only be initiated, or energised, by the manager (Schuitema, 1987, Rotter, 1980 and Covey, 1989).

In light of the last two points it would seem highly feasible that, interpersonal trust building can be strongly influenced by behaviours and attitudes, as well as the prevailing situation. These influences can either

encourage or inhibit trust building efforts. Extensive and permanent intra-organisational trust is therefore achieved through two phases:

* The introduction of various systems, or interventions, which develop a climate of intra-organisational trust
* The development of management skills and behaviours which build interpersonal trust between individuals.

Notwithstanding this, it is not evident from the literature as to which of the two actions is more critical, which is best introduced first and whether one can be introduced without the other.

2.7 TRUST IN THE INDUSTRIAL RELATIONSHIP

Of all the formal managerial functions, viz. marketing, financial management, etc., trust is most frequently made reference to in the function of industrial relations. The reason for this may be that unionisation rose out of a situation of pervading mistrust between management and workers (Salamon, 1987).

Trust is a crucial element in the industrial relationship. Purcell (in Van Lingen, 1989) asserted that trust is the one factor that has the greatest influence on the collective bargaining system. Fisher and Brown (1989) acknowledged that trust plays a key role in the negotiating process.

A number of industrial relations academics and specialists support the notion that trust exists on two levels in the industrial relationship:

* Between individuals within the relationship, ie. between a manager and a union official or shop steward
* Between the two parties to the industrial relationship.

Further, all industrial relationships take place within the context of the external environments of organisations (Douwes Dekker, 1990).

Hence, this section will deal with trust within the industrial relations context on an individual level as well as on a group level. This will be followed by an examination of the context of South African industrial relations.

2.7.1. Intergroup Trust (trust between management and union)

On the issue of trust between two parties Purcell (1987) strongly maintained that the legitimacy of the other party (union or management) was closely associated with trust. Respect for collective bargaining processes and procedures, good faith bargaining, flexibility and accessibility are mutual behaviours and attitudes that have the propensity to increase trust between the two parties (Steadman, in a personal interview, 1991). The degree of trust in

an industrial relationship can be identified primarily by the degree of openness, co-operation and willingness to jointly solve problems (integrative bargaining) between the two parties (Purcell, 1987).

Integrative bargaining processes rely on open communication as well as trust (Albertyn, in a personal interview, 1991). The benefit of integrative bargaining is that both parties are motivated to sincerely look at each other's problems and jointly solve them, irrespective of the substantive issues. (Purcell, in Van Lingen, 1989). Thus, trust enables both parties to increase their joint gain.

The state of an industrial relationship can be analysed with the use of the Four Patterns of Industrial Relations Model developed by Purcell, whereby the relationship pattern is assessed in terms of two dynamics - trust and formalisation. Purcell (1987) suggested that trust in the industrial relationship comes about as a process and is more strongly influenced by attitudinal changes than by structural adaption.

2.7.2 Interpersonal Trust

Salamon (1987) and Fisher and Brown (1989) postulated that trust is not built between groups or organisations, but between individuals. Salamon

(1987) claimed that the conduct of these personal relationships is a key influence upon the integrity and trust of the industrial relationship. He also maintained that trust can only be developed between people who act in accordance with their own personal values and beliefs (Salamon, 1987).

Hence, the success of the collective bargaining process may be dependent on the personal trust and mutual respect that exists between the bargainers (Purcell, 1987 and Hilliard, 1988). Douwes Dekker (1990) proposed that the behaviours and attitudes which promote interpersonal trust between two people in the industrial relationship are: consistency, self-restraint, information sharing, predictability, keeping one's word and by offering to trust the other party.

It is therefore apparent that the development of trust within an industrial relationship is initially stimulated by the development of trust between individuals from the opposing parties. Once trust is established between two, or more, people from each side it then becomes easier for intergroup trust to develop between the two parties.

This study aimed to investigate the managerial behaviours that develop trust, or mistrust, and thus

has relevance for the building of trust between individuals in the industrial relationship. This action, in turn, has the potential to improve trust between the two parties in the industrial relationship.

2.7.3 The Context of Industrial Relations in South Africa

Within the South African industrial relations context it is difficult to separate substance and process. However, where there is trust the two parties are more prepared to try new solutions and see things in other ways (Steadman, in a personal interview, 1991). In Steadman's own experience of mediation between managements and unions she has seen trust and constructive relationships begin to develop where managers have taken a leap of faith beyond the precedented. Albertyn (in a personal interview, 1991), also as a result of his mediation experiences in South Africa, believed that managements enhance their trustworthiness with the unions by increased disclosure and consultation at the early stages of important changes. Trade unions enhance their trust worthiness with management when they consistently stick to agreements and show their preparedness to commit to a genuine process of collective bargaining (Steadman, in a personal interview, 1991).

Industrial relations in the South African context is marked by mistrust and open conflict (Hilliard, 1988). Steadman (in a personal interview, 1991) and Albertyn (in a personal interview, 1991) maintained that the huge division that exists between management and labour is an ingredient for mistrust. The apparent polarisation is based on class, wage and ideology differences. The power distance between the two parties also lowers the trust levels between management and unions in South Africa (Douwes Dekker, 1989).

This study was based on the assumption that South African companies operate in an open system and that the external industrial relations context influences the industrial relationship within the companies. This influence ultimately impacts on the manager-subordinate relationship at shopfloor level, where most employees are unionised. Therefore, this study placed importance on examining trust in the manager-subordinate relationship at shopfloor level. A further aim of the study was to identify differences in trust between shopfloor and higher level, non-unionised, employees.

2.8 BENEFITS OF TRUST IN A RELATIONSHIP

Numerous benefits of the presence of trust in a relationship have been claimed by various authors. Some of

the benefits claimed are:

* Greater co-operation and support for goals for company and individual goals (Kellogg, 1969, and Roberts 1989)
* Increased productivity (Dwivedi, 1985 and Savage, 1982)
* Enhancement of the development potential of subordinates (Hunt, 1991)
* Greater sense of contentment in the relationship (Schuitema, 1991)
* Openness and honesty (de Board, 1985)
* Freedom (from control) to attend to the important issues of managing and being managed (Rosenberg 1991).
* Stronger support for productivity improvement methods, such as quality circles, participative management, etc. (Savage, 1982).

As mentioned previously, trust building on both an interpersonal and a group basis, has the potential to improve organisational performance. Additionally, the reviewed literature seemed to indicate that where there is an absence of trust, motivational techniques will have little effect (Covey, 1989).

2.9 MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOURS THAT BUILD TRUST

Managerial behaviour is closely observed by subordinates. It is through observation of the behaviour, as well as personal experiences of the behaviours and attitudes, that subordinates' perceptions of a manager's trustworthiness

	OPEN COMMUNICATION	SUBORDINATES SHARE IN DECISION MAKING	SHARING IMPORTANT INFORMATION	HONESTY	CONGRUENCE	COMPETENCE	RELIABILITY	EMPATHY	FAIRNESS	TRUST SUBORDINATES	CONSISTENT	APPROACHABLE	SELF TRUST / ESTEEM	ATTEND TO LITTLE THINGS
Mishra, J & Morrissey, M	Open Communication	Workers share in decision making	Share critical information					Share perceptions and feelings						
Kouzes, J & Posner, B				Honesty	Ethical & principled convictions	Necessary knowledge and skills								
Rempel, J & Holmes, J							Dependable			Faith/belief in subordinates	Predictable			
Shield, D				Honesty				Accept what subordinates say				Approachable		
Gillen, K	Intentions					Expertness	Reliable					Personal attraction dynamism	High self esteem, trust in oneself	
Blake, R & Mouton, J	Open communication Confront problems	Involve Delegation of power and responsibility							Reward based on merit					
Covey, S	Clarify expectations	Stewardship		Integrity	True to own values Sincerity		Safeness, keep commit ments	* Sympathetic listening Appreciate & understand people and their values					Apologise sincerely	Attend to little things
Maddux, R	Open communication, listen			Honest	Stand by decisions			Respecting others opinions, accepting others sensitive to subordinates needs	Fairness	Support subordinates				Give credit where due
Performax	Openness				Congruence		Reliability	Accepting others for who they are						

MANAGER BEHAVIOURS THAT ENGENDER TRUSTWORTHINESS - SUMMARY OF THE VIEWS AND THEORIES OF A SELECTION OF AUTHORS

Figure 2.3

	OPEN COMMUNICATION	SUBORDINATES SHARE IN DECISION MAKING	SHARING IMPORTANT INFORMATION	HONESTY	CONGRUENCE	COMPETENCE	RELIABILITY	EMPATHY	FAIRNESS	TRUST SUBORDINATES	CONSISTENT	APPROACHABLE	SELF TRUST / ESTEEM	ATTEND TO LITTLE THINGS
CMTS (AECI)	Open own motives			Integrity	Congruence						Consistency			
Campbell, A				Tell truth	Congruence		Keep your word	Others interest at heart	Fair		Consistency	Allow others to get to know you		
Sinetar, M		Work problems out together		Honesty	Congruence		Being safe	Empathetic listening non-judgemental accept and respect others			Consistent predictable		High self trust, stable and secure	
Savage, D		Share authority and responsibility							Equitable reward	Trust subordinates diligence and willingness			Trust themselves	Praise
Muczyk, J; Schwarts, E & Smith, E	Open, two-way constructive feedback	Allow subordinates to made some decisions		Disclose what they think and feel honestly, sincerity	Congruence			Listen with empathy understand what others thing and feel		Trust subordinates judgement and creativity				
Bartolomé, F	Good communications accurate feedback		Share policies and decisions			Competence		Support for employees as people respect subordinates intelligence and judgement	Fairness	Delegate, trust what they say	Predictable	Available and approachable.		
Pfeiffer, W& Jones, J	Clear open openness	Involve employees value others ideas	Sharing personal and important information	Admit to mistakes honesty	Loyalty			Awareness of others needs accepting others						
Cronje, J	Openness				Congruence		Reliability	Accepting others						
Fuhr, I	Two-way open	Empowerment, involve in decision making						Finding out what people want, respecting and accepting differences	Fairness		Consistency			
Schuitema, E								Promptly attending to grievances, caring						

Figure 2.3 Continued

MANAGER BEHAVIOURS THAT ENGENDER TRUSTWORTHINESS - SUMMARY OF THE VIEWS AND THEORIES OF A SELECTION OF AUTHORS Continued

are formed (Bennis, 1984). Fisher and Brown (1989) asserted that trustworthiness levels can be improved by enhancing certain elements of managerial behaviour. A number of authors and researchers identified critical manager behaviours and attitudes that build trust in the manager-subordinate relationship. Figure 2.3 was developed by the researcher, and gives a comparative breakdown of their views and theories. The managerial behaviours and attitudes highlighted in Figure 2.3 are discussed in detail below.

2.9.1 Open and Clear Communication

In a relationship where people are not clear about their roles, and the expectations of them are ambiguous, the result is often misunderstanding and disappointment and a subsequent withdrawal of trust (Covey, 1989). Therefore, clarifying expectations (Covey, 1989 and Shields, 1985), giving clear goals (Maddux, 1988) and giving subordinates all the information they need to know (Sinetar, 1988) are communicating behaviours that improve trust.

People should be clear about their intentions and what they mean and in so doing not give others reason to misinterpret their actions (Fisher and Brown, 1989 and Giffin, 1967). Critical and important information (Mishra and Morrissey, 1990 and Pfeiffer and Jones, 1981), as well as company policies and decisions

(Bartolome, 1989) should be shared with subordinates.

The way in which managers communicate can also impact on trust. This implies that the manager must be willing to listen to (Maddux, 1988 and Sinetar, 1988) and accept what subordinates have to say (Shields, 1985).

In summary, the literature states that a trusted person communicates in a patient, accurate, open and honest manner about things that concern their subordinates.

2.9.2 Subordinates Share in Decision Making

Managers increase trust between themselves and their subordinates by: showing that they value the subordinates' ideas (Pfeiffer and Jones, 1981), by working problems out together (Sinetar, 1988) or involving them in some of the decision making (Mishra and Morrissey, 1990 and Blake and Mouton, 1980 and Muczyk, Schwartz and Smith, 1984). Consulting with subordinates before making important decisions ensures that others will not be surprised by new decisions (Fisher and Brown, 1989). Genuine involvement in decision making implies that managers must delegate power, or authority, as well as responsibility to their employees (Blake and Mouton, 1980). Ultimately, subordinates are empowered when they share in the

decision making (Fuhr, 1991).

2.9.3 Integrity

Showing personal integrity goes beyond being honest. Integrity is keeping promises and fulfilling expectations or "conforming reality to our word" (Covey, 1989, p. 195). Integrity is also being loyal to those who are not present and "avoiding any communication that is deceptive, full of guile, or beneath the dignity of people" (Covey, 1989, p. 197).

Promises of commitment should be taken very seriously and stringently kept by those who make them. Even late arrival for an appointment can be interpreted as unreliable behaviour and lack of commitment to a promise (Fisher and Brown, 1989). Keeping one's word is so important to building trust (Campbell, 1988) that Fisher and Brown (1989) suggested that people make fewer promises in order to enhance trustworthiness.

In conclusion, Campbell (1988, p. 27) asserted that if a "person acts without integrity, it violates a code of conduct about how people expect to be treated and are expected to behave".

2.9.4 Honesty

Honest behaviour, (in other words, not telling lies),

helps to build trust (Kouzes and Posner, 1990, Shields, 1985, Maddux, 1988, Campbell, 1988 and Sinetar, 1988). One single deception has the potential to place a credibility doubt on a relationship (Fisher and Brown, 1989).

Managers should also honestly disclose what they feel and think about a situation (Muczyk, et al, 1984), as well as also honestly admit to their mistakes (Pfeiffer and Jones, 1981).

Being honest, suggested Fisher and Brown (1989), does not necessarily imply full disclosure, as long as the reasons for not disclosing, as well as the areas of non-disclosure, are fully explained.

2.9.5 Congruence

Congruency is a state of alignment in actions as well as in meanings (Sinetar, 1988). Predictable managers also act in consistently positive ways (Rempel and Holmes (1986).

Managers who behave in a congruent way are true to their own values, and are sincere (Covey, 1989). They also have ethical and principled convictions (Kouzes and Posner (1990), and they also stand by their decisions (Maddux, 1988). Being loyal to the goals of the organisation is also viewed as being

congruent (Pfieffer and Jones, 1981). In conclusion, Campbell (1988, p. 27) described congruence as "say what you mean and mean what you say".

2.9.6 Competence

Subordinates will feel confidence in a manager who is competent technically and professionally (Bartolome, 1989), and who is an expert at what they do (Giffin, 1979). Trusted managers are those who have the necessary knowledge and skills to give their subordinates confidence (Kouzes and Posner, 1990).

2.9.7 Reliability and Consistency

Fisher and Brown (1989) claimed that the key behaviours that impact on trustworthiness are predictability and reliability, especially in the negotiating process. Consistency is defined as "the sense others have of how reliable and predictable one's behaviour is" (AECI, 1987).

Reliable, consistent and predictable behaviour develops a sense of dependability (Cronje, 1988), or a feeling of 'safeness' (Covey, 1989 and Sinetar, 1988). This in turn, gives people the sense that the trusted person can be relied upon when it counts (Cronje, 1988), especially when there is no reason for the trusted person to care (Rempel and Holmes, 1986).

2.9.8 Empathy

Empathy was described by Muczyk, et al, 1984, pp. 251-252) as "putting oneself in another's place and trying to understand or share what that person sees and feels". Covey (1989) described empathy as understanding the individual. Being sensitive to other people's needs (Pfeiffer and Jones, 1981) implies that managers understand what is important and valued by their subordinates. Empathetic managers do not assume that they know what their subordinates' need are (Covey, 1989).

Empathetic behaviour includes sharing and understanding perceptions and feelings with subordinates (Mishra and Morrissey, 1990 and Muczyk, et al, 1984), sympathetic listening to what subordinates say (Covey, 1989) and non-judgemental acceptance and respect for what other people say (Shields, 1985 and Sinetar, 1988).

Empathetic behaviour also requires that people accept others for who they are (Cronje, 1988). In the South African environment it is particularly important that managers find out what their employees want and value, and then respect and accept any differences to their own needs and values (Fuhr, 1991 and Pfeiffer and Jones, 1981).

Schuitema (1991) proposed that attending to employees' problems and caring for their wellbeing are the prime trust building behaviours of managers. Empathetic behaviour is therefore, not just an act of listening and understanding but also actually doing things for people. People are very sensitive and its the "little acts of kindness - a momentary, unconscious showing of love" (Covey, 1989, p. 193) that indicate to people that their welfare is being considered and cared for.

2.9.9 Fairness

Fairness includes rewarding on merit (Blake and Mouton, 1964), rewarding equitably (Savage, 1982) and giving credit where it is due (Maddux, 1988). Fairness and objectiveness (Bartolome, 1989) coupled with firmness and consistency demonstrates that you have the best interests of the majority of the people at heart (Campbell, 1988). Fairness and equatability are especially important behaviours in the South African working environment (Fuhr, 1991).

2.9.10 Trust subordinates

"Delegation is the supreme expression of trust" (Rosenberg, 1991) as it is an indication that the managers trust their subordinates (Bartolome, 1989). In order to be able to delegate effectively managers have to trust their subordinates' intelligence and willingness (Savage, 1982), as well as their judgement

and creativity (Muczyk, et al, 1984). Not only does the manager need to have faith and belief in the subordinate (Rempel and Holmes, 1986), they must also support subordinates (Maddux, 1988).

Thus, it would seem from the literature that the act of trusting others engenders reciprocal trust (Rempel and Holmes, 1986 and Zand, in Kreitner and Kinicki, 1992). Managers should also be willing to take the risk of trusting their subordinates in order to gain their reciprocal trust (Rempel and Holmes, 1986). McGregor (1960) referred to this kind of managerial attitude as "Theory Y".

2.9.11 Approachable

Campbell (1988) suggested that managers allow others to get to know them and that they be available and approachable (Bartolome, 1989 and Shields, 1985). Being approachable is made more possible by personal attraction and dynamism (Giffin, 1967).

2.9.12 Self trust and self esteem

Although self trust and self esteem are not behaviours, as such, it would appear from the literature that they both have a strong influence on the behaviours and attitudes of individuals (Covey, 1989). People are more able to trust others, and in turn, are more trusted due to a higher self esteem

(Giffin, 1972), and elevated trust in themselves (Sinetar, 1988, Savage, 1982 and Giffin, 1972). Individuals with these personal qualities are generally more stable and secure (Sinetar, 1988).

High self esteem and self trust enable trusted managers to sometimes allow themselves to be perceived as being vulnerable (Pfeiffer and Jones (1981). These managers demonstrate their vulnerability by openly admitting to the mistakes they have made (Pfeiffer and Jones, 1981). They also apologised sincerely when they had hurt, had been disrespectful, or unkind to their subordinates and colleagues (Covey, 1989).

With the exception of Fuhr and Schuitema all the quoted authors are non-South Africans and hence their theories are related to their own non-South African life experiences, or research. This study will therefore, attempt to ascertain whether these same behaviours are seen to be relevant to building trust within a South African company.

Some of the above mentioned authors suggested that certain behaviours were more critical than others in the development or destruction of trust. However, none of these authors proposed the same group of behaviours as being the most important. Therefore, this study endeavoured to identify the critical trust building, or trust destroying, behaviours, in ranked order of importance.

2.10 CONSEQUENCES OF A LACK OF TRUST

Campbell gave this advice to senior managers: "Without trust in a relationship, even the easiest assignment becomes a difficult task" (1988, p. 27). However, Farnham (1989) maintains that the manager/subordinate relationship in the United States is typified by a lack of trust, and that the results are evidenced in poor communication, unclear goals and employee sabotage. In 1987 The Wall Street Journal proclaimed that "78% of American workers are suspicious of management and develop an 'us-against-them' syndrome that interferes with their performance". (Mishra and Morrissey, 1990, p. 443).

Fuhr (1991) and Schuitema (1991) gave evidence to the low trust levels in the South African business environment. Both placed great importance on the need to address this problem - which they claimed is exacerbated by the social-political history of the country.

Ordione (1986) asserted that the effects of a lack of trust, or mistrust, in the manager-subordinate relationship are devastating, viz. minimal commitment, aversion to risk taking, reward cannot be based on merit because the goals and objectives are not clear. Zand (1972) proposed that defensive behaviour as well as interpersonal rejection arise out of mistrust.

Savage (1982) postulated that a low trust climate

encourages employees to turn to unions to negotiate on their behalf. Dwivedi (1985) reported that his MBT intervention resulted in a diminishing of confidence in the resident trade union when trust in management increased. However, Schuitema's (1987) research found that employees did not necessarily trust unions more when trust in management was low.

Therefore, the literature indicated that the consequences of low trust in the manager-subordinate relationship are damaging to the purpose, goals and objectives of the relationship as well as to the organisation as a whole. It would therefore, seem advantageous for managers to develop a trusting relationship with their subordinates. Kouzes and Posner (1990), in fact, propose that trustworthiness is the key managerial attribute.

This study aims to identify which behaviours managers should develop to build trust, and conversely, which trust destroying behaviours they should avoid. Therefore, the results of the study could be incorporated into management development programmes and interpersonal development skills programmes.

2.11 MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOURS THAT DESTROY TRUST

Only one author has commented on the manager behaviours that destroy trust. Zands (1972) proposed that mistrusting behaviour towards others results in reciprocal suspicion

and mistrust. One of the stated aims of this study was to identify the managerial behaviours that destroy trust. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, there is a lack of literature available on this topic.

2.12 TRUST AND HIERARCHY LEVELS

Power, in an organisational context, refers to 'the capacity that A has to influence the behaviour of B so that B does things he or she would not otherwise do". (Robbins, 1989, p. 339) Power is derived from a number of bases. One of the power sources most frequently used by managers is their structural position, or their formal position in the hierarchy (Robbins, 1989). Individuals in senior positions either have more power to make decisions, or are closer to where the decisions are made (Robbins, 1989).

Rotter (1971) related the phenomenon of power and trust in an organisational context. He asserted that those who feel less ability to control what happens to them have lower trust levels, generally.

Schuitema's (1991) research revealed that the criteria on which subordinates assessed their manager's trustworthiness were less stringently applied the further down the hierarchy the subordinate was placed, viz. senior subordinates are more likely to be critical of their manager's trustworthiness. Similarly, Driscoll's (1978) study of correlations between trust, participation and

organisational decision making revealed that the average level of respondents' trust decreased the higher up the hierarchy functions were placed.

Bartolome (1989) maintained that strong and deep hierarchical structures, as well as company politics, place serious limits on the development of trust between managers and their subordinates. Hence, it would seem that the trustworthiness levels of powerful people (in terms of hierarchy status) are more stringently evaluated by their subordinates. Therefore, in support of this proposition, the research project sought to identify differences in perceptions of subordinates at different hierarchy levels.

2.13 THE INFLUENCE OF THE EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT ON TRUST LEVELS IN THE WORKPLACE

A televised documentary produced in South Africa indicated that one of the effects of long-term and persistent violence on South African black children is deep mistrust for people, and society in general (M-Net, 28 June, 1992). Vogelman, in the documentary, claimed that great numbers of 'non-white' children have been thus affected. Many of these children who have been exposed to violence for periods of over a decade are now employed in South African organisations.

As a growing boy Mathabane (1987) admitted that he held a deep hatred and mistrust for all whites, policemen and the

white South African government. He recalls how as a young boy he both witnessed and experienced a number of violent atrocities carried out by both white and black policemen on township dwellers, including himself and his parents.

Rotter (1971, p. 446) postulated that people's willingness to trust others is influenced by their social learning and life's experiences. A study that he conducted revealed that the "socio-economic levels of parents (of the sample group of students) showed a small but consistent decrease in (willingness to) trust with decreasing socio-economic levels".

Vogelman (M-Net, 1992) proposed that one of the only ways to build trust amongst people who have lost all trust in society is for individuals to take the initiative and offer trust, understanding and care to these people. In order to gain credibility and acceptance in his efforts to facilitate the resolution of conflict in the squatter camp, Phola Park, Visser (in a personal interview, 1991) claimed that he and his colleagues made great efforts to prove themselves trustworthy to the Phola Park residents.

Beadle (1992) proposed that the factors that support subordinate trust in management all relate to the behaviours, skills and attitudes of the managers themselves (see Figure 2.4). However, most of the factors that diminish subordinate trust in management have their roots

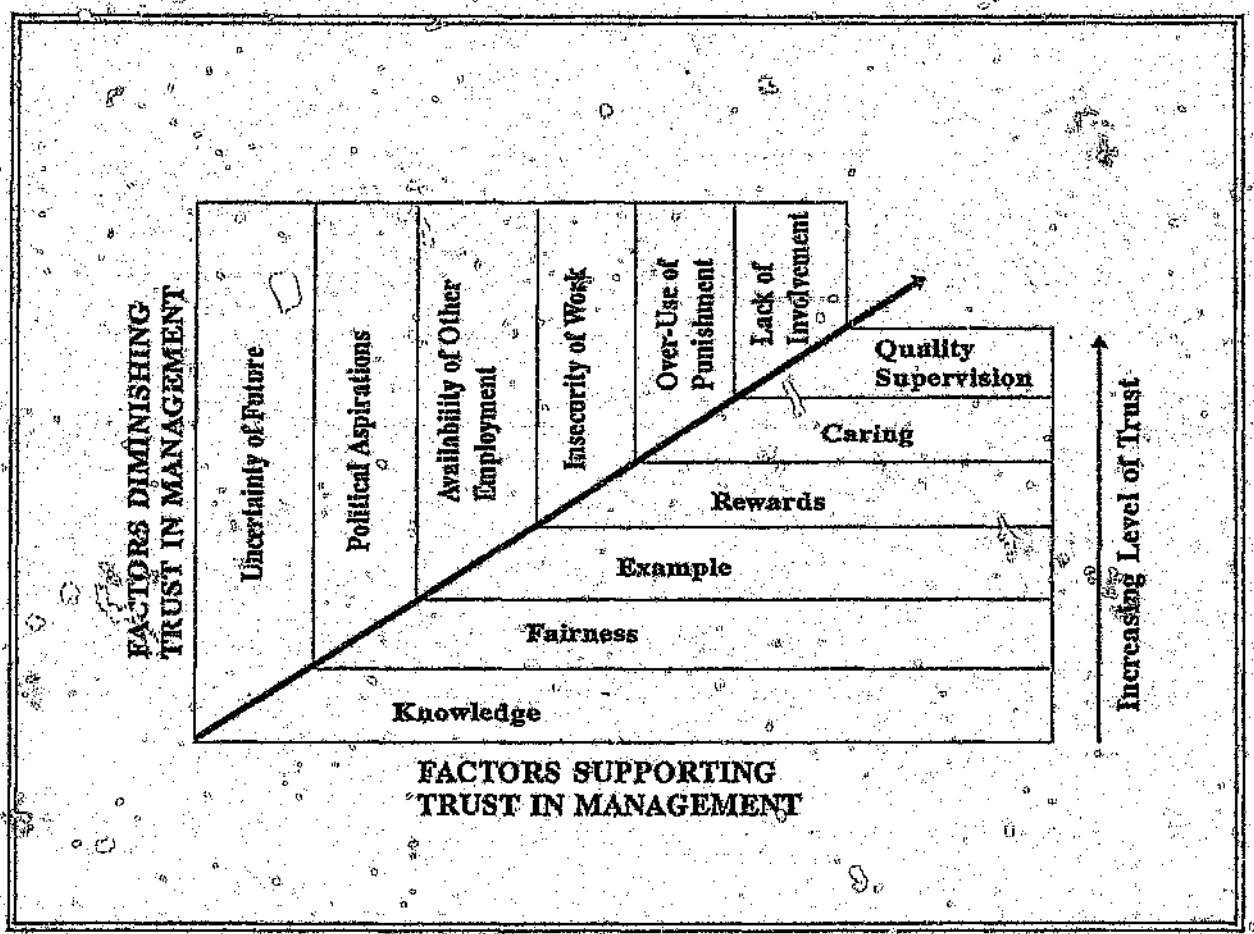

Figure 2.4

BEADLE'S MODEL : PRESSURES ON MANAGEMENT TRUST

Source: Model developed for Nestlé, S.A., 1991

in the external environment, viz. uncertainty of the future, political aspirations, availability of other employment and insecurity of work. The model indicates that the factors that support trust can be controlled, or created, by the manager, whereas the factors that diminish trust, except for lack of involvement and over-use of punishment, are out of the control of the managers.

The South African workplace environment is characterised by economic recession, high-unemployment, political turmoil, rapid paradigm changes, uncertain futures and a history of social prejudices and inequalities (Visser, in a personal interview, 1991). Both Beadle's and Rotter's theories therefore, hold serious implications for current working relationships in South Africa.

Cognisance has been taken in this study of the dynamics and make-up of South African organisations which are influenced by idiosyncratic socio-political history of the country.

2.14 CONCLUSION

The literature review has highlighted the dearth of worldwide empirical research on trust in an organisational context. It was, therefore, the aim of this study to make a contribution to the topic by identifying the most critical group of managerial behaviours and attitudes that build and destroy trust.

The study acknowledged that trust in managers can only be given by their subordinates (Kouzes and Posner, 1990). It cannot be commanded from subordinates by their managers. Therefore, the study focused on the views and perceptions of subordinates, rather than on those of the managers.

2.15 THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The primary concern of this study was the specific managerial behaviours and attitudes that impact on subordinate trust. Hence, the associated research questions are:

Question 1: What manager behaviours and attitudes build subordinates' trust in them?

Question 2: What manager behaviours and attitudes destroy subordinates' trust in them?

Question 3: What are the differences of opinion on the above two questions between subordinates from different job grade levels and different sites?

This study was of an exploratory nature and attempted to define related behaviours rather than confirm previously identified behaviours. Therefore, it was difficult to formulate detailed propositions other than generalised statements of behaviours and differences between variables.

The propositions that were tested were as follows:

(Pi) Certain key managerial behaviours and attitudes help to build subordinate trust.

(Pii) The managerial behaviours and attitudes that destroy trust are not merely the opposite of those managerial behaviours and attitudes that build subordinate trust.

(Piii) There are significant differences in the ranking of criteria placed on managerial behaviours and attitudes that build, and destroy, subordinate trust, between different job grade levels and different sites.

CHAPTER THREE : RESEARCH METHOD

"The design of the study is the blueprint for fulfilling objectives and answering questions" (Emory and Cooper, 1991).

3.1 INTRODUCTION

"Significant research requires new learning beyond what is learned in graduate school" (Daft, 1983, p. 540).

The topic under review was relatively unresearched (as outlined in the previous chapter) and there were few precedents to give guidance or direction on methodological approaches and designs. The researcher therefore, entered the project with a degree of uncertainty on how best to operationalise the study. However, Daft (1983) postulated that good research requires a strong measure of uncertainty. If all is known the subject chosen is not of value to investigate. Wise investigators start research with common sense and "incomplete facts, with ambiguity, and plan experiments on the basis of probability, even bare hunch, rather than certainty" (Daft, 1983, p. 540).

Due to the unique limitations imposed by the field situation (outlined further in this chapter) heed was taken of Harari and Beaty's (1989, pp. 217-218) warning "that organisational researchers who rely solely on ideal models

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Due to the unique limitations imposed by the field situation (outlined further in this chapter) heed was taken of Harari and Beaty's (1989, pp. 217-218) warning "that organisational researchers who rely solely on ideal models

of scientific research will find themselves hamstrung by using traditional methodology that is impractical and sometimes irrelevant .... that in order to capture meaningful data (particularly from black South African workers) management researchers need to adopt 'real world' methodologies that reflect the 'complex' features which make up an organisation's people and environment". Godsell (in a personal interview, 1992) also warned of the unusual dynamics of carrying out research at shopfloor level. Researchers should demonstrate caution and empathy for the situation.

As this study made use of a new kind of research method the Faculty of Business Administration of the University of the Witwatersrand requested full documentation thereof. Therefore, the researcher has taken the liberty of giving explanations and detail on certain aspects of the research methodology that would normally be beyond the parameters of a thesis for a Masters degree.

3.2 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

The domain of sociological, or human sciences, research is human thought, human emotions and human behaviour (Ferreira and Puth, 1988). As outlined in chapters one and two, trust is an abstract concept and it evolves through attitudes, values, perceptions, behaviours and feelings. This study, therefore, clearly falls into the category of sociological research.

Qualitative research concerns itself with "meaning rather than the measurement of phenomena" (Daft, 1981, p. 539). Organisations are complex and multidimensional and are made up of groups of individuals from different backgrounds and with different value systems. Hence, much of the important new knowledge about organisations has come about as the result of qualitative investigation (Daft, 1981). Qualitative research "depends on the insight of a patient, sensitive observer" (Broom, Selznick and Darroch, 1981, p. 28) who must decide what information in the social environment is important and what should be eliminated as 'noise'.

Thus, the research design for this study did not aim to produce precise definitions and concrete quantitative measurements. Rather, it aimed to find meaning and make sense of some underlying behavioural patterns and processes, within the vastly complicated world of the organisation.

Both qualitative and quantitative research have a place in organisational research. In the case of this qualitative research project, the results could serve as a pre-cursor, or stimulus, to the formulations of problems, such as: the construction of scales an indices, and the interpretation of relationships between variables.

3.3 EXPLORATORY RESEARCH

An exploratory process "suggests, leads, opens avenues for observation, and offers strategies for analysis. Initially, however, it stands elusive. Its empirical qualities only come forth within the research act - not before" (Denzin, 1970, p. 49).

Exploratory research is the pre-cursor to scientific research. As such, exploratory research develops first-degree constructs which are described as being "based on the social construction of reality by a set of actors" (Calder, 1977, p. 355). First-degree constructs can be used in the development of second-degree constructs, or "scientific terms and concepts" (Calder, 1977, p. 354) through the process of scientific research. (See Figure 3.1).

Exploratory research is used to "generate, or select, theoretical ideas and hypotheses" which can then be verified at a future research project (Calder, 1977, p. 356). As stated earlier in this chapter, this study ventured into a new area of investigation, and it did not build on hypotheses developed beforehand by another researcher. It's aim was to develop constructs and hypotheses upon which further research could be conducted. This study must therefore, be regarded as exploratory research.

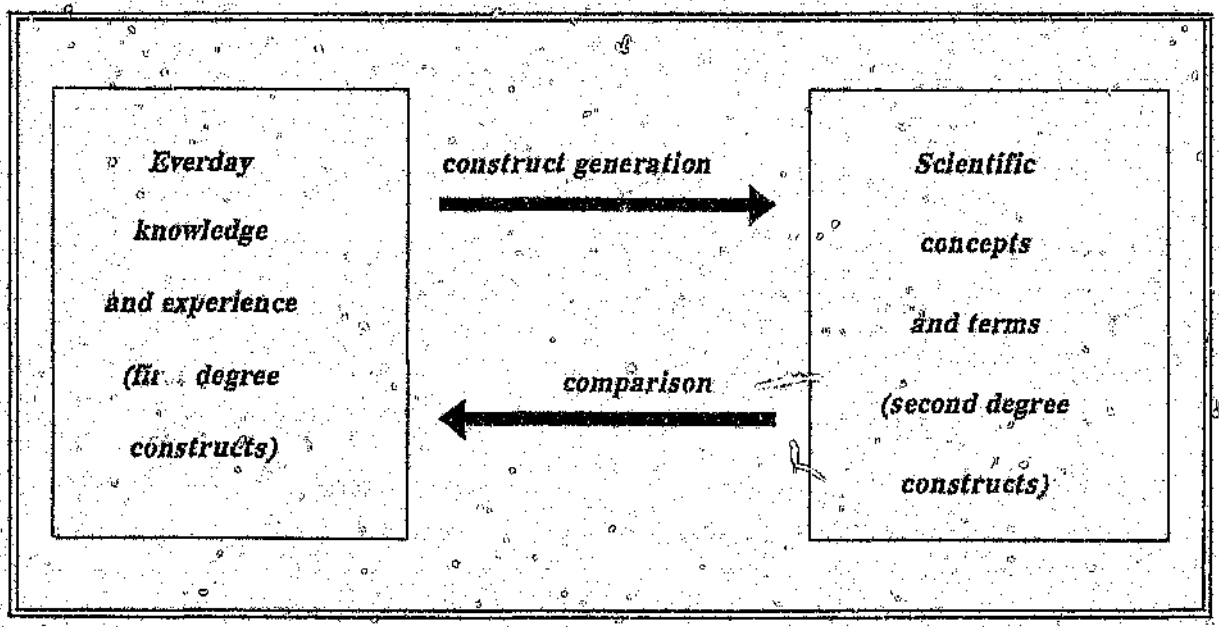


Figure 3.1

THE ROLE OF EXPLORATORY RESEARCH

Source: R.J. Calder, 1977. "Focus Groups and the Nature of Qualitative Marketing Research". Journal of Marketing Research. Vol. XIV (August), pp. 353-364.

3.4 ROLES OF THE RESEARCHER AND THE RESEARCH ASSISTANT

Denzin (1970) suggests that there lies a danger in the instances where researchers are not well acquainted with the organisation, as well as the people being tested therein. These researchers may be inclined to develop stereotypes and images according to their own experiences,

outside of the organisation. In the instance of this research study, the researcher is employed as a full-time Organisational Development Consultant by the company in which the research has been carried out. Thus, as part of the researcher's routine function it is critical that she is intimately, and objectively, familiar with the dynamics of the organisation. Although the familiarity may have given the researcher greater insights into the situation, it may also have lead to biased interpretations. However, it was felt that the potential benefits to be gained from the research approach were greater that the disadvantages of researcher bias.

The researcher designed, controlled, administered and organised the research project. All of the workshops, except for the Group A workshops (shopfloor level), were conducted by the researcher. A research assistant ran, or moderated, all of the Group A workshops.

The establishment and maintenance of rapport is a critical issue in qualitative research (Easterday, et al, 1982). Almost all the respondents in the Group A in this research project were black males who speak one, or more, of the ethnic languages. In consideration of this the following decisions were made about the conducting of the shopfloor level workshops:

* A male would be in a better position to understand and empathise with the experiences of men

* The workshops would be conducted in the preferred vernacular language of the majority of the participants
* The participants would be more comfortable discussing personal feelings with a black moderator, who could identify with their experiences.

Hence, the services of a black male research assistant who could speak the required vernacular languages was employed to moderate all the Group A workshops.

3.5 LIMITATIONS PLACED BY THE FIELD SITUATION

"There are very few perfect research situations. This is especially so in the social world of the organisation, wherein research cannot be conducted under controlled laboratory conditions" (Denzin, 1970, p. 10).

More importantly, Harari and Beaty (1989) and Godsell (1981) maintained that there are additional problems when conducting qualitative research in South Africa. Most 'third world', or shop floor, research respondents in South Africa are unfamiliar with conventional scientific research. "Sterile research settings like carefully arranged tables, chairs, questionnaires, carefully defined novel tasks to perform standardised instruction, scripts, formally structured interviews, etc. are an alien experience (to shopfloor workers)" (Harari and Beaty, 1989, p. 218). Respondents who undergo the alien experience of

research can become distressed and fearful. These reactions could, in turn, result in hostility towards the moderator and subsequent withdrawal from the research process (Harari and Beaty, 1989).

These limitations had the potential to restrict the results and processes of the research. Thus, the research approach was designed in such a way that the impact of the limitations was reduced. Some of the factors that were taken into account are discussed below.

3.5.1 Researcher Bias

The research design, viz focus groups, required that a critical role be undertaken by a moderator, or group facilitator. This role was adopted by the researcher and a research assistant.

One of the problems experienced with qualitative research is researcher bias (Emory and Cooper, 1991). Abstract concepts, such as trust, are open to individual and personal interpretations, which are influenced by the individual's social learning patterns and experiences (Jones, 1985).

Observer bias is a serious obstacle to understanding someone else's point of view, and it is not something than can be overcome with "self-discipline and a tightening of resolve" (Stewart and Stewart, 1981,

p. 4).

The research method for this study was therefore, designed to minimise both the researcher's and assistant researcher's potential to influence the results.

3.5.2 Education and Literacy Levels

The education and literacy levels among black South African shopfloor workers are particularly low, especially when compared with those of white employees in higher levels (Spence, 1987).

Unlike in a first world context, the researcher could not assume that many of the shopfloor sub-sample could comprehend simple written instructions or give simple written responses. (Harari and Beaty, 1989 and Godsell, 1981). The research process for shopfloor workshops was therefore, designed to incorporate only the very minimum of writing by participants.

3.5.3 Language Diversities

For most of the respondents on the shopfloor level, as well as many of the junior employees, English was not their home language. Additionally, there are many different languages and dialects spoken within the South African business environment. It was therefore, critical that the Group A workshops be moderated by

someone who could speak the same languages as the subjects.

3.5.4 Psychological Barriers

Respondents are often fearful, anxious and suspicious when participating in organisational research. Their fears are primarily based on unfamiliarity with the formal research process and difficulty with talking about inner feelings (Harari and Beaty, 1989 and Godsell, 1981). Within the South Africa workplace context there is an additional factor. Black workers are inherently suspicious and doubtful about the intentions of researchers. They are particularly sensitive to hidden motives which may be perceived as exploitive (Harari and Beaty, 1989).

Both Godsell (1981) and Harari and Beaty (1989) encountered suspicion from their black respondents. All three researchers believed that the suspicion had its roots in a lack of familiarity with the research process as well as the historic and entrenched suspicion between whites and blacks as well as between managers and workers.

Schmitt and Klimoski (1991) asserted that much of the success of organisational research is dependent on consultation with the decision makers, leaders and influential people.

In this research the potential for respondent fear and suspicion was tackled in two ways:

* Consultation with shop stewards and line managers prior to the research
* Creating a trusting climate during the workshops.

The shop stewards of each of the sample sites were consulted about the research project before the data collection. In-depth explanations of the reasons for the research, the objectives and the methods to be used were outlined in these meetings. An offer was made for at least one shop steward to participate in each Group A workshop. Although the shop stewards partitipated they were not able to influence the thinking of the other participants due to the design of The Nominal Group Technique, which was used to gather data.

Additionally, meetings were held with the senior factory management of all three sites with the purpose of comprehensively outlining the purpose and process of the study, as well as answering questions. These managers were asked to convey the information to their subordinate managers. It became apparent at two of the sites that this did not happen in every case. This resulted in a number of respondents reporting that their managers were not entirely comfortable with

releasing them for the workshops.

Godsell (in a personal interview, 1992) maintained that people find it difficult to talk about abstract concepts and deep feelings. Additionally, shop floor participants respond positively to "values such as openness, warmth, and collaboration" (Harari and Beaty, 1989, p. 219). Therefore, Rogerian counselling techniques, such as active listening, empathy, warmth and genuineness (Rogers, 1970) were used during data collection to create an open and trusting climate, as well as a sense of respect for the individual participant as a human being.

3.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

"The goal of ethics in research is to ensure that no one is harmed or suffers adverse consequences from research activities" (Emory and Cooper, 1991, p. 23). Responsible researchers anticipate potential ethical problems and design their research to ensure ethical integrity is maintained (Emory and Cooper, 1991). Schmitt and Klimoski (1991) suggest that three ethical issues require consideration , viz:

* Openly informing those involved in the research about the objectives and intended use of the data.
* Upholding the respondents' rights to privacy and protection
* Providing feedback of the results to the respondents

3.6.1 Confidentiality and Anonymity

In order to prevent possible victimization of respondents, their identity was protected as far as was possible. The researcher initially identified the respondents from a company employee list. The selection of respondents was carried out in such a manner that only the researcher, the factory managers and, in the Group A case, the research assistant were aware of the full list of participants. Once all data was transferred the participant lists were destroyed.

Respondent anonymity was further protected by collating their ideas under a group code name. Participants were requested to rank the ideas on a pre-prepared score sheet. They were not asked to write their names on the sheet but rather to place any identification mark on the score sheet. Thus only they would be able to identify their own score sheets when they were handed back to them, after their scores were transferred onto the group score sheet.

All respondents were reminded of the importance of keeping specific details of what individuals said during the workshops confidential. This again, was requested to prevent possible victimization.

3.6.2 Voluntary Respondent Participation

The researcher had an additional responsibility to

ensure that respondents entered into the research process voluntarily (Schmitt and Klimoski, 1991).

All identified respondents of the target company were sent a letter inviting them to the workshop as well as an explanation of what was expected of them and what would be done with the data. Group A participants were sent translated Zulu and Southern Sotho versions of the invitation. It was made very clear to them that their attendance was on a voluntary basis.

3.6.3. Legitimate Need for the Research

The researcher also had a responsibility to ensure that there was a legitimate need for the research in the organisation wherein the study was being conducted (Schmitt and Klimoski, 1991). The target company had two years prior to the research identified, as one of their strategic objectives, to build trust between individuals and groups within the company. As there is a dearth of literature available on the subject the company was most willing for the research to be conducted within its organisation.

3.7 RESEARCH AS AN ORGANISATIONAL DEVELOPMENT INTERVENTION

"Qualitative research is an excellent way of bridging social distance" (Calder, 1977, p. 359). Thus, organisational research that involves face-to-face in-depth discussion about employees' feelings, perceptions and

opinions cannot be taken lightly. The process had the potential to make a profound and lasting impression upon the research subjects. They learned more about their fellow employees as well as about themselves. The process forced them to give thought to areas upon which they may not have pondered (Schmitt and Klimoski, 1991). Additionally, self discovery can be painful to the individual who is experiencing it (Scott Peck, 1991). Respondents may also have become frustrated when they realised that what they really need and desire from their managers was not forthcoming.

The process of face-to-face organisational research is thus an intervention in itself and the results of such research has the potential to lead to a change intervention (Schmitt and Klimoski, 1991). The researcher therefore, had a responsibility to ensure that the results of the study were utilized to enhance and improve the situation within the organisation (Schmitt and Klimoski, 1991).

With regards to this research project, it was considered as part of a larger organisational development intervention to change and improve the management style within the company. As mentioned previously, trust building within the company had been identified as a strategic objective. The research project was designed to identify which behaviours managers, and supervisors, should develop, or avoid, to increase their personal trustworthiness. This results of the study

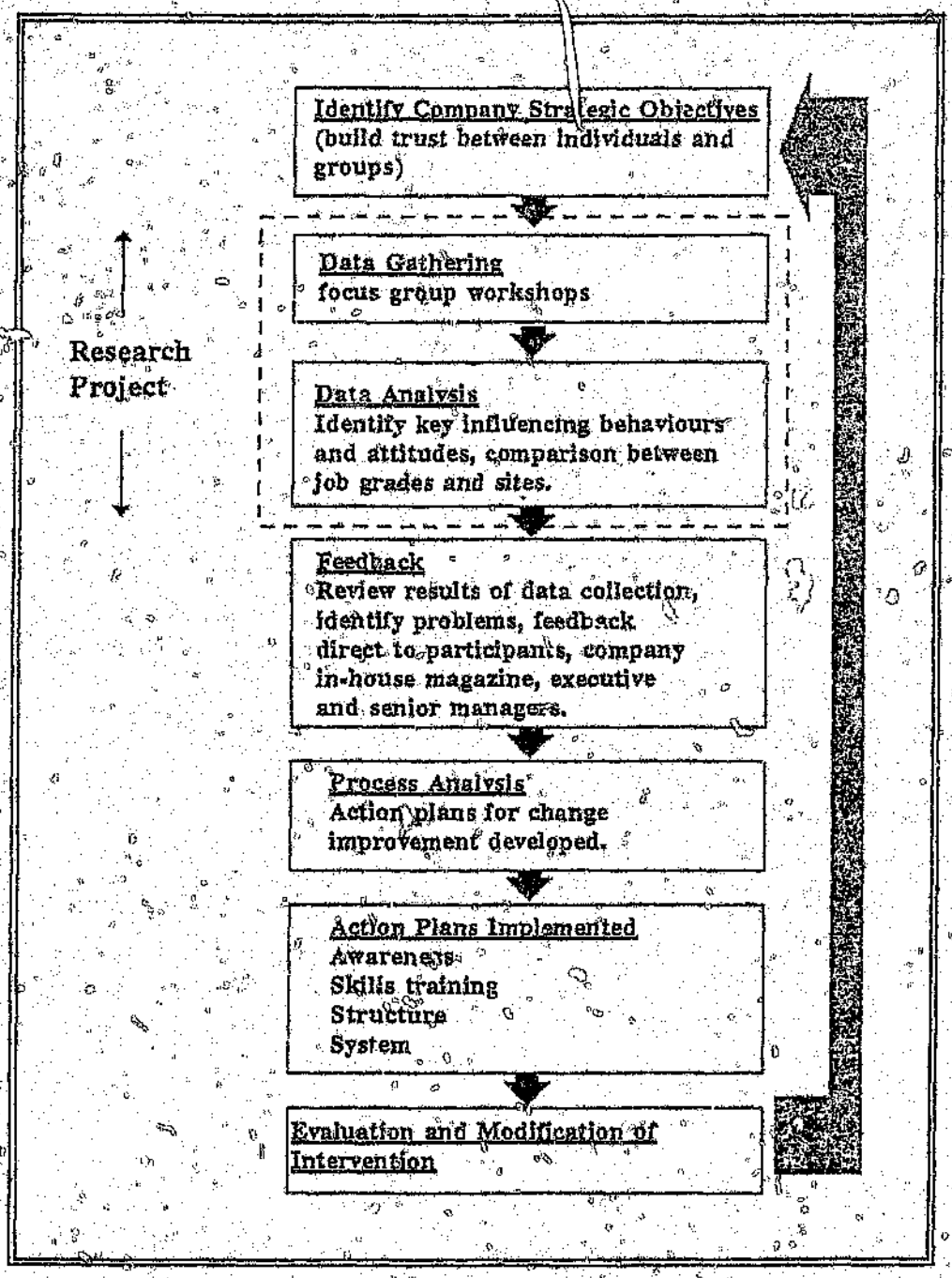


Figure 3.2

THE RELEVANCE OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT TO THE ORGANISATION DEVELOPMENT INTERVENTION IN THE COMPANY

are to be incorporated into manager and supervisory training courses. Figure 3.2, a model developed by the researcher, illustrates the integral part that the research study played in the overall organisational development intervention.

3.8 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

As stated previously, the research design of this study was exploratory. The aim of the project was the generation of first-degree constructs. The research psychologists of the Faculty of Business Administration of the University of the Witwatersrand decided that it would be acceptable to conduct the research within the ambit of one organisation. The study was conducted in a South African manufacturing, wholesaling and retail company. Hence this study does not claim to have used a generalisable sample. Denzin (1970, pp.10) postulates that researchers "with insight into the situations he is studying...will be led to forsake rules of scientific protocol concerning the representativeness of his samples in order to discover data that provide him with new understanding".

3.8.1 Components of the Target Population

The target population was confined to the three manufacturing sites of the organisation. The company desires to remain anonymous and the sites are therefore, identified as: Site 1, Site 2, and Site 3.

The climate and culture, as well as environmental influences of each of the three sites were substantially different from one another. The differences lay predominantly on the basis of: union representation, language, culture and literacy levels.

The representing union in Sites 2 and 3 is the CAFATU affiliated Chemical Workers Industrial Union (CWIU). The NACTU affiliated South African Chemical Workers Union (SACWU) is represented at Site 1. The bargaining forum as well as the ideology, maturity and sophistication of the two union differs substantially (TUCSA, 1985-1986).

The Xhozas, Coloured and Whites at Site 2 spoke mainly Xhoza, Afrikaans and English, respectively. In Site 2 the Whites and Asians spoke English, whilst the Zulus speak Zulu. The Whites in Site 1 spoke mostly English with a little Afrikaans, whilst the blacks spoke a myriad of languages, with Zulu being the most commonly understood language.

The literacy levels at the shopfloor levels also differed between the three sites. The lowest average level of literacy was present in Site 3 (Std. 2), the highest in Site 2 (Std. 8) and Site 1 at Std. 5 to 6 (literacy training records of the company, 1991).

The climate and culture, as well as environmental influences of each of the three sites were substantially different from one another. The differences lay predominantly on the basis of: union representation, language, culture and literacy levels.

The representing union in Sites 2 and 3 is the CASATU affiliated Chemical Workers Industrial Union (CWIU). The NACTU affiliated South African Chemical Workers Union (SACWU) is represented at Site 1. The bargaining forum as well as the ideology, maturity and sophistication of the two union differs substantially (TUCSA, 1985-1986).

The Xhozas, Coloured and Whites at Site 2 spoke mainly Xhosa, Afrikaans and English, respectively. In Site 2 the Whites and Asians spoke English, whilst the Zulus speak Zulu. The Whites in Site 1 spoke mostly English with a little Afrikaans, whilst the blacks spoke a myriad of languages, with Zulu being the most commonly understood language.

The literacy levels at the shopfloor levels also differed between the three sites. The lowest average level of literacy was present in Site 3 (Std. 2), the highest in Site 2 (Std. 8) and Site 1 at Std. 5 to 6 (literacy training records of the company, 1991).

The diversity of the three plants was further substantiated by the results of a human relations climate survey conducted in the target company by Franks and Vink of the National Institute of Personnel Research in 1990 (Franks and Vink, 1990)

3.8.2 Sample Design

A non-probability judgemental sample, stratified horizontally (by site) and vertically (by job grade) was drawn.

Whilst probability sampling is considered to be a superior method (Emory and Cooper, 1991) practical considerations, such as availability and willingness of respondents to participate, had to be taken into account. Further, an attempt was made, to draw proportional representation of races and sexes at each job grade group. One shop steward was also invited to participate in each Group A workshop. Emory and Cooper (1991) however, believe that a judgemental sample method is appropriate for exploratory studies.

3.8.3 Selection of Respondents

The researcher compiled the respondent lists for each sub-sample. A computerised breakdown of the full staff complement of the target company was used to assist in the process. The researcher was not personally familiar with many of the selected

respondents. The respondent lists were then sent to each of the factory managers who slightly modified the lists on the basis of convenience and respondent availability on the day of the planned workshop. It was not possible to take out too many people from one department/section for four to six hours and some respondents may not have been working on the appropriate shift.

3.8.4 Sample Size

The job grade groups used in the sample were classified according to the Hay Job Grading system as follows:

Group A - Grades A to H (shopfloor workers, eg. machine operators, cleaners and postal clerks)

Group B - Grades 3, 4, and 5 (junior employees, eg. first level supervisors, tele-reps, secretaries)

Group C - Grades 6, 7 and 8 (middle management, eg. production managers, training officers, production planners)

Group D - Grades 9, 10 and 11 (senior management, eg. factory managers, human resource managers, warehouse managers, business managers).

Each workshop was given a code number which was made up of the factory site number and the job grade group letter, eg. Group B at Site 3 was coded '3B'. A total of 91 participants were included in the workshops which examined manager behaviours and attitudes that destroy trust. One of these respondents was unable to attend the second part of the workshop which examined behaviours that build trust.

Of the 91 respondents 63 were male and 28 were female, 36 were African, 10 Asian, 11 Coloured and 34 White. A total of 34 respondents from Site 1 participated, 33 from Site 2 and 24 from Site 3. 27 Employees from Group A participated, 25 from Group B, 19 from Group C and 18 from Group D. The total sample represented 8% of the company's total employee complement.

3.9. PREPARATION FOR DATA COLLECTION

A number of activities were undertaken in preparation for the data collection. They are discussed in some detail below.

3.9.1 The Research Assistant

As previously stated in this chapter, the role of the research assistant was viewed as being critical to the success of the Group A workshops. His role had to be perceived as the controller of the workshop and not merely as an interpreter.

The research assistant identified for the Group A workshops was a Black post graduate student from the Witwatersrand Business School. He had had some previous experience in interviewing Black workers for a research project. He spoke and wrote English, Zulu and Xhoza fluently and had a working knowledge of Tswana and Southern Sotho. His enthusiasm for the project and sensitivity for the issues involved proved to be a bonus.

The research assistant's first experience of a workshop was the pilot workshop which he himself ran. The researcher, however, was able to discuss the workshop format and possible dynamics that could be expected with the research assistant beforehand. The researcher sat in on each of the shopfloor workshops as an observer, and offered support, if required. The pilot study thus served as training for the research assistant.

3.9.2 Investigation on Illiteracy

The problem of illiteracy and semi-illiteracy, in Group A, as outlined earlier in this chapter, deemed it necessary to investigate the issue of illiteracy. The researcher and the research assistant sought the advice of Guthrie and Skota, who both have experience in running adult illiteracy classes, and as well as training illiteracy trainers.

Guthrie and Skota (in a personal interview, 1992) laid great importance on the utmost respect being extended to the less literate respondents, many of whom were senior in age to both the research assistant. Less literate people are very sensitive about their 'infliction' and everything had to be done to reduce their anxiety.

Illiterate and semi-illiterate people are not able to read they develop superior retention and memory skills. Therefore, the less literate workshop participants would be able to memorise the ideas, whereas the more literate participants would feel the need to write down the ideas (Guthrie and Skota, in a personal interview, 1992).

Guthrie and Skota, (1992) were less certain about the semi-illiterate participants' ability to rank ideas, especially if they were innumerate as well. Guthrie and Skota believed that some participants may feel that all the ideas were important, and as a result would not be able to define which were more important than others. Guthrie and Skota warned that the illiterate and semi-illiterate respondents may have low expectations of life, and may also have difficulty in expressing their feelings.

Although the advice given by Guthrie and Skota was

enlightening, and later proved to be useful, it did not give the researcher and the research assistant positive solutions to the problem.

Thus, the researcher had to acknowledge that the effects of the literacy levels of the participants could only be assessed within the workshop itself.

3.9.3 Meeting with Shop Stewards and Line Managers

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, prior to the workshops shop stewards and line managers were consulted about the research in an effort to reduce suspicion and resistance. The shop stewards' from all three sites main concern was victimisation against the workshop participants.

The Site 3 meeting with the shop stewards was placed on the agenda of one of the regular management and shop steward meetings held on site. This gave the researcher the opportunity to consult with line managers and shop stewards concurrently. The act of talking openly and answering questions honestly to both parties in the presence of each other was reassuring to the shop stewards. It gave them an indication that there was nothing to hide about the process, and that it was not an underhand management project.

The research assistant was unable to attend any of the shop steward meetings. This was a failing in the preparation phase, however, it did not appear to have a negative impact on the process. This was probably due to two factors: the personality and sensitivity of the facilitator; the researcher, who had already consulted with the shop stewards, sat in on all the shopfloor workshops and intermingled with participants during breaks.

3.10 DATA COLLECTION

The data was collected over a period of four weeks and the method used was Nominal Group Technique (NGT). The data collection method is discussed in detail below.

3.10.f. Nominal Group Technique (NGT)

The survey is the most commonly used form of research design used in social research (Groenewald, 1986). It is defined as a process of collecting "information about a selected number of characteristics of a great number of cases at a given time within circumscribed boundaries" (Groenewald, 1986, p. 54). Surveys embrace a wide variety of methods, including focus groups.

Focus groups make use of a trained moderator, or facilitator, who "uses principles of group dynamics to focus or guide the group in an exchange of ideas,

feelings, and experiences on a clearly understood topic" (Emory and Cooper, 1991). Along with in-depth interviews and questionnaires, focus groups are most commonly used in exploratory qualitative research with the objective of eliciting first degree constructs out of everyday concepts (Calder, 1977).

Some of the advantages of focus groups, over in-depth interviews and questionnaires, are:

* Low cost (Ferreira and Puth, 1988 and Hedges, 1985)
* Stimulate more diverse ideas and opinions (Ferreira and Puth, 1988)
* Generate understanding and insights into the issue (Hedges, 1985)
* Encourage respondents to take a deeper look at themselves and break through their self-imposed limitations, thus generating qualitative and in-depth data (Hedges, 1985).

Some of the weaknesses of Focus Groups are:

* Respondents may feel uncomfortable in the unnatural groupings (Ferreira and Puth, 1988).
* Social pressure may inhibit responses (Ferreira and Puth, 1988 and Hedges, 1985)
* One respondent may dominate the group and influence their thinking (Hedges, 1985)
* Respondents may unconsciously give a more

socially acceptable view of themselves to the rest of the group, especially when talking about sensitive or controversial issues (Ferreira and Puth, 1988).

* Difficulty in the organisational aspect of getting a group of people together at one time (Ferreira and Puth, 1988).
* The propensity of individuals to willingly undergo group research may lead to biased sampling (Hedges, 1985).
* The moderator's own bias may lead the group in the wrong direction (Ferreira and Puth, 1988).

Thus, whilst focus groups, per se, have the potential to generate valuable insights and data, its weaknesses may render the data biased.

Used as a research methodology Nominal Group Technique (NGT) falls into the broad category of focus groups (Ferreira and Puth, 1988). NGT was developed by Van den Ven and Delbecq in the late 1960's to enhance the generation, exploration and communication of ideas in the problem solving process (Ford and Nemiroff, 1975). It was also used by its developers as an effective exploratory research method (Ford and Nemiroff, 1975). It can also be used where a problem is not clearly understood (Robbins, 1989).

NGT is defined as "a structured meeting that attempts to provide an orderly mechanism for obtaining qualitative information from groups who are familiar with a particular problem area" (Ford and Nemiroff, 1975, p. 179).

One of the advantages of NGT is the generation of a large number of high quality ideas with the reduced possibility of social and conflict pressures impeding the outcome. Other advantages are that individuals are not able to dominate the group and the moderator is less able to influence the group. Thus, the NGT does not have most of the disadvantages of Focus Groups. It was for this reason, that NGT was selected as being the method of collecting data within the limitations of the field situation.

3.10.2 Pilot Study

Emory and Cooper (1989) stress the importance of careful piloting any research method. Two pilot studies were conducted prior to the actual workshops. The researcher conducted a pilot study made up of subjects from Groups B and C, and the research assistant ran a pilot study using Group A respondents. The data generated from both of the workshops was not used for the research project.

The pilot studies enabled the researcher to detect

weaknesses in design and instrumentation. It was also especially useful in the assessment of respondents' capacity to rate and rank, as well as their level of sensitivity to the topic. Additionally, the Group A pilot study gave the research assistant an opportunity to become familiar with the NGT process and experiment with approaches and wording.

3.10.3 Findings of the Pilot Study

* All Groups

The participants coped extremely well with all phases of the NGT process. The participants found it much easier to answer the question referring to behaviours that destroy trust than those behaviours that build trust.

* Group A

The Group A workshop proved to be a great success. The participants coped well with the process and achieved great satisfaction from the workshop. The group responded extremely well to the research assistant, and expressed its approval of the workshop being conducted in their own vernacular. The latter two reasons were believed to be mainly responsible for the rich and in-depth discussions that took place during that workshop.

* Groups B and C

The Group B and C pilot workshop however, was not as successful. The participants were anxious and took a long time to relax. They claimed that this was due to the following reasons: the workshop venue did not have a door and other employees, including their senior manager, walked past whilst the workshop was in progress.

Even when the participants began to relax they were still not as forthcoming as the participants in Group A. The wide spread of job grades, or lack of homogeneity, may have contributed to this.

3.10.4 Subsequent Modifications to the Data Collection Design

After lengthy discussions the researcher and research assistant made the following modification decisions:

* All Groups

- Take all participants through the negative question first, viz. behaviours that destroy trust, and the positive one, viz. behaviours that build trust, thereafter.
- Refreshments would always be served at the workshops.
- Eight participants was an ideal number to work with.
- The groups would be as homogeneous as possible.

- Only venues that afforded privacy would be used.
- A script for the opening and welcoming speech would be prepared for the senior manager of the site. This would ensure that support by senior managers for the process would be viewed as being consistent.

* Group A

- A shop steward would always be invited to participate in each Group A workshop.
- Pencils and pens would not be laid out on desks before the workshop, and would only be handed out as and when individual participants requested them.
- The participants of each group would decide in which language their workshop would be conducted.
- The phase that required participants to rate the ideas as 'excellent', 'good', or 'fair' would be eliminated. In its place the participants would be asked to choose the ten best ideas and then rank them.
- As a means of doing a quick spot check of participants literacy levels they would be asked to write their full names on a pre-prepared place marker.
- If it became apparent during the workshop that a subject was unable to read, or write, the participants would be asked to work in pairs.

The illiterate subject would be partnered by a more literate respondent, who would do the reading and writing for both of them.

* Group B, C and D workshops

- Time would be given to the introduction and overview. All fears and questions would be answered honestly and openly.
- The phase that requires respondents to re-write their ideas in telegraphic form would not be used, as it bored the participants and slowed down the pace.

3.10.5 Preparation for the Workshops

Arrangements for the workshops were made several weeks before the event. Final arrangements were confirmed a few days prior to the workshops. As mentioned previously, each identified subject was sent a personalised letter inviting them to one of the workshops.

The researcher and the research assistant ensured that they arrived at the workshop venues with plenty of time to prepare both the venue and themselves. The seating arrangement was U-shaped. The flipchart, overhead projector were placed at the opening and head of the U-shape. Water, pencils, erasers, sharpeners, paper and a name marker were laid out at each place

(except for Group A workshops, as discussed earlier in this chapter).

Before the workshops started the facilitators checked the temperature, atmosphere and lighting of the venue. This was done to ensure that the participants would be as comfortable as possible.

3.10.6 Workshop Design

Each workshop consisted of five broad phases: the welcome, the introduction, the mistrusting behaviours section, the trusting behaviours section, and the close. Each of these phases are discussed below.

*Phase 1 : The Welcome and Introduction

In order to lend credence to the exercise the factory managers were asked to welcome the participants and open the workshop. After the welcome the factory managers introduced the researcher and, in the case of the Group A workshops, the research assistant. They also gave a little background information on the research project as well as background facts about the researcher and the research assistant. After the introduction the factory managers left. It was made quite clear to them that their, or any of the participants' managers, presence would severely inhibit the participants' willingness to participate openly.

*Phase 2 : Overview

The researcher devoted 30 to 40 minutes explaining the following: why the workshops were being held, what was required out of the workshops, what would be done with the ideas that participants contributed to the workshop, how the participants were selected and a brief outline of the process. It was explained to the participants that when, at any time during the workshop, the researcher spoke of 'manager' she also meant 'supervisor' or 'foreman'.

Participants were encouraged to ask questions at any time during the workshop. They were advised to draw on any experiences that had happened at any time during the entire working career. There were asked not to mention any manager by name when relating these experiences.

It was explained to the respondents that they would be invited to openly put their views on the question forward. These views were valuable to the research and needed to be captured. It was explained that no names would appear next to any of the recorded views. Examples of the pilot workshop feedback to subjects were shown to the participants to demonstrate this fact. Participants were asked if they objected to their points being recorded. All groups gave their permission to record their views.

In the case of the Group A workshops, the researcher would then explain that she would not be running the workshop as she is unable to speak any of the vernacular languages. It was made quiet clear to the participants that the research assistant would be in control of the workshop and that any questions should be directed to him. The workshop would then be handed over to the research assistant, and the researcher would then take a seat in the room but outside of the "U-shape" seating.

*Phase 3 : Behaviours that created Mistrust

The researcher drew the attention of the participants to the question which had been written on the flipchart prior to the start of the workshop. It was explained to them that they would be required to answer this question, viz. 'What does your manager say and do that makes you feel that you cannot trust him/her?'. Form 'Section 1' (see appendix A1) was handed to each of the participants, who were then asked to write the question in the uppermost box of the form. The question was then repeated and the participants were given 10 minutes to individually generate as many answers as they could. The researchers refrained from expanding on what was meant by 'trust'. If requested, the researchers only gave one example of what 'trust' could be. This was practised in an effort to prevent overly influencing

the participants. In order to allay any fears of poor spelling, word construction or poor handwriting it was stressed that the form was for their own use. They were asked to respond to the question as they understood it, and were cautioned to avoid generalisations. No discussion was allowed at this stage.

After 10 minutes, or earlier if all the participants had obviously completed the task, they were asked to select the four best ideas from their list. This task was also done without discussion.

Once this task had been completed the researcher explained that one idea would be taken from each participant in turn until all their ideas had been listed. They were asked to put their ideas forward in as few words as possible. Participants were allowed to 'hitchhike' on to other ideas. Comments or judgements on contributions were not allowed.

At this stage great care was used to ensure the following:

* Writing on the flipchart was clear and visible to all.
* The actual ideas and words used by each participant were recorded.
* Rephrasing of ideas by other participants was not

allowed unless the contributors obviously required assistance in expressing their ideas. Each idea was assigned a number, starting with '1'.

Participants were then encouraged to openly discuss the ideas. They were, however, cautioned to avoid judgments or arguments on the merit of ideas as well as lobbying support for their own ideas.

Additional explanatory words, or examples, were added to ideas that required clarification. Similar ideas were linked by scratching a line through one of the similar ideas and adding that idea's number to the other similar idea, thus forming one composite idea.

Form 'Section 3' (see appendix A2) was then handed to each of the group members. The subjects were then requested to individually rate, on the form, each idea as either 'fair', 'good' or 'excellent'.

When they had completed this task they were asked to select their ten best ideas from the list generated by the group. Using form 'Section 4' (see appendix A3) they then ranked the ten ideas in order of merit. At this stage the researcher took particular care to ensure the following:

* That all members understood the rating and ranking procedures by, firstly, illustrating with examples on the overhead projector. Secondly, by walking around the room and checking for clarity and problems.

Participants were requested to write the question in the uppermost block of form 'Section 4'. It was explained to them that the researcher would use that form to transfer data onto a group grid and that the form would be handed back to them. As their names were not on the form the participants were asked to make an identification mark of their own choosing anywhere on the form.

Whilst the researcher transferred the data onto form 'Section 5' (see appendix A4) the group members took a break. It was important that the participants were free to move in and out of the room and that the researcher's actions could be freely observed. This was done to avoid any suspicion of manipulation on the part of the researcher in the transferal of scores. The researcher then transferred the scores onto a pre-pre-pared overhead transparency of form 'Section 5'. After the scores had been transferred, totalled and ranked (see example appendix A5) the group members were called back into the room.

The results were then openly discussed by the group. The subsequent comments constituted very valuable qualitative data that would enrich the results. It was thus important to record the comments.

The researcher's secretary recorded the comments in shorthand for the Site 1 workshops. A small tape recorder was used for the Site 3 workshops and the abbreviated comments were written next to each idea on the flipcharts for the Site 2 workshops. On reflection the most effective method of recording comments was writing on the flipchart.

In the case of the Group A workshops participants were only given form 'Section 4' to complete. Paper and pencils were offered to participants if they required them. It was made clear to them that they could generate ideas in which ever way they felt most comfortable. The participants were asked to generate as many ideas that they wanted.

Another point of differentiation between Group A workshops and all other workshops is that the group members were not required to rate ideas as 'fair', 'good' or 'excellent'. Instead the respondents were asked to select their ten best ideas from the entire list of ideas on the flipcharts. These numbers were transferred onto the right hand column of form

'Section 4'. They were then asked to rank these ten ideas in order of merit, and write the results in the left hand column.

In all Grade A workshops the research assistant wrote down the participants' comments on the results next to the relevant point on the flip chart paper in their presence. This method appeared to be acceptable to the group members.

*Phase 4 : Behaviours that build Trust

This phase was conducted in exactly the same manner as the 'the behaviours that destroy trust section'. The question posed to the participants was "What does your manager do and say that makes you feel that you can trust him/her?".

*Phase 5 : Close

Participants were told that they would be sent typed copies of their group's results, as well as the relevant comments, within two weeks. They were also reminded that their managers would not have access to the results. They were then thanked for their attendance and the workshop was closed.

The entire workshop lasted between four and six hours. On average the Group A workshops took the longest to complete. This was due to the following factors: the

introduction as well as the procedures required much more explanation; and the participants appeared to be a lot more thorough than participants from other groups.

3.10.7 Breaks and Refreshments

The serving of refreshments, such as scones or biscuits with tea and a light lunch, was a successful ritual. It served as a symbolic gesture to make the participants feel welcome. This was especially pertinent to Group A participants. The special attention given to them in the form of food made them feel that they were respected as individuals and that their opinions were valued.

Breaks, which lasted between five and ten minutes, were given when participants appeared restless, or when a natural gap in the process materialised.

3.10.8. Feedback to Participants

Giving feedback to participants was viewed as an important part of the research. The view was taken that it was proper and ethically correct to feed the results back to participants who had voluntarily of their time to help the researcher (Emroy and Cooper, 1991).

The ideas on the flipcharts were typed up for each

group and sent back to the participants of each group, together with their group's score sheet and the comments made on the results.

The results of the whole exercise will be published in the target company's in-house magazine within one month of the completion of the research exercise.

Feedback of research results on its own is an organisational development intervention. When employees read the results they learn more about themselves as well as about other. Ultimately, that learning can create better understanding of the issues and situation involved (Schmitt and Klimoski, 1991).

3.10.9. Observations and Comments on the Workshop Process

Group A: (shopfloor)

* Generally, the respondents were unable to put their ideas into telegraphic form, ie to summarise their ideas. When putting their points forward, they would often give an example of what they were saying or relate the idea to their own experiences, rather than give a summary point of a few words.

* Often the respondents' sense of timing was poor, eg. they would be asked to take a ten minute break and twenty minutes later they would still

not be back. Someone would have to be sent to call them back.

* Those participants that preferred to write their thoughts down took great pride in doing so and usually took longer to generate their thoughts than those who did so mentally. However, on occasion the time difference made those participants that generate their ideas mentally a little impatient.

* In the Site 1 workshop, ideas were written up in two languages. The research assistant's spelling in one of the languages was a little rusty. The participants were quick to correct his spelling mistakes, which he acknowledged modestly. This subtle act encouraged subjects to become part of the process as they were able to show their own knowledge. This 'humble' act gained the assistant researcher greater credibility.

* Out of all the Group A participants only two struggled with the ranking concept. However, after the research assistant carefully explained the process, and worked step by step alongside them, they were able to complete the task.

* The level of sensitivity to the problem of

literacy, as well as the subsequent extra design work, ensured that participants who were not confident about their writing and numeracy abilities were not made to feel ashamed or uncomfortable.

* A number of participants stated that they had never been able to trust their managers and were therefore unable to answer that question. They were then asked to identify what behaviour and attitudes would make them trust their managers.

* All of the groups generated many more ideas in response to the question on behaviours that destroy trust than the behaviours that build trust

* In almost all instances, the female respondents were far less interactive than their male counterparts. This may have been due to either cultural influences which place the female as inferior, or reluctance to voice 'minority' opinions.

* Only half of the identified participants arrived for both of the Group A workshops in Site 2. Further, these two workshops were the most difficult to run, and the participants did not

offer their views as freely and enthusiastically as participants in other groups did. The reason for this has been identified as being two-fold: the participants who failed to attend Group 2A/1 may have been influenced by the shop stewards who were planning a political rally the following day; and Group 2A/2 was made up of two white males, three coloured females and two African males. Thus, the lack of homogeneity may have inhibited this group (Ferreira and Puth, 1988).

All Groups:

* All participants, even those at the higher levels, stated that they had greatly enjoyed the experience. They appreciated the opportunity to talk about an issue which was not normally spoken about openly. They felt that their efforts were worthwhile as the results would be fed back to the executives of the target company. The executives had given an undertaking to attend to problem areas that arose out of the results.

* They generally felt that the researcher and the research assistant had created an open and trusting environment which encouraged them to speak from their hearts.

All groups felt that the process used, although

fairly disciplined, was thorough and did not frustrate or bore them. They especially appreciated the fact that every person could contribute, and that the process forced everyone to listen to each others' ideas.

* Many participants stated that they had been interested to hear other peoples' opinions and views. Hence, the workshop had given them an opportunity to get to know people of different backgrounds better.

3.11 AN APPRAISAL OF THE RESEARCH METHODS EMPLOYED

3.11.1 Nominal Group Technique

Denzin (1970, p. 140) postulated that measuring instruments are evaluated "in terms of their ability to be employed in the field situation". The NGT technique proved to be a worthy research method in its endeavour to overcome many of the limitations placed by the field situation. The process appeared to overcome many of the weaknesses of focus groups. The normally strong influence of shop stewards was not evidenced in any of the Group A workshops.

Rich data was obtained by asking respondents to openly discuss the results of their scoring. For example: when asked to expand on the statement 'managers who were not courteous destroyed subordinate trust'

revealed a number of specific behaviours that were indicative of a lack of courtesy, eg. not greeting subordinates.

3.11.2 Languages Employed

It appeared to be appropriate to run the Group A workshops in the language with which the respondents were most familiar. It also appeared to be fitting to have a black moderator with whom the black respondent groups were able to identify (Nasser, et al, 1989 and Rotter, 1980).

3.11.3 Sample

Making use of, or asking the opinions of, a subordinate sample, rather than a manager sample elicited valid constructs. Whilst the researcher "may be the expert at asking questions (presumably), the respondent is the expert on the answers" (Denzin, 1970, p. 187). Successful management is far more dependent upon subordinates' perception of managers than upon managers' own perceptions. After all, "Leadership is in the eye of the follower" (Kouzes and Posner, 1990, p. 24).

3.11.4 Isolating the Real Issues

The method, however, had a few shortcomings. It was not possible within the scope of this study to reveal whether the process had clearly isolated managerial

behaviours that impact negatively and positively on subordinate trust from the other managerial behaviours. The researchers stated several times during the workshops that the study was only endeavouring to look at the trust impacting behaviours and not other managerial behaviours and attitudes. However, it is possible that other behaviours that identify the manager as being a 'good' or 'bad' manager may have been confused with those behaviours that make a manager trustworthy, or not.

3.11.5 External Influences

Both the organisational climate and culture of the investigated company as well as the external environment, may have influenced the views of respondents (Stewart and Stewart, 1981). Some of the external environmental variables prevailing at the time that the research was undertaken that may have affected the results were: extreme national political upheaval, the worst economic recession South Africa has experienced, and large-scale violence and crime (Lockwood, in a personal interview, 1992). The company variables which had the potential to influence respondents' thinking were: overall poor company performance, new management and company-wide cultural changes, and a history of very little formal and planned skills training.

3.11.6 Method Reliability

The method used has restricted reliability as the observations may change from sample to sample and from circumstance to circumstance, thus "precluding parallel results" (Denzin, 1970, p. 140). A different researcher may be more or less skilled in conducting the method, and may give certain signals that may influence the respondents.

3.11.7 Personal Learning

The data collection process gave both the researcher and the research assistant a valuable opportunity to experience enormous personal learning. There was something new to be learnt from every workshop. The respondents also learnt new things about themselves, as well as about others.

As Daft (1983, p. 544) asserted that researchers should experience personal learning from the research 'adventure', that the "research craft is enhanced by respect for error and surprise, storytelling, research poetry, emotion, common sense, firsthand learning, and research colleagues".

3.11.8 Raising Respondent Expectations

The data collection process has, however, raised employees knowledge and understanding about the dynamic of trust in their relationships with their

managers. Respondents' expectations upon their managers to improve trust levels have thus been raised. It is therefore the direct responsibility of the researcher to ensure that the executives of the target company execute a proper follow through, and that interventions are put in place to improve trust levels. Failure to do so would be both unethical and irresponsible (Schmitt and Klimoski, 1991).

3.12 ANALYSIS OF DATA

"Analysis usually involves reducing accumulated data to a manageable size, developing summaries, looking for patterns, and applying statistical techniques" (Emory and Cooper, 1991).

3.12.1 Categorising the Accumulated Data

The categorising process was designed by the researcher, but finds its basis in the analysis of the Critical Incident technique (Andersson and Nilsson, 1964).

The method adopted was initiated by the translation of all Group A workshop data from the vernacular language into English. This was done by the research assistant.

Thereafter, data from all group score sheets (see appendix A5) and flipcharts were transferred onto raw

data tables (see appendix A6 for an example thereof). The rows represented constructs (or statements) and the columns represented job grade groups and sites.

Constructs were built up by entering the short managerial behaviour sentence direct from the flipchart. Longer descriptions were summarised without losing the content and meaning of the sentence. Once the first group's constructs had been transferred statements from other groups were either similar, or different, and therefore new to the first group's construct set. Where constructs were similar, additional descriptive words were added to the original construct. Thus, an in-depth meaning to the construct was built. For example: 'constructive communication' also included 'listening to and considering subordinates' views'.

In this manner a cross tabulation of constructs and job grade groups and sites was built up. The data, thus arrayed, represented the constructs that respondents had stated were one of the ten managerial behaviours that had the most impact on subordinate trust.

The constructs were then examined carefully for overlaps. The additional comments recorded during the workshops were extremely useful is this regard. They

gave fuller meaning to the constructs.

The researcher consulted closely with the research assistant in the transferral and categorisation of the Group A constructs. This was necessary to determine the exact meaning of words used by respondents, eg. the word 'oppressive' was used by Group A respondents to describe what all other group respondents termed 'autocratic'.

Constructs that were very similar required careful examination to determine whether they should be grouped together or remain apart. As an example, in the behaviours and attitudes that destroy trust: the constructs 'having favourites' and 'discriminating' seem to be describing the same phenomenon. However, careful analysis of the basis of 'discrimination' and 'favouritism' revealed that they did have different meanings. Respondents that used the word 'discrimination' tended to describe an unequal attitude or treatment of employees based on what their biographical characteristics. Whereas, 'favouritism' was more often referred to the occurrence of managers giving a certain employee more attention, or treating them more favourably than other employees, regardless of their biographical characteristics.

3.12.2 Analysis of Data

Three analysis approaches were used:

* Causal analysis, to:

  Identify and rank the set of managerial behaviours and attitudes that cause subordinates to trust, or mistrust, their managers, in ranked order. The dependent variable is trust, whereas the independent variable is managerial behaviour or attitude.

* Variation Analysis, to:

  Identify differences and make comparisons between the data for the various job grade groups and the three sites.

* Association Analysis, to:

  Identify relationships and associations between managerial behaviours, sites and job grades.

3.12.3 Causal Analysis

The scores for each construct by variable, ie. "Job Grade B", or Site 1, etc. were totalled. This figure was then divided by the number of respondents in that group. The resultant score represented the percentage of respondents in each group that believed that that particular construct was one of the top ten to impact on building, or destroying, subordinate trust.

The total percentage scores for each construct were then totalled. A thermometer chart was compiled of all the constructs (see Figures 4.1 and 4.12). This chart graphically depicts the ranked order of all the constructs as well as the distances between each rank.

The constructs that were selected by at least 28.4% of the respondents for building trust, and at least 31.5% of respondents for destroying trust, were transferred onto a ranking chart (see Figures 4.2 and 4.13). The cut-off points were selected on the basis of logical grouping rather than convenience. This chart then represented the group of the most critical managerial behaviours, in ranked order, that build, or destroy, subordinate trust. These sets of behaviours were termed the 'critical behaviours'.

3.12.4 Variation Analysis

The set of constructs for job grade groups and sites were ranked. The cut off points of 25% and above of respondents who selected those behaviours, was selected for convenience. These sets were then transferred onto a table (see Figures 4.3, 4.4, 4.14 and 4.15). The tables depict the differences between each Job Grade Group and each Site.

Bar charts were drawn up for each of the critical managerial behaviours. These charts depict the

differences in ranking between each of the Job Grade Groups and each of the Sites, and are shown in appendixes A7, A8, A9, A10.

It should be noted that although respondents were asked to rate and then rank their group's construct set, the ranked scores were not used in the transferral of data.

3.14.5 Association Analysis

Two methods were adopted, namely:

- Chi-squared Trees Analysis
- Correspondence Analysis

*Chi-squared Trees Analysis

Chi-squared Trees Analysis (Bendixen, 1991) is a statistical process whereby the data is collapsed into a contingency table where the rows are cross-tabulated with the columns. The rows and columns are then clustered statistically on the basis of similarities.

*Correspondence Analysis

Correspondence analysis is a multivariate descriptive statistical method. It is best used for exploratory data analysis as it exposes and demonstrates relationships of complex variables (Hoffman and Franke, 1986). It graphically depicts contingency tables in "low-dimensional space" (Bendixen, 1991,

p. 5) by making use of two dual displays of variables that have geometrically similar interpretations, ie. job grade groups and sites. Correspondence analysis is most effectively used with ordinal categorical data whose structure is little understood (Hoffman and Franke, 1986). (See Figures 4.6 and 4.17).

The findings of the research are presented in the following chapter, chapter four and the findings are discussed in depth in chapter five.

CHAPTER FOUR : PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

> "The objective here is an exposition of the data rather than drawing interpretations or conclusions....The criterion for inclusion is, 'Is this material important to the reader's understanding of the problem and the findings?'"
> (Emory and Cooper, 1991, pp. 677-678)

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The findings are presented in two sections:

* Managerial Behaviours that Build Trust
* Managerial Behaviours that Destroy Trust

Each section covers the findings in the following order:

- Total group
- Breakdown by job grade
- Breakdown by site
- Chi-square Tree Analysis
- Correspondence analysis

4.2 MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOURS THAT BUILD TRUST

4.2.1 The Complete Set of Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Build Subordinate Trust in Ranked Order : TOTAL GROUP

The scores for all the behaviours are represented in percentage form in Figure 4.1. The percentage score

for each behaviour illustrates the percentage of respondents who believed that that particular behaviour was one of the ten managerial behaviours, or attitudes, most likely to build subordinate trust.

The overall set of behaviours that build subordinate trust have been graphically presented in thermometer form. Thus, the differences between each rank position were made graphically apparent. To illustrate: the difference between rank 1 and rank 2 is 2.2%, and the difference between rank 2 and rank 3 is 3.4%. Whereas, the difference between rank 6 and rank 7 at 4.5% is much larger.

Ranks 14 and downwards bear differences between each rank of only 1.1% to 2.3%. Whereas, the differences between each rank from rank 13 and above are much greater. The largest difference between ranks is manifest between rank 13 and rank 14 at 7.9%. It would thus appear that the first 13 behaviours could be grouped together as representative of the managerial behaviours most likely to build subordinate trust. These behaviours have been labelled the "critical behaviours".



54.5 Stands by and supports subordinates through their work problems.

52.3 Communicates in a courteous, respectful and humane manner.

48.9 Develops subordinates (in their current jobs).

46.6 Cares for subordinates wellbeing and personal problems.

44.3 Gives honest and regular feedback on subordinate's job performance.

42.0 Gives credit where and when it is due.

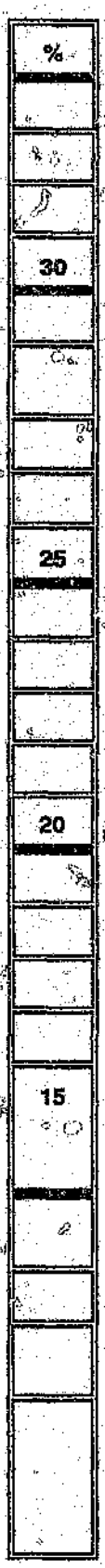
37.5 Helps with subordinates career planning.

36.4 Responds to subordinates work problems positively and timeously.

34.1 Involves subordinates in problem solving and decision making.
Keeps promises he/she has made to subordinates.

Figure 4.1

THE MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOURS AND ATTITUDES THAT *BUILD* SUBORDINATE TRUST: OVERALL
IN RANKED ORDER ("Most likely to" to "less likely to")



29.5 Gives subordinates the freedom to act independently.

28.4 Trusts/believes in his/her subordinates.
Leads by example.

20.5 Visible, available, interested in and knows what subordinates are doing. (MBWA).

18.2 Does not lie.

15.9 Promotes and rewards on merit.
Open to new ideas and suggestions.
Gives subordinates the company information they require.
Understanding, firm and fair (discipline and grievances)

14.8 Knowledgeable and experienced in his/her field of work.
Does community work.

13.6 Gets involved in the work - helps out when there is an overload.

12.5 Delegates responsibly and gives the necessary authority.
Does not have favourites - treats everyone equally.

11.4 "Employed me and continues to do so" (in recessionary times).
Does not betray confidences.
Open and honest (not underhand).
Publicly supports his/her subordinates.
Does not discriminate on basis of race, sex, age, religion.

Figure 4.1 (Contd)

10	10.2	Not afraid to ask for advice from subordinates. Has frequent meetings with his/her department.
	9.1	Consistent (in planning and in moods) Ensures salaries and grading system is efficiently managed in his/her dept. Tells subordinates what he/she realistically expects from them.
	8.0	Reliable, Has moral integrity. Encourages subordinates to learn from their mistakes.
	6.8	Gives subordinates challenges. Properly plans for the department.
5	5.7	Gives subordinates challenges Properly plans for the department.
	4.5	Is considerate, kind and friendly. Is decisive and a good judge of a situation.
	3.4	Challenges issues even if it makes him/her unpopular. Creates a warm attractive environment in his/her department. Respects his/her subordinates for who they are. Wants his/her subordinates to be honest with him/her. Respects his/her subordinates position and decisions.
	2.3	Does not hold grudges. Always makes good suggestions. Earns the respect of subordinates. Supports his/her subordinate managers/supervisors in front of their own subordinates. Leads from the front (motivates) Does not have double standards. Creates proper structures and ensures they are followed. Does not "pass the buck" Always gives good increments. Positive attitude generally. Passes on positive feedback from outsiders to his/her subordinates. Has a sense of humour.
1		Does not have favourites - treats everyone equally. Takes pride in his/her work as well as subordinates work. Confides in subordinates. Accepts the blame, not just the credit. Is safety conscious. Does not generalize or stereotype people. Builds a good relationship between his/her department and other departments. Open and approachable (genuine "open door" policy) Encourages experimentation. Is not insecure about him/herself.

Figure 4.1 (Contd)

4.2.2 The Critical Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Build Subordinate Trust : OVERALL

Figure 4.2 is a summarised version of Figure 4.1. It illustrates only the set of behaviours and attitudes most likely to build subordinate trust, ie the 13 most critical behaviours. The choice of the cut-off point was discussed in section 4.2.1.

Each of the most critical behaviours and attitudes that build subordinate trust have been broken down by job grade as well as by site. The break-down for each critical behaviour has been graphically illustrated by means of a bar chart. This has been done to ensure that the differences between each of the groups is made more visually apparent (Emory and Cooper, 1991). (See Appendices A7 and A8).

4.2.3 The Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Build Subordinate Trust : BY JOB GRADE

Some behaviours and attitudes were only expressed by certain job grade groups, or certain sites, and not by the other groups. These behaviours obviously rendered a low overall score. Therefore, whilst the overall set of critical behaviours that build subordinate trust render a valuable and general guideline, behaviours that pertain only to certain job grade groups, or sites, are equally as important.

% *	
54.5	Stands by and supports subordinates through their work problems
52.3	Communicate in a courteous, respectful and humane manner.
48.9	Develops subordinates (in their current jobs)
46.6	Cares for subordinates wellbeing and personal problems
44.3	Gives honest and regular feedback on subordinate's job performance
42.0	Gives credit where and when it is due
37.5	Helps subordinates with career planning
36.4	Responds to subordinates work problems positively and timeously
34.1	Involves subordinates in problem solving and decision making
34.1	Keeps promises he/she has made to subordinates
29.5	Gives subordinates the freedom to act independently
28.4	Trusts/believes in his/her subordinates
28.4	Leads by example
*	*Percentage of respondents who believed that the statement was one of the 10 behaviours most likely to build subordinate trust in managers*

Figure 4.2

THE CRITICAL MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOURS AND ATTITUDES THAT *BUILD* SUBORDINATE TRUST

OVERALL: (30% and above in ranked order)

Figure 4.3 thus represents the managerial behaviours and attitudes that build trust broken down by job grade group. Those behaviours which are not included in the critical overall behaviour set have been marked with an asterisk, viz. these behaviours are particular to that group.

The behaviours are presented in ranked percentage form. The behaviours are illustrated in table form wherein each column represents a job grade group. The cut-off point was established at 30% and above in each group.

This table thus highlights the managerial behaviours and attitudes that are most likely to build subordinate trust at a specified job grade.

4.2.4 The Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Build Subordinate Trust : BY SITE

The same approach as described in section 4.2.3 was applied to the breakdown of behaviours that build trust, by site. The results are displayed in Figure 4.4.

BY JOB GRADE GROUP							
%	GRADES A - H (n = 27)	%	GRADES 3 - 5 (n = 25)	%	GRADES 6 - 8 (n = 19)	%	GRADES 9+ (n = 18)
85.2	Cares for subordinates wellbeing and personal problems	62.5	Supports/stands by subordinates in their work problems	63.2	Supports and stands by subordinates in their work problems	72.2	Gives honest and regular feedback on subordinates performance.
63.0	Communicates in a courteous, respectful and humane manner.	62.5	Helps with subordinates career planning.	57.9	Involves subordinates in problem solving and decisionmaking.	66.7	Involves subordinates in problem solving and decision making.
63.0	Responds to subordinates work problems timeously and positively	58.3	Trusts his/her subordinates.	57.9	Keeps promises he/she has made to subordinates.	61.1	Leads by example.
59.3	Develops subordinates (in their current job).	50.0	Cares for subordinates wellbeing and personal problems.	52.6	Communicates in a courteous, respectful and humane manner.	61.1	Gives subordinates the freedom to act independently.
48.1	Does community work.	45.8	Keeps promises he/she has made to subordinates.	52.6	Gives credit where and when it is due.	44.4	Supports/stands by subordinates in their work problems.
48.1	Supports/stands by subordinates in their work problems.	45.8	Develops subordinates (in their current jobs).	52.6	Develops subordinates (in their current jobs).	44.4	Keeps promises he/she has made to subordinates.
40.7	Helps with subordinates career planning.	44.0	Communicates in a courteous, respectful and humane manner.	42.1	Publicly supports staff.	44.4	Is consistent (planning and moods).

Figure 4.3

THE MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOURS AND ATTITUDES THAT BUILD SUBORDINATE TRUST BY JOB GRADE GROUPS.

30% and above in ranked order

BY JOB GRADE GROUP							
%	GRADES A - H	%	GRADES 3 - 5	%	GRADES 6 - 8	%	GRADES 9+
40.7	Gives credit where and when it is due.	41.7	Gives honest and regular feedback on subordinate's performance.	36.8	Trusts/believes in his/her subordinates.	44.4	Communicates in a courteous, respectful and humane manner.
40.7	Gives subordinates the company related information they require.	41.7	Gives credit where and when it is due.	36.8	Gives honest and regular feedback on subordinates work performance.	33.3	Gives credit where and when it is due.
37.0	Employed subordinates and continues to do so (in recession)	40.0	Does not have favourites (treats people equally)	36.8	Gives subordinates the freedom to act independently.	33.3	Understanding, firm and fair. (discipline and grievances)
33.3	Gives honest and regular feedback on subordinates work performance.	36.0	Responds to subordinates problems timeously and positively.	36.8	Allows subordinates to learn from mistakes.	33.3	Develops subordinates (in their current jobs)
33.3	Promotes and rewards on merit.			31.6	Cares for subordinates wellbeing and personal problems.	33.3	Visible, available, interested in and knows what subordinates are doing, (MBWA).
				31.6	Does not betray confidences	33.3	Delegates responsibly and gives necessary authority.
				31.6	Leads by example.		August 1992

Figure 4.3 (Contd)

THE MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOURS AND ATTITUDES THAT BUILD SUBORDINATE TRUST BY JOB GRADE GROUPS (CONTD).

30% and above in ranked order

SITE 1 (n = 34)		SITE 2 (n = 32)		SITE 3 (n = 24)	
%		%		%	
66.7	Honest and regular feedback on subordinate's performance	67.7	Gives subordinates the freedom to act independently.	83.3	Develops subordinates (in their current jobs).
61.8	Standby/supports subordinates through their work problems	64.5	Gives credit where and when it is due.	70.8	Involves subordinates in decision making and problem solving.
54.5	Communicates in a courteous, respectful and humane manner.	61.3	Communicates constructively and effectively.	66.7	Cares for subordinates wellbeing and personal problems.
48.5	Develops subordinates (in their current jobs).	54.8	Cares for subordinates wellbeing and personal problems.	58.3	Keeps promises he/she has made to subordinates.
39.4	Helps with subordinates career planning	53.1	Stands by/supports subordinates through their work problems.	50.0	Gives credit where and when it is due.
33.3	Does not discriminate (race, sex, age or religion).	51.6	Responds to subordinates work problems timeously and positively	45.8	Responds to subordinates work problems timeously and positively.
27.3	Trusts/believes in his/her subordinates.	48.4	Communicates in a courteous, respectful and humane manner.	45.8	Leads by example.
27.3	Holds frequent meetings with his/her subordinates.	45.2	Promotes and rewards on merit.	41.7	Helps with subordinates career planning.
		35.5	Trusts/believes in his/her subordinates.	41.7	Stands by/supports subordinates through their work problems.

Figure 4.4

THE MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOURS AND ATTITUDES THAT BUILD SUBORDINATE TRUST: BY SITE.

30% and above in ranked order.

SITE 1 (n = 34)		SITE 2 (n = 32)		SITE 3 (n = 24)	
%		%		%	
		35.5	Honest and regular feedback on subordinates performance	33.3	Visible, available, interested in and knows what subordinates are doing (MBWA)
		35.5	Open and honest, does not hide information		
		32.5	Helps with subordinates career planning.		

Figure 4.4 (Contd)

THE MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOURS AND ATTITUDES THAT BUILD SUBORDINATE TRUST: BY SITE (CONTD).

30% and above in ranked order.

4.2.5 Chi-squared Trees Analysis

In order to establish if the two variables, Job Grade Group and Site, showed significant similarities Chi-squared Trees Analysis was used (Bendixen, in a personal interview, 1992). Figure 4.5 represents the graphical output of the Chi-square Tree Analysis to which the data was subjected. The dotted lines and the slashed lines across the middle of the figures represent the 90% and 99% confidence levels, respectively. The variables that were used were: job grade by site groups (columns) and managerial behaviours (rows).

The legend for the coded columns and rows of the contingency table were as follows:

*Column Code = Job Grade by Site Group

1	=	1A
2	=	1B
3	=	1C
4	=	1D
5	=	2A/1
6	=	2A/2
7	=	2B
8	=	2C
9	=	2D
10	=	3A
11	=	3B

12 = 3C

13 = 3D

The Job Grade Group codes were discussed in Chapter Three.

*Row Code = Behaviour Statement

1 = Stands by and supports subordinates through their work problems

2 = Develops and trains subordinates in their current jobs

3 = Cares for subordinates wellbeing and personal problems

4 = Gives honest and regular feedback on subordinate's job performance

5 = Gives credit where and when it is due

6 = Helps with subordirate's career planning

7 = Responds to subordinate's work problems positively and timeously

8 = Involves subordinates in problem solving and decision making

9 = Keeps promises he/she has made

10 = Gives subordinates the freedom to act independently

11 = Trust/believes in his/her subordinates

12 = Leads by example

13 = Communicates constructively and effectively

An examination of Figure 4.5 reveals the following Job Grade by Site (Columns) clusters:

* Cluster C1 = 1A, 3A
* Cluster C2 = 2A/1, 2A/2
* Cluster C3 = 1B, 2C, 2B, 3B
* Cluster C4 = 1D, 2D, 1C, 3C, 3D

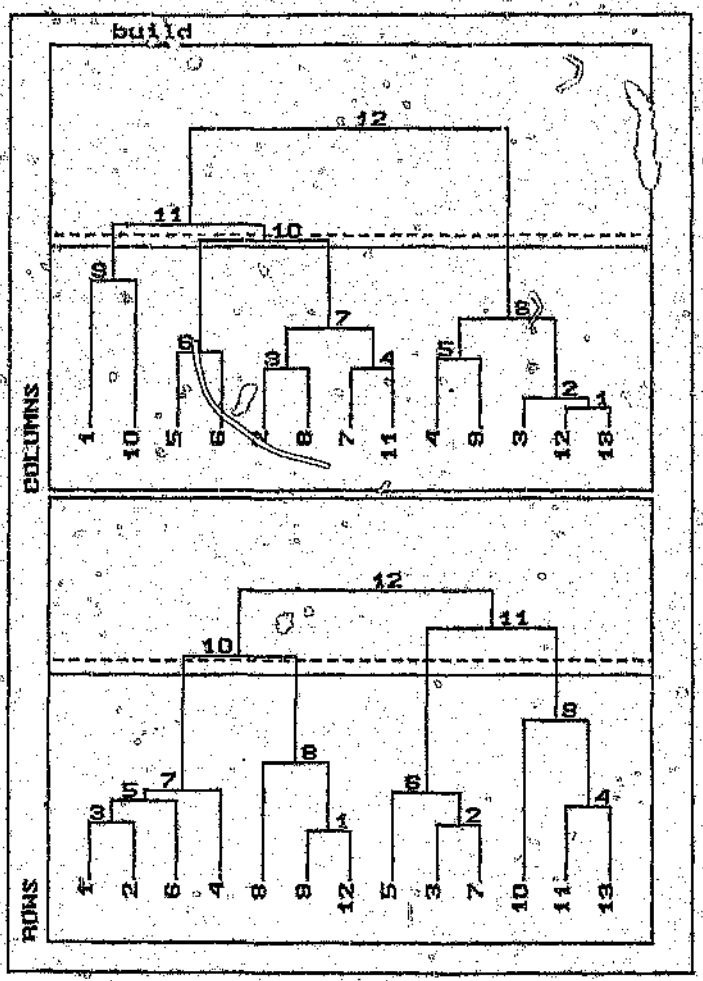


Figure 4.5

The Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Build Subordinate Trust : Chi-square Trees

The resulting clusters were characterised by Job Grade level, viz. Cluster 1 was made up of two lower job grade level groups, Group A (payroll), Cluster 2 was also made up of two lower job grade level groups, Cluster 3 was made up of middle job grade level groups, and Cluster 4 was made up of senior job grade level Groups. It is also interesting to note that the groups in Cluster 2 were both from the same site and were also the two least homogene[illegible] groups (as discussed in chapter three).

Figure 4.5 also reveals the following Behaviour Construct (rows) clusters:

* Cluster R1 = Behaviours 1, 2, 4, 6
* Cluster R2 = Behaviours 8, 9, 12
* Cluster R3 = Behaviours 3, 5, 7
* Cluster R4 = Behaviours 10, 11, 13

The significance of these clusterings is dealt with in chapter five.

4.2.6 Correspondence Analysis

Whilst the Chi-squared Tree Analysis created clusters out of the variables: Behaviours and Job Grade Group by Site, Correspondence Analysis (Bendixen, 1991) took the Chi-squared Tree clusters and determined associations and relationships between the two clusters. This was achieved by plotting the columns

and the rows on the top map and the bottom map, respectively. The respective clusters were then circled. The relative positions of the clusters on each of the two maps indicated which clusters were associated, see Figure 4.6.

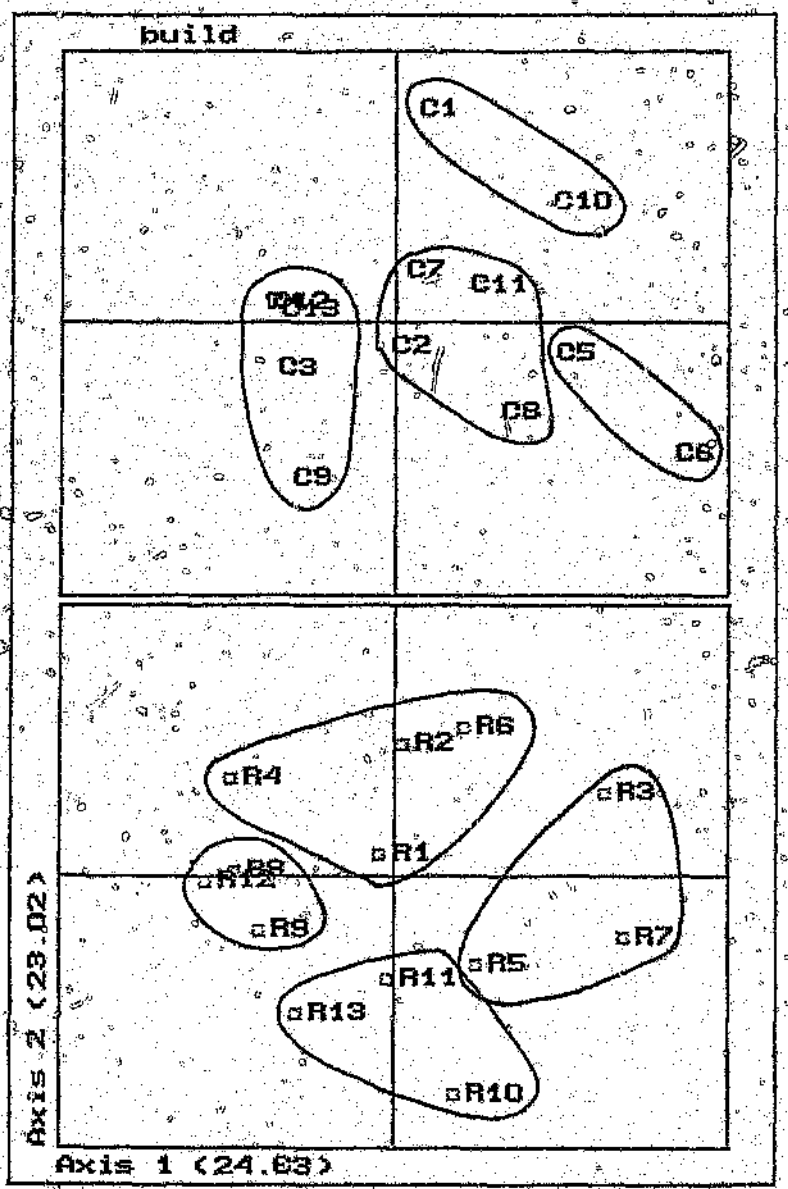


Figure 4.6

The Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Build Subordinate Trust : Correspondence Analysis

From Figure 4.6 the following cluster associations were apparent:

* Cluster C1 with Cluster R1
* Cluster C2 with Cluster R3
* Cluster C3 with Cluster R4
* Cluster C4 with Cluster R2

Figure 4.7 graphically illustrates the above cluster associations. The associations and interpretations thereof are discussed in chapter five.

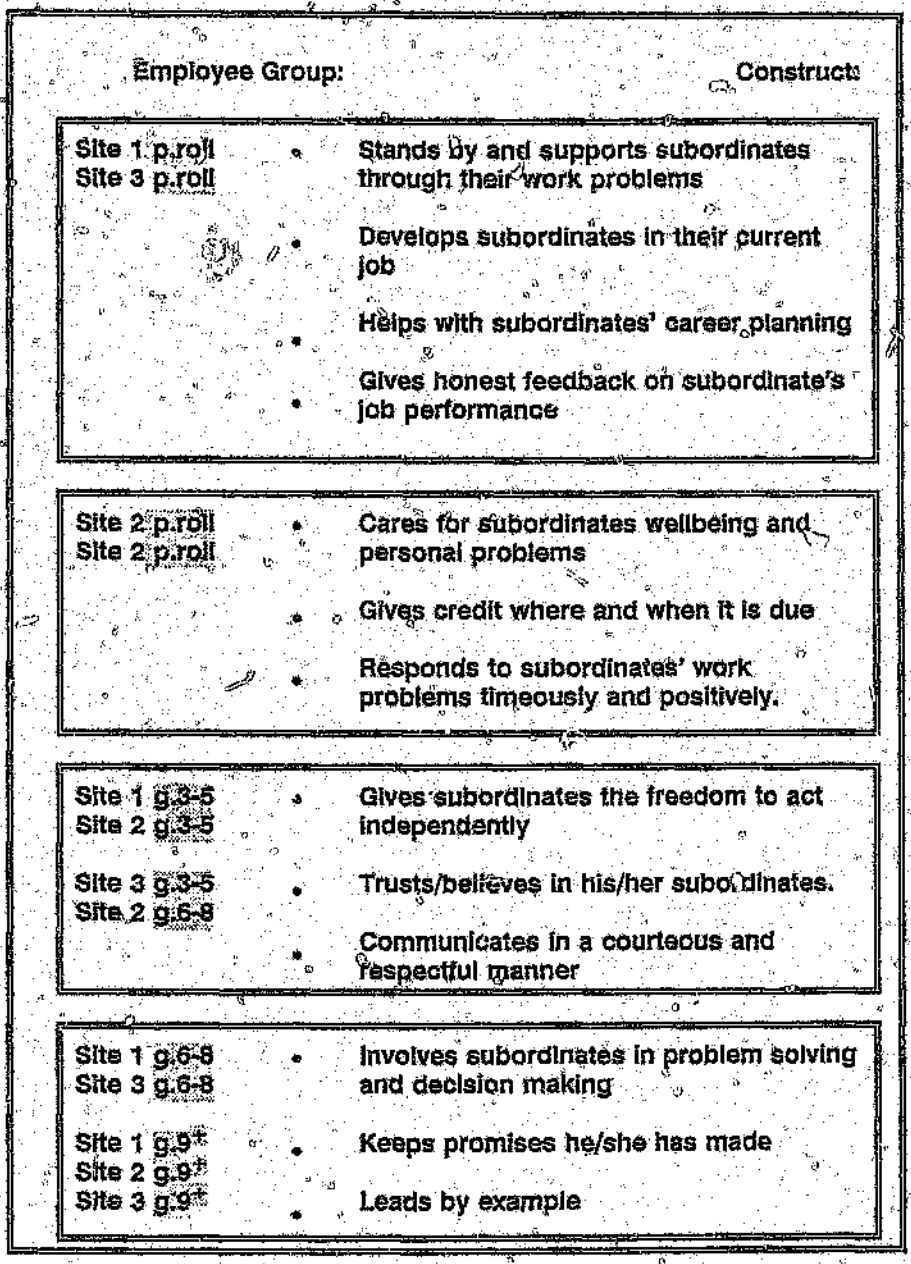


Figure 4.7

MANAGER BEHAVIOURS THAT BUILD SUBORDINATE TRUST : CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSIS. Sept. 1992

Correspondence Analysis is a discriminating technique, ie. it enables the researcher to determine which variables best discriminate managers' trustworthiness.

The axes of the Correspondence Analysis map (Figure 4.6) were interpreted by the researcher as follows: the horizontal axis of the bottom 'rows' (managerial behaviours) plot is characterised by 'the managers' response to subordinate's needs'. The vertical axis of the 'rows' (managerial behaviours) is characterised by 'the subordinate's development in response to the manager's behaviours'. Thus, if graphically illustrated on a continuum the axes are construed as in Figure 4.8.

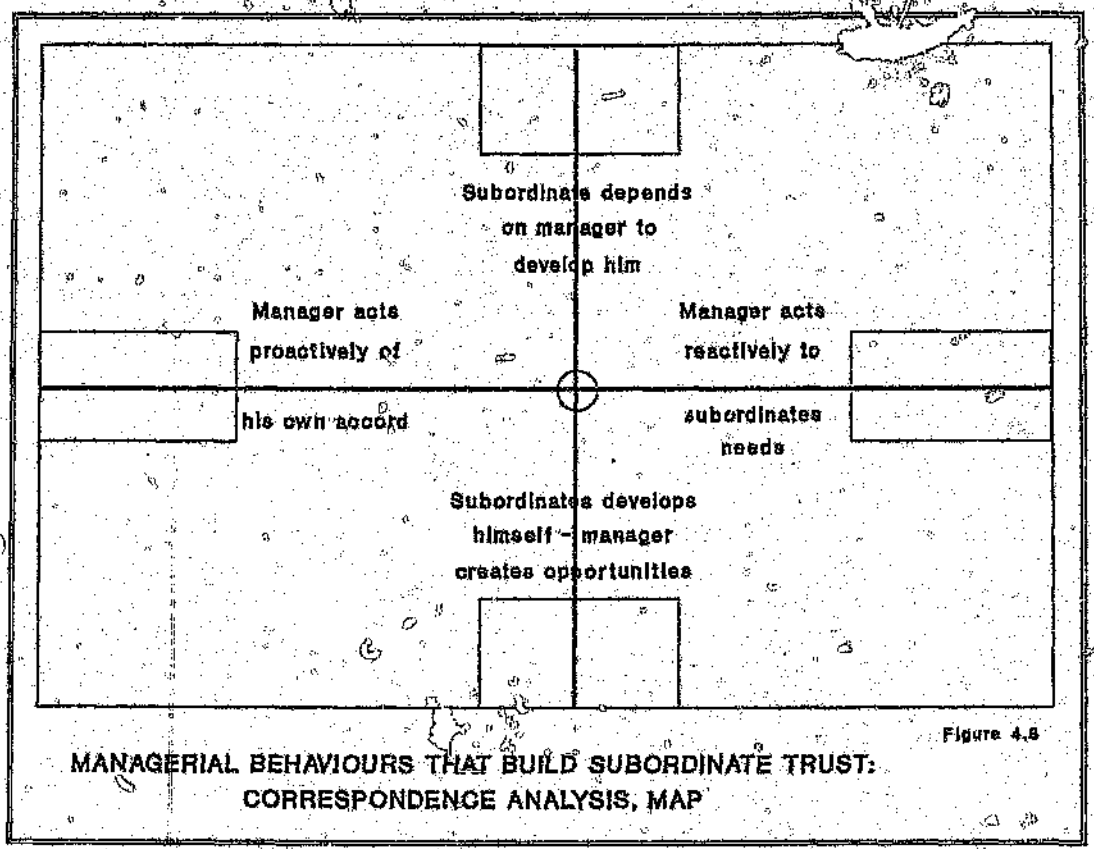


Figure 4.8

MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOURS THAT BUILD SUBORDINATE TRUST: CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSIS, MAP

4.3 THE MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOURS AND ATTITUDES THAT DESTROY SUBORDINATE TRUST

Exactly the same approach that was applied to the section on manager behaviours and attitudes that build subordinate trust was applied to the section on manager behaviours and attitudes that destroy trust.

4.3.1 The Complete Set of Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Destroy Subordinate Trust in Ranked Order : TOTAL GROUP

The scores for all the behaviours are represented in percentage form. The percentage score for each behaviour illustrates the percentage of respondents who believed that that particular behaviour was one of the ten managerial behaviours and attitudes most likely to destroy subordinate trust.

The overall set of behaviours that destroy subordinate trust have been graphically presented in thermometer form (See Figure 4.12). Thus, the difference between each rank position was made graphically apparent. To illustrate: the difference between rank 1 and 2 is 5.6%, and the difference between rank 2 and 3 is even larger, at 10.1%. Whereas, there is no difference between rank 6 and 7.

4.3.2 The Critical Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Destroy Subordinate Trust : OVERALL

Figure 4.13 is a summarised version of Figure 4.12. It illustrates only the set of behaviours and attitudes most likely to destroy subordinate trust, ie the most critical behaviours.

A cut off point has been established at 31.5% and above as there is a significant gap between 31.5% and the next score, 28,1%. Thus, the first nine behaviours constitute the managerial behaviours most likely to destroy subordinate trust. This group of behaviours has been labelled the "critical behaviours" (see Figure 4.13).

Each of the most critical behaviours and attitudes that destroy subordinate trust have been broken down by Job Grade Group and by Site. The break-down for each critical behaviour has been graphically illustrated by means of a bar chart. This has been done to ensure that the differences between the groups is made more visually apparent (Emory and Cooper, 1991). (See Appendices A10 and A11).



53.9 Does not keep promises he/she has made to subordinates.

48.3 Takes the credit for subordinates work for him/herself.

38.2 Is autocratic (instructs and does not ask for opinions).

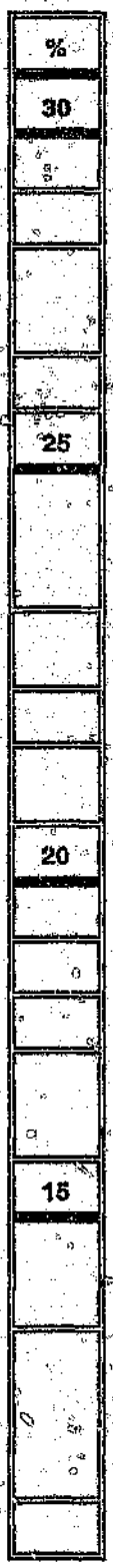
36.0 Is inconsistent (in planning, decisions, discipline and moods).

32.6 Tells lies.

31.5 Is not a good example.
Is a hypocrite (two-faced).
Does not keep confidences.
Does not care for subordinates wellbeing and personal problems.

Figure 4.12

MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOURS AND ATTITUDES THAT *DESTROY* SUBORDINATE TRUST: OVERALL IN RANKED ORDER ("Most likely to" to "Less likely to").



28.1 Has favourites (does not treat everyone equally).

27.0 Listens to others' views on his/her subordinates before or without asking that subordinate first.
Discriminates (basis of race, sex, age, religion)

25.8 Only sees the mistakes and wrongdoings.

24.7 Does not treat employees in a courteous, respectful and humane manner.
Is not honest and open (is underhand).
Does not accept criticism or take blame for his/her mistakes.

23.6 Does not give credit where and when it is due.
Does not support/stand by his/her subordinates.

21.3 Does not discuss job performance and increments with subordinates.
Does not reward, promote and remunerate on merit.

16.9 Is unapproachable and not open for discussions.
Sets unrealistic work targets for and on behalf of their subordinates.
Is always "right" (never listens to or considers other opinions).

15.7 Undermines or humiliates his/her subordinates.

14.6 Is irresponsible - "passes the buck".
Does not train subordinates or help them with their careers.
Does not monitor or rectify the job grading system application in his/her dept.

13.5 Does not provide the equipment, training and time to do the job properly - yet still expects good results.
Does not trust/have confidence in his/her subordinates.
Does not pass on positive and important information about his/her subordinates to superiors.

Figure 4.12 (Contd)

%		
	12.4	Is incompetent (lacks managerial and technical skills). Withholds company information required by subordinates. "Pulls rank" - uses his/her, or other managers, position to manipulate or block subordinates.
10	10.1	Abuses his/her position to break company policy and rules (is unethical). Insists that subordinates tell him/her of their confidential/private affairs. Gossips about his/her subordinates - not loyal to his/her dept
	9.0	Does not know/not interested in what happens in the departments of his/her subordinate managers. Threatens subordinates with job loss when they make a mistake. Feels threatened by his/her subordinates (especially next in line).
	7.9	Does not give subordinates feedback on what they have done for him/her. Belittles/reprimands subordinates in public. Stereotypes people's behaviour and motivations.
	6.7	Lacks personal vision and direction (indecisive).
5	5.6	Does not plan or prepare properly for his/her dept. Vague/non-specific about objectives.
	4.5	No moral integrity. His/her body language (i.e. does not look at people "in the eye"). Discourages teamwork. Upgrades subordinates but fails to adjust salary accordingly. Refuses to lend money to subordinates. Makes subordinates feel worthless and inferior. Does not value/respect subordinate's profession. Does not care about his/her department's safety and comfort. Scared of his/her boss -(changes his/her views to suit the boss).
	3.4	Views subordinates as a cost centre - not as people. Expects subordinates to do a different job than the one they were hired to do. New managers who are too quick to throw out old ideas before investigating the merit or reasons for the old ways. Attempts to get a subordinate unjustly fired. Encourages conflict within his/her department.
1		

Figure 4.12 (Contd)

% *	
53.9	Does not keep promises
48.3	Takes credit for subordinates work for him/herself.
38.2	Is autocratic (instructs and does not ask for opinions)
36.0	Is inconsistent (in planning, decisions, discipline and moods)
32.6	Tells lies
31.5	Is not a good example
31.5	Is a hypocrite (two-faced)
31.5	Does not keep confidences
31.5	Does not care for subordinates wellbeing and personal problems

**Percentage of respondents who believed that the statement was one of the 10 most important statements*

Figure 4.13

THE MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOURS AND ATTITUDES THAT *DESTROY* SUBORDINATE TRUST.

OVERALL: (30% and above in ranked order).

4.3.3 The Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Destroy Subordinate Trust : BY JOB GRADE

Some behaviours and attitudes were only expressed by certain job grade groups, or certain sites, and not by the other groups. These behaviours obviously rendered a low overall score. Therefore, whilst the overall set of critical behaviours that destroy subordinate trust render a valuable and general guideline, behaviours that pertain only to certain job grades, or sites, are equally as important.

Figure 4.14 thus represents the managerial behaviours and attitudes that destroy trust broken down by job grade group. Those behaviours which are not included in the critical overall behaviour set have been marked with an asterisk, viz. these behaviours are particular to that group.

The behaviours are presented in percentage ranked form. The behaviours are illustrated in table form wherein each column represents a job grade group. For the cut-off point was discussed in section 4.3.2.

This table highlights the managerial behaviours and attitudes that are most likely to destroy subordinate trust at a specified job grade group.

BY JOB GRADE GROUP							
%	GRADES A - H (n = 27)	%	GRADES 3 - 5 (n = 25)	%	GRADES 6 - 8 (n = 19)	%	GRADES 9+ (n = 18)
74.1	Discriminates (race, sex, age, religion)	72.0	Does not keep promises he/she has made to subordinates.	73.7	Is a hypocrite -(two-faced)	72.2	Not a good example
66.7	Does not keep promises he/she has made to subordinates.	52.0	Takes credit for subordinate's work for him/herself	63.2	Tells lies	61.1	Takes credit for subordinate's work for him/herself)
59.3	Autocratic - instructs (does not ask for opinions).	52.0	Does not keep confidences	47.4	Has favourites - does not treat people equally	55.6	Does not reward, remunerate or promote on merit.
59.3	Does not care for subordinates wellbeing and personal problems.	48.0	Only sees mistakes and wrong doings.	42.1	Reprimands/belittles subordinates in public.	50.0	Is inconsistent (planning, decisions, discipline and moods).
44.4	Takes credit for subordinates work for him/herself.	44.0	Does not accept criticism or take the blame	36.8	Does not discuss job performance or increments with subordinates	50.0	Does not support/stand by subordinates.
37.0	Is inconsistent (planning, decisions, discipline and moods)	40.0	Is inconsistent (planning, decisions, discipline and moods)	36.8	Takes credit for subordinates work for him/herself.	50.0	Abusing his/her position to break company policy (unethical).
37.0	Is always right - (never listens to other opinions)	40.0	Tells lies.	36.8	Is autocratic - (instructs and does not ask for opinions).	38.9	Does not keep promises he/she has made to subordinates.

Figure 4.14

THE MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOURS AND ATTITUDES THAT DESTROY SUBORDINATE TRUST: BY JOB GRADE GROUPS.
30% and above in ranked order

BY JOB GRADE GROUP							
%	GRADES A - H	%	GRADES 3 - 5	%	GRADES 6 - 8	%	GRADES 9+
33.3	Setting unrealistic work targets on behalf of subordinates.	36.0	Listens to other people's opinion about their subordinates without or before asking those subordinates.	31.6	Does not treat employees in a courteous, respectful and humane manner.	38.9	"Passes the buck".
33.3	Does not reward, remunerate or promote on merit.	36.0	Does not treat employees in a courteous, respectful and humane manner	31.6	Is incompetent - (lacks managerial and technical skill).	33.3	Undermines and humiliates his/her subordinates
		32.0	Has favourites (does not treat people equally).	31.6	Does not support/stand by his/her subordinates	33.3	Only sees mistakes and wrongdoing.
		32.0	Threatened by subordinates (next in line)				August 1992

Figure 4.14 (Contd)

THE MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOURS AND ATTITUDES THAT DESTROY SUBORDINATE TRUST : BY JOB GRADE GROUPS (CONTD)

30% and above in ranked order.

%	SITE 1 (n = 33)	%	SITE 2 (n = 32)	%	SITE 3 (n = 24)
51.5	Tells lies	62.5	Takes credit for subordinates work for him/herself.	66.7	Does not keep promises.
51.5	Does not discuss job performance or increments with subordinates.	56.3	Listens to others view on his/her subordinates before or without asking that subordinate first.	66.7	Discriminates (on basis of race, sex, age and religion).
48.5	Does not keep promises	53.1	Does not keep confidences.	54.2	Does not give credit where and when it is due.
45.5	Is autocratic - (instructs, does not ask opinions)	46.9	Is not open and honest (underhand)	54.2	Is a hypocrite (two-faced)
33.3	Is not a good example	43.8	Does not keep promises.	54.2	Takes credit for subordinates work for him/herself.
33.3	Does not care for subordinates personal problems and wellbeing.	40.6	Is inconsistent (decisions, discipline and planning)	54.2	Is inconsistent (decisions, discipline and planning)
33.3	Has favourites (does not treat people equally)	37.5	Is autocratic (instructs)	41.7	Does not care for subordinates personal problems and wellbeing
30.3	Only looks at mistakes and wrongdoing.	37.5	Is not respectful or courteous to employees.	41.7	Has favourites (does not treat people equally)
		37.5	Does not accept criticism or take blame for his/her mistakes.	33.3	Does not keep confidences.
		37.5	Does not reward, promote or remunerate on merit.		
		34.4	Is not a good example to subordinates.		

August 1992

Figure 4.15

THE MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOURS AND ATTITUDES THAT DESTROY SUBORDINATE TRUST : BY SITE

30% and above in ranked order.

4.3.4 The Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Destroy Subordinate Trust : BY SITE

The same approach as described in section 4.3.3 above was applied to the break down of behaviours that destroy trust, by site. The results are shown in Figure 4.15.

4.3.5 Chi-Squared Trees Analysis

In order to establish if the two variables, Job Grade Group and Site, showed significant similarities Chi-Squared Trees Analysis (in a personal interview with Bendixen, 1992) was used. Figure 4.16 represents the graphical output of the Chi-squared Trees Analysis to which the data was subjected. The dotted lines and the slashed lines across the middle of the figures represent the 90% and the 99% confidence levels, respectively. The variables that were used were: Job Grade Groups by Site (columns), and Managerial Behaviours (rows).

The legend for the coded columns and rows of the contingency tables were (the Job Grade Group codes were discussed in Chapter Three:

*Column Code=		Job Grade
1	=	1A
2	=	1B
3	=	1C

4	=	1D
5	=	2A/1
6	=	2A/2
7	=	2B
8	=	2C
9	=	2D
10	=	3A
11	=	3B
12	=	3C
13	=	3D

*Row Code	=	Behaviour Statement
1	=	Does not keep promises he/she has made
2	=	Takes the credit for subordinate's work for him/herself
3	=	Is autocratic - instructs and does not ask for opinions
4	=	Is inconsistent
5	=	Tells lies
6	=	Is not a good example
7	=	Is a hypocrite
8	=	Does not keep confidences
9	=	Does not [illegible] for subordinate's wellbeing and personal problems
10	=	Has favourites
11	=	Listens to others' views on his/her subordinates before, or without, asking them personally

12 = Discriminates on the basis of race, sex, age or religion

13 = Only sees the mistakes and wrongdoing

An examination of Figure 4.16 reveals the following Job Grade by Site (columns) clusters:

* Cluster C1 = 1A, 3A, 3D
* Cluster C2 = 1B, 1C, 3C
* Cluster C3 = 1D, 2A/2, 2B, 2C, 2A/1, 3B, 2D

The resulting Chi-squared Tree clusters were characterised by site, viz Cluster C3 was made up of all four Site 2 groups, Cluster C1 was made up of two Site 3 groups and Cluster C2 was made up of two Site 2 groups. This clustering, however, was not as strong as the clustering of evidenced in the trust building behaviours Chi-squared Tree Analysis.

Figure 4.16 also reveals the following Managerial Behaviour (rows) clusters:

* Cluster R1 = Behaviours 6, 5, 10, 13
* Cluster R2 = Behaviours 3, 1, 9, 12
* Cluster R3 = Behaviours 4, 7, 2, 11, 8

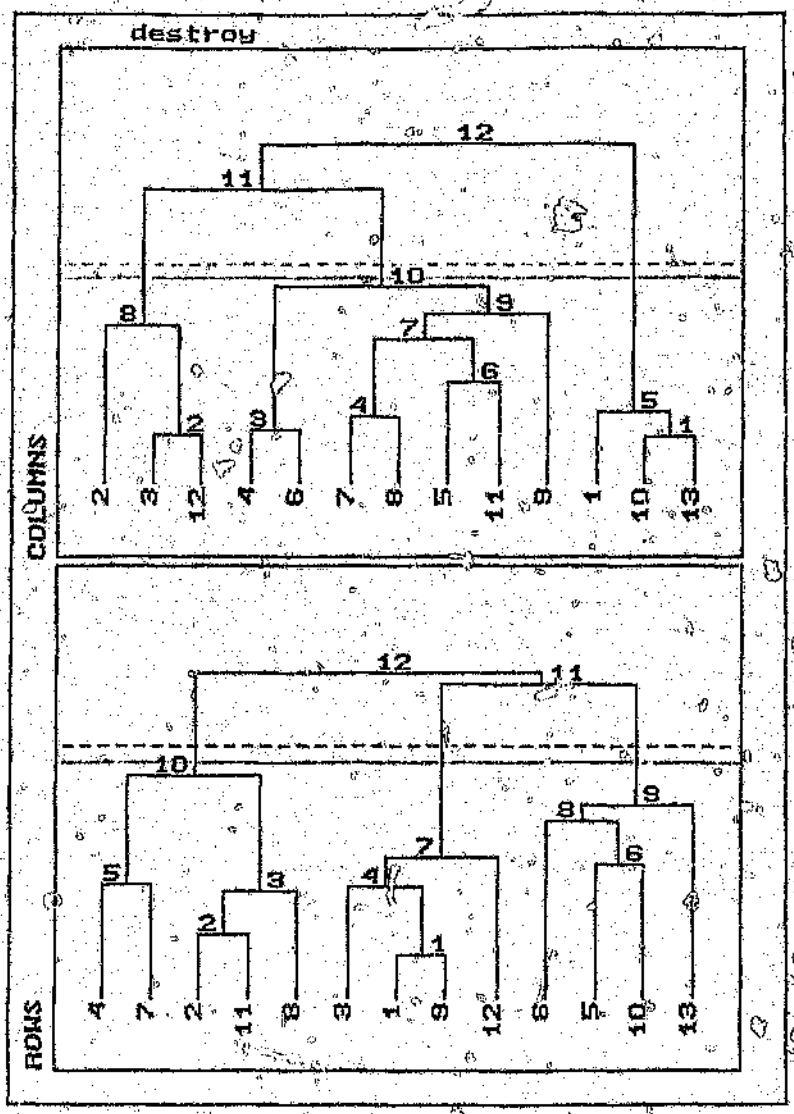


Figure 4.36

The Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Destroy Subordinate Trust : Chi-square Trees

4.3.6 Correspondence Analysis

Whilst the Chi-squared Tree Analysis created clusters out of the variables, Managerial Behaviours and Job Grade by Site, Correspondence Analysis took the Chi-Squared Tree clusters and determined associations and relationships between the clusters. This was achieved by plotting the columns and the rows on the top and bottom maps, respectively. The clusters were then circled on each of the maps. The relative positions of the circled clusters on each of the two maps indicated which clusters were associated.

From Figure 4.17 the following cluster associations were apparent:

* Cluster C1 with Cluster R2
* Cluster C2 with Cluster R1
* Cluster C3 with Cluster R3

Figure 4.18 graphically illustrates the above cluster associations. The associations and interpretations thereof are discussed in chapter five.

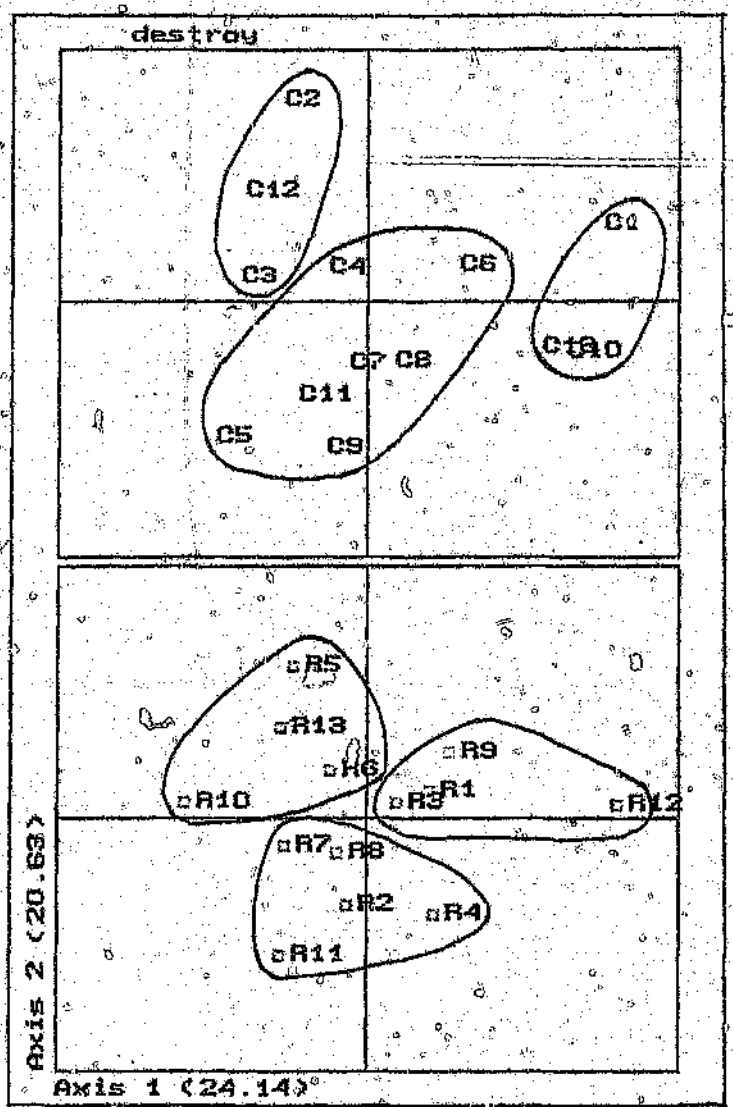


Figure 4.17

The Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Destroy Subordinate Trust : Correspondence Analysis

Employee Group:		Construct:
Site 1 p.roll Site 3 p.roll Site 3 g.9+	•	Is autocratic - instructs and does not ask for opinions
	•	Does not keep promises
	•	Does not care for subordinates wellbeing and personal problems
	•	Discriminates on the basis of race, sex, age and religion
Site 1 g.3-5 Site 1 g.6-8 Site 3 g.6-8	•	Is not a good example
	•	Tells lies
	•	Has favourites - does not treat everyone equally
	•	Only sees the mistakes and wrong doings
Site 1 g.9+	•	Is inconsistent (in planning, decisions and discipline
Site 2 p.roll Site 2 p.roll Site 2 g.3-5 Site 2 g.6-8 Site 2 g.9+	•	Is a hypocrite (two-faced)
	•	Takes credit for subordinates work for him/herself.
	•	Listens to others views on his/her subordinates before, or without, asking them directly.
Site 3 g.3-5	•	Does not keep confidences.

Figure 4.18

THE MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOURS THAT DESTROY SUBORDINATE TRUST : CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSIS. Sept. 1992

The axes of the Correspondence Analysis map (Figure 4.17) were interpreted by the researcher as follows:

The horizontal axis of the bottom 'rows' (managerial behaviours) is characterised by 'manager's behaviours with regards to goals'. The vertical axis of the 'rows' (managerial behaviours) map is characterised by 'views that are of the most concern to the manager'. Figure 4.19 graphically illustrates the axes.

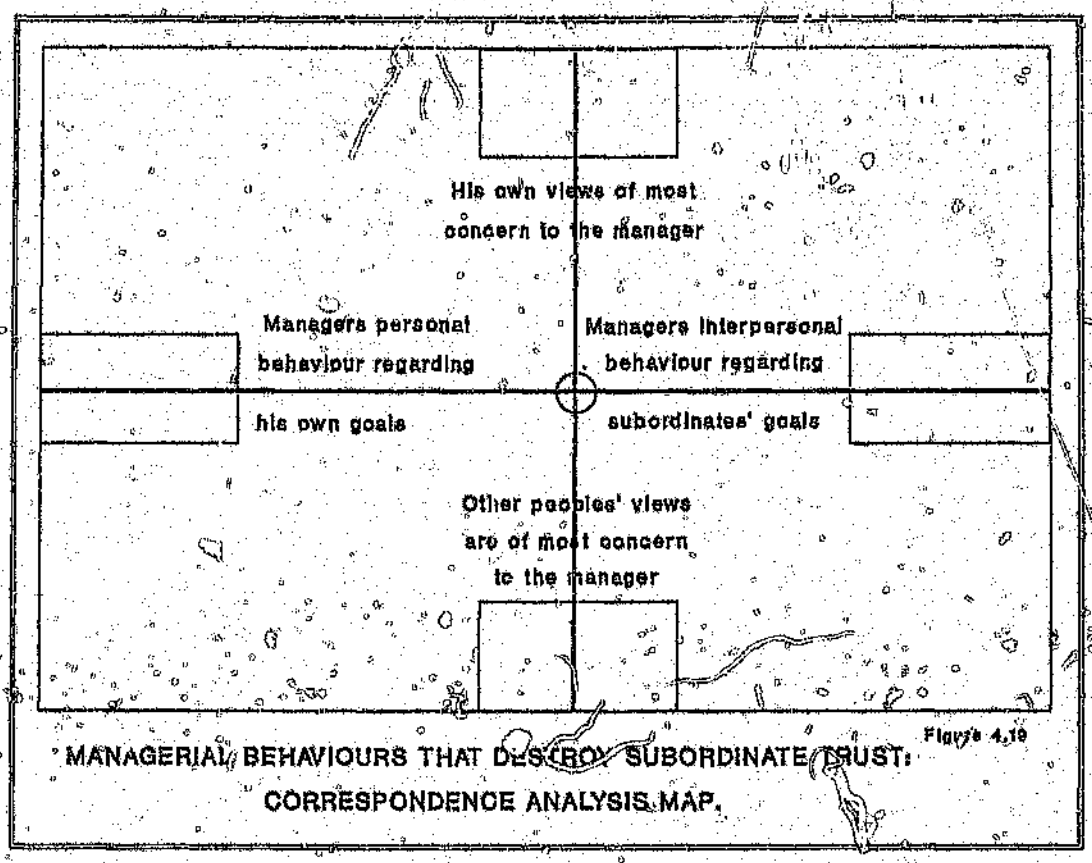


Figure 4.19

MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOURS THAT DESTROY SUBORDINATE TRUST: CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSIS MAP.

The findings are discussed in greater detail in Chapter Five.

CHAPTER FIVE : DISCUSSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The first part of the discussion is handled in two broad categories:

* Behaviours that Build Subordinate Trust
* Behaviours that Destroy Subordinate Trust

Only the critical behaviours in each of these categories are discussed. Under each critical behaviour the following sub-issues are discussed:

- Correlation of research results with the literature reviewed and previous research
- Comment on the critical behaviours
- Differences of findings between Job Grade Groups.
- Differences of findings between Sites, where pertinent
- The impact of the South African scenario on the results, where pertinent

The second part of the discussion deals with associations and relationships between behaviours, job grade groups and sites. The results of the Chi-squared Tree Analysis and the Correspondence Analysis are discussed.

The third part of the discussion integrates the two categories, behaviours that build and behaviours that destroy trust. The findings lead the discussion into

several pertinent issues pertaining to both categories. These are as follows:

* The Trust Building Model
* The Dependence/Interdependence Paradox of Trust
* The Parallel between Trust and Motivation
* The Non-Polarisation of Trust and Mistrust Model
* The Reciprocity of Trust
* Implications for South African organisations

5.2 MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOURS THAT BUILD TRUST

It should be noted that when the Group A (shopfloor) respondents at Sites 1 and 3 did this exercise a number of them stated that they could not answer the question as they did not trust their managers at all. This is a sad reflection on the South African workplace where black workers deeply mistrust and suspect the intentions of management (Fuhr, 1991).

It is of interest that there is not a strong congruence between the set of critical managerial behaviours that build subordinate trust, as reported in the literature review (see Figure 2.4) and the set produced by the research (see Figure 4.2). The four behaviours that do correspond are:

- Caring for subordinates wellbeing and personal problems (empathy)
- Keeping promises
- Trusting and believing in subordinates

- Involving subordinates in problem solving and decision making

The behaviours from the research findings that are not made mention of in the literature review are:

- Stands by and supports subordinates through their work problems
- Develops subordinates in their current jobs
- Gives credit where and when it is due
- Helps subordinates with career planning
- Responds to subordinates work problems positively and timeously
- Gives subordinates the freedom to act independently
- Leads by example

The reviewed literature places emphasis on the skills side of effective communication, ie. two-way communication, listening, etc. Whereas, the research results place emphasis on the silent and less apparent side of communication, viz. the way, or manner, in which managers speak to their subordinates and the silent messages that the manner of communication conveys to subordinates.

Most of the behaviours referred to in the literature review are those which managers could activate proactively in response to their own value system, or level of integrity, ie. being honest, reliable, consistent, and fair. Whereas, many of the behaviours rising out of the research

are ones that managers would undertake in response to subordinates' needs, ie. help with career planning, in response to subordinates' desire to advance their careers, giving credit, in response to subordinates' need for recognition of a job well done.

The reason for this phenomenon may be that the views expressed in the literature were mainly by people who were either managers themselves, or who consult to managers, and they had thus given the managerial perspective. Whereas, the research specifically aimed to ask the "experts" on this topic, namely the subordinates (Kouzes and Posner, 1990). The respondents were asked to approach the topic from the subordinates' perspective.

This notion tends to be supported by the findings at Job Grade Group D. All the respondents of this job grade group were middle to senior managers. Their perceptions would thus typically be similar to those expressed by the managers in the literature review. Figure 4.3 reveals that this job grade group included more of the behaviours that were mentioned in the literature review, viz. being consistent and being fair. Being visible, available, interested in and knowing what subordinates are doing is closely related to having the knowledge and skills (competence) as identified in Figure 2.4. Delegating responsibility and giving the necessary authority also relates to having self esteem (in Figure 2.4) in that

managers with confidence and high self esteem are very comfortable with delegating responsibility and authority (Sinetar, 1988).

The results of Job Grade Group A revealed that only two behaviours listed in Figure 4.3 were congruent with those listed in the literature review (Figure 2.4), viz. caring for subordinates' wellbeing and personal problems, and giving the company related information that employees require. Similarly, the results for Job Grade Group B also showed that only three behaviours coincided with the literature review.

Thus, by using subordinates as the sample the research results may have been more closely aligned with the true perceptions of subordinates. Subordinates cannot be forced to trust managers. Their trust will be extended only to managers who have proved themselves to be trustworthy (Covey, 1992). Hence, the research has shown that it is more appropriate to elicit the views of subordinates, rather than managers, on this topic.

5.3 COMMENTS ON THE CRITICAL BEHAVIOURS THAT BUILD SUBORDINATE TRUST

Each of the critical behaviours is dealt with separately in the order of ranking.

5.3.1 Stands by and Supports Subordinates Through their Work Problems

Only one author, Maddux (1988) regarded this behaviour as being critical to the building of subordinate trust. Chartier (1992, p. 7) claimed that "It is easy to trust a supportive person. A supportive attitude among people contributes to a trustworthy climate in which effective interpersonal relationships are possible".

The breakdown of this behaviour by job grade (see graph no.1 of appendix A10) shows that it is most strongly expressed by subordinates in Group B and Group C (62,5% and 63,2%, respectively). The reason for this may be that shopfloor subordinates enjoy the support and group power of their unions (Douwes Dekker, 1990). At the higher echelons of the organisational hierarchy, senior subordinates (Group D) are closer to where the decisions are made, and are sometimes called upon to participate in the decision making. Ultimately they are also closer to where the power in the organisation resides, viz. with the most senior executives (Robbins, 1989). Job Grade Groups A and D may have had a lesser need to be supported by their managers than did the middle subordinate levels (Groups B and C). Thus, managers who did stand by and give support to the middle level subordinates were more appreciated, and consequently, more trusted.

Supporting managers will seek to encourage and reassure their subordinates. In order to stand by their subordinates, as well as support them, managers would need to understand the goals and agendas of their subordinates (Chartier, 1992). To be able to genuinely stand by subordinates' views and aspirations managers must also genuinely care for their subordinates. This act also implies that managers may have to put their own desires and views to the side in order to give genuine support. Managers may also require the necessary authority and power to be able to support their subordinates (Robbins, 1989).

If power and authority are indeed prerequisites to enabling managers to support and stand by their subordinates, the question must be posed as to how effective supervisors in South Africa are in this regard. Schuitema (1991) claims that South African supervisors are emasculated on a large scale as they are not considered to be capable of dealing with most of their subordinates' problems. As a result supervisors are not entrusted with "decisions that will make the difference for his people" (Schuitema, 1991, p. 20). It is therefore probable that many supervisors lose their subordinates' trust as they are unable to give the support that is expected of them.

5.3.2 Communicates in a Courteous, Respectful and Humane Manner

Again, this behaviour was not emphasised by the reviewed literature, although both Covey (1989) and Sinetal (1988) alluded to it. Covey (1989, p. 193) asserted that people are very sensitive, and that even the smallest discourtesy, unkindness or disrespect shown to people become very negative issues in a relationship. He wrote about the "little acts of kindness - a momentary sharing of love..." that are so valued by people.

The research findings revealed that Group A overwhelmingly believed that communicating in a courteous, respectful and humane manner significantly (63%) contributed towards their trust for managers (see graph no. 2 of appendix A10). The researcher has no explanation for the considerably lower value given to this behaviour by Site 3 (see graph no. 2 of Appendix A11).

Respondents from the Group A workshops strongly felt that the lack of courtesy and respect extended by their managers found its base in the historic separation of whites from all other races. They expressed the belief that, whilst 'baaskaap' attitudes still existed in some areas, many managers, especially White and Asian, were often unaware that they were

perceived as being discourteous or disrespectful. As an example, some respondents stated that when the managers failed to greet them they feared that the managers were displeased with them, or that they had erred. The act of greeting all people, even strangers, is regarded as a valued courtesy and sign of respect in the black culture. Respondents claimed that they felt offended when managers failed to greet them. Other respondents felt that the inherent inability of white managers to remember, or correctly pronounce, their surnames was also an act of disrespect.

The respondents from Grades B, C and D also placed a strong emphasis on the desire for managers to be courteous and respectful (44%, 52,6% and 44,4%, respectively). At the minimum respondents expected their managers to greet them. This phenomenon, however, may have been influenced by the organisational culture of the researched company. Respondents tended to speak about 'The managers in this company never greet people' (refer Appendix A9).

Sinetar (1988) proposed that trusted managers speak in a quiet, even and genuine tone of voice. They seldom raise their voices and do not lose their tempers or talk angrily with subordinates. They 'pay attention' to other people as human beings.

Chartier (1992, p. 7) asserted that "situations in which people are convinced that others respect them for who they are and what they have to contribute are conducive to trust". Verbal abuse results in subordinate fear, which overwhelms the bonds of trust and impedes effective interpersonal relationships (Chartier, 1992).

Mishra and Morrissey (1990) asserted that there is a reciprocal relationship between trust and communication. Through communication the basis for trust is established, and conversely, in the absence of trust, communication breakdown occurs.

The research findings indicated that the manner in which managers communicate impacted on the building of subordinate trust more than did skilful and effective communication. "Communication, after all, is not so much a matter of intellect as it is of trust and acceptance of others, of their ideas and feelings, acceptance of the fact that they're different and that from their point of view they are right" (Covey, 1992, p. 117).

It would thus seem important that communication training programmes place as much emphasis, if not more, on the manner and unspoken inferences of communication. However, it would appear that South

African managers need to learn to understand, and become sensitive to, different culture rituals, as well as the affect of subtle stereotyping, racism and perceived superiority (Manning, 1988). South African managers need to break with traditional ways of thinking and move into new paradigms (Manning, 1988) before they can be genuinely courteous and respectful to subordinates of all races. In this regard, Oscar Wilde (in Manning, 1988, p. 177) said "Most of us think we are thinking, when really all we're doing is rearranging our prejudices".

5.3.3 Develops Subordinates (In Their Current Jobs)

This behaviour was not written about by any of the authors reviewed. The strongest expectation of this behaviour was expressed by Job Grade Group A (48.9%) respondents. Job Grade Group D had the lowest desire for this behaviour (33.3%). (See graph no. 3 in appendix AI0). In some aspects this result correlates with the results of the survey undertaken in the target company two years ago, in that employees' desire to be developed was also strongly expressed (Franks and Vink, 1990).

Modern leadership theory places emphasis on developing subordinates (Fiedler, 1976 and Blake and Mouton, 1980). However, managers, or trainers, can only develop people if they genuinely and truly care about

them, as well as genuinely desire for the trainees to improve themselves (Rogers, 1970).

Educators need to be able to trust that the trainees will work satisfactorily without constant supervision (Rogers, 1970). Conversely, the trainees also need to trust their teacher's competency as well as their genuine desire to teach their students (Rogers, 1970). Thus, the development of trust through developing people has a reciprocal aspect to it - trust is needed to properly develop people, and when development occurs trust is further built.

Developing subordinates also includes coaching, mentoring and counselling. Hunt (1991) claimed that mentoring is based on trust, and that trust is essential to one-on-one relationships, especially where a junior member learns from the wisdom and skills, and relies on the support, of senior people. Coaching also requires trust as a fundamental value. Managers, or coaches, need to be unconditionally supportive to subordinates in training. Managers need to create an environment wherein subordinates are empowered to grow, develop and produce results (Charoux, 1990).

Subordinates depend on managers to familiarise themselves with the development resources necessary to

be better at their jobs, and often only managers can make those resources available (Hunt, 1991). Subordinates thus, depend on their managers to clear obstacles to development, and to create an environment wherein subordinates can develop. This managerial approach was evidenced in Fiedler's Path-Goal Model (Robbins, 1989). Hence, there is an element of subordinate dependency upon the manager in this critical trust building behaviour.

Perhaps, in the final analysis, the reason why the managerial function of developing subordinates plays such a strong role in the building of subordinate trust is found in Hunt's (1991, p. 30) claim that "the key to teaching (subordinates) is good communication, and trust is built by helping subordinates in their career and life development".

5.3.4 Cares for Subordinates' Well-being and Personal Problems

This behaviour was frequently described in the literature review as 'empathy'. Covey (1989, p. 241) postulated that empathy was the "key to building trust". Almost all of the authors spoke about the need for managers to have an 'empathetic outlook' (Bartolome, 1989, Pfeiffer and Jones, 1981 and Campbell, 1988) as well as to "communicate in an empathetic manner' (Sinetar, 1988 and Covey, 1989), in

order to build trust with their subordinates. Mishra and Morrissey (1990) spoke about the need for managers to share their own perceptions and feelings with their subordinates in order to create a climate of empathy. (see Figure 2.4).

The research results elicited the fact that, by far, the greatest call for managers to be empathetic towards their subordinates came from Job Grade Group A (85.2%). Groups B and C had a much lower need (50% and 31.6%, respectively) and Group D respondents had no need at all (0%). Group A respondents vehemently wanted their managers to know about their personal problems, eg. when their children were sick, when they were having problems with their spouses, the trials and tribulations of township life, etc. They wanted their managers to know these details partly because they wanted to be better understood as human beings, and partly because they felt that, where necessary, managers should make allowances for their personal problems. However, Grade D respondents viewed this notion as abhorrent. Their personal lives and tribulations were the last thing that they wanted to discuss with their managers.

The question has to be asked whether the strong need for empathy at the shopfloor level was apparent because almost all of the respondents at this level

were black, or because they were blue-collar workers at the very bottom of the company hierarchy. The responses tended to indicate the former, although the blue collar worker issue seems to play a smaller part. The Group A respondents from Sites 1 and 3 who placed this attribute high on their lists came from strife torn townships. Many complained of not being able to sleep at night, either because of fighting in their neighbourhood, or because they were protecting their homes. Many of them live in constant fear for the lives of their families. Their life style had a negative impact on their job performance and their health (in a personal interview with the nursing sisters of both sites, 1992).

Respondents felt that, generally, managers and supervisors did not empathise with subordinates, and neglected to give subordinates a chance to share some of their problems with them. This is a sad reflection on the state of management in South Africa. After all, it is only by listening that people can understand other people's reality and what is really important to them (Covey, 1989). Additionally, people are reluctant to open up to those who lack empathy (Sinetar, 1988).

Covey (1989, p. 240) put this trust building phenomenon into perspective by asserting that "Next to

physical survival, the greatest need of a human being is psychological survival - to be understood, to be affirmed, to be validated, to be appreciated". Koopman, et al (1987) claimed that in terms of employee motivation 'being understood' was the most basic need, more important even than the safety and security needs postulated by Maslow.

Thus, this research affirmed the importance of empathy in building subordinate trust. However, more importantly, it identified that empathy is more strongly desired the lower down the hierarchy a subordinate is placed.

5.3.5 Gives Honest and Regular Feedback on Subordinates' Job Performance

A number of authors placed importance upon the manager being honest. However, it is of note that research respondents did not isolate honesty, per se, but linked it with 'feedback on job performance'. The respondents laid equal importance upon the attributes of honest as well as of regular feedback on performance.

In this case, it was the Job Grade Group D respondents who most strongly required feedback on performance from their managers, in order for them to trust their managers (72.2%). Whereas, the other three groups

expressed a much weaker desire for this trust building behaviour. (see graph no. 5 of appendix no. A10).

It would appear that senior subordinates place more value on their managers' interest in them as work colleagues than on them as human people, as is the case with lower level subordinates (see section 5.3.4 above).

Respondents said that when managers did not give feedback, or regular feedback, on their job performance, they suspected that they were hiding something from subordinates. Respondents also claimed that managers who did give feedback, but were dishonest in their handling of it, were not to be trusted, ie managers who rated performance as 'good' to subordinates but who subsequently gave poor performance related salary increases. Hence, wilful withholding and distorting of information was also considered to be dishonest.

Giving feedback on job performance also has a reciprocal element to it. Falk et al (1985) postulated that trust was an important element affecting the acceptance of feedback as well as the perception of fair judgement. Additionally, performance feedback embraces sensitive issues which are also highly dependent on trust. Covey (1992)

proposed that the performance agreements made during performance feedback sessions are of higher quality, and are more likely to be adhered to, where there is trust between the manager and the subordinate.

Thus, the act of giving honest and regular feedback on subordinates' job performance builds trust, and conversely, trust must be present in the relationship in order for the feedback to be believed and accepted, as well as the agreements made to be adhered to.

5.3.6 Gives Credit Where and When it is Due

Again, this behaviour was not put forward as being critical to the building of subordinate trust by any of the authors reviewed. The research findings show a fairly even view on this behaviour across all the Job Grade Groups. 42% of Group A respondents rated it as one of the ten most critical behaviours, Group B rated it 41.7%, Group C were the highest at 52.6% and Group D the lowest at 33.3%.

The reason why Group C respondents felt more strongly than the other groups on this issue may be due to the fact that a lot of important work was delegated to them by senior managers. Respondents reported that senior managers would often get the credit for the work done by their subordinates. Grade C subordinates were aware that much of the work that they did was of

high value to the company. They, however, expected their managers to recognise this fact and give them the credit for it.

Whilst it was apparent that this behaviour was strongly desired by subordinates the lack of it may have been influenced by the organisational climate of the target company. Failing to thank employees for work done, or giving recognition for excellent work, were behaviours that appeared to be entrenched in the management style of the research company. One of the senior managers of the company described the reason for this phenomenon thus: "But, why should we thank someone for doing what they were expected to do, after all it is in their job description?". On the other hand, the subordinate respondents felt that when they were thanked, or recognised by a manager for the work they had done, they felt encouraged. They felt that their contribution was appreciated, and that they were of value to the company.

The reason why this phenomenon existed in the target company, as well as in other companies, may be due to what Covey (1992, p. 62) terms the 'zero-sum paradigm', or 'scarcity mentality'. Managers who view life, and power, as a finite sum, will also believe that if they give of themselves, or some of their power, that their own power pool will be reduced.

Managers who live by this assumption find it difficult to share recognition, credit or power. They are also unable to be genuinely happy for the success of their subordinates (Covey, 1992). On the other hand, managers who believe that power is expandable share it by giving others recognition and power (Douwes Dekker, 1989).

5.3.7 Helps Subordinates with Career Planning

This attribute was not alluded to by any of the reviewed authors (see Figure 2.4). It was not apparent to the researcher why this behaviour was included as being critical in the research findings. As with the behaviour 'Develops subordinates (in their current jobs)', 'helps with subordinates' career planning' may have a much deeper meaning. When managers help with and encourage career development, it may be an indication to subordinates that they really care about them, and that they want subordinates to improve and better themselves.

As mentioned in section 5.3.3 above, often subordinates depend on managers to create the opportunities for development as managers have access to the resources that are required to achieve this end. Respondents spoke of trusted managers who told them when and where better vacancies were available, as well as managers who fought for their subordinates'

promotions, even when it was not within their department's interest to do so.

The research findings demonstrated that managers' attempts to help with their subordinates' career planning was most likely to build trust among the Group B respondents (62.5%). Here again, the reason is not immediately apparent. Many of the respondents at this level had been promoted from the lower Job Grade Group (Group A). They had thus, experienced the satisfaction and rewards of achievement and good performance. Some of these people may also have been more ambitious than their colleagues at the shopfloor level and consequently believed that they had the potential to improve their jobs. However, the subordinates at this level predominately believed that their advancement was not solely dependent on themselves but rather much more dependent on their managers. To an extent this belief was true as the managers had the power to make promotion decisions. Hence, it may be possible that the Group B subordinates especially put their trust in managers who help them with their career development (see graph no, 7 of Appendix no. A10).

Conversely, many subordinates at higher levels believed that their destinies lay in their own hands and that they were largely responsible for their own

career advancement. They therefore, did not place large trust in managers who helped them with their career development (16.7%) (see graph no. 7 of Appendix No. A.10).

5.3.8 Responds to Subordinates' Work Problems Positively and Timeously

Again, this behaviour was not considered to be important in building subordinate trust by the authors reviewed. The research findings indicated that the lower the job grade the more emphasis this behaviour received. Group A (shopfloor) respondents rated it at 63%, Group B at 35%, Group C at 21.2% and Group D at 11.1% (see graph no. 8 of Appendix No. A10).

The respondents claimed that a positive as well as timeous response by managers was equally as important. Managers who responded to subordinates' problems with anger, impatience and by making negative remarks, such as 'Not you with your problems again', or 'not another problem' made subordinates feel that the problem was their fault. As a result, affected subordinates said that they were reluctant to bring their problems to these managers, and that they either tried to conceal the problem, or attempted to resolve the problem themselves. Respondents said that positive responses by managers included: 'really listening to the problem', and 'encouraging open communication' so that

subordinates felt free to go to managers with their problems. Shields (1985) claimed that it was bad enough to have to admit to mistakes without having a poor reaction from managers.

Respondents described a timeous response as one in which managers attended to problems promptly, rather than attending to them when they got around to it. If managers could not resolve the problem immediately they would explain this to the subordinate and thereafter, would periodically inform the subordinate of progress. The Group A respondents believed that this problem was particularly relevant to supervisors. The, mostly black, supervisors in the target company had very limited authority bestowed upon them. This phenomenon appears to be common to South African businesses (Schuitema, 1991). Where supervisors have limited authority they have no option but to pass their subordinates' problems up the line. Obviously, problems dealt with in this manner take longer to resolve. Often the supervisor's foreman, in turn, did not come back with an answer to the supervisor, thus, also leaving the supervisor in the dark. Respondents from Site 2 spoke of foremen who by-passed supervisors and gave responses to problems directly to the subordinates concerned.

This research has thus further highlighted the need

for South African businesses to redesign their black supervisors' jobs, to empower them and in the process, enable them to build trust with their subordinates.

5.3.9 Involves Subordinates in Problem Solving and Decision Making

A number of authors proposed that allowing subordinates to be involved in the decision making was an important trust building behaviour. Some spoke of subordinates 'sharing' in the decision making (Mishra and Morrissey, 1990), others of 'involving' subordinates (Pfeiffer and Jones, 1981 and Blake and Mouton, 1980), and 'consulting with' subordinates about decisions (Fisher and Brown, 1989). However, none of the authors also spoke about involving subordinates in the problem solving process, which involves a deeper degree of involvement.

The research findings indicated that the respondents from the most senior group, Group D (66.7%), were most likely to feel stronger trust for managers who involved them in the decision making and problem solving process. Group C had a lesser desire for this behaviour (57.9%), as did Group A (25.9%), whereas Group B had no desire at all (0%). (See graph no. 9 of Appendix No. A10).

The researcher is unable to give a definitive

explanation as to why Group B respondents did not feel strongly about this behaviour. It was also not clear whether Group B respondents did not strongly desire to be involved in decision making, or whether if they were involved in decision making, it would not alter their trust in managers.

One of the reasons why Group A respondents did not express a strong desire to be involved in decision making may be that they feel that they were already involved in the decision making via their representative unions.

Middle to senior level respondents who were not involved in the decision making believed that their managers had no faith in them and their capabilities. Alternatively, they felt that their managers did not involve them as they felt threatened by the subordinates. Senior level subordinates also believed that they should be involved in the company strategy making process. Chartier (1992) maintained that managers who work collaboratively with their subordinates to define problems and explore alternatives encourage those subordinates to make decisions, and evaluate progress in light of the problem, and not the persons involved.

Again, involving subordinates to build trust also has

a reciprocal element to it. When people work out problems together they build trust between themselves (Covey, 1989). Conversely, people will only feel safe enough to offer suggestions and solve problems where there is already a climate of trust (Fisher and Brown, 1989).

5.3.10 Keeps Promises he/she has Made to Subordinates

Fisher and Brown (1989) believed that keeping promises was the key managerial trust building behaviour. They claimed that this was especially so where different parties with different values were negotiating.

It must be noted that 'keeping promises' is not the same behaviour as 'being honest', which a number of reviewed authors proposed as being critical. 'Being honest' means telling the truth and having personal integrity. It is quite possible for an honest manager not to keep promises, and vice versa.

The research showed some interesting results in this regard. Group A respondents did not believe that keeping promises was important at all (0%), Group B and D felt fairly strongly about it (45.8% and 44.4%, respectively) and Group C felt the strongest about it (57.9%). The researcher can give no explanation as to why Group A respondents placed so little importance on

this behaviour.

Respondents said that it was just as important for managers to keep promises they had made to customers as it was to keep promises made to employees. Unkept promises made to customers reflected badly on managers and gave subordinates cause to doubt the mangers when they next made promises to subordinates. Additionally, the promises referred to by respondents were of a broad nature. Thus, it would appear that keeping all promises, large or small, should be consistently applied by managers in all their relationships.

Managers who had a reputation for keeping promises they had made were frequently described by respondents as being 'a man of his words'.

5.3.11 Gives Subordinates the Freedom to Act Independently

In the literature review Savage (1982) described this behaviour as 'sharing authority and responsibility' and Blake and Mouton (1980) described it as 'delegation of power and responsibility'. Covey (1989, p. 176) described stewardship as "a job with a trust", viz. "I trust you to do the job, to get it done".

A number of the organisation development interventions

introduced to increase trust levels in various companies (outlined in chapter three) placed importance on the delegation of responsibility, self supervision and subordinates having greater control over their work situations.

The research results highlighted that it was the more senior levels of subordinates who believed that being given the freedom to act independently helped to build trust in managers. Respondents described this behaviour as: 'managers giving subordinates a clear rein, based on clear objectives and well defined goal posts'.

This behaviour appears to be closely linked with the phenomenon of managers trusting their subordinates. A controlling person tries to tie others to his/her desires and views operations under the assumption that other people are inadequate and need to be controlled and supervised by someone who is more 'capable', viz. himself/herself (Chartier, 1992). Thus, managers who are willing to delegate responsibility and allow their subordinates to act independently also trust and believe that their subordinates are capable and competent enough to work independently.

Therefore, allowing subordinates to act independently is a trust building behaviour that is reciprocal in

nature. The managers' act of allowing and encouraging subordinates to act independently builds subordinate trust in managers. However, managers will only delegate and give the authority to subordinates if they trust them.

5.3.12 Trusts/Believes in their Subordinates

Some of the reviewed authors rated this behaviour as being important to building subordinate trust (Rempel and Holmes, 1986 and Zand, in Kreitner and Kinicki, 1992). Of all the critical behaviours this one most obviously demonstrates the reciprocal nature of trust. If managers trust their subordinates the subordinates are more willing to trust their managers. However, it would appear that managers need to take the first step, and that the phenomenon will not be the same where subordinates risk trusting the managers first (Manning, 1989).

Rogers (1989) proclaimed that someone who trusts the capacity of human individuals will trust them to develop their own potential, and will allow them to chose their own way of so doing.

5.3.13 Leads by Example

None of the reviewed authors proposed that a manager who leads by example gains the trust of subordinates. However, there was the suggestion that 'being

congruent', or 'being true to one's values', was linked to leading by example (Covey, 1989).

The research findings confirmed that leading by example was most valued at the senior levels. Respondents said that managers who took ownership of the company strategy, and lived by company policy, were far more trustworthy than those who paid lip service to policy and strategy issues. Subordinates felt that they could put their confidence and trust in managers who set a good example, ethically, morally and professionally.

9.3.14 Summary

The research findings revealed that there were 13 managerial behaviours that were considered to be critical to the building of subordinate trust. Only a few of the identified behaviours corresponded with those behaviours identified in the literature review. The critical managerial behaviours identified in the research findings tended to be ones that would occur in response to the satisfaction of subordinates' needs. Whereas, the trust building managerial behaviours proposed in the literature review tended to be those that would occur in response to managers' own integrity and value systems. It is suggested that the reason for the substantial difference in the critical behaviour sets is that the research looked at the

issue from the subordinates' point of view, whereas the reviewed literature looked at the topic from the managerial perspective.

The research findings demonstrated some significant differences between job grade groups in most of the behaviour constructs. Only three behaviour constructs showed similarities between job grade groups. The differences were most apparent between the two extremities, viz. Group A (shopfloor) and Group D (grade 9 and above). The research suggested that the differences were more strongly based on factors that had been influenced by the socio-political history of South Africa, ie. subordinates' need for empathetic managerial understanding of the trials and tribulations of township life. Whereas, the literature reviewed would seem to indicate that the differences were based between blue-collar and white collar interests.

5.4 MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOURS THAT DESTROY SUBORDINATE TRUST

It must be noted that the trust destroying managerial behaviour that was ranked first, 'not keeping promises' received an overall mean score that was 5.6% greater than the second ranked behaviour. The high rank position correlates with Campbell (1988) assertion that 'not keeping promises' was particularly distasteful to employees, as it

violates a common code of conduct about how people expect to be treated by others.

The overall score of the second behaviour was 10.1% higher than the third ranked behaviour. Thus, it would appear from the findings that the first two behaviours, viz. 'does not keep promises' and 'takes credit for subordinates work' were the two most critical managerial behaviours that destroy trust.

5.5 COMMENTS ON THE CRITICAL MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOURS THAT DESTROY SUBORDINATE TRUST

Only the nine critical behaviours are discussed, in their order of ranking. As very few authors have forwarded their views on which managerial behaviours destroy subordinate trust the comparison of the research findings to the literature reviewed will be limited.

The research has indicated that a number of the critical managerial behaviours that destroy trust have opposite behaviours which make up the critical behaviours that build trust, ie. keeping promises is a behaviour that builds trust whereas, its opposite, not keeping promises, is a behaviour that destroys trust. Hence, rather than repeat the points made in the previous category, reference will be made to those points.

References to the target company specific information were

made from the personal knowledge of the researcher in her capacity as Organisation Development Consultant to the researched company.

5.5.1 Does Not Keep Promises

The research results indicated that not keeping promises was most strongly supported by Group B (72%) and Group A (66.7%). Groups D and C allocated a much weaker support for this behaviour (38.9% and 26.3%).

It would seem from the research that when managers, or supervisors, of Group A and B respondents made even the smallest suggestion it was taken quite literally by these subordinates and regarded as 'a promise'. As an example: When a manager said "Perhaps I should do 'X and Y' about this problem that we have" he/she may in reality have been thinking aloud about possibilities and may, in fact, have decided not to do 'X' and only do 'Y'. However, the subordinates at this level would have perceived the manager to mean that he had made a promise to do 'X and Y'. The subordinates subsequently believed that the manager had not kept his/her promise when he/she only did 'Y' about the problem. Whereas, the subordinates in Groups C and D, who were managers themselves, would not have viewed the manager's statement as a definitive promise.

The subordinates at the lowest levels were the most dependent on managers to remove barriers and create opportunities for them, and would also therefore have been the most dependent on managers to keep promises in this regard. Group A subordinates enjoyed union representation and thus would have been more inclined to initiate grievances against managers who did not keep the work-related promises they had made. However, Group B subordinates did not enjoy union protection, and as a result would have been less inclined to use the grievance procedure to correct management failings. As a result, they would have been more inclined to rely on the integrity of managers to keep the promises they had made. Managers who did not keep promises were therefore, seen as taking advantage of the powerless position of lower level respondents. This phenomenon was particularly abhorrent to employees as it departed from the psychological contract of employment which implied that workers give their labour to the company in return for equitable payment and treatment.

The research indicated that Sites 1 and 2 had a similar view on not keeping promises (48.5% and 43.8%, respectively). The higher score of 66.7% at Site 3 could have been influenced by the recent factory move at that site. It might have been so that, in an effort to overcome resistance to the factory move,

managers promised things to subordinates that would happen at the new factory, such as better canteen facilities, new laboratory, etc. These promises may not have lived up to subordinates' expectations when they did move to the new factory.

Unlike the broad types of kept promises that build trust, the unkept promises that destroy trust were mostly refined by the respondents to promises about job improvement and career development opportunities, viz. job appraisals, promotions, etc. Group A respondents also spoke of managers who did not keep promises they had made about personal wellbeing issues, such as; requests for safety gloves, housing loans, etc.

Respondents claimed that if managers could not keep promises for reasons beyond their control, ie. company policy, they still expected them to come back to subordinates and give them a proper explanation as to why the promise could not be kept.

It would appear from the research that managers' credibility and trustworthiness takes a long time to build. However, it can be lost in a second by managers' failure to keep a promise (Kouzes and Posner, 1990).

5.5.2 Takes Credit for Subordinates Work

Group D respondents strongly supported this behaviour (61.1%). The possible reason for this is outlined in section 5.3.6, above.

Site 3 respondents believed that this behaviour was particularly important (62.5%), and this phenomenon correlates with the climate audit done in the target company two years ago (Franks and Vink, 1990). At Site 2 there was a clear psychological delineation between the 'have's' and the 'have not's', viz. those employees in Grades 8 and above and those in Grades 7 and below, respectively. The previous factory management, three of whom have since left the company, were particularly criticised for their authoritarian style, and failure to thank employees for their contribution. Thus, whilst the subordinates' managers may also not have been given credit for work they had done, they, in following the example given to them, also failed to thank their subordinates, and so on down the line. However, subordinates may have perceived this failure to give credit as an attempt by their managers to claim the credit for themselves.

5.5.3 Is Autocratic (Instructs and Does Not Ask for Opinions)

The Group A respondents, who termed this behaviour 'oppressive', strongly believed that autocratic

managerial behaviour destroys trust. Respondents described an autocratic manager as someone who dictates and commands, and speaks in an aggressive and emotional manner. They also spoke of managers who 'pull rank' to manipulate and control subordinates. One of the corporate values of the target company is that the people in the company are valued. Respondents thus, took particular offense to autocratic behaviour as they perceived that it was not in line with the corporate values.

Group B respondents scored this behaviour at only 24%. The researcher believes that the subordinates at this level had a strong respect for the competency and knowledge of managers, and expected to be told what to do, rather than be asked to contribute their views. This phenomenon was also evidenced in the previous category whereby Group B respondents did not believe that involvement in the decision making was important in building trust (see section 5.3.9).

5.5.4 Is Inconsistent

Group D respondents felt most strongly about managers being inconsistent (50%). Groups A and B felt less strongly (37% and 40%, respectively) and Group C felt the least strongly about it (15.8%). (See graph no. 4 of Appendix A12)

The senior level respondents complained of managers' inconsistency, particularly in the areas of decision making. There was a possibility that this view was influenced by the recent attempts to change the management style in the company. Several new senior executives had joined the company. Some of the respondents in Group D reported to the new executives, and also constituted the first level of employees to be affected by the change in management style. The researcher could find no reasonable explanation for the low score attributed to Group C.

Respondents at junior levels spoke of managers' inconsistency in the areas of discipline and moods. They said some disciplinary decisions made by managers did not correlate with previous decisions made about similar issues. Managers praised staff for work they had done one day but criticised the same work the next day. Subordinates also complained of managers greeting them one day and then not the next. It would appear that many of these 'inconsistencies' would have been eradicated if managers had explained their reasons and rationale for changes in actions and decisions.

The highest score at site level was expressed by Site 3 (see graph no. 4 of appendix no. A13). This, again, may have been attributable to the recent factory move

and the lack of clarity and confusion that resulted out of poor communication about the plans thereof.

5.5.5. Tells Lies

The research results for this behaviour are both interesting and confusing. Group C respondents rated it very highly (63.2%) and the other middle level group, Group B, scored it at 40%. However, both Groups D and A did not rate it all (0% for both). The only possible reason that the researcher can offer for this has to do with the phenomenon of these groups being placed in the middle of the hierarchy. Senior respondents were closer to where the decisions were made, and in some cases, were part of the decision making, and were therefore, in a better position to ascertain what was the truth and what was not. On the other hand, the shop stewards of the shopfloor group, Group A, at all sites, had regular meetings with management. The information from these meetings, in turn, was passed down to the shopfloor by the shop stewards. The middle levels did not have representatives, and therefore had less access to company information.

Respondents spoke most strongly of managers who lied about salary increases, job grades, etc. As an example: telling subordinates that a certain other subordinate had only received 'X' increase.

Subordinates subsequently discussed their respective salary increases and discovered that the certain subordinate received a much higher salary increase than had been claimed by the manager. The respondents also indicated that some managers deliberately gave misleading information, and when questioned about it they denied that they had said any such thing.

5.5.6 Is Not a Good Example

As with the research results in the trust building behaviours, Group D scored the managerial behaviour, or attitude, of being a good example very highly (72.2%). Groups A, B and C only rated it at 22.2%, 16%, and 26.3%, respectively.

The senior respondents spoke of managers who violated company policy and acted unethically. They also complained of managers who did not act in a professional manner and who used company time to attend to their own interests. Group C respondents complained of managers taking long lunch hours, coming to work late and not dressing in the manner expected.

It would appear that subordinates watched the behaviour of their managers very closely. In some ways this activity gave subordinates clues as to how they too should behave. On the other hand, when managers were observed not behaving according to

stated company policy, subordinates sense an incongruence with what they knew was expected of them and what they were seeing someone in a higher authority position actually doing. As an example: a manager who told subordinates to build relationships, in accordance with company strategy, but failed to make any attempts to build relationships with the people he/she interacted with, including his/her own subordinates.

Covey (1992, p. 63) made an interesting observation about managers' attempts at being an example to their subordinates: "If you want more freedom, more latitude in your job, be a more responsible, helpful, contributing employee. If you want to be trusted, be trustworthy. If you want the secondary greatness of public recognition, focus first on primary greatness of character". He suggested that if managers want their subordinates to keep promises, and they themselves want to keep promises they have made to subordinates, the managers have to be able to keep promises they have made to themselves first.

The research results showed even scores across all three sites for this behaviour.

Covey (1989) placed this phenomenon into perspective by asserting that the key to influencing people is by

actual conduct, or example. The example that managers set flows naturally out of character, or the kind of person they truly are, not what others say about them or what they say about themselves.

5.5.7 Is a Hypocrite

Group C respondents rated being a hypocrite well above all the other groups (73.7%). The other groups placed similar scores for this behaviour (see graph no. 7 of appendix no. A12).

Group C respondents spoke of managers who contradicted what they said, who told subordinates that they were doing a good job but told other people otherwise, or gave the subordinates a poor increment at the end of the year.

The only reason that the researcher could attribute to this phenomenon was that this level of subordinate may have been experiencing varying degrees of the new management style that had been initiated at the senior levels. In some instances they may have experienced the 'new' style and in other instances, especially crisis situations, the 'old' management may have been more evident. This would be confusing to the subordinates of these 'transitional' managers. They might have experienced the managers' behaviour as 'doing one thing, but saying something else', or as

'being a hypocrite'.

Site 3 supported this behaviour most strongly. The respondents complained of managers behaving differently, and having different expectations when senior executives paid visits to their factory. After the senior executives left the factory everything would return to normal.

5.5.8 Does not keep Confidences

Managers who tell other people things that subordinates have told them in confidence will destroy subordinates' trust. This was most strongly believed by Group B respondents, especially from Site 2 (see graphs 8 of appendix nos. A12 and A 13, respectively). The researcher believes that several mistrusted managers at job grade levels 6 to 8 at Site 2 strongly influenced this group's view.

5.5.9 Does not Care for Subordinates Wellbeing and Personal Problems

Here again, Group A respondents strongly believed that managers who were not empathetic towards subordinates could not be trusted. They believed that managers who did not understand the heart and soul of their subordinates could not assure subordinates that they were going to act and make decisions that would benefit them.

Respondents spoke about managers who dismissed subordinates' problems as not being important, despite the fact that the problems may have been very important to subordinates, ie. study loans, time off to attend to urgent private matters, financial loans for crisis situations, etc. Managers who showed no concern for their subordinates or 'couldn't be bothered' to assist with subordinates' problems were not trusted by them. This phenomenon correlates with the results of Schuitéma's (1987) research which indicated that managers who showed concern for subordinates' wellbeing were trusted by subordinates.

The research results show an even rating for this behaviour across all three sites.

5.6 SUMMARY

Nine critical managerial behaviours that destroy subordinate trust were made apparent by the research. Of these nine behaviours, two were the most critical.

Significant differences in the rating of the critical behaviours were shown between the four job grade groups. The differences were most apparent between the middle job grade level groups and the extremities of the hierarchy, viz. Group A (payroll) and Group D (grades 9 and above). Only one behaviour construct did not demonstrate a difference between the job grade groups.

The research results also indicated differences in perceived importance between the three different sites. In all cases, the difference could be explained by the managers' style, or the organisation culture of the site in question.

The research findings demonstrated that six of the nine critical managerial behaviours that destroy subordinate trust are opposite to the trust building behaviours proposed by the literature reviewed (see Figure 2.4), for example: autocratic as opposed to involving subordinates, inconsistent as opposed to consistent, not empathetic as opposed to being empathetic, not being an example as opposed to being congruent. This finding is not surprising as the literature reviewed placed emphasis on the integrity of managers' behaviour as a means of building trust. Additionally, the Correspondence Analysis carried out on the research data also indicated that managers' integrity and style impacted on the destruction of trust.

Therefore, the research findings appeared to indicate that subordinates expected their managers to behave with integrity and congruence, and when managers did not operate from this base subordinates did not trust them. In contradiction, when managers behaved with increased integrity the subordinates do not trust them more. The only behaviours that would build subordinate trust are those that enable subordinates to achieve their own goals.

This concept is discussed in section 5.9, below.

5.7 ASSOCIATIONS AND RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN JOB GRADES AND SITES : BEHAVIOURS THAT BUILD TRUST

The Correspondence Analysis, referred to previously, revealed that the trust building behaviours and attitudes were strongly clustered according to job grade group. The Correspondence Analysis Map (see Figure 4.9) indicated that the axes around which the clusters were plotted related to managers' response to subordinates' needs, and subordinates' development in response to managers' behaviours.

There were two shopfloor groups, viz. Cluster C1 and C2. Cluster C3 consisted of middle level groups and Cluster C4 was made up of senior level groups. Figure 4.7, developed by the researcher, illustrates the cluster associations.

An examination of figure 4.7 reveals that the first shopfloor group (Cluster 1) believed that the managerial behaviours that were supportive of individuals and their personal career development most strongly built subordinate trust. The second shopfloor group, both from Site 2, nominated the behaviours that demonstrated care and consideration for the well being of individuals, as well as acknowledgement of individuals' contribution to the company. This proposition relates to that of Schuitema (1987) who asserted that subordinate trust is built through

managerial behaviours that indicate care for the wellbeing of individuals.

McGregor's Theory Y (1960) best describes the attitudes and behaviours that were most likely to build the trust of the middle level respondents (Cluster C3). These respondents desired to escape managerial control and be given the freedom to act independently, in order to demonstrate their competence and ability. They also desired to be spoken to with courtesy and respect by managers. Only managers who trust and believe in their subordinates will be able to delegate the freedom to act and the responsibility that goes with that.

The senior level respondents (Cluster C4) wanted to be involved in the decision making. They also expected the behaviour of their managers to be congruent with what they said, and the company policies. Hence, they expected their managers to lead by example, and to keep promises they had made, in order for them to be trusted by their subordinates. This proposition finds common ground with those of Schuitema (1991) and Driscoll (1978), who both asserted that managerial behaviour is judged more harshly at the senior levels, and that subordinates are less forgiving of transgressions of senior managers than they are of more junior managers.

The cogent clustering of trust building managerial

behaviours indicated that respondents of the same hierarchical level held the same views. This tended to indicate that their views were influenced by their status, level of education and work experience. As mentioned earlier, to a large degree the job grade groups were characterised by race group, viz. mostly black in Group A and all white in Group D. Thus, it can be surmised that respondents' views on managerial trust building behaviours were also influenced by cultural background and life experiences. As an example: the respondents in both Group 1A and 3A, which constituted Cluster C1, live in strife and violence torn townships. Rotter (1971) proposed that life experiences influence individuals' propensity to trust others, and that people from lower income levels generally were less willing to trust others. Vogelman (1992) also asserted that people who had lived with long-term violence were less willing to trust others.

Beadle's Model (1991), see Figure 2.4, proposed that external dynamics, outside of managerial control, negatively impacted on subordinate trust. He asserted that these dynamics were mainly politically and economically derived, ie. political aspirations and unemployment. Whereas, the research findings suggested that the external dynamics that impact on subordinate trust are more closely derived from past social experiences, ie. education.

Hence, if subordinates' views on managerial trust building

behaviours are influenced by job grade level, as well as subordinates' inherent propensity to trust, it seems most probable that subordinates also play a strong role in the building of trust in the manager-subordinate relationship.

In summary, subordinate trust can be built through a few narrowly focused managerial behaviours that relate to: the care for the individual, the development of the individual, reducing control over the individuals' work activities and involving subordinates in decision making. However, the decision to trust, or not to trust managers, lies more in the hands of the subordinates than it does in managers' trust building efforts.

5.8 ASSOCIATIONS AND RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN JOB GRADES AND SITES : BEHAVIOURS THAT DESTROY TRUST

The Correspondence Analysis exercise indicated that the managerial behaviours that destroy subordinate trust were broadly grouped according to site, viz. Cluster 1 consisted of two Site 3 groups and one Site 1 group, Cluster C2 was made up of two Site 1 groups and one Site 3 group, and Cluster 3 was made up entirely of Site 2 groups. The clustering, however, was not as strong as the behaviours that build trust. The Correspondence Analysis Map (see Figure 4.19) indicated that the axes around which the groups were plotted were related to the degree to which managers regard their subordinates goals above their own and the degree to which managers' have their own views, or

are influenced by the views of others.

The trust destroying managerial behaviours associated with Cluster 1 related to the one-on-one relationship that managers have with their subordinates. Managerial behaviours that keep the personal side of their subordinates at a distance, and that demonstrate a lack of care or interest in their subordinates as individuals, destroyed the trust of these respondents. Managers who only showed interest in the views and opinions of like-minded people in a discriminatory fashion indicated to the respondents that they were concerned only with furthering their own interests, perhaps even at the cost of subordinates.

The Cluster 2, mostly Site 1 and middle level, respondents believed that the way in which managers interact with subordinates could impact on the destruction of their trust. Managers who were dishonest and not open, had a negative attitude and only saw mistakes, and who did not treat everyone equally, were a bad example to subordinates, and were thus not to be trusted.

The trust destroying behaviours associated with Cluster 3 related to managers' own personal level of congruence. Managers who presented one face to subordinates and another to others, were not consistent, took credit for subordinates' work, and who did not keep confidences were

viewed as being insincere, incongruent and two-faced. These trust destroying managerial behaviours all relate to inconsistent behaviour.

The way in which managers relate to and behave with their peers and their subordinates was termed 'management style' by Schuitema (1987). Management style is influenced by managers' own value system as well as the prevailing value system, or culture, of the organisational environment (Robbins, 1989). Similarly, managers' propensity to be incongruent, inconsistent, [illegible] goals above those of their subordinates, [illegible] concerned with other people's views than their own, is influenced by the managers' own value system, as well as the culture of the organisation.

Senior managers hold positional power which relates to their hierarchical position and status (Robbins, 1989). Of all the power bases positional power has the least support by subordinates. Subordinates are more likely to legitimise the power of managers who are acknowledged as being experts in their field, or who are respected by their peers and subordinates (Covey, 1989). It is, perhaps for this reason that subordinates are inclined to harshly judge, and be the least forgiving of, the behaviour of senior managers (Schuitema, 1987 and Driscoll, 1978). In a similar vein, the research findings indicated that subordinates harshly assessed their managers' personal

behaviour and level of congruence and integrity, for trustworthiness.

In summary, the trust destroying managerial behaviours were less consistent and stable than the trust building behaviours. They related to management style, managers' personal value systems and organisational culture, as well as the degree to which managers use, or abuse, their organisational power. Hence, management behaviours and attitudes have greater impact on the destruction of subordinate trust than they do on the building of subordinate trust. The destruction of subordinate trust, therefore, lies in the hands of managers.

5.9 THE TRUST BUILDING MODEL

In light of the research findings outlined above, the researcher has developed a Trust Building Model, see Figure 5.1. The model is explained below.

Managers, who genuinely trust, believe and care for their subordinates, demonstrate trust building behaviours which relate to the development of subordinates, viz. coaching, guidance, support and reward. These managerial behaviours encourage and enable subordinates to develop their competence and confidence. Caring managers also remove any barriers to subordinates' development, and in so doing, empower them. Once empowered, subordinates satisfy their needs, achieve their aspirations and improve their

performance. This process, activated by the manager and benefitted by the subordinate, builds subordinate trust. The Trust Building Model is explained in greater detail below.

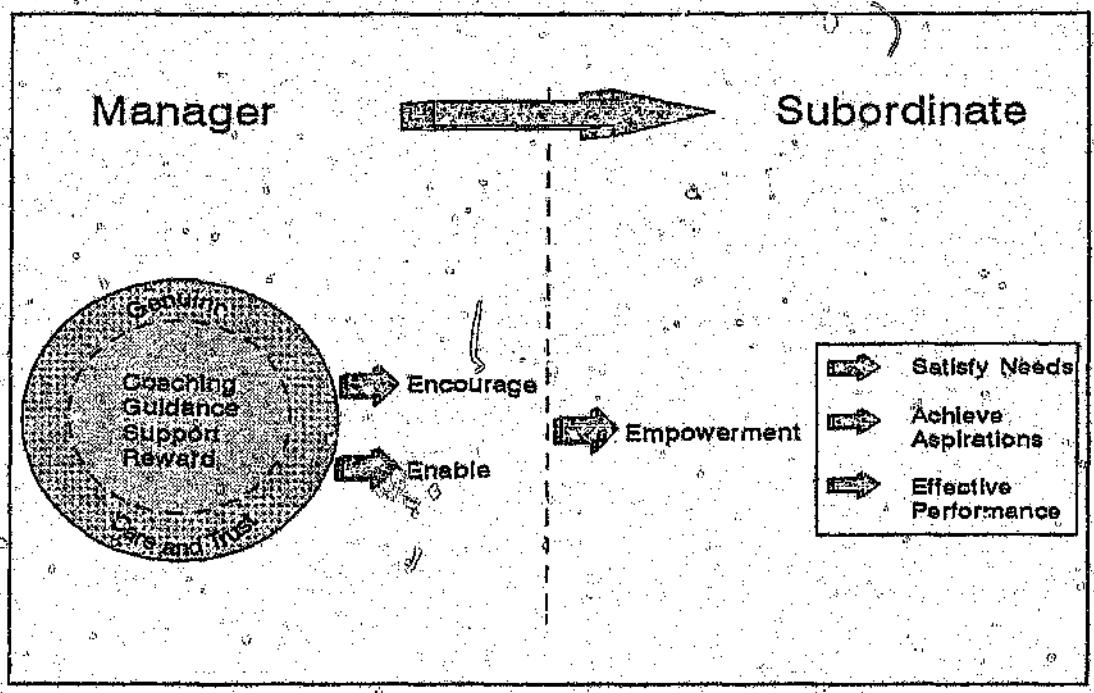


Figure 5.1

The Trust Building Model

5.9.1 Developing Subordinates

The critical managerial behaviours that build trust (see Figure 4.2) can be grouped into the following categories:

*Coaching - Develops subordinates
- Involves subordinates in decision making and problem solving
- Gives subordinates the freedom to act independently
- Leads by example

*Guidance - Gives honest and regular feedback on subordinates' job performance
- Helps subordinates with career planning

*Support - Stands by and supports subordinates through their work problems
- Responds to subordinates' work problems positively and timeously

*Rewards - Gives credit where and when it is due
- Keeps promises he/she has made to subordinates

*Cares - Cares for subordinates' wellbeing and personal problems

*Trusts - Trusts/believes in subordinates

Effective managers who coach and develop their subordinates make use of behaviours similar to the ones outlined above (Charoux, 1988 and Rogers, 1970). The focus of these behaviours is on enabling

subordinates to develop themselves, rather than managers teaching subordinates.

5.9.2 Care for Subordinates

As discussed earlier in this chapter, managers who guide and develop their subordinates need to genuinely care for them in order for the development process to be truly effective.

Lynch (1950, p. 157) termed managerial care for subordinates as 'simpatico' and described it as a "feeling of sympathy, a capacity and a desire for understanding, warm friendliness, easy approach and a genuine liking for the company concerned". One of the ways that respondents described caring managerial behaviour was simply 'greeting subordinates'.

Godsell (1981) termed the act of caring for another person as 'ubuntu', or 'mans' humaneness to his fellow man'. Lynch (1950) asserted that the manager's job was not to deliver the task, but to care for his/her people in order that they be willing and enabled to perform their tasks.

Care can be measured in terms of the extent to which managers put themselves out, and actively pursue the wellbeing of subordinates (Schuitema, 1991). Caring for subordinates does not affect what has to be done

and what decisions need to be taken, it simply provides an atmosphere in which the best results can be achieved (Lynch, 1950). Managers who care for their subordinates earn their loyalty and trust, and as a result, their subordinates are more willing to hear and obey them (Schuitema, 1991).

In summary, Dunst, et al (1988, p. 44) proposed that a major determinant in enabling and empowering people "is not just an issue of whether needs are met but rather the manner in which mobilisation of resources and support occurs". In other words, the giver of help must genuinely care for the receiver of that help, and must derive gratification and enjoyment in seeing others become capable.

5.9.3 Trust in Subordinates

As mentioned in Chapter Three McGregor (1960) proposed that managers have one of two different views of human beings: a negative view or a positive view (Theory X and Theory Y, respectively). The way in which managers view their subordinates is based on this assumption. Subsequently, managers behave towards their subordinates according to these assumptions.

Managers who trust and believe in their subordinates operate from a Theory Y assumption base. They believe that their subordinates are capable and desire to be

committed to improving and developing themselves. Thus, trust, or belief, in subordinates, along with care for subordinates, is a prerequisite for trust building behaviours to have a positive effect, as well as for it to be perceived as such by subordinates.

5.9.4 Enable Subordinates

Enablement occurs when "the help giver (manager) creates opportunities for competencies to be acquired or displayed by the help seeker (subordinate)" (Dunst, et al, 1988, p. 44). Enabling managers support, encourage and create opportunities for subordinates to become competent. They also help to remove internal, and external, constraints to subordinates' development.

Enabling managers provide their subordinates with the necessary resources to perform their jobs properly and to reach their goals. Being in a higher hierarchical position, managers usually have more power and greater access to resources. Hence, subordinates often depend on their managers to remove barriers, and to mobilise the resources they require to achieve their objectives.

5.9.5 Subordinate Empowerment

Power is concerned with the degree of influence a person has over another, as well as the degree to

which ones' actions and decisions can alter ones' environment (Robbins, 1989). The nature of organisational hierarchy deems the subordinate to be less powerful than the manager. Subordinates are therefore, directed by the will of others more senior to themselves. Powerless employees lack informal political influence, access to resources, sponsorship and mobility. To a large degree they lack control over their own fate and are dependent on others above them for resources (Schuitema, 1991).

To empower someone is to grant them the power they require to achieve their objectives. Empowerment can also be viewed as a process of "enhancing the value of the contribution of the people in your organisation, work group, or team" (Scott and Jaffe, 1991, p. ii). Empowerment implies that managers share their power and responsibilities with subordinates. It also implies that managers give their subordinates all the information they require to do their jobs properly.

Employees who are not empowered and remain dependent on their managers feel a sense of alienation and loss of control over their working lives (Scott and Jaffe, 1991). Figure 5.2, below, illustrates the resulting difference between empowerment and dependency.

Therefore, empowerment in the context of the Trust

Building Model, Figure 5.1, implies that managers encourage and enable their subordinates to achieve their goals. They also empower the subordinates by removing barriers and accessing resources for the subordinates.

All the trust building organisation development interventions, outlined in chapter two, focused on the empowerment of subordinates. Subordinates in these cases were empowered by joint management, self management, increased responsibility and training. Hence, it would appear that empowerment can result from managerial behaviour, as well as systems, structures or processes.

5.9.6 Subordinates Achieving their Goals

The research findings revealed that the goals that subordinates aspire to are those things that will free them from control and help them become self sufficient, such as competency, capability and confidence. Argyris (in Ouchi and Price, 1978, p. 29) proposed two principal conditions for psychological success; "The individuals must value themselves and aspire to experience an increasing sense of competence....The second requirement is an organization that provides opportunities for work in which the individual is able to define his immediate goals, define his own paths to these goals, relate

these to the goals of the organization, evaluate his own effectiveness, and constantly increase the degree of challenge at work". Managers who do not control everything their subordinates do, get loyalty and improved performance from their subordinates in return (Schuitema, 1991).

5.9.7 Summary

The Trust Building Model, developed from the research findings, thus reveals that the managerial behaviours that develop subordinate trust are those that enable and empower subordinates to improve, develop and achieve their aspirations. In order for these behaviours to be perceived as being trustworthy they must be derived from managers' sincere care and trust for subordinates.

The Trust Building Model emphasises that subordinate trust does not automatically develop as a result of a display of certain managerial behaviours, or personality traits, as alluded to in the literature review. Rather, subordinate trust is developed through a process which makes use of the various managerial skills, or behaviours.

The research results indicated that elements of the trust building process can be achieved through the introduction of various systems, or structures. This

phenomenon correlates with the literature review. The results however, indicated that the trust building structures and systems related particularly to the empowerment of subordinates.

The Trust Building Model refutes much of the reviewed literature that proposed that trust is built through managers' own levels of high integrity, regardless of whether employees' needs were met in the process of not. Therefore, the Trust Building Model adds to the richness of the results, as well as to the literature on the topic.

5.10 DEFINING TRUST

Elements of the Trust Building Model correlate with the researcher's own definition of trust: "A state of being able to rely on the manager to consistently take into account, as well as endeavour to protect, the subordinate's well being and goals when making decisions that concern that subordinate...". The research findings have, however, placed greater emphasis on the 'active enablement and empowerment' of subordinates by their managers to achieve their own goals rather than the manager 'protecting and considering' these goals when making decisions.

5.11 THE DEPENDENCE / INTERDEPENDENCE PARADOX OF TRUST

The Trust Building Model emphasised that subordinates rated managers' trustworthiness by the degree to which they

empowered them to achieve their own goals of competence and confidence, which in turn, reduced their dependence upon managers and the organisation.

People have a natural tendency to reduce their dependency upon others (Husted, 1989 and Argyris, in Ouchi, 1978) asserted that employees feel a psychological discomfort when they feel powerless. Employees want to live in a society of equals, and when they feel that their side of the scale is not balanced they are inclined to withdraw trust and involve themselves in non-compliance behaviours (Farnham, 1989). The days of saying "Trust us, this is for your own good" are over (Farnham, 1989, p. 34).

It would thus appear from the findings, and subsequent discussion, that employees place a condition on their acknowledgement of managers' trust in them, as well as their willingness to return trust to managers. Their underlying message emerges as being: if managers want their trust, their support and commitment to accomplish the work, the managers must 'help me to help you'. The managers need to care for their subordinates, develop them, give them feedback, help them with their careers, etc. in order for the subordinates to be better able to do the work expected of them. In other words, in the process of meeting the manager's and the organisation's goals, individuals desire the satisfaction of being able to contribute meaningfully, and make a difference (Mouton and Blake, 1980). In this

way they are also empowered to achieve their own aspirations and goals.

These findings correlate with Zand's (1972, p. 238) assertion that trust .."permits mutuality", and that "trust begets trust" (in Kreitner and Kinicki, 1992, p. 405). Thus, subordinate trust comes at a price - managers only gain if subordinates gain. In that mutuality the interdependent nature of the manager-subordinate relationship is made evident. Figure 5.2, developed by the researcher, illustrates the mutuality of trust between managers and their subordinates.

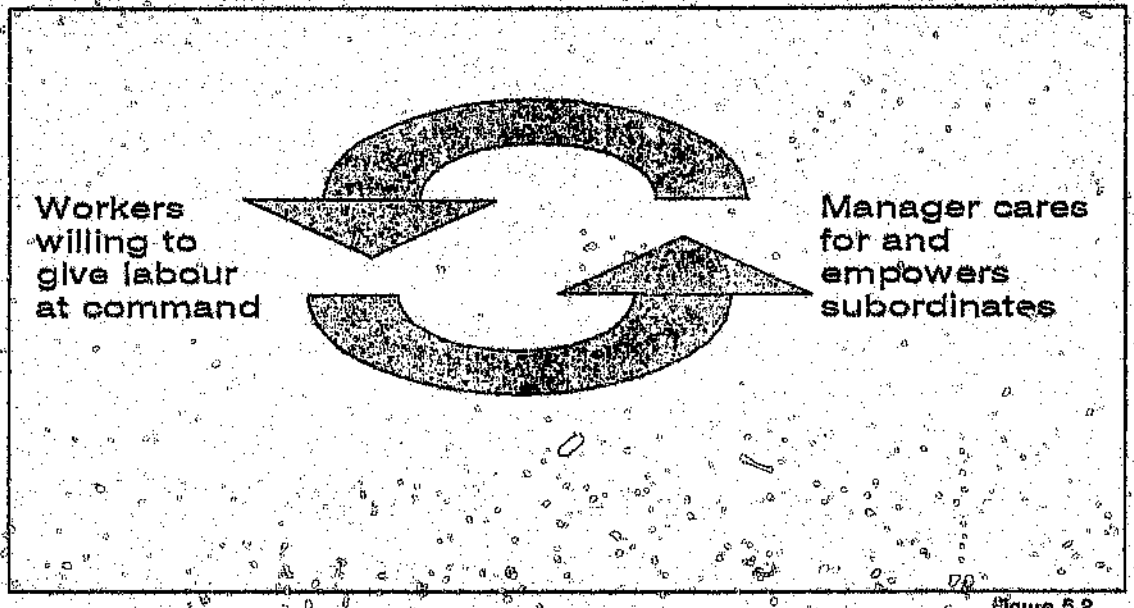


Figure 5.2

Subordinate Trust comes at a Price

The phenomenon of employees desiring freedom from dependence is paradoxical from two perspectives. Firstly, Rotter (1971, p. 443) proposed that all decisions involve trusting someone, and "the more complex the society, the greater the dependence on others". It is true that most business organisations are very complex in nature and therefore, employees are rendered highly dependent on each other. Argyris (in Ouchi and Price, 1978) submitted that a trust climate is rarely achieved in business organisations due to the chain of command, span of control and unity of direction that is required in organisations. Individuals in organisations submit to the demands of the strategy which creates dependency and very few opportunities to use their abilities and reach their goals.

Secondly, the trust building behaviours, such as: coaching, developing, caring, nurturing, etc. are not unlike the role of parenting, which is the first role of domination that a human being experiences. Parenting, however, is also the first phase of empowerment. Parents "hold the hands of our children until they are capable of walking. We do not hold their hands to stop them from walking, quite the contrary" (Schuitema, 1991, p. 11). The role of 'parenting' and the resulting subordinate dependence is necessary before managers can empower and create the conditions and opportunities for subordinates to take control of their own working lives.

The apparent paradox of trust is that subordinates are dependent on managers in order to gain their independence from management control. This paradox further highlights the mutuality of trust as a phenomenon of the interdependent nature of the manager-subordinate relationship, as outlined earlier in this section. Figure 5.3, developed by the researcher, illustrates this phenomenon.

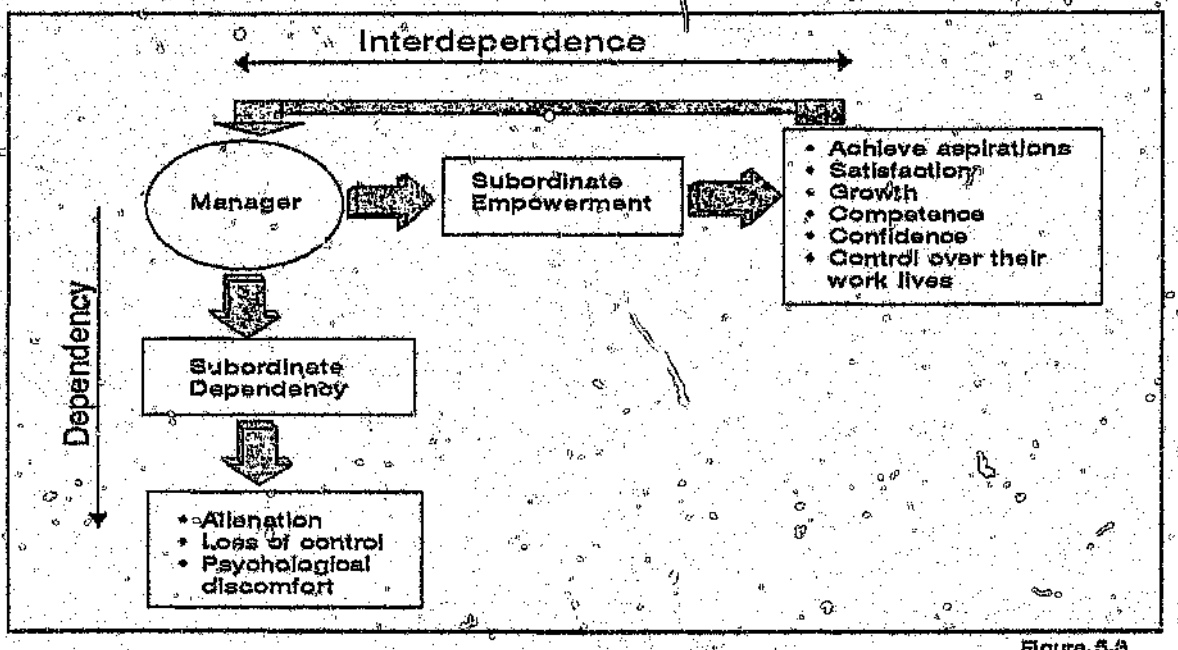


Figure 5.3

Subordinate Empowerment vs Dependency

5.12 THE PARALLEL BETWEEN TRUST AND MOTIVATION

Fuhr (1991, p. 38) submitted that trust is built by meeting peoples' needs: "People will never commit themselves to matters like quality, productivity and shared decision making if their most basic needs are not met. Trust is therefore built by finding out what people want and then acting on their responses in a fair and consistent manner". Similarly, Robbins (1989, p. 147) defined motivation as "The willingness to exert high levels of effort toward organizational goals, conditioned by that effort's ability to satisfy some individual need". Therefore, the phenomena of trust building and motivation appear to result in the same end for subordinates, viz. satisfaction of needs.

When examining the subordinate needs that are satisfied through trust building reference was made to the most popular motivation techniques, viz. Maslow and Hertzberg. The critical managerial behaviours that build subordinate trust (see Figure 4.2) were mostly what Maslow refers to as 'self esteem' and 'social' needs (Robbins, 1989, p. 150). As an example: needs related to self achievement, recognition, advancement and self growth. The trust building behaviours also related to Hertzberg's 'satisfiers', or 'factors contributing to job satisfaction' (Robbins, 1989, p. 152).

However, the critical trust destroying behaviours (see Figure 4.13) referred mainly to the relationship that

subordinates have with their managers. Maslow refers to the subordinates' relationship with their manager as 'social needs' (Robbins, 1989), and Hertzberg refers to this relationship as a 'hygiene factor'. This phenomenon is not surprising as the Correspondence Analysis carried out on the data revealed that managers' style has a greater impact on the destruction of trust than it has on the building of trust.

The literature review made reference to Driscoll's (1978) proposal that subordinates who trusted the decision makers were more satisfied with their own level of participation because they believed that the decision makers would look after subordinates' needs. Thus, Driscoll (1978) asserted that trust was a greater prediction of satisfaction than participation.

Within a business context subordinates are motivated by two kinds of rewards which they derive from their work; intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. Intrinsic rewards are defined as "The pleasure or value one receives from the content of the work task", whilst extrinsic rewards are defined as "Rewards received from the environment surrounding the context of the work" (Robbins, 1989, p. 451). Cognitive Evaluative Theory proposes that intrinsic interest in a task decreases, and individuals experience a loss of control, when extrinsic rewards are extended to them. The Theory proposes that intrinsic

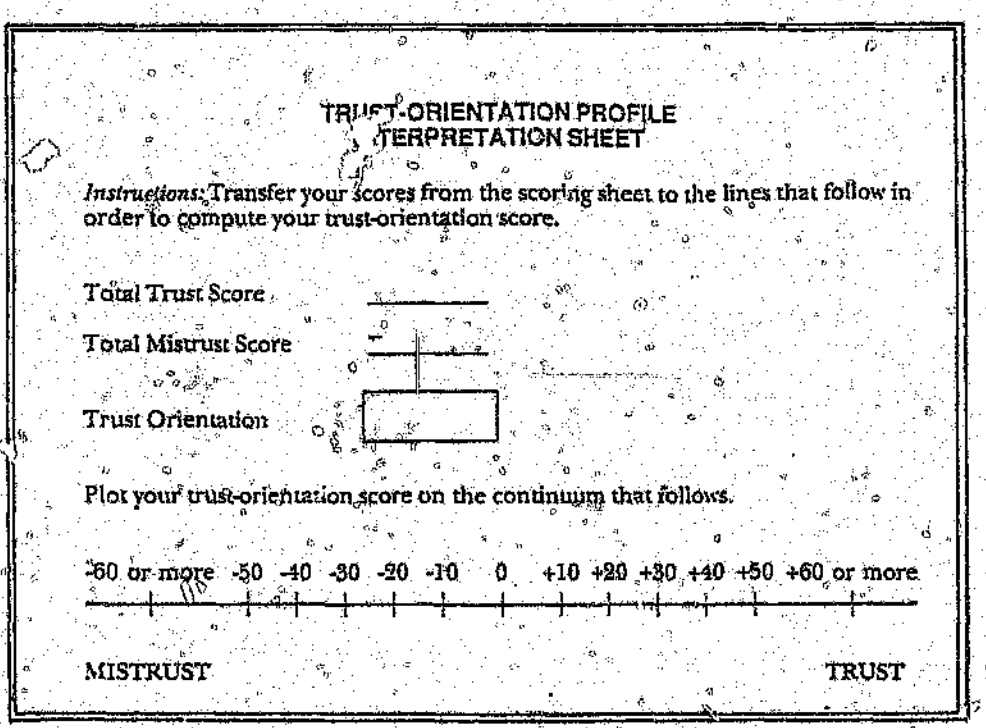
interests should be recognised in an intrinsic manner (Robbins, 1989). With reference to the research findings; the managerial behaviours that build subordinate trust create the opportunity and potential for individuals to experience intrinsic rewards. Conversely, the managerial behaviours that destroy trust refer mainly to the managers' lack of integrity, or the context surrounding the subordinates' work. Therefore, behaviours that destroy trust have reference to extrinsic rewards.

If there is such a strong parallel between motivation and trust the question needs to be asked as to where the differences lie, if any? The researcher proposes that where motivational techniques generally suggest changes in structure, job redesign, job enlargement, job enrichment, etc. as a means of motivating employees, trust building appears to be developed mainly through managerial attitudes and behaviours. As mentioned previously, many managers view the introduction of systems and structures as being easier, and thus preferable, than changing their own behaviour.

The research positively identified a parallel between motivation techniques and trust building. Notwithstanding this, the findings did not identify which of the two techniques most successfully motivates employees. Covey (1989) however, asserted that where trust is absent, there will be no subordinate motivation.

5.13 THE NON POLARISATION OF TRUST AND MISTRUST MODEL

Chartier (1992) designed a Trust Orientation Profile that attempts to measure the trust level of individuals. The Profile makes use of a continuum on which the trust/ mistrust scores are recorded (see figure 5.4).



TRUST-ORIENTATION PROFILE
INTERPRETATION SHEET

Instructions: Transfer your scores from the scoring sheet to the lines that follow in order to compute your trust-orientation score.

Total Trust Score _____

Total Mistrust Score _____

Trust Orientation _____

Plot your trust-orientation score on the continuum that follows.

-60 or more -50 -40 -30 -20 -10 0 +10 +20 +30 +40 +50 +60 or more

MISTRUST TRUST

Figure 5.4

TRUST-ORIENTATION PROFILE

Source: Chartier, M.E., 1991. "Developing Human Resources" in University Associates Annual. J. William Pfeiffer, (editor). San Diego : Pfeiffer and Company

TRUST-ORIENTATION PROFILE SCORING SHEET

CHARACTERISTIC	TRUST	MISTRUST
Open Versus Closed	3A _____ 7A _____	3B _____ 7B _____
Willing to Risk Versus Unwilling to Risk	5A _____ 11A _____	5B _____ 11B _____
Cooperative Versus Competitive	9A _____ 13A _____	9B _____ 13B _____
Accepting and Warm Versus Rejecting and Cold	17A _____ 23A _____	17B _____ 23B _____
Expert Versus Inept	1A _____ 19A _____	1B _____ 19B _____
Accountable Versus Unaccountable	15A _____ 21A _____	15B _____ 21B _____
Supportive Versus Controlling	4B _____ 24B _____	4A _____ 24A _____
Respectful Versus Disrespectful	6B _____ 20B _____	6A _____ 20A _____
Genuine Versus Hypocritical	8B _____ 12B _____	8A _____ 12A _____
Mutual Versus Superior	10B _____ 14B _____	10A _____ 14A _____
Open Minded About Problems Versus Fixated on Predetermined Solutions	16B _____ 22B _____	16A _____ 22A _____
Dependable Versus Capricious	2B _____ 18B _____	2A _____ 18A _____
TOTALS		

Figure 5.5

TRUST-ORIENTATION PROFILE

Source: Chartier, M.R. 1991. "Developing Human Resources" in University Associates Annual. J. William Pfeiffer (editor). San Diego : Pfeiffer and Company

The respondent is presented with several situations and asked to distribute five points between two alternative managerial behaviours (A and B). The measured manager accumulates a trust score and a mistrust score based on opposing behaviours, viz. 'open' (3A and 3B) versus 'closed' (7A and 7B)" (see figure 5.5). These two scores are added together and the resulting score is plotted somewhere on the trust/mistrust continuum between high trust and high mistrust (figure 5.4).

The profile operates on the assumption that certain behaviours create trust and that the opposite of those behaviours create mistrust, viz. 'open behaviours' generate trust, whereas its opposite behaviour, as determined by Chartier, 'closed behaviour', develops mistrust (see figure 5.5). Hence, the implication is that open behaviour and closed behaviour have equal impact on developing trust and mistrust, respectively. In other words, the behaviours are diametrically opposed, or polarised.

The research findings however, did not support this assumption. As an example: 'not keeping promises' was ranked as having the most potential to destroy trust, whereas, its opposite, 'keeping promises', was only ranked as the tenth most important behaviour to build trust. Figure 5.6, developed by the researcher, demonstrates the ranked positions of the trust building behaviours as well

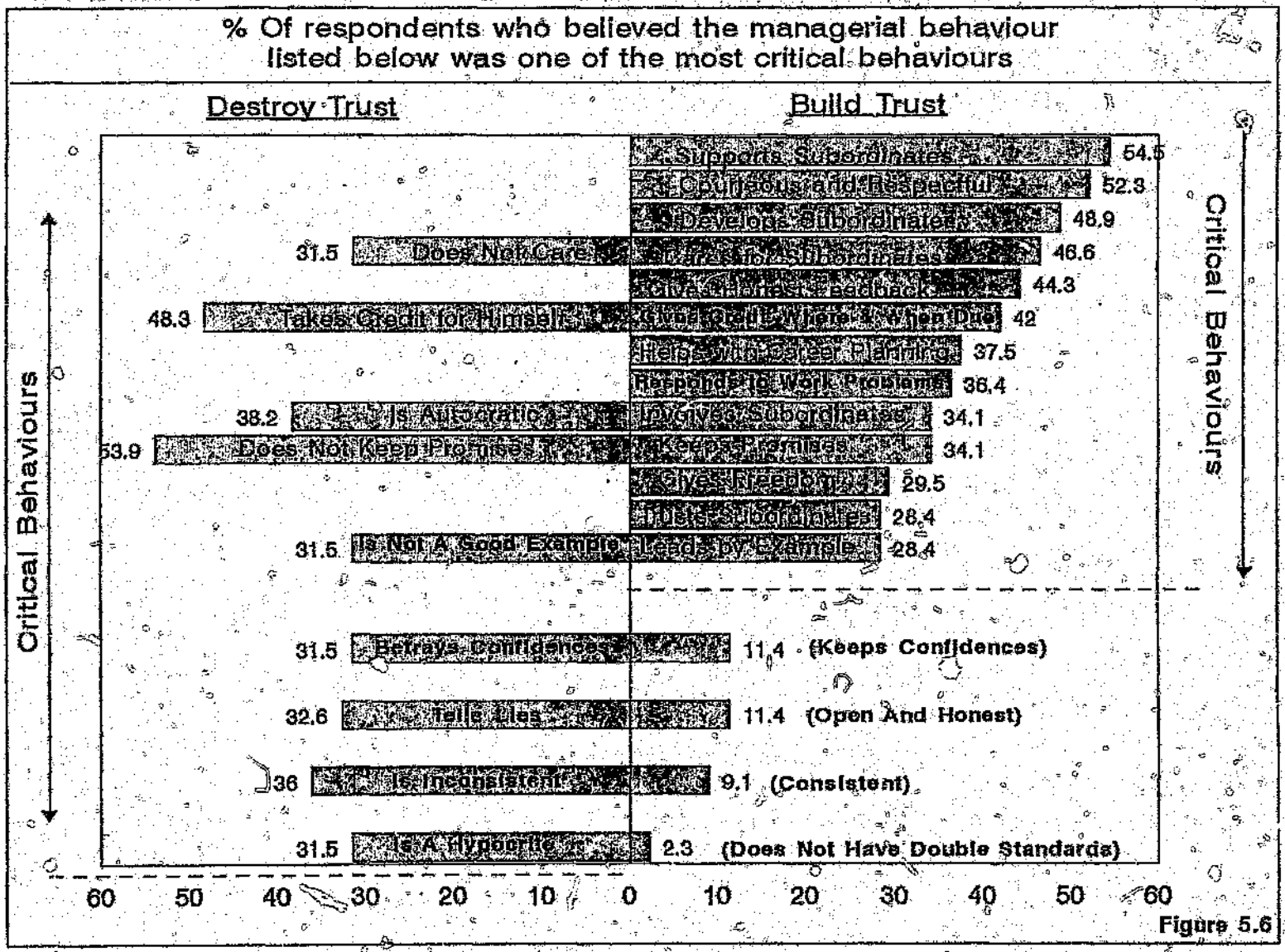


Figure 5.6

The Lack of Polarization Between Trust and Mistrust

as the relative ranked positions of the trust destroying behaviours. It is evident from Figure 5.6 that the trust building behaviours were not directly opposed to those behaviours that destroy trust.

The result of this phenomenon is not too unlike Hertzberg's Motivation Theory (Robbins, 1989). When managers are inconsistent the result is a destruction of subordinate trust. However, when managers are consistent the result is not building of trust, but merely a state of no mistrust. The opposite of trust building is not trust destruction,

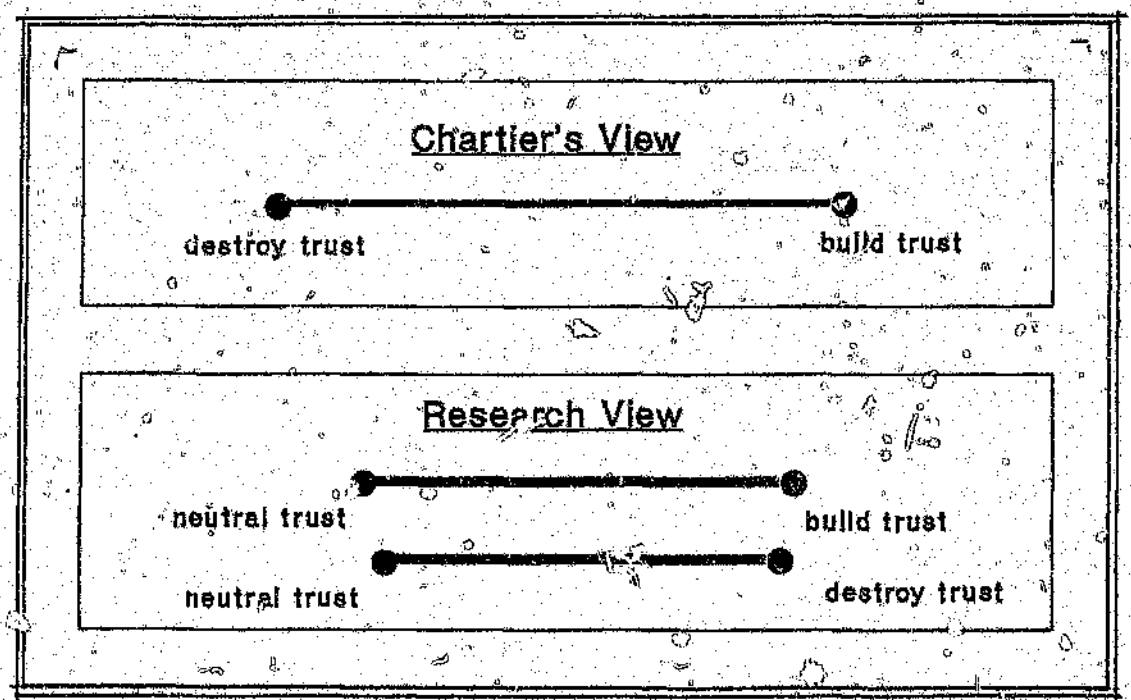


Figure 5.5

CHARTIER'S VIEW OF TRUST vs. THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

but no trust building. Thus trust building and trust destroying managerial behaviours are two separate dimensions. Figure 5.5, developed by the researcher, demonstrates this phenomenon.

The research findings therefore, identified that opposite behaviours did not have the same impact on the building of trust and its opposite, the destruction of trust. Thus, it can be asserted that Chartier's (1992) Trust-Orientation Profile is a misleading measurement of individual trustworthiness levels. Trust and mistrust cannot be plotted simultaneously on a continuum and should be measured on separate continuums.

5.14 THE RECIPROCITY OF TRUST

Kouzes and Posner (1990) proposed that trust was a reciprocal process. Kreitner and Kinicki, (1992, p. 405) described the reciprocal, 'give-and-take', nature of trust as follows: "When we see others acting in ways that imply that they trust us, we become more disposed to reciprocate by trusting in them more. Conversely, we come to distrust those whose actions appear to violate our trust or to distrust us.....we tend to give what we get : trust begets trust; distrust begets distrust".

The research findings supported this concept. In many instances trust appeared to be a 'chicken and egg' situation. As highlighted earlier in this chapter, trust

must be present in the relationship in order to further develop trust, as an instance: when subordinates were involved in the decision making their trust in managers increased, however, a climate of trust had to be present before subordinates were willing to contribute towards and become involved in the decision making.

The point at which trust first emerges, whether it be with the manager, the subordinate or within the system or structure, was not made clear by the research.

5.15 IMPLICATIONS FOR SOUTH AFRICAN BUSINESS ORGANISATIONS

As outlined in chapter two, the socio-political history of South Africa created rampant mistrust between different race groups and different language groups. South African society has "created a population of oppressed victims who distrust the formal leadership at work and elsewhere" (E. Schuitema, 1991, p. 18). The poor trust is evidenced in business organisations by different types of conflict at all levels.

Rotter (1971) proposed that life experiences influence individuals' predisposition to trust others. Distrusting people are less inclined to take the risk of trusting others, because in the past they may have experienced untrustworthy people. Distrusting people also tended to view other people's motives less positively, and are less caring, unresponsive, more self-centred, and intolerant.

By behaving in this way their expectations that others will not prove trustworthy are confirmed (Rempel and Holmes, 1986). Hence, a vicious circle is established which makes it even more difficult to build trust with distrusting people.

Whilst trust may be especially difficult to establish in South African companies due to its nature, as outline above, as well as the prevailing circumstances, those very circumstances make it doubly important to establish a climate of trust. Manning (1988, p. 55) expressed this significant issue thus; "If we were to lift our sights for just a moment, and to recognise that our purpose is not just profit - but the future of this society, we'll all understand the importance of building trust at work and creating positive expectations in one another".

The responsibility for building trust must be assigned to the mangers and leaders of South African business organisations. They represent the organisation to employees, and employees view their organisation through the relationship they experience with their manager.

The Trust Building Model, developed from the research findings, guides individual managers and leaders to initiate a climate of trust in their own organisations. By employing specific developmental behaviours which relate to the enabling and empowering of employees to satisfy their

needs and achieve their own goals, in an atmosphere of genuine managerial care and trust, managers can break the cycle of mistrust, and gain the trust of their subordinates.

The following chapter summarises the research findings and discussions. It also makes recommendations and suggests areas for further research.

CHAPTER SIX : CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

6.1 CONCLUSIONS

The research findings confirmed proposition number (Pi) by identifying the critical managerial behaviours that build subordinate trust. The result differed from that proposed in the literature reviewed. The critical managerial behaviours identified by the research were those that enabled subordinates to improve their competence and confidence as well as to achieve their aspirations, whereas the reviewed literature proposed that the managers' own level of integrity is responsible for the building of trust. The research findings identified that subordinates have a greater say in the building of trust, whereas the destruction of trust is dependent on managers.

The research findings also identified the critical managerial behaviours that destroy subordinate trust. These behaviours were largely characterised by a lack of managerial integrity, viz. the reversal of the trust building behaviours proposed by the literature reviewed.

Proposition number (Pii) was also confirmed by the research, whereby the managerial behaviours that destroy trust were found not to be merely the opposite of the behaviours that build trust. Thus, the findings indicated that individual trust levels cannot be measured on a single

continuum.

Significant differences in the ranking of criteria placed on managerial behaviours that build trust and destroy trust, respectively, were identified by the research between the different Job Grade Groups, as well as between the different Sites. Thus, proposition P(iii) was also confirmed by the research findings.

The research findings led to additional discussions. Trust has a reciprocal aspect, whereby "trust begets trust, and distrust begets distrust" (Kreitner and Kinicki, 1992), and in many instances trust must be present before further trust building could develop. Trust and motivation have parallels in that they both tend to satisfy subordinates' needs. Trust however, relies largely on the attitudes and behaviours of managers. Trust presents a paradox in that whilst subordinates desire to decrease their dependence on their managers this can only be achieved through that very dependence. The trust paradox revealed the relevance of mutuality and interdependence in the manager-subordinate relationship.

A Trust Building Model (Figure 5.1) developed by the researcher from the findings of the research, added to the knowledge on the topic. The key pivotal issue in the Trust Building Model was identified as empowerment of the subordinate. The relevance of trust to the South African

business environment was identified as being critical.

The research study was confined to the managerial behaviours that build trust and those that destroy trust, and the sample was restricted to three sites of one South African business organisation. A number of field situation barriers limited the outcome of the findings. The research findings were therefore, limited. However, as the study was exploratory it has opened up the field for further research.

6.2 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

As mentioned earlier, this research study was exploratory and therefore, served as a precursor to further scientific research. It has opened up a wide field of possible further research options, which are discussed below.

6.2.1 Verify Propositions

A subsequent research project could take the route of verifying the identified trust building and trust destroying managerial behaviours with a more generalisable subordinate sample, by means of the survey method.

A sample of South African managers could be surveyed to establish their views on the managerial behaviours that build and destroy subordinate trust. Comparisons

could be made between the managers' views and the subordinates' views. The South African managers' views on the topic could then also be compared with the results of American managers, as evidenced in the Mishra and Morrissey (1990) study.

6.2.2. Interpretations of the Relationships Between the Variables

A qualitative study could take the route of exploring and giving further interpretations to the relationships between the variables, as identified by the findings of this research study.

6.2.3 Formulation of Qualitative Problems

The discussion based on the findings of the research, formulated a number of propositions which could be further investigated. Some of these could be :

- Investigating which of trust or motivation is the greater predictor of subordinate satisfaction.

- Investigating whether trust building systems and structures (as oppose to managerial behaviours) have the potential to introduce a climate of trust wherein managerial trust building behaviours can begin to develop.

- Test the Trust Building Model in a specific case

study organisation that claims to have built organisational trust.

6.2.4 Quantitative Research Instruments

An instrument could be developed to measure individual levels of trustworthiness, based on the findings of the research.

An instrument could also be developed to measure the trust climate in organisations, making use of the Trust Building Model.

Indeed, due to the exploratory nature of this research a whole range of both qualitative and quantitative research approaches can be applied to further investigate the topic of trust in the manager-subordinate relationship.

"Trust is the highest form of human motivation - it brings out the very best in people. But it takes time and patience...."

(Covey, 1989, p. 178)

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Appendix A1

Section 1

What does my manager/supervisor do and say that makes me feel that I can trust him/her?



Time allowed for this section 10 min.

Idea	✓

Section 3

What does my manager/supervisor do and say that makes me feel that I can trust him/her?

What you are required to do:

- > Rate the ideas listed (tick the appropriate box) according to how you perceive their worth
- > Identify the ten ideas you consider most worthwhile
- > In the points column, rank your ten most worthwhile ideas in order, giving 10 points to the top idea, 9 points to the next best idea, and so on down to 1 point for the tenth
- > Transcribe your rank point scores to section 4



Time allowed for this section 10 min.

Idea	Excellent	Good	Fair	Points
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				
6				
7				
8				
9				
10				
11				
12				
13				
14				
15				
16				
17				
18				
19				
20				
21				
22				
23				
24				
25				

Idea	Excellent	Good	Fair	Points
26				
27				
28				
29				
30				
31				
32				
33				
34				
35				
36				
37				
38				
39				
40				
41				
42				
43				
44				
45				
46				
47				
48				
49				
50				

Section 3

What does my manager/supervisor do and say that makes me feel that I can trust him/her?

What you are required to do:

- > Rate the ideas listed (tick the appropriate box) according to how you perceive their worth
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- > In the points column, rank your ten most worthwhile ideas in order, giving 10 points to the top idea, 9 points to the next best idea, and so on down to 1 point for the tenth
- > Transcribe your rank point scores to Section 4



Time allowed for this section 10 min.

Idea	Excellent	Good	Fair	Points
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				
6				
7				
8				
9				
10				
11				
12				
13				
14				
15				
16				
17				
18				
19				
20				
21				
22				
23				
24				
25				

Idea	Excellent	Good	Fair	Points
26				
27				
28				
29				
30				
31				
32				
33				
34				
35				
36				
37				
38				
39				
40				
41				
42				
43				
44				
45				
46				
47				
48				
49				
50				

Section 3

What does my manager/supervisor do and say that makes me feel that I can trust him/her?

What you are required to do:

- Rate the ideas listed (tick the appropriate box) according to how you perceive their worth
- Identify the ten ideas you consider most worthwhile
- In the points column, rank your ten most worthwhile ideas in order, giving 10 points to the top idea, 9 points to the next best idea, and so on down to 1 point for the tenth
- Transcribe your rank point scores to Section 4



Time allowed for this section 10 min.

Idea	Excellent	Good	Fair	Points
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				
6				
7				
8				
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Idea	Excellent	Good	Fair	Points
26				
27				
28				
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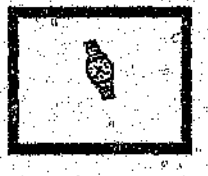
Appendix A

Section 4

What does my manager/supervisor do and say that makes me feel that I can trust him/her?

Individual Rankings

Group/Name: 1/B Date: 15/5/92



Time allowed for this section 5 min.

Ranking	Idea No	✓
10		
9		
8		
7		
6		
5		
4		
3		
2		
1		

Appendix A4

Pooled Rankings — Section 5

What does my manager/supervisor do and say that makes me feel that I can trust him/her?

Group/Name: 1 B — Date: 15/5/92

Idea	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	Total	Rank
1															
2															
3															
4															
5															
6															
7															
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11															
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31															
32															
33															
34															
35															
36															
37															
38															
39															
40															
Total															

Appendix A5

Pooled Rankings — Section 6

What my manager says and does that makes me feel that I cannot trust him/her?

Group/Name: GROUP 15 Date: 10/7/92

Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	Total	Rank
1			4	1				3						8	
2														/	
3	7		10											17	
4		3		2			10							15	
5						4		7						11	
6	10			3		5	6							(24)	2
7	8		1		10	10	5	6						(40)	9
8	8	1	2		9	8	4	10						(42)	10
9			7											7	
10			3											3	
11	2	9			8	7								(26)	3
12		6	9	6	7		7	4						(39)	8
13	9		5		6	6		5						(31)	6
14		5				2								7	
15		2		5	5		3							15	
16	6	4		4	3									19	
17														/	
18	5		8	8			9							(30)	5
19	3					9		8						(20)	1
20				7	4									11	
21														/	
22		7	6		2	3	8							(26)	4
23		10						2						12	
24	4	8		10	1	1	2	9						(35)	7
25				9			1	1							
26															
27															
28															
29															
30															
31															
32															
33															
34															
35															
36															
37															
38															
39															
40															

WHAT MY MANAGER SAYS AND DOES THAT MAKES ME FEEL THAT I CANNOT TRUST HIM/HER?

CONSTRUCT		(85) TOTAL	JOB GRADE GROUP 1/A	1/B	1/C	1/D	2/A1	2/A2	2/B	2/C	2/D	3/A	3/B	3/C	3/D
Does not give feedback to subords. on work/work they have done for him	7.9	7 (12)		2		4								1	
	32.6														
Tells lies		21 (6)	1	7	6			8	3					6	
Does not provide the tools/equipment/training etc. to do the job properly – yet expects results	13.5	12 (14)	2	4			4			2					
Does not keep promises	5.9	48 (2)	7	5		4		5	7	2		6	6	3	3
Does not give credit when due	23.4	21 (11)		6						2		6		3	4
Not a good example	31.5	28 (7)		4	2	5		6			5			3	3
Does not trust his/her subordinates	35	12 (16)	2	4			1			2	4				
Does not do job appraisals or discuss improvement in job performance	21.3	19 (13)	5	7	5	2				2					
Shows no respect for other employees (is not courteous)	24.1	22 (10)		3	1	2	4		6	2		1		3	
Has no moral integrity	45	4 (14)												4	
Is inappropriate/intrusive/assaults/humiliates	16.1	15 (13)	4	3						2	3	3			
Undermines his/her subordinates	15.7	14 (8)		1	4				4		3			1	3
Is irresponsible (passes the buck)	19.6	13 (15)				4			4				2		3
Discriminates (race, age, sex, etc.)	59.7	89 (1)	9	1	1	1		5		4		6			
Plays favourites – does not treat people equally	28.1	25 (9)		3	5	3	4						6	4	
Is a hypocrite (Do as I say)	31.5	28 (7)	1		6				2	2	4	3	4	6	
Turns down subordinates suggestions or their use/sticks as his/her own (takes credit for his work)	41.3	45 (5)			4	4	4	4	6	3	3	4	7		4

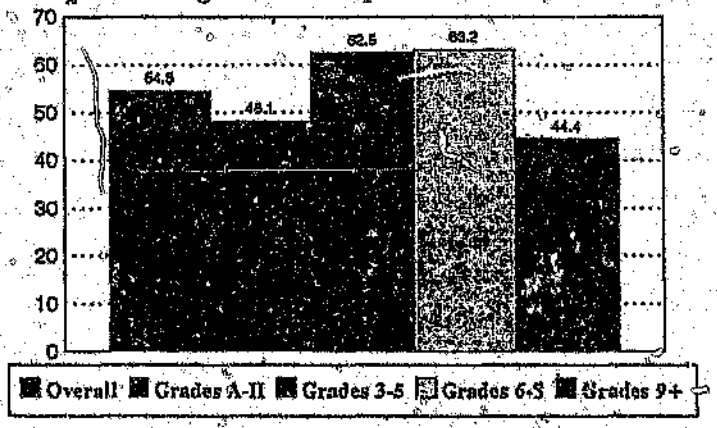
Appendix 4e6

Appendix A7

The Critical Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Build Subordinate Trust : By Job Grade (in Ranked Order)

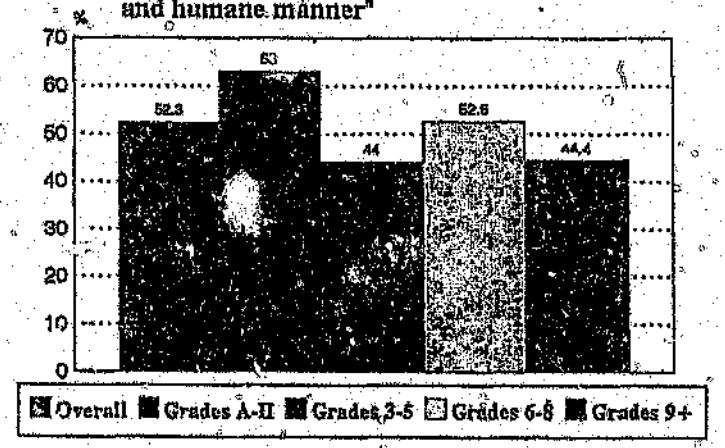
The Manager behaviours and attitudes that build subordinate trust

"Stands by and supports subordinates through their work problems"



The Manager behaviours and attitudes that build subordinate trust

"Communicates in a courteous, respectful and humane manner"

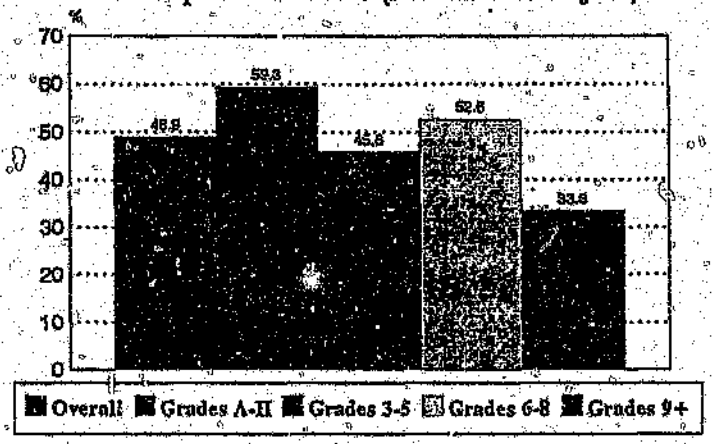


Appendix A7 (continued)

The Critical Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Build Subordinate Trust : By Job Grade Group (in Ranked Order)

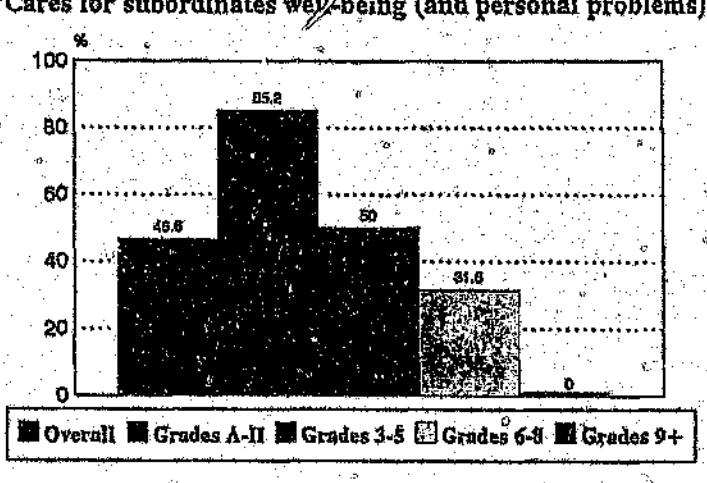
The Manager behaviours and attitudes that build subordinate trust

"Develops subordinates (in their current jobs)"



The Manager behaviours and attitudes that build subordinate trust

"Cares for subordinates well-being (and personal problems)"

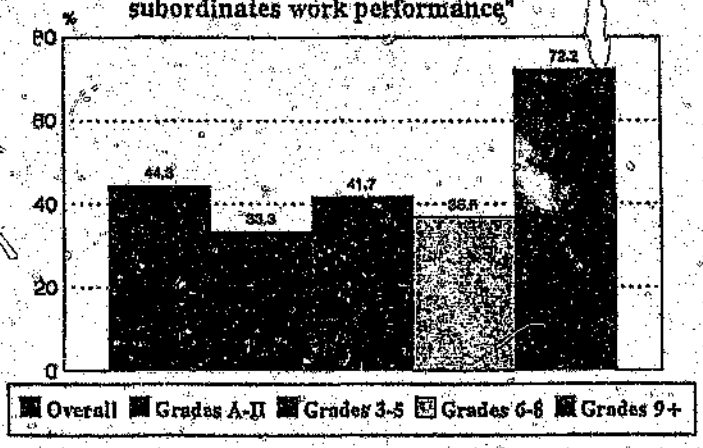


Appendix A7 (continued)

The Critical Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Build Subordinate Trust : By Job Grade Group (in Ranked Order)

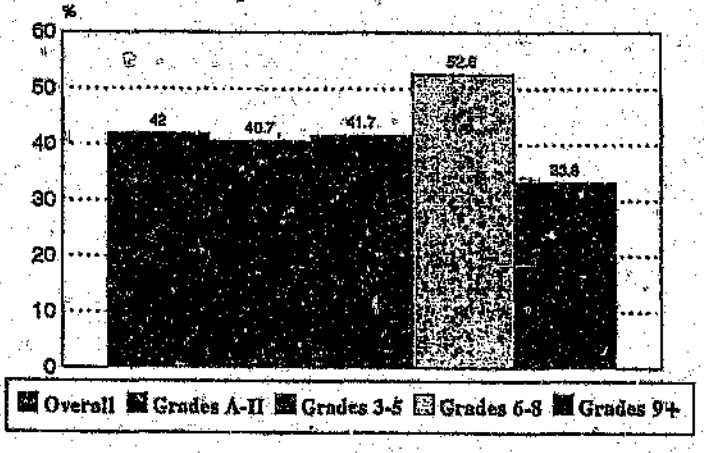
The Manager behaviours and attitudes that build subordinate trust

"Gives honest and regular feedback on subordinates work performance"



The Manager behaviours and attitudes that build subordinate trust

"Gives credit/praise where and when it is due"

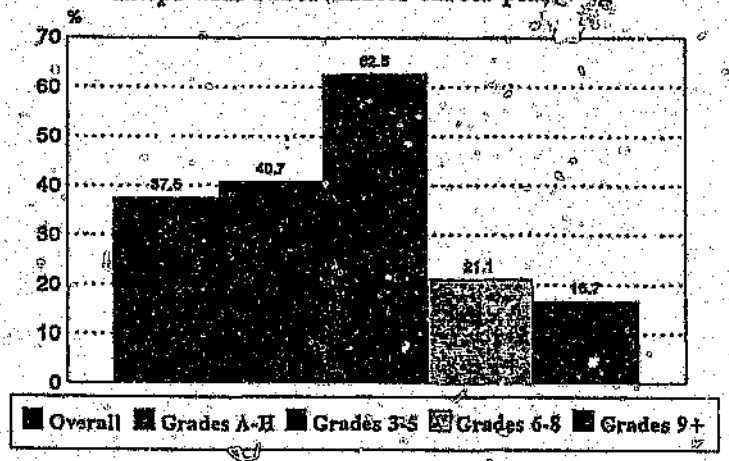


Appendix A7 (continued)

The Critical Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Build Subordinate Trust : By Job Grade Group (in Ranked Order)

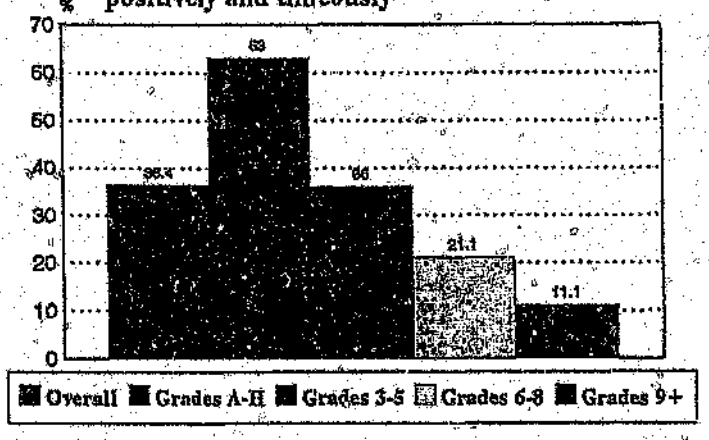
The Manager behaviours and attitudes that build subordinate trust

"Helps with subordinates career pla[illegible]g"



The Manager behaviours and attitudes that build subordinate trust

"Responds to subordinates work problem positively and timeously"

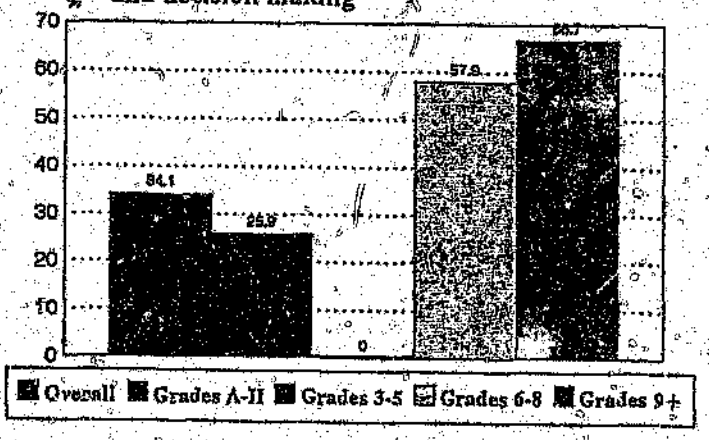


Appendix A7 (continued)

The Critical Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Build Subordinate Trust : By Job Grade Group (in Ranked Order).

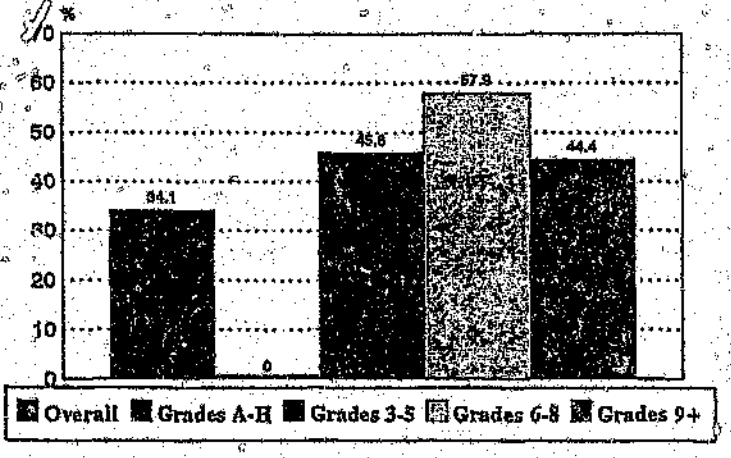
The Manager behaviours and attitudes that build subordinate trust

"Involves subordinates in problem-solving and decision making"



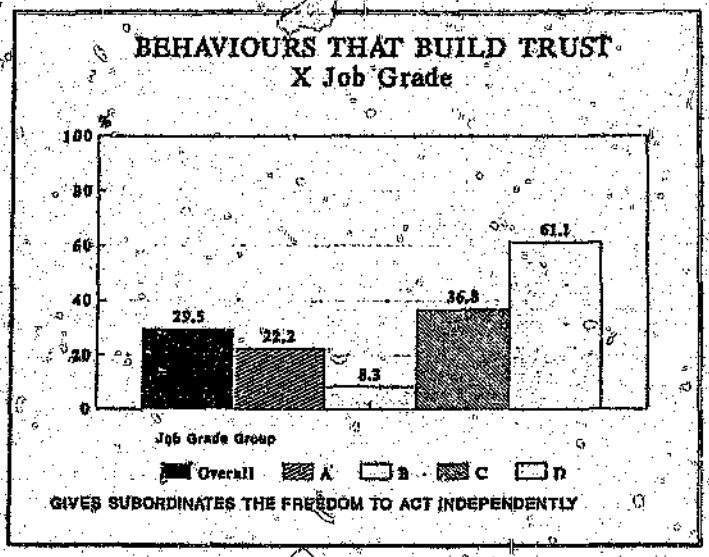
The Manager behaviours and attitudes that build subordinate trust

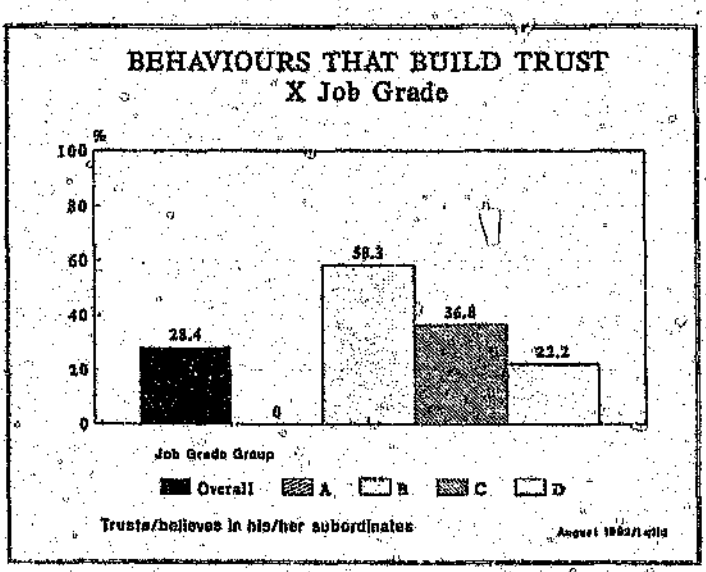
"Keeps promises he/she has made to subordinates"



Appendix A7 (continued)

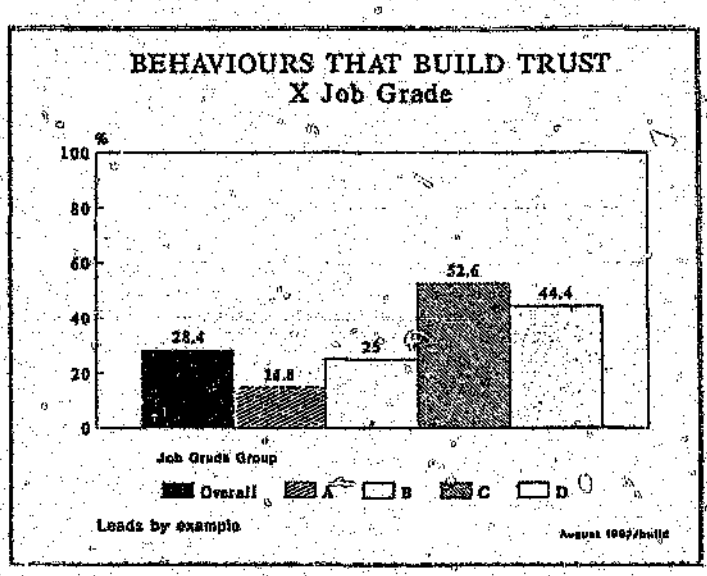
The Critical Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Build Subordinate Trust : By Job Grade Group (in Ranked Order)





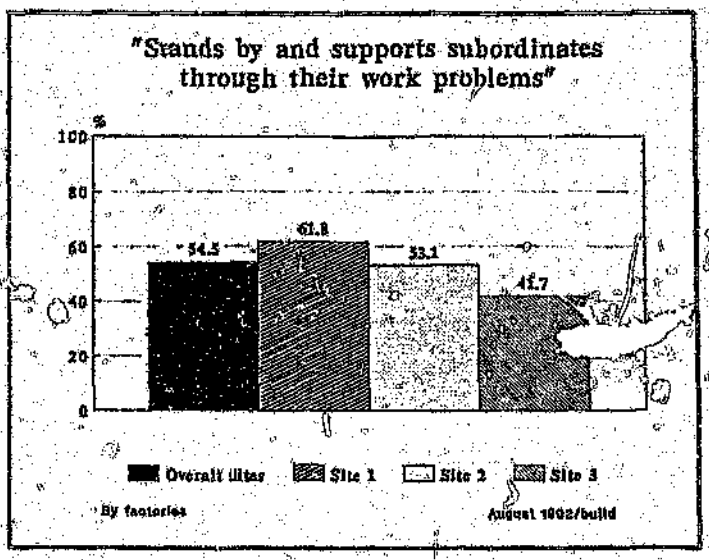
Appendix A7 (continued)

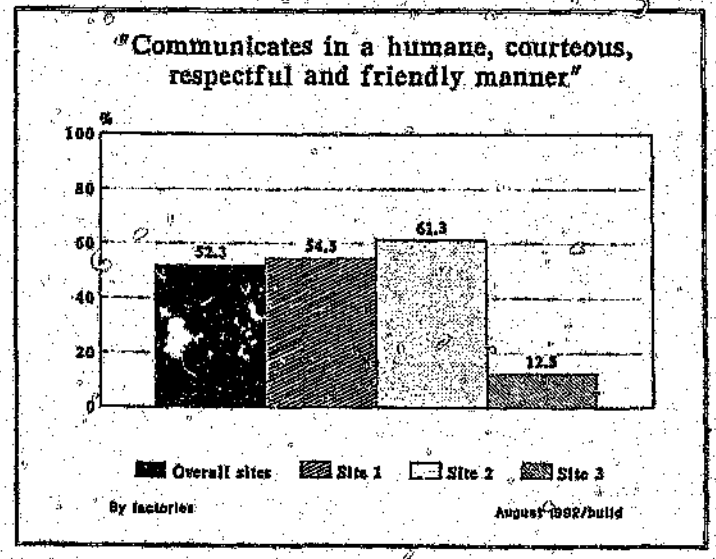
The Critical Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Build Subordinate Trust : By Job Grade Group (in Ranked Order)



Appendix A8

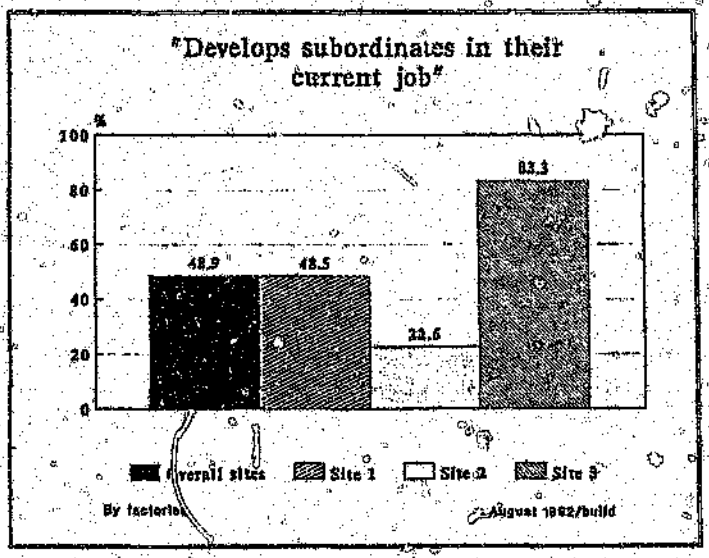
The Critical Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Build Subordinate Trust : By Site (in Ranked Order)

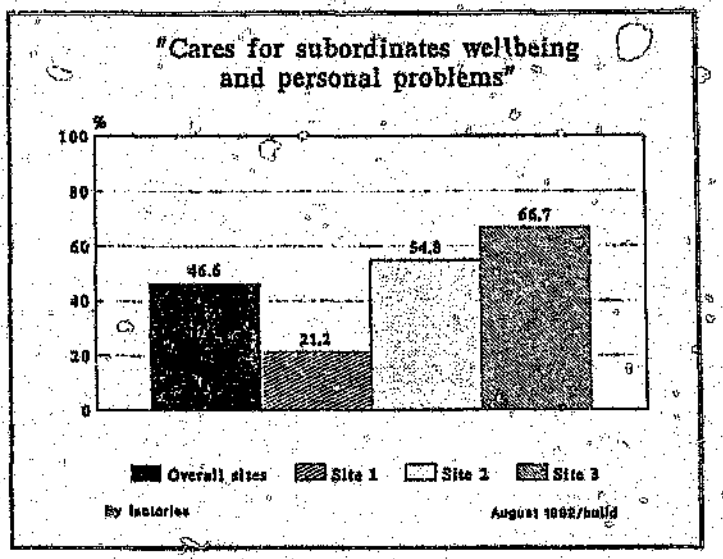




Appendix A8 (continued)

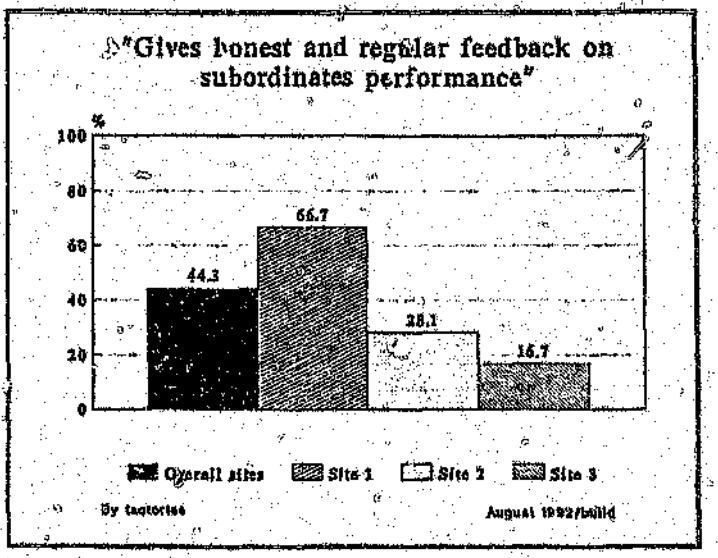
The Critical Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Build Subordinate Trust : By Site (in Ranked Order)

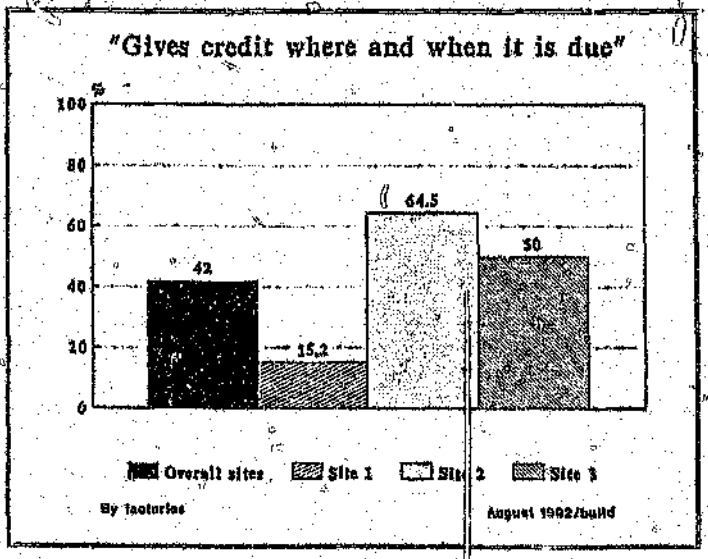




Appendix A8 (continued)

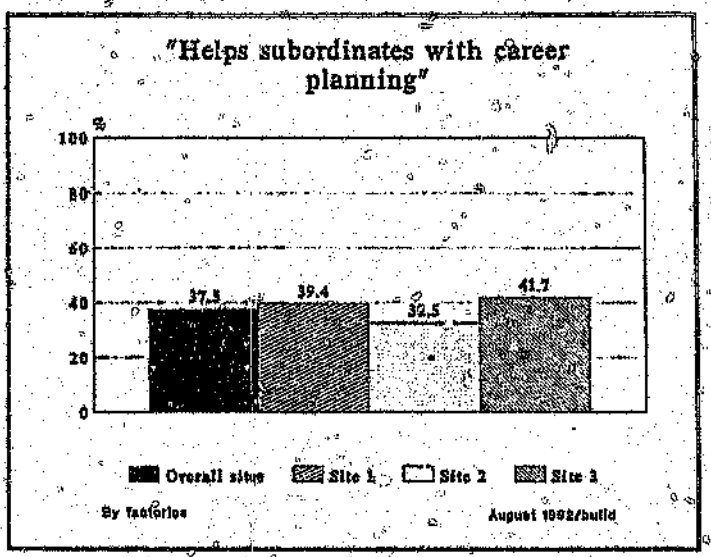
The Critical Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Build Subordinate Trust : By Site (in Ranked Order)

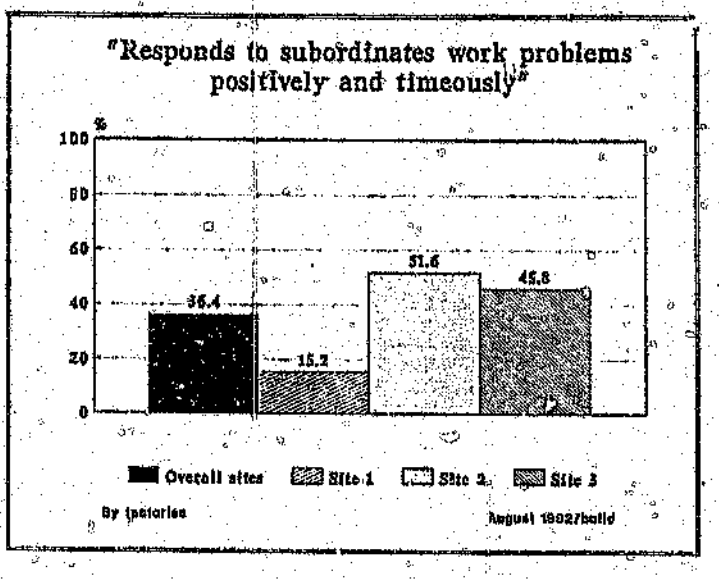




Appendix A8 (continued)

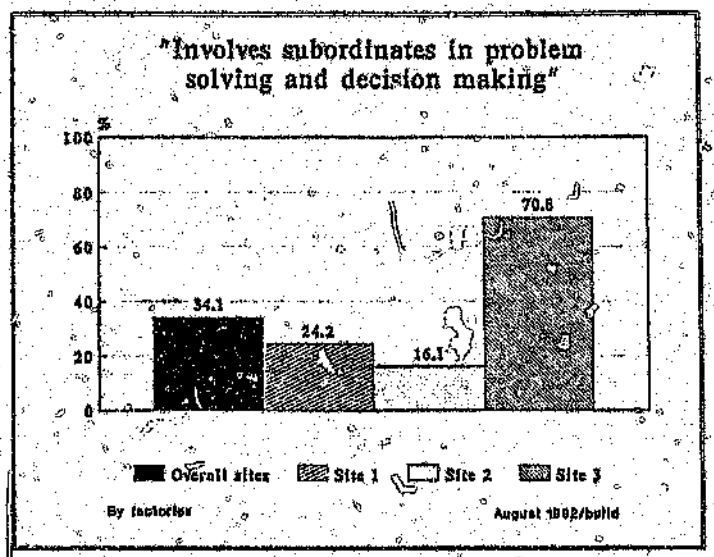
The Critical Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Build Subordinate Trust : By Site (in Ranked Order)

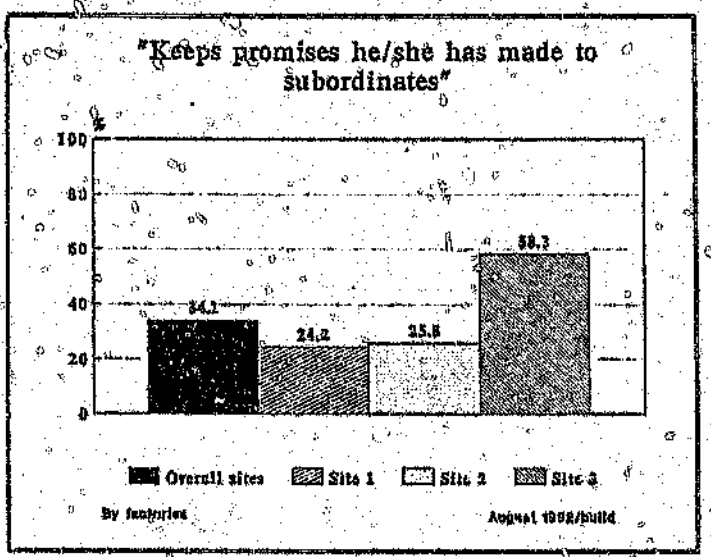




Appendix A8 (continued)

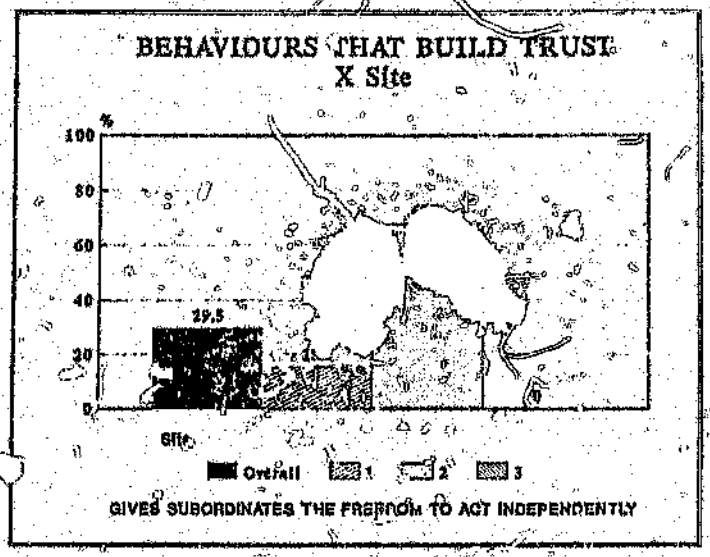
The Critical Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Build Subordinate Trust : By Site (in Ranked Order)

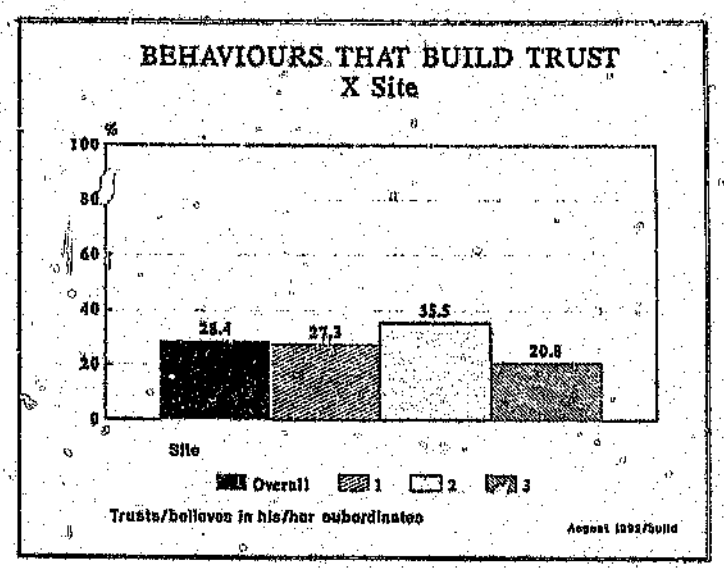




Appendix A8 (continued)

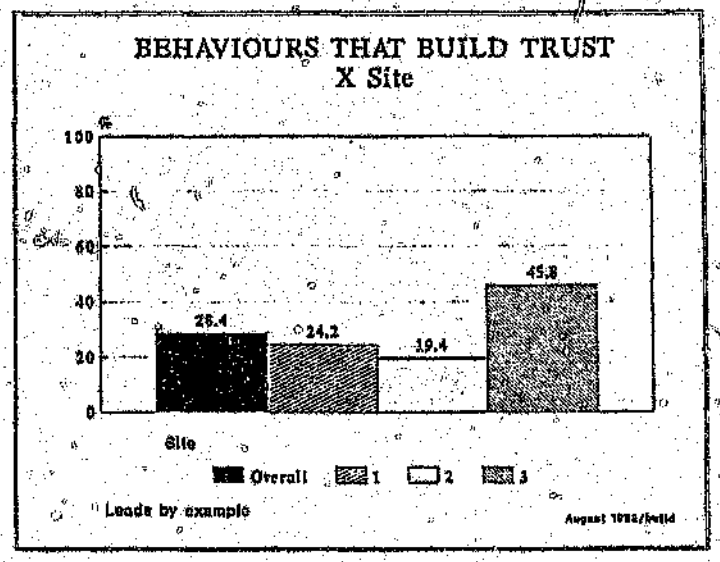
The Critical Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Build Subordinate Trust : By Site (in Ranked Order)





Appendix A8 (continued)

The Critical Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Build Subordinate Trust : By Site (in Ranked Order)

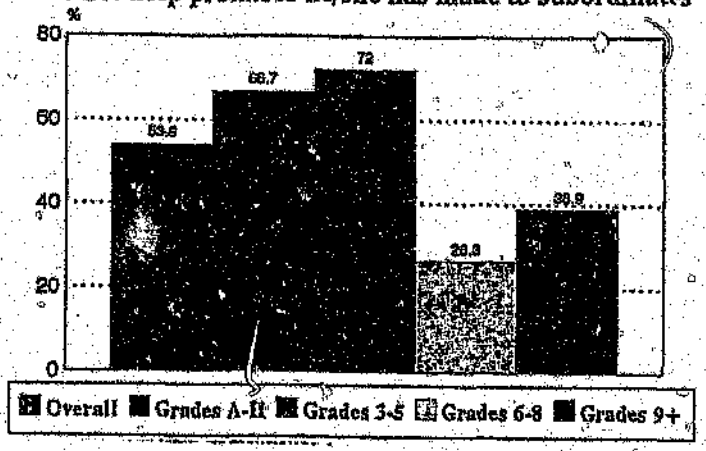


Appendix A9

The Critical Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Destroy Subordinate Trust : By Job Grade (in ranked order)

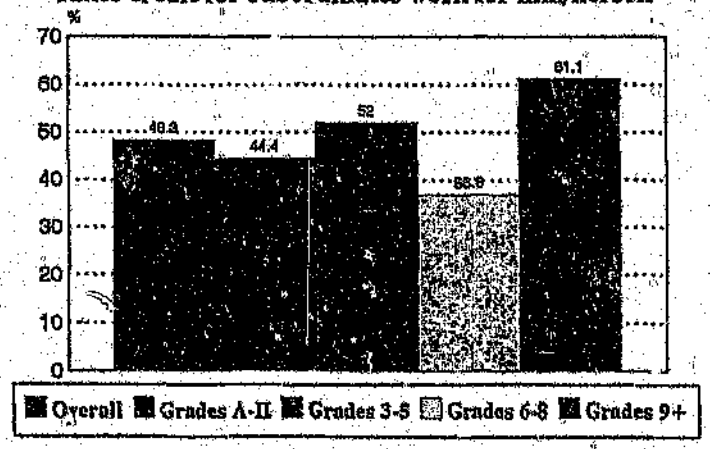
Manager behaviours and attitudes that destroy subordinate trust

"Does not keep promises he/she has made to subordinates"



Manager behaviours and attitudes that destroy subordinate trust

"Takes credit for subordinates work for him/herself"

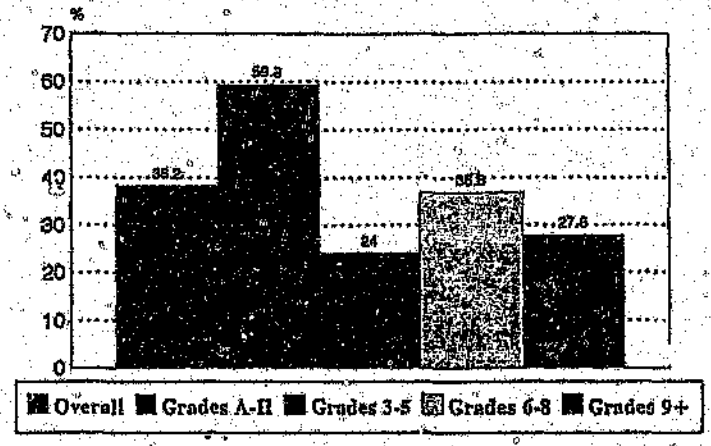


Appendix A9 (continued)

The Critical Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Destroy Subordinate Trust : By Job Grade (in Ranked Order)

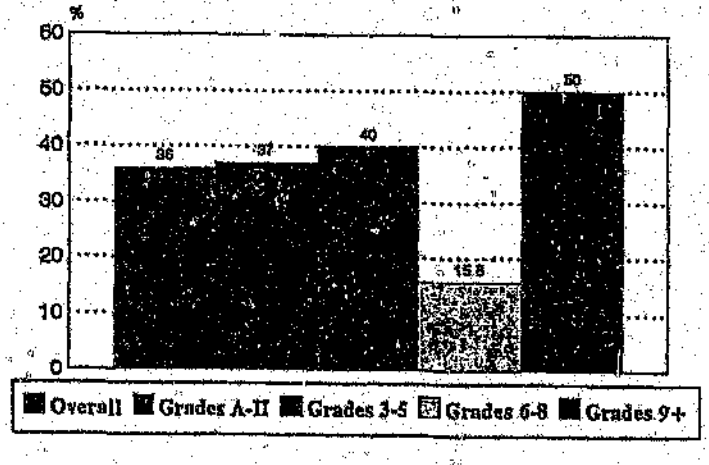
Manager behaviours and attitudes that destroy subordinate trust

"Is autocratic - (instructs and does not ask for opinions)"



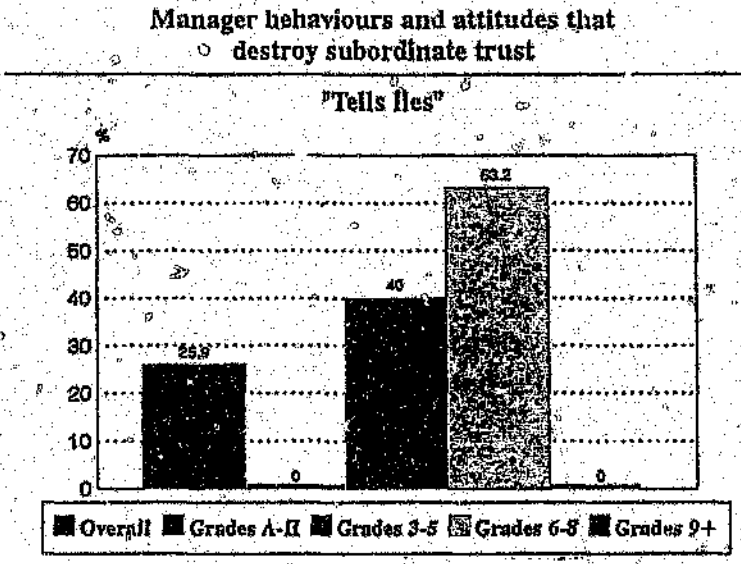
Manager behaviours and attitudes that destroy subordinate trust

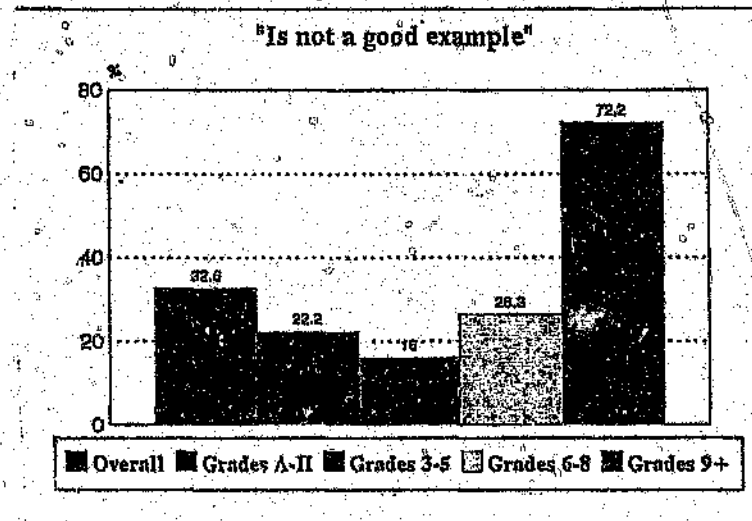
"Is inconsistent (in planning, decisions, discipline and moods)"



Appendix A9 (continued)

The Critical Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Destroy Subordinate Trust : By Job Grade (in Ranked Order)



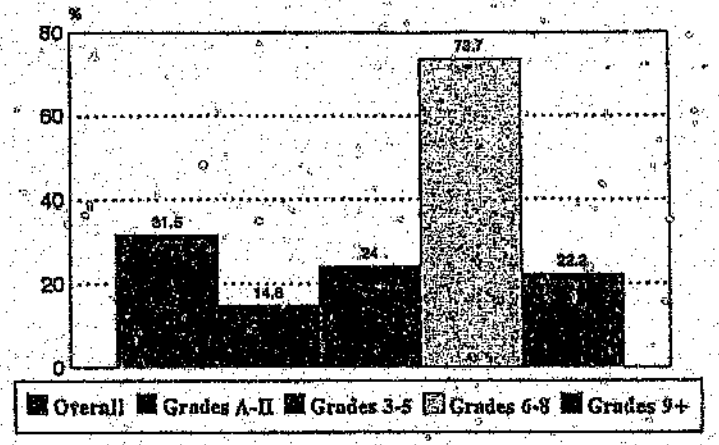


Appendix A9 (continued)

The Critical Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Destroy Subordinate Trust : By Job Grade (in Ranked Order)

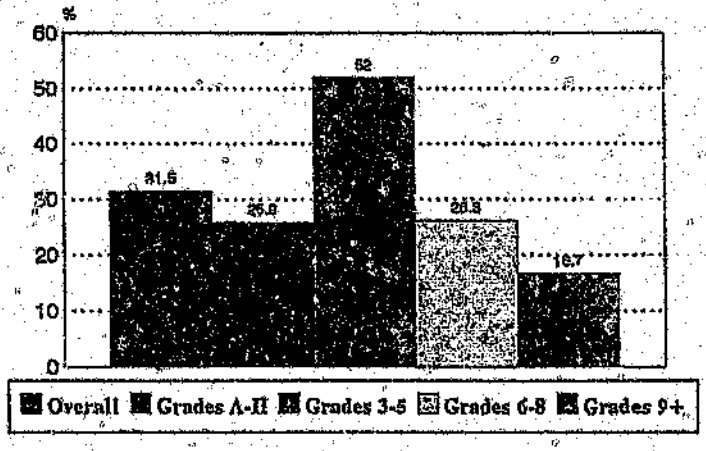
Manager behaviours and attitudes that destroy subordinate trust

"Is a hypocrite (two-faced)"



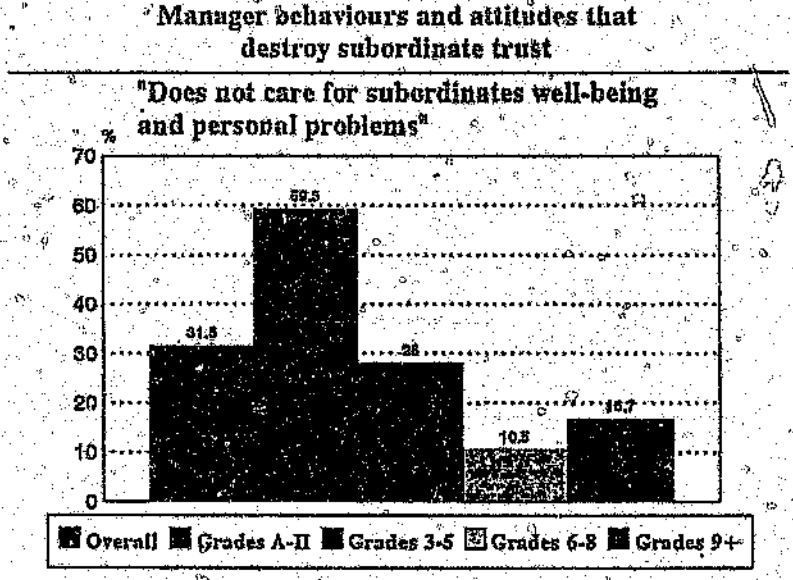
Manager behaviours and attitudes that destroy subordinate trust

"Does not keep confidences"



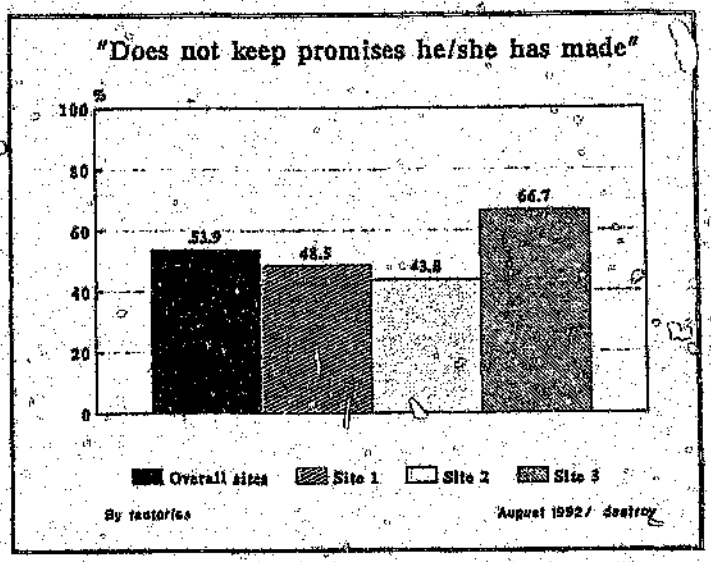
Appendix A9 (continued)

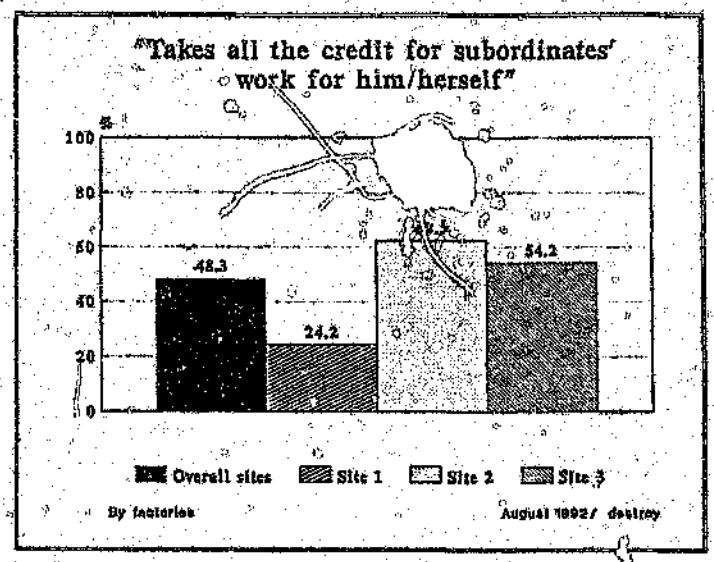
The Critical Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Destroy Subordinate Trust : By Job Grade (in Ranked Order)



Appendix A10

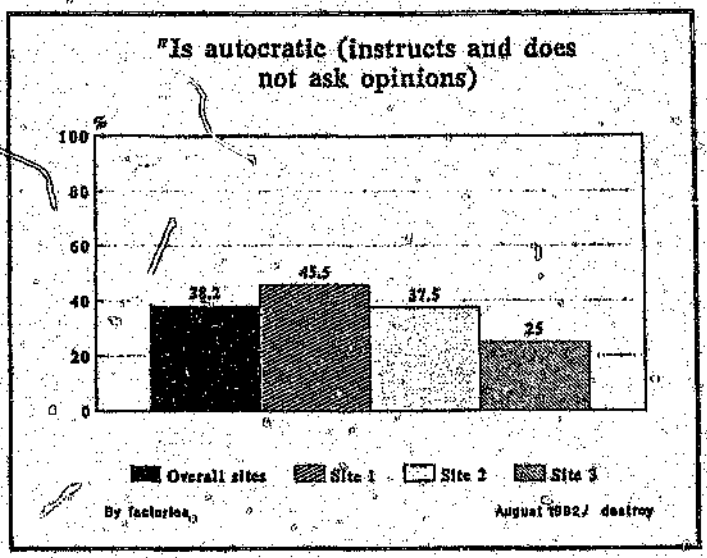
The Critical Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Destroy Subordinate Trust : By Site (in Ranked Order)

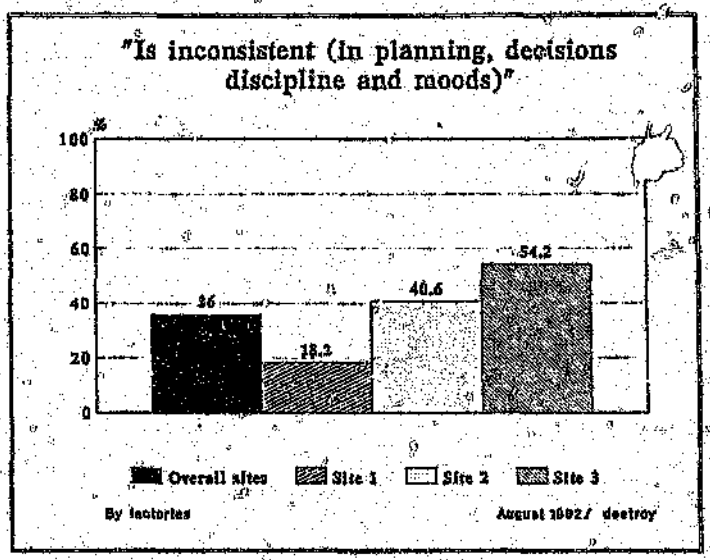




Appendix A10 (continued)

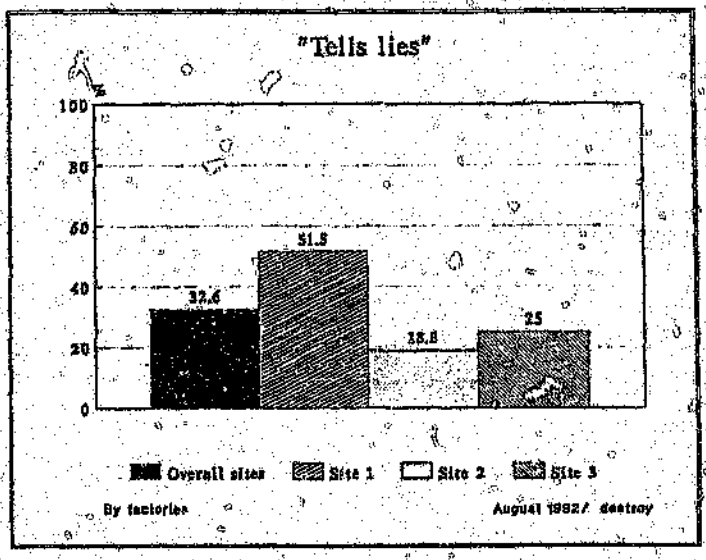
The Critical Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Destroy Subordinate Trust : By Site (in Ranked Order)

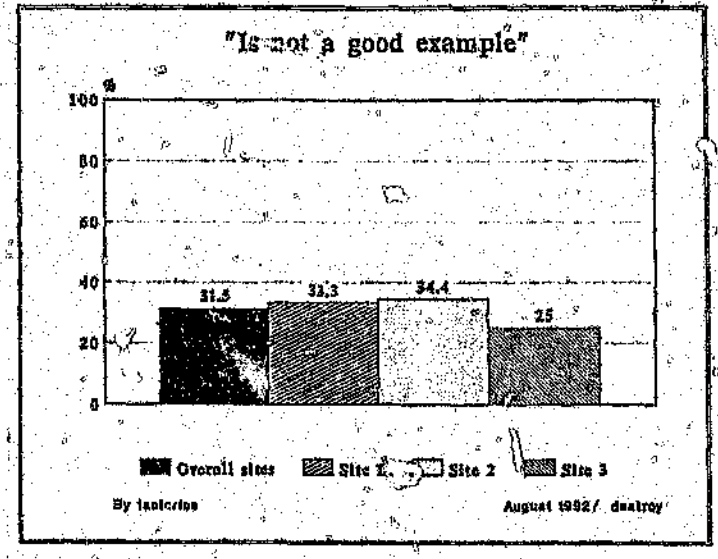




Appendix A10 (continued)

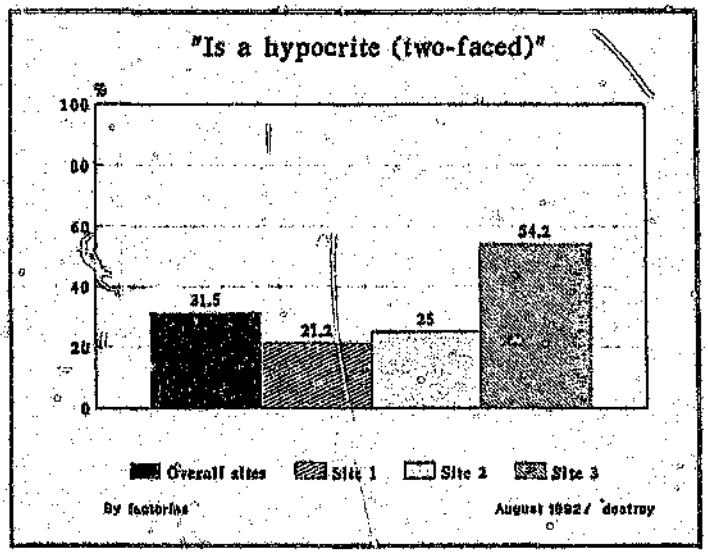
The Critical Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Destroy Subordinate Trust : By Site (in Ranked Order)

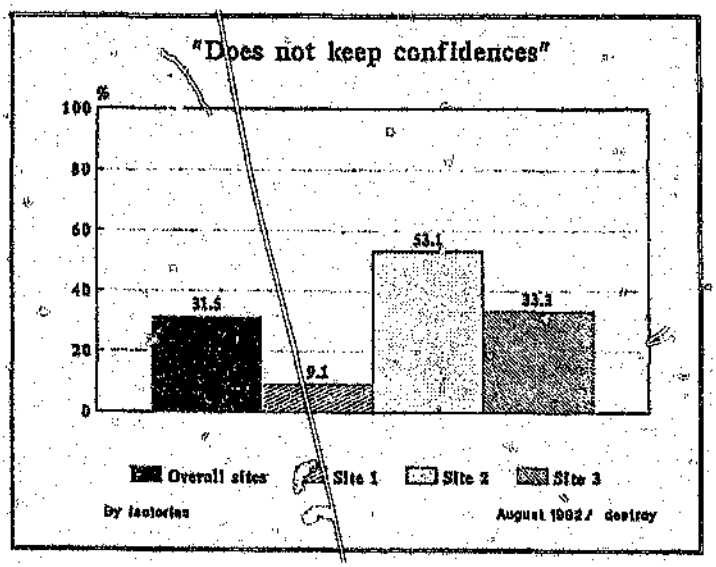




Appendix A10 (continued)

The Critical Managerial Behaviours and Attitudes that Destroy Subordinate Trust : By Site (in Ranked Order)





Author: Blackburn D.A
Name of thesis: Trust in the manager subordinate relationship

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