

**VALUES AND ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION AS  
BARRIERS TO  
UPWARD MOBILITY OF WOMEN**

**BY**

**KAREN McGOUGH**

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**Department of Industrial Psychology, Faculty of Social Science,  
University of Natal, Durban, South Africa.**

**Supervisor: Prof. Elza Thomson**

**Co-supervisor: Ms. Shaida Bobat**

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## **DEDICATION**

**I dedicate this thesis to Hilton for his incredible love expressed in his willingness for me to return to South Africa to complete both this and the remainder of my Masters Degree. Your love and support are the strength which I have drawn on while working on this study. Thank you for being all that you are to me. I love you.**

## DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I hereby declare that this dissertation is my own original work unless it is specified to the contrary in the text. This dissertation has not been submitted for a degree at any other university.

A handwritten signature in cursive script, reading "K. Lee McGough", followed by a dotted line.

Karen Lee McGough

University of Natal, Durban

June 1995

## ABSTRACT

The aim of the present study was to compare the values and achievement motivation of managerial and non-managerial female employees within the banking industry in South Africa. This research investigation was primarily aimed at determining whether there is a difference between these two groups in terms of their values and their achievement motivation and, if there is such a difference, whether this is a key to an understanding of upward mobility in women. One hundred and twenty-one female subjects were selected from four different financial institutions in the banking industry to participate in the project. The Values Questionnaire and the Achievement Motivation Questionnaire were administered to the subjects under controlled conditions. The values include sense of belonging, security, self-respect, warm relationships with others, fun and enjoyment in life, being well respected, sense of accomplishment, self-fulfilment and excitement. The achievement motivation factors include goal directedness which comprises persistence, awareness of time and action orientation, and personal excellence comprising aspiration level and personal causation. After the data was statistically analysed using intercorrelation, a number of significant relationships were found between the values for the total sample, the managerial and the non-managerial subject group, and between the achievement motivation factors for each of these three groups. When the t-test was applied, no significant differences were found between the managerial and the non-managerial groups in terms of their values, but when considering their achievement motivation, a significant difference emerged in terms of aspiration level. Correlations revealed a number of significant relationships between the values and the achievement motivation factors for both the managerial and the non-managerial subjects. Finally, using analysis of variance (ANOVA), significant relationships were found between a number of the biographical variables and the values both of the managerial and the non-managerial groups, and between the biographical variables and the achievement motivation both of the managerial and the non-managerial groups. Various tentative explanations for these findings have been provided.

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# CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

## Introduction

The current research project will be introduced in this chapter. The focus of the study will be discussed first, and then the structure of the study set out. The defined objectives of the study are then introduced and, finally, the limitations of the study are presented.

### 1.1. Focus of the Study

The focus of the current study is a comparison between the values and the achievement motivation or need for achievement of managerial and non-managerial or clerical-level female employees in the banking industry in South Africa. This research investigation is essentially intended to discover whether there is a difference between these two groups of women on the constructs values and achievement motivation.

This study seeks to determine what it is which enables certain women to move upward into management within organisations while other women remain within non-managerial positions. It is argued that a "glass ceiling", created by barriers to women's upward mobility, exists within organisations which restricts or even prevents the upward mobility of women (Katz, 1992, p.18). The term "glass ceiling" gives an indication of the invisible or covert, but very strong, rigid and resistant nature of the barriers which women face. Despite the presence of these barriers, there are many women who have broken through the "ceiling" and have become managers. This necessitates the enquiry as to whether the cause is found in internal or external factors.

According to Schein (1978), two types of career anchors exist: an external and an internal (quoted in Erwee, 1990). The external career anchor refers to a set of job descriptions and organisational norms, while the internal refers to the motives, values

and self-perceived competence of an individual (Erwee, 1990). Schein (1978) argues that it is the internal anchor which guides and constrains an individual's entire career (quoted in Erwee, 1990). The ultimate aim of this study is to illustrate that these internal career anchors, namely, values and achievement motivation, have a determining effect on the upward mobility of women in organisations.

It will be argued that the values and achievement motivation of managerial and non-managerial women differ and that the values of managerial women have enabled them to break through the "glass ceiling" into their management positions within organisations, while those of the non-managerial women function as a barrier to their upward mobility. It is clear, however, that these constructs are not the only determining factors on upward occupational mobility and that numerous other variables at group, interpersonal, organisational and societal level have a contributory effect (Koziara, Moskow & Tanner, 1987).

## **1.2. Structure of the Study**

The study is comprised of seven chapters which together make up its structure. Chapter one is essentially an introduction to the research which sets out the focus, structure, objectives, hypotheses and limitations of the study.

Chapter two, three and four constitute the literature survey. This is a search or investigation of the literature available on the topic in order to determine what has been discovered in recent research. In chapter two the nature of occupational mobility, the critical issues with respect to women's upward mobility and the barriers to such mobility will be discussed. Chapter three concerns values as they constitute one of the variables of interest in the present study. Chapter four pertains to achievement motivation as this is the second variable of interest.

Chapter five deals with the research design adopted for this study. The results of the research and the analysis and interpretation thereof will be presented in chapter six. Chapter seven is the final chapter and essentially comprises a conclusion and future recommendations.

### **1.3. Defined Objectives of the Study**

The defined objectives of the current study are as follows:

- 1) To investigate whether there is a difference between the values of the managerial and non-managerial female employees
- 2) To consider whether a difference exists between the achievement motivation of the managerial and non-managerial female employees
- 3) To determine whether there is a significant relationship between the values and the achievement motivation of the managerial female employees
- 4) To assess whether there is a significant relationship between the values and the achievement motivation of the non-managerial female employees
- 5) To ascertain whether a significant relationship exists between the biographical variables and the values of the managerial female employees
- 6) To evaluate whether there is a significant relationship between the biographical variables and the values of the non-managerial female employees
- 7) To determine whether a significant relationship exists between the biographical variables and the achievement motivation of the managerial female employees
- 8) To assess whether there is a significant relationship between the biographical variables and the achievement motivation of the non-managerial female employees

## 1.4. Hypotheses of the Study

The hypotheses of the present study are as follows:

**Hypothesis 1:** "There is a significant difference between managerial and non-managerial subjects in terms of the respective values, sense of belonging, security, self-respect, warm relationships with others, fun and enjoyment, being well respected, sense of accomplishment, self-fulfilment and excitement".

**Hypothesis 2:** "There is a significant difference between managerial and non-managerial subjects in terms of the respective achievement motivation factors, namely, achievement motivation, goal directedness, persistence, awareness of time, action orientation, personal excellence, aspiration level and personal causation."

**Hypothesis 3:** "There is a significant relationship between the values, namely, sense of belonging, security, self-respect, warm relationships with others, fun and enjoyment, being well respected, sense of accomplishment, self-fulfilment and excitement, and the achievement motivation factors, namely, achievement motivation, goal directedness, persistence, awareness of time, action orientation, personal excellence, aspiration level and personal causation, for the managerial subjects."

**Hypothesis 4:** "There is a significant relationship between the values, namely, sense of belonging, security, self-respect, warm relationships with others, fun and enjoyment, being well respected, sense of accomplishment, self-fulfilment and excitement, and the achievement motivation factors, namely, achievement motivation, goal directedness, persistence, awareness of time, action orientation, personal excellence, aspiration level and personal causation for the non-managerial subjects."

**Hypothesis 5:** "There is a significant relationship between the biographical variables, age, marital status, ethnic group, education and income, and the values of the managerial subjects."

**Hypothesis 6:** "There is a significant relationship between the biographical variables, age, marital status, ethnic group, education and income, and the values of the non-managerial subjects."

**Hypothesis 7:** "There is a significant relationship between the biographical variables, namely, age, marital status, ethnic group, education and income, and the achievement motivation factors for the managerial subjects."

**Hypothesis 8:** "There is a significant relationship between the biographical variables, age, marital status, ethnic group, education and income, and the achievement motivation factors of the non-managerial subjects."

### **1.5. Limitations of the Study**

There are a number of limitations of this study. Firstly, the study is restricted to English literates only, as the questionnaires used are written in English and require responses in the same language. This implies that all those without the skills of reading and writing English are excluded from the sample chosen. A second limitation is that only women subjects were selected for this study most of whom were White and English-speaking which means that other groups were clearly excluded.

Another limitation is that the study is restricted to the variables values and achievement motivation. There are numerous other factors which influence upward mobility which have not been considered in the research part of this thesis. The fact that only the questionnaire method of measurement was used to obtain data thus excluding interviews and other such methods is also a drawback. A final limitation is the size of the sample. The sample used in this study was quite small which means that the sample may

not have been sufficiently representative of the populations under consideration. As a result, any generalisation must be very tentative.

## **1.6. Conclusion**

An introduction to the current research project has been presented. The focus of the study was considered, and then the structure, in terms of which the study will be conducted, was presented. The defined objectives of the study were also set out, as well as the hypotheses to be investigated. And, finally, the limitations were presented.

# CHAPTER TWO: UPWARD OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY OF WOMEN IN ORGANISATIONS

## Introduction

The focus of this chapter is on the position of women in organisations. The nature of occupational mobility will be discussed first and then the critical issues with respect to women's upward mobility will be considered. Finally, the barriers which women face to such mobility will be addressed and the potential solutions to these obstacles will be identified. In this regard it will be shown that "women continue to face barriers that prevent many of them from entering and succeeding in managerial careers" (Koziara et al, 1987, p.143).

## 2.1. The Nature of Occupational Mobility

Occupational mobility refers to movement of employees within and between organisations. This movement can be upwards, downwards, inwards or sideways. Felmler (1980, p.162) states that job mobility is "a function of the desires of workers and the access that workers have to employment opportunities" where the desires are conditional on job rewards and individual constraints affecting employees' desires for job mobility.

In the case of women the individual restraints result largely from women's family status ie: being married which restricts geographical mobility and husband's income which affects the need to change jobs. According to Rosenfeld (1992), individual job relevant resources, constraints and contacts interact with structural characteristics to create careers. Individual resources and age also affect the employers' preference for workers (Felmler, 1980). Structural factors such as locus of control over job mobility -

voluntary or involuntary - and the nature of the employer transition in the change - same or new employer - also have an impact. Voluntary changes to a new employer usually depend on job rewards and individual resources, while with the same employer wages, husband's income, age and job duration are the significant factors (Felmlee, 1980). Job changes made between employers depend on general resources, while those made with the same employer are determined by seniority, experience or vacancy (Felmlee, 1980). In a study of job mobility, Rosenfeld (1992) identified time and opportunity structures as playing an important role in job mobility. Organisational, national and legal change contribute to job shifting (Rosenfeld, 1992).

Schein (1971) identifies three distinct conceptual dimensions of occupational mobility, namely, vertical or hierarchical, circumferential or functional (horizontal), and radial, inclusion or the extent of centrality within an organisation (quoted in O'Hara, Beehr & Colarelli, 1994). According to Schein (1971), each of the dimensions has boundaries, which indicate inclusion in a particular structural organisational area, and filtering mechanisms, which regulate access across boundaries, to control employee movement (quoted in O'Hara et al. 1994). Schein (1971) states that whenever occupational mobility occurs within organisations at least one of these organisational boundaries is crossed (quoted in Godsell, 1983).

The boundaries of the vertical dimension are hierarchical level and title, and the filters are the company's formal and informal promotional policies. Thus, the hierarchical boundaries are those which are crossed by upward movement which improves status and rank. The boundaries of the circumferential dimension are functional speciality and the function division where one is located and training programmes, educational requirements and work experience form the filters. Thus, the functional boundaries refer to the separations between areas of competence, which can be crossed

by lateral movement through the acquisition of new skills without an increase in power of status.

The boundary of the radial dimension is acceptance by senior management in the system and the filters are interpersonal skill, trust and organisational commitment. This is very like organisational socialisation and is referred to as centrality or "the person's objective position as measured by the degree to which company secrets are entrusted to him, by ratings of others of his position, and by his actual power" (O'Hara et al, 1994, p.200). O'Hara et al (1994) state that power, access to sensitive information and decision-making participation are components of centrality. Thus, these inclusion boundaries are crossed by inward movement to the influential, decision-making centre of the organisation.

Whereas the functional boundaries are explicit and determined by formal socialisation, the other two are determined by informal socialisation and are thus implicit (Godsell, 1983). The result is that employees become passive as they are unsure of what is required, and management tend to establish norms for inclusion and exclusion according to their own personal values (Godsell, 1983).

## **2.2. Managerial and Non-managerial Female Employees**

As the focus of this investigation is on the upward mobility of managerial and non-managerial female employees, it is necessary to establish a clear understanding of how these groups are defined and characterised.

### **2.2.1. Managerial Women**

Managerial women are those female employees who occupy managerial positions within organisations. According to Koziara et al (1987), managerial women tend conform more to the stereotype of the successful manager and less to the stereotypes of the "typical

female". They usually score higher on measures of "masculine" personality traits such as high power and achievement needs, high self-esteem and high motivation to manage, and share similar work-related values to males. According to Bowen and Hisrich (1986), entrepreneurial women tend to be substantially better educated than the general population, have parents who are also better educated and they tend to marry more highly educated men (Erwee, 1987).

Bowen and Hisrich (1986) identify certain personality traits which are of interest when comparing managerial and clerical-level women (Erwee, 1987). These are need for achievement, locus of control, risk-taking and gender identity (Erwee, 1987). In terms of need for achievement, Bowen and Hisrich (1986) found that managerial women score higher than females in general and also higher than secretaries or clerical-level women (Erwee, 1987).

Erwee and Pottas (1982) found that locus of control and achievement motivation are significantly intercorrelated such that managerial women tend to have a stronger internal locus of control (Erwee, 1987). In terms of risk-taking propensity, female managers described themselves as moderate risk-takers in a study by Bowen and Hisrich (1986) (Erwee, 1987). Gender identity of female managers has often been measured by the Bem Sex Role Inventory which indicates that these women score higher on masculine traits such as autonomy, aggression, independence and leadership and place lower emphasis on conformity, valuing family over occupation and needing others support (Erwee, 1987).

### **2.2.2. Non-managerial Women**

Non-managerial women are those female employees who occupy positions which are below management in the hierarchy and are not classified as managerial positions. Koziara et al (1987) state that non-managerial women tend to conform to the traditional

stereotypes of women as evidenced by higher scores on need to affiliate, empathy for others, conformity to group pressures and lower assertiveness. These employees are often clerical workers. Clerical workers have a variety of different job titles such as legal secretary, key punch operator, administrative assistant and accounting clerk. The duties expected of these employees include typing, word processing, filing, answering the telephone, record-keeping and dictation as well as personal work such as getting coffee, listening to troubles and being a nursemaid (Goldberg, 1983). The jobs tend to be boring, menial and routine and require little responsibility, creativity or innovation (Goldberg, 1983).

Clerical work was originally predominantly male work which was regarded as a step on the path to upward mobility (Valli, 1986). Women began to move into clerical positions in the 1890s in America when typewriter came into general use. This provided women with financial independence and also helped solve the problems caused by the belief that women's work outside the home should promote the values of future home life such as gentility, morality, neatness and cleanliness. Ambition, competition, aggression and increased income did not fit into this mould and the job no longer implied upward mobility (Valli, 1986).

### **2.3. Critical Issues with respect to Women's Upward Mobility**

There are a number of critical issues reasons concerning the upward mobility of women. These will be discussed here.

#### **2.3.1. Shortage of Managers in South Africa**

Hirschowitz (1988) states that there is a serious shortage of competent managers in South Africa. Katz (1992, p.19) confirmed this with the statement that there is a "growing

critical shortage of experienced, competent men in middle management [which] makes it necessary to search for alternative leads".

According to Van Rooyen (1983, p.1), there is "a particularly critical shortage of candidates for professional and managerial positions" in South Africa such that only 5% of the total labour force occupy managerial positions and the manager to worker ratio is about 1:42 while the figures for the USA are 26% and 1:6 and for Australia 17% and 1:11. With the increased economic growth demands in South Africa, there is clearly an urgent need for more managerial-level employees in the workforce. Van Rooyen (1983) suggests that a possible reason for the shortage of high-level manpower is the traditional view that management can only be selected from White male resources.

### **2.3.2. Male Dominance in Management Positions**

According to Hirschowitz (1988, p.22), "[m]anagement in South Africa has traditionally been a male domain". Despite the urgent need for women in management, top management in South Africa is almost completely dominated by men and "it is still unusual to come across a woman executive" (Katz, 1992, p.17). Women make up only 2% or 3% of top management, while in Europe and the USA one in five executives is a woman (Katz, 1992). According to McLachlan (1994, p.1), women are "less well represented at managerial level across all professions".

According to Koziara et al (1987), those women who do become managers are still a minority especially at the higher levels and they do not appear to move up the hierarchy as fast as their male counterparts. In a study by Williams (1988) only 2% of senior executives were women, and although women did hold about 40% of managerial jobs, they were all at entry and middle levels (quoted in Zeff, Fremgen & Martinez, 1994). Business Week (1984) stated that women make up only a tiny percentage of upper management and an even smaller proportion of those on corporate boards where 'the

esoteric White male profile has existed since the days when boards were invented" (Koziara et al, 1987, p.119).

Pillay (1985;.p.28) claims that male general managers in South Africa "outnumber female managers by an astounding 1623:1." According to the South African Manpower Survey (1989), women comprised only 6% or 1401 of the 23 817 chief executives, general managers and company directors named by the Government in that year (South African Government Publication, 1994). The same survey conducted in 1991 found that only 7.6% of women occupied the position of manager or director (South African Government Publication, 1994). A 1990/1991 survey of the top companies in South Africa found that women made up only 13.1% of management in these leading companies even though they comprised 36.6% of the total workforce (South African Government Publication, 1994).

Adler (1993) states that although there has been an increase in women's employment in most countries, the number of women in management is disproportionately low and negligible in executive positions. This pattern is the same across oriental and occidental cultures, across communist, socialist, and capitalist systems, and among economically developed and developing countries (Adler, 1993). Adler (1993) argues that this underrepresentation, underutilisation and skewed distribution of female managers is not coincidental neither random, but is a function of systemic cultural sanctions, educational barriers, legal restrictions, and corporate practices. There is clearly a male-dominated power hierarchy within South African organisational structures where "[the] invisible "glass ceiling" is strong and practically impregnable" (Katz, 1992, p.18).

### 2.3.3. Advantages of Female Managers

Katz (1992, p.17) states that "the scarcity of competent males at the required levels will force organisations to employ females" as they are competent and available and form a natural resource for development because of their level of education, sophistication and industrial skills. Hirschowitz (1988, p.22) substantiates this opinion by stating that economic necessity has forced the employment situation to change and "women are entering management posts in increasing numbers to fill the gap".

The management style which female managers utilise has been found to be strong evidence in favour of having women in management positions (Hirschowitz, 1988). An incorrect association seems to exist between male characteristics and management style in South Africa with the resulting belief that only males make good managers (Dove, 1992). According to Dove (1992), men's style of leadership tends to be commanding and authoritative while women tend to be co-operative and accommodating. Hirschowitz (1988) maintains that women tend to be more relationship orientated in their management style, while men tend to be task oriented. Hirschowitz (1988) argues further that men need to learn to develop a relationship orientation which takes into account human needs in the work situation.

Haynes (1989) states that the best managers display a combination of the traditionally male and female characteristics and therefore the criteria for judging managerial competence and effectiveness should be based on a nonsexist perception of effective management style and be applied equally to female and male managers (Haynes, 1989). This view is supported by Smith and Smits (1994) who assert that to compete in today's competitive, global marketplace, organisations require a diverse leadership team which includes both male and female strengths. In America a Work Force Diversity Partnership Act was introduced in 1993 which is aimed to facilitate workplace diversity

and create training programmes to deal with such diversity (Flynn, 1994). Smith and Smits (1994, p.43) state that "women and men can meld their unique styles of leadership to maximise their strengths and minimise their weaknesses."

According to Killian (1971), the popular style of leadership has changed from one characterised by aggression, activity and authority to one of helping, persuading and being sensitive to human needs which is more natural of women. Other more female characteristics such as nurturance and other-directedness have also been identified as critical to successful management. Rotemberg and Saloner (1994) found that an empathetic leadership style is suitable to an innovative organisational environment. When one considers that the definition of management is "to facilitate", something which is more instinctive to women, it becomes clear that women have special abilities which should be utilised in industry.

#### **2.3.4. The Increased Employment of Women**

Fitzgerald and Shulman (1984) believe that the influx of women into the work force is the most significant societal change since the industrial revolution (quoted in Zeff et al, 1994). In the past there was no need to study the careers of women because women did not engage in careers - they merely worked until they had children (Dex, 1987). The topic of women's careers is especially relevant now because of the major influx of women into the world of careers.

The traditional role of a women has been regarded as that of mother and home maker such that a career woman was either single and professional or an oddity (Dex, 1987). Since the post-Second World War period, however, there has been a vast increase in the number of women engaged in employment careers which has challenged the traditional gender-based societal expectations (Dex, 1987). The assumptions behind why women chose to work were also challenged and it became more acceptable that women

may have a personal desire for a career or that they may work because of economic necessity (Northcutt, 1991).

According to Bloom (1985), "the rise in the number of working women is probably the single most important change that has ever taken place in the American labour market (quoted in Northcutt, 1991, p.7). The U.S. Department of Labour (1993) state that 75% of all women between the ages of 25 and 54 work and claim that 85% of the 25 million people expected to join the workforce in America before the year 2000 will be women and other minorities and only 15% will be White males (Zeff et al, 1994). This phenomena is also evident in Britain. In 1983 there were 8.8 million women employed in Britain (5 million in full-time jobs and 3.8 million in part-time jobs) (Zeff et al, 1994). In a survey in West Germany, 81% of the salaried female respondents favoured paid work, while in Sweden the response to a similar survey found that 90% of the women were interested in paid work (Ressner & Gunnarsson, 1986).

South Africa has also shown a large increase in the employment of women. According to Pillay (1985), the percentages of females in the South African labour force increased from 19.8% in 1951, to 23.1% in 1960, to 32.3% in 1970 and finally to 32.9% in 1980. In 1980, 44.9% of South African women were part of the "extended labour force," which includes the subsistence agricultural sector and those active in non-market activities, while in 1991 this figure had increased to 50.4% (South African Government Publication, 1994, p.36). The figures for the extended labour force are utilised as ignoring the women in subsistence agriculture would grossly underestimate the number of working women in the South African labour market (South African Government Publication, 1994).

The 1991 census revealed that two-fifths of the total economically active population was female (South African Government Publication, 1994). In 1994 the Department of

Regional and Land Affairs reported that women constitute 51% of the workforce in South Africa (South African Government Publication, 1994). These figures are a clear indication of the increase of female employment in this country.

### **2.3.5. Women: Occupational Levels**

The twentieth century has seen a major influx of women into the workplace, but despite the increase in numbers, many of them occupy the low-status, low-paying jobs which women have traditionally held (Poston, 1989). Felmler (1980) states that the type of labour market in which people are employed influences their job mobility. Therefore, as different groups of people in society (men, women, minorities) are differentially concentrated in the labour market, occupational attainment through job mobility differs for the different groups.

According to Adams (1988), a dual or segmented labour market exists: the primary market provides responsibility, career mobility, benefits and status, while the secondary market is composed of routine, menial work, no promotion opportunities, low pay and limited status. Adams (1988) argues that women are largely within the latter market. According to Scott (1985), a horizontal job segregation exists between men and women such that women are mostly found in jobs such as those of secretaries, typists and stenographers. Goldberg (1983) claims that women tend to occupy lower-paying menial positions where employers use them as a source of cheap labour. The existence of dualism or segmentation along sexual lines in the South African labour market is proposed by Pillay (1985). This is confirmed by Maconachie (1989) who states that in terms of occupational status South African women are disadvantaged in comparison to men.

According to Dove (1993, p.52), "[w]omen are seriously disadvantaged in the South African labour market" as women's work is undervalued and generally restricted

to certain poorly paid jobs and sectors. Women tend to be limited to a small number of occupational categories such as clerical work, semi-skilled factory work and semi-skilled domestic work where lower earnings are the norm (Dex, 1987). According to Van Rooyen (1983, p.2,3), women "tend to gravitate into so-called female type jobs" where they "hold down jobs rather than develop work careers". According to the South African Government Publication (1994), South African women are inclined to congregate in certain economic sectors, namely, services rather than production, and in certain jobs such as secretarial rather than managerial positions. Zeff et al (1994) hold that women are encouraged to become clerical workers, homemakers, teachers, nurses or blue-collar workers, but if they aspire to "men's work" such as that of manager, they experience discrimination.

According to Pillay (1985), women comprised 47.5% of all clerical workers in South Africa in 1960, 46.9% in 1970 and 51.1% in 1980. The figures from the 1985 census revealed that women comprised more than half of all clerical workers (56.6%) in South Africa (Maconachie, 1989). In the 1991 census this figure reached 57.3% for all South African women (Maconachie, 1993). The 1994 Country Report on the Status of South African Women found that women comprised 57.4% of clerical/sales positions within South Africa in that year (South African Government Publication, 1994). Clearly these figures lend support to the above findings that women dominate within the clerical sphere.

This pattern seems to be similar to that of other countries. Dex (1987) states that in 1983 77% of all clerical positions in Britain were filled by women and claims that the occupational distribution of women in other industrialised economies is very similar to that of Britain. According to McLachlan (1994), women comprise only 11.7% of the total of managerial level across all professions in Britain. Although there has been an

increase in the percentage of women in managerial occupations in America, Goldberg (1983) and Poston (1989) maintain that women still make up the bulk (about eighty percent) of those working in the clerical sector. Lowe (1987, p.1) claims that clerical jobs employ more women than any other single occupation and "employment predictions [pointed] to unabated clerical growth into the 1990s". He describes clerical work as "the contemporary prototype of a female job ghetto" where women have "low-grade, low-paid, dead end jobs" (Lowe, 1987, p.1).

Van Rooyen (1983) states that women have the capabilities to meet any work demands and can theoretically move into any type of career they choose. Clearly, there are professional and managerial positions open to women, but "according to the Census Bureau (1985), occupational patterns, wages, job titles and the disproportionately large number of women in clerical-level positions in comparison to professional or management-level positions in organisation indicate that there are still barriers to women reaching the top of business organisations" (quoted in Poston, 1989, p.2).

### **2.3.6. Women: Specific Occupations**

Maconachie (1989) maintains that South African women are concentrated within a very narrow range of occupational categories, namely, service, clerical and sales and professional which together comprise 72.3% or nearly three-quarters of the total female workforce. According to Place and Armstrong (1975), the types of industries that employ the largest number of women are retailing, the "creative" fields such as advertising and public relations, and financial institutions.

The banking industry holds good growth potential for women as it provides the opportunity to display specific skills and favours rising within a single institution rather than job-hopping both of which are characteristic of women. Despite the benefits of women's employment in banking, this is also "... one of the commercial areas where

women are very discriminated against" (Goldberg, 1983, p.69). The discrimination is not open or blatant, but occupational positions where advancement is more likely, tend to be given to men (Goldberg, 1983). Thus the occupational mobility of women in banking organisations is of particular importance in this study.

According to Maconachie (1993, p.46), "[t]he South African labour market remains skewed: occupational segregation between women and men clearly exists." Place and Armstrong (1975, p.97) state that "a man is more likely to come to a woman to teach him how to handle money than to build a steel mill". In traditionally male-orientated industries, such as engineering, physics, auto and aircraft, women have very little chance of obtaining management positions (Place & Armstrong, 1975). This is confirmed by the 1990 results obtained from the South African Government Publication (1994) which indicate that women account for only 7% of all university enrolments in Engineering, 17% in Agriculture, 0% in Industrial Arts, 30% in Computer Science, 31% in Mathematical Sciences and 37% in Law.

Maconachie (1993) also found that women are under-represented in certain categories which she identified as artisan, apprentice and related occupations where women comprise 5.1%, transport, delivery and communications occupations (5.9%), and managerial/technical occupations (19.3%). These figures illustrate women's lack of representation in traditionally "male" occupational fields (South African Government Publication, 1994).

### **2.3.7. Women: A Neglected Group**

According to the South African Government Publication (1994), women in South Africa have lived under three forms of oppression: race, class and gender. Race and class have been topics of much research in South Africa largely due to the Apartheid discrimination within the country. According to Apple (1988), "[l]ess attention has been paid to the

other constitutive dynamics around which our society is organised" (quoted in Valli, 1986, p.3). In the South African context this neglected issue is that of gender and particularly the position of women in organisational structures.

The majority of work in the area of organisational issues, such as mobility, income levels and achievement, has been done on men thus ignoring the experience of at least half the population (Valli, 1986). According to Rensner and Gunnarsson (1986), work organisation with reference to the conditions and needs of women is seldom if ever discussed. The results of a study conducted by Human and Allie (1988) which sought to identify the attitudes of White, English-speaking male managers in South Africa concerning the advancement of women in management, reveal that this neglect is not just in the area of research, but also in practice in the workplace. This suggests that women, who form an important manpower resource in industry, are a neglected group. Without top management commitment to the development of women, they will remain neglected and under-utilised. Clearly this lack of attention to this group must be remedied (Human & Allie, 1988).

With the glaring inequalities and urgent need for change in the area of racial or ethnic issues in South Africa, much of the research addressing issues of discrimination conducted in recent years has focused on racial discrimination to the neglect of another "disadvantaged" group, namely, women (Human & Allie, 1988). The South African Government Publication (1994, p.5) states that until the mid-1980s "the fight against sexism was subordinate to the struggle against apartheid" which has resulted in a "dearth of gender research and indigenous feminist theory".

With the unbanning of the liberation movements including the African National Congress (ANC) in 1990 and the acceptance of race as a constitutional and legal measure, it became possible for gender issues to be raised as an autonomous aspect of the struggle

for democracy in South Africa (South African Government Publication, 1994). In his State of the Nation Address, President Nelson Mandela stated that "freedom cannot be achieved unless women have been emancipated from all forms of oppression ... [and] we see in visible and practical terms that the condition of the women of our country has radically changed for the better, and that they have been empowered to intervene in all aspects of life as equals with any other member of society" (South African Government Publication, 1994, p.1).

### **2.3.8. Women in Organisations: Research Studies**

Despite the relative neglect in South Africa, the study of women in management has emerged as a major area of international research in organisational behaviour and management especially in the last ten years. According to Dex (1987), there have also been many studies on women's occupational mobility.

The difference between women's and men's occupational attainment has been the focus of these studies in America with an emphasis on the difference between status and income levels (Felmlee, 1980). The results of these studies indicated that discontinuities in employment largely because of family formation account for women's failure to reach the same levels of occupational status as men. There are many other reasons for this discrepancy, however, such as the fact that women have fewer opportunities for gains in status and these gains depend on formal qualifications more than on past achievements. Many of the topics of studies on women and work have focused on how women's careers differ from men's, how successful women are in comparison to men and how attitudes to success are influenced by gender.

Studies on women and employment in South Africa have dealt with topics such as occupational aspirations, the difference between traditional and business women and women in atypical occupations, work motives of women as well as work and career

commitment of women over their life span (Koziara et al, 1987). Studies have also been conducted on the difference between working women and homemakers. According to Koziara et al (1987), there has been much attention devoted to the female manager and less to the position of non-managerial women. There has also been very little research comparing non-managerial and managerial-level women, however, and it is this area which is the focus of this study.

## **2.4. Women in Organisations: Barriers to Upward Occupational**

### **Mobility**

Smith and Smits (1994, p.43) claim that "most women still encounter gender-based barriers at work that slow or stymie their progress." According to Zeff et al (1994, p.755), "there are still many barriers that prevent women from reaching senior positions in management in business firms". These barriers contribute to the "glass ceiling" which women experience in organisations (Powell & Butterfield, 1994).

In her attempt to identify the factors which keep women from advancing in the workplace, Haynes (1989) argues that there are a number of barriers both external and internal which affect women's upward mobility within organisations. Haynes (1989) argues that women's progress within the promotional hierarchy is impeded by external obstacles relating to the organisation and internal restraints relating to the individual person. Haynes (1989) further states that these barriers must be perceived, understood and anticipated and that strategies, organisational and personal, must be developed and instituted as all barriers whether real or perceived, overt or covert, hinder women's progress toward managerial opportunities.

According to Koziara et al (1987), there are at least four levels in terms of which one can explain why women are underrepresented in management and make very slow

progress in rising to top positions, namely, the individual level, the interpersonal level, the group level and the level of structural organisational characteristics. What has been sought in this study ultimately, however, is to determine the effect of two factors internal to women, namely, values and achievement motivation, which affect the other levels. An understanding of the impediments to upward occupational mobility which women experience is essential in order to identify possible ways in which the movement of women into managerial positions can be facilitated. These barriers to women's upward aspirations will be discussed here.

#### **2.4.1. Individual Level Barriers**

According to Koziara et al (1987), female deficiencies in knowledge, skill and personality as well as male and female attitudinal biases have been hypothesised to prevent women from entering and succeeding in management. Kravitz and Jones (1982) state that attitudes, aspirations, or behaviours of women can inhibit them from upward mobility (Haynes, 1989).

The internal restrictions identified by Haynes (1989) are socialisation, which is the basis of value-formation, and fear of success, which has a determining effect on achievement motivation. It is argued, that values and achievement motivation are the two personal factors internal to women which actually have the greatest determining effect on whether women experience upward mobility or not. These factors will only be briefly mentioned here as they form the content of the next two chapters.

In terms of socialisation, Fenn (1978) states that there are psychological barriers to women's advancement such as a lack of self-confidence or a negative self-image which are a reflection of their socialisation to be nurturant, passive, dependent, other-directed and sacrificing. Thus, women are taught to value themselves in terms of others and not by an inner standard. This means that they constantly need approval and acceptance and

experience ambivalence about their self-worth. The behavioral result of this ambivalence is acquiescence such that women are prepared to meet the expectations of other people and find difficulty saying no to unreasonable demands or expectations. The intellectual result is diagnostic ability where women take input and categorise, organise, classify and interpret it, but fail to be decisive and take action.

Decisiveness and risk-taking are necessary prerequisites to managers who have to plan for the future and work with others to achieve their plans. Women have been taught to depend on others, limit their time perspective and avoid exposure and risk such that they do not set goals, plan, take risks or prepare to achieve. Wong, Kettlewell and Sproule (1985) claim that women also have less opportunity to play in teams and learn leadership roles (Haynes, 1989). Women consequently tend to have less self-confidence and lower self-concepts than men when approaching management roles which require assertiveness, self-direction, risk-taking and team play. According to Dove (1992), women have been socialised to accept oppressive domestic relations, submissive customs and traditional roles. Many have also internalised inferiority to men. The result of all these factors is a lack of achievement which contributes to their lack of confidence and strengthens their negative self-worth. Women need to reverse this downward cycle and overcome negative self-images to succeed as managers (Fenn, 1978). These factors offer some explanation for women's lack of upward mobility.

The fear of success theory states that "women actually avoid success because they are afraid it will make them less feminine, or make others perceive them as less feminine" (Haynes, 1989, p.16). There has been much controversy surrounding this theory, but two related tendencies do seem to exist, namely, that women tend to expect to succeed less than men do, and when women succeed they are more likely to attribute

this success to external factors. Women also often experience guilt on achieving success because it was too easy or too quick.

Haynes (1989) suggests that women must become more confident in their own abilities and attribute their successes to their hard work and ability, not to luck. Clearly a women's level of achievement motivation is influenced by her internalisation or rejection of fear of success which has consequences in terms of her motivation towards upward occupational mobility.

#### **2.4.2. Interpersonal Level Barriers**

The second level at which women experience obstacles to upward mobility is at the interpersonal level (Koziara et al, 1987). In this regard men and women have been seen to have to adopt social roles which are inconsistent with women's integration into a traditionally male domain such as management.

##### **2.4.2.1. Social Roles**

There are a number of basic assumptions made about the difference between women and men which both are socialised to accept. Men are assumed to be strong, aggressive, thing-oriented and independent, while women are weak, passive, people-oriented and dependent (Fenn, 1978). Based on these assumptions made on the basis of sex, prescribed roles for women and men exist which develop a structure for relationships.

Men's role requires them to be ascendant, independent, forceful, unemotional, cognitive and productive, while women are expected to be subordinate, dependent, unforceful, emotional, instinctive and nurturant (Fenn, 1978). Thus, women are confined to the social role of sexuality and servitude and men to that of intellectuality and command. This sex-role socialisation begins at birth and in virtually every society

throughout history women and feminine things have been seen as inferior to men and masculine things (Koziara et al, 1987).

The sex role stereotypes are relatively harmless in themselves, but they often become linked with strong emotional evaluations to form attitudes such as sexual prejudice which often leads to sexual discrimination (Koziara et al, 1987). A stereotype is defined as a "set of beliefs about the personal attributes of a group of people" and are essentially characterisations of groups or show how certain groups differ to others (Biernat & Crandall, 1994, p.659). Thus, stereotypes can contribute to prejudice (Locke, MacLeod & Walker, 1994). According to Koziara et al (1987), many women do not aspire to managerial careers because they have incorporated traditional stereotypes into their self-concepts. Lee and Hoon (1993) found that there has been little change in attitudes toward sex-roles and women in management. If either male or female, but particularly females, approach the sex role boundaries, they threaten both women and men because it upsets the cultural pattern (Fenn, 1978). Consequently, a number of social pressures come into play to prevent role boundary crossing.

Fenn (1978, p.22) defines a social role as "the expectation for socially appropriate behaviour as a women". Women as well as men place expectations on women to fulfil socially acceptable roles such as housewife, nurse, teacher and secretary. Women who approach the boundary of the feminine role experience social pressure from her primary group or immediate work group and peers, from here secondary relationships, namely, the extended work group, work space inhabitants and job-related acquaintances and also from peripheral people such as casual acquaintances and organisational members (Fenn, 1978). The initial response from these groups is to focus attention on the deviant and try to convince her not to change. This is followed by a withdrawal of attention to convince that persistence will mean a lack of support. The final stage is coercion in the form of

threats, and violence aimed at convincing that the new choice will cost. This process repeats itself constantly (Fenn, 1978).

Most men have experienced women in the roles of family, sexuality and rivalry and tend to rely on these role categories in their relationship to women in the workplace. Each of these social role is, however, inconsistent with women's true integration into management positions within organisations. The adult female life role is traditionally linked to family organisation. In the family role, women are regarded as the nurturer and must be protected. Van Rooyen (1983) argues that this is where men and women experience society and learn socialised expectation that men should be achievers and providers, while women are to be nurturers and dependants. This paternalistic approach is sometimes adopted by men in organisations who try to protect women from things that are "too difficult". Young women are often treated as a daughter and older women as the "motherly" type. The other family role which sometimes comes into play is that of homemaker where the women is seen as the coffee maker and note taker (Van Rooyen, 1983).

The second role into which women are categorised is that of sexuality. Many men have a degraded image of women and consequently show very little respect for women. The presence of sexual harassment in the workplace is one example of this attitude. The image of women as a "babymaker" is also prevalent such that issues of potential pregnancy, maternity leave and termination of employment are raised during job interviews and promotional evaluations (Van Rooyen, 1983).

The third role of women is that of rival or intruder. She is regarded as having abandoned her role of wife and mother and entered the "man's world". If she is not overtly assertive and competitive she is regarded as less intelligent and organised, while if she does show ambition she is regarded as a "bitch" (Van Rooyen, 1983). Differential

descriptions such as "he's careful about details; she's picky" and "he exercises authority: she's tyrannical" are very common. Katz (1992) states that what is needed is an immediate attitude change on the part of the organisational leaders.

Clutterbuck and Devine (1987) maintain that the organisational environment of male norms and values, role traps and restricted opportunities creates enormous role conflicts for women and has negative consequences for women managers in terms of their personal identity. Managerial women working within predominantly male environments are faced with what Robbins and Siegel (1983, p.11) refer to as a "double bind situation". This refers to the fact that women have two "no-win" alternatives in terms of their role expectations within organisations: either they must become "male identified" or "female identified" (Robbins & Siegel, 1983). Hennestad (1990, p.265) describes a double bind as "a situation where conflicting messages occur, but where it is vitally important to discern what message is being communicated, and where the individual is unable to comment upon the ambiguity".

Women are expected to either adopt mens' roles - styles of behaviour, attitudes and career aspirations - thus gaining the status of "honorary man", or to adopt stereotyped female roles which are generally devalued and leave women feeling like inferior human beings (Clutterbuck & Devine, 1987). Clutterbuck and Devine (1987) claim that women who mute their femaleness and conform to male stereotypes can fail to develop significant aspects of their identity and therefore creativity. Often these women become isolated both from male and female colleagues and appear "hard and lonely" (Clutterbuck & Devine, 1987).

Both the options available to women are effectively "no-win" alternatives and collude with established male power structures, reaffirming the imbalance towards male values (Clutterbuck & Devine, 1987). There are women who choose not to make the

choice between these two alternatives and rather attempt to incorporate both. These women feel the acute tension, ambivalence and contradiction of the "double bind" (Robbins & Siegel, 1983). Koziara et al (1987) states that these role conflicts serve as another barrier to women's upward mobility in organisations.

#### **2.4.2.2. Marriage**

Biographical factors such as a women's personality, self-image, cultural or racial background, class or social standing, economic status, educational level, work competence and marital status clearly all contribute to the different social roles which women are expected to fulfil. Of the biographical factors, marital status of women is identified in much of the literature as a very large determinant of a woman's occupational status. It is thus necessary to consider this factor particularly.

A woman's marital status can function as a barrier to upward occupational mobility at an interpersonal level in the sense that women are expected to fulfil certain social roles, such as marriage, which are impede her chances at management positions. According to Van Rooyen (1983), the issue of marriage creates a number of crises which effect women's life role priorities.

Women are socialised to believe that they should get married and have a family. Because this view is often accepted as unchangeable, women tend to view work as temporary and fail to utilise career development opportunities as they could. Felmler (1980, p.174) states that "[b]eing married has clear-cut negative consequences for women's occupational attainment...". In her study of 24 public accounting firms, Sadler (1988) found that 12 of the 24 identified the dual responsibilities at home and work as a major inhibiting factor for the advancement of females. The management of these firms felt that the long hours demanded of managerial staff were incompatible with family responsibilities and that child-bearing required substantial interruption of career for

women (Sadler, 1988). The issue of dual responsibilities and that of childbearing and childrearing will be discussed here.

**(i) Role as Wife and Employee: Conflict of combining Work and Home**

In recent years it has become quite common and acceptable for women to work outside the home. According to Goldberg (1983, p.60), there has been a "tremendous increase in the number of working wives, particularly those with young children". According to the Bureau of Labour Statistics in America, in 59% of married-couple families, both spouses are employed (Haupt, 1993). It is estimated that by the year 2000, 80% of all American mothers will work outside the home at some time during their child-rearing (Haupt, 1993).

Despite this fact, "the workplace is still very much based on the premise that man is the breadwinner and woman is the home-maker" and organisations are too slow in adapting work practices to accommodate family needs (Davies, 1994, p.12). This means that women have to deal with multiple and conflicting role demands: they are expected to be a nurturant, understanding, helpful wife and mother at home, and simultaneously be achievement orientated, assertive, ambitious and independent at work (Van Rooyen, 1983). The tension between the world of home and the world of work is a very real one (Valli, 1986).

Women with dependent children who are divorced, separated, widowed or never married may experience these role demands even more intensely. This is confirmed by Goldberg (1983) who states that the conditions are even more severe for the single heads of households than for married women as they usually have no other income to rely upon in addition to their own and they often have to hold the responsibility of being the breadwinner while still maintaining the mother and homemaker role. Clearly working

women face role conflicts which can, and often do, affect their occupational mobility and career development.

According to Van Rooyen (1983), the career development of women is far more complex than that of men because of the very different male/female sex role socialisation and also because women often have to integrate the motherhood role with the work role. Traditionally career development follows a certain pattern according to Ericson's conceptualisation of stages, namely, exploration (15-35 years), establishment (35-40 years) and growth, maintenance or stagnation (45-60 years) with possible decline after retirement (65 years). For men, occupational growth is a developmental process of moving through these stages to achieve their life dream and they regard work as "a life-time occupation and the potential start of realising personal ambitions - achieving in the eyes of family, peers and society" (Van Rooyen, 1983, p.5).

For women, however, the career development process is not as clear cut. While men tend to dream about work and careers, women tend to have two dreams - marriage and work (Van Rooyen, 1983). Women have to balance their occupational involvement with their home and family responsibilities. Marriage and family status have a determining effect on women's career development and they have to determine the costs and benefits of the various life role choices available to them. Clearly the traditional career development process for women is quite different to that of men. According to Perun and Bielby (1981), a major revision of the existing theory of female occupational behaviour is necessary (quoted in Van Rooyen, 1983). They recommended that " ... a solution to the current theoretical morass will be found only when women's occupational behaviour is viewed from the human development paradigm which emphasises process, comprehensiveness and a life course perspective" (Erwee, 1987, p.153).

Van Rooyen (1983) attempted to provide such a paradigm in setting out the career development stages which women experience. These include the entry stage where women explore the work and home roles, the formative stage where women deal with multiple role demands, and the normative stage where women assess their needs and aspirations in relationship to environmental demands and where they seek to establish a coping approach to integrate expectations and demands. The final stage is the performance stage where women accept responsibility for consequences of decisions made during the formative and normative life stages. The various career stages can be linked to ages and primary interests.

The entry stage for unmarried women consists of an early adult transition (22) where marriage is the primary interest, and entering the adult world where the main concerns are marriage, work and parenthood. For married women, the preoccupations of these sub-stages are the combining of marriage and work and combining marriage, work and parenthood respectively. The conflicts married women face in attempting combinations are already evident at this early stage.

In the formative stage unmarried women are interested in marriage, work and single status at the transition (33) stage, and single status, work and career at the choice stage (40). Married women, however, face the combination of marriage, work and parenthood at the transition stage and the combination of parenthood, marriage and work at the choice stage. For both groups there is an increased self-emphasis at this stage, although married women have more conflict effecting all the necessary combinations.

The primary interests of unmarried women in the normative stage, namely, middle adulthood (40-50), are single status and career, while those of married women are combining marriage, work, parenthood and career. In the last career stage, namely, performance, at late adulthood (>50), unmarried women are concerned with work and

career, while married are still focused on combining marriage, work and career. The importance attached to different roles at the different stages of a woman's career development also has a large effect on such career development. Married women clearly have more multiple role demands than unmarried women and tend to experience conflict and frustration in trying to deal with these often conflicting demands. In an attempt to alleviate this conflict and the resulting stress, they make use of various coping strategies. Some women adopt a helpless approach where they "opt out of life" when they feel excessive anxiety, alienation and inability to cope. This can result in neurotic behaviour, alcoholism and depression. The superwomen approach is adopted by those women who try to meet all the demands perfectly. They tend to develop inner anxieties and tensions which effect their work, relationships and health. To cope effectively with home and work demands, a women must be able to adapt environmental demands or adapt her own expectations to integrate these with environmental restrictions (Van Rooyen, 1983).

#### **(ii) Role of Mother: Childbearing and Childrearing**

Sadler (1988) identified a belief among managers in her study that childbearing means a substantial break from a woman's career which inhibits her upward mobility into managerial positions. This was confirmed by the results of the Women and Employment Survey (WES) of 5320 women in 1980 which showed that women's upward mobility is restricted by breaks from work because of childbirth (Dex, 1987). According to Felmlee (1980), marriage, pregnancy and having pre-school children tends to increase the rate of women's transitions out of employment clearly reducing her opportunities for upward mobility.

According to Dex (1987), vertical mobility occurs throughout all the life-cycle stages women experience, but there are certain events which are linked to a certain type of vertical occupational mobility and a certain time such as childbirth, marriage and

domestic reasons (Dex, 1987). A married woman's life cycle experiences can be divided into four stages, namely, up to first birth, last job before first birth to first job after childbirth, any returns to work between childbirths after the first and job changes since the return after last child.

Most downward occupational mobility occurs in the childrearing phase, while most upward mobility occurs prior to childbirth and following the return to work after the last child (Dex, 1987). This was confirmed by the Women Employment Survey (1980) in which childrearing reasons accounted for 33% of all downward occupational mobility (quoted in Dex, 1987). The survey further showed that women with children experience more downward mobility than childless women (Dex, 1987). Felmler (1980) further confirms this by stating that employment breaks tend to result in women experiencing downward mobility on returning to employment and cost women in terms of wage and status loss.

This tendency to experience downward mobility is largely due to the fact that women, who usually hold the primary responsibility for childcare, move into part-time work after childbirth which is often the only way they can combine paid employment and child care. According to Rothwell (1994, p.31), part-time, temporary and other non-standard employment forms which women often adopt as they are more compatible with domestic responsibilities have "negative consequences for women with respect to training, skill and wage levels". The results of the Women Employment Survey (1980) revealed that 63% of the sample had experienced an upward move within their working lives, but these moves were usually only into supervisor status rather than management, and only 12% had experienced upward mobility only (quoted in Dex, 1987). Upward mobility occurred mainly because women found better jobs (40% of upward moves) or became supervisors in their current job (20%).

The general pattern appears to be that downward movement is followed by upward movement to retrieve earlier status lost during work cycle. Having children decreases the possibility of upward mobility and increases the likelihood of downward mobility, but many women with children showed upward mobility and many without children showed downward mobility. Dex (1987) states that while downward mobility is most common among women with children, the survey results showed that more than half of the childless women also experienced downward mobility. Childbirth experiences are definitely not sufficient to explain vertical occupational mobility.

This illustrates a societal problem because the main reason women leave the labour force is due to pregnancy which serves an important society function of bearing children and yet costs women personally. It is suggested that women should receive employment guarantees after pregnancy. The rate of job leaving decreased by high job reward levels as well as high IQ and education level (Felmlee, 1980). Felmlee (1980) states that while fertility affects labour force activity, but the converse is also true. Fertility affects labour force activity in that pregnancy and having children increase the probability of job leaving, but the labour force activity also affects fertility behaviour in that women often leave employment for reasons such as low reward levels or husband's income and then decide to become pregnant. High wage levels reduce the rate of women leaving for pregnancy which illustrates the interrelatedness of fertility and labour force activity.

Married women do experience restrictions as a result of their social roles in the form of dual responsibilities and roles as well as childbearing and childrearing. Those women who have managed to deal with these barriers are often very good management material as they have had to make hard decisions and sacrifices to overcome their disadvantages so they are often more determined, more committed and ultimately better workers.

### 2.4.3. Group Level Barriers

The Director General of the Institute of Management, Roger Young, states that "men are the prime barrier to women in management" and that "[d]espite some progress, old-fashioned sexist attitudes are still common and represent a real, not imagined barrier to the progress of women" (Smith & Smits, 1994, p.45). At a group level explanation, men restrict women's mobility as they tend to exclude women from the informal relationships critical to the acquisition of power and influence in organisations (Koziara et al, 1987). According to Koziara et al (1987), this is largely due to stereotypes and misconceptions which males have about female employees and which result in the undervaluing of women.

Frantzve, Carter, Smith, Himsel and Mikoychik (1992) studied the effects of the "glass ceiling" on women's advancement and identified gender chauvinism in organisational politics as a major obstacle to women's career advancement. Organisational attitudes toward women are often sexist and based on myths that women are unable to work with numbers, cannot balance budgets, are too emotional for objective decision-making and are not serious about their careers (Haynes, 1989). Another myth identified by Dove (1992, p.66) include "women are not to be trusted, they gossip, they get emotional, they are easily intimidated".

Katz (1992) identifies other misconceptions such as women are absent more often and women are less committed to their jobs and organisations than men. She counteracts this by stating that there is generally more absenteeism and less commitment in low-level jobs than in high-level jobs and more women occupy lower-level jobs. In her study of female chartered accountants in South Africa, Sadler (1988) sought to identify whether lack of career-mindedness or lack of dedication and commitment to professional careers

was a factor inhibiting the career advancement of females. She found that in most accounting firms this was not the fact.

A study conducted by Human and Allie (1988) revealed that White English-speaking male managers do have certain problems with the advancement of women in management. Although they respect the principle of equal opportunity, believe women are able to acquire the necessary skills for management and that both society and the business world should accept and value women's contribution, some question women's current ability to compete on the same level as men. Thus, some men expressed doubts about women's objectivity, level of aggressiveness, capability to contribute to organisational goals, level of ambition and the acceptability of women assuming leadership positions. Others had problems with the competitiveness, self-confidence and emotional control of women.

Clearly there is evidence that many men in management do not believe that women "have what it takes" to become managers (Human & Allie, 1988). This was confirmed in a study of MBA students which found that many men still hold consistently negative attitudes toward women as managers (Koziara et al, 1987). Men also tend to believe that the lack of representation of women in management is due to women's intrinsic characteristics, while women see it a due to external factors such as discrimination (Koziara et al, 1987).

The lack of mentoring, role modelling and networking are forms of obstructions to women's upward mobility in organisations. To discover how the organisation really functions, a newcomer needs a sponsor or mentor. In a study on mobility and the opportunity for women in management positions, Bonnie and McKenzie (1992) found that a critical factor for success was the opportunity for being mentored in organisations. Whitely and Coetsier (1993) found that career mentoring of is particularly related to

early career promotion histories. According to Koziara et al (1987), women find it difficult to find a sponsor or mentor within the organisation and when they do they experience a dual barrier: firstly because of servitude and secondly due to sexuality (Fenn, 1978).

There is also a severe lack of sufficient significant women for role models. According to Ragins and Scandura (1994), the lack of female mentors and role models at high ranks may be due to the relative absence of women at high ranks. The special knowledge and "secret know-how" required to achieve upward mobility within organisations can be learned from a mentor who also serves as a role model and helps a women deal with the issues she faces in management. Within this informal pattern of relationships women find support, communication and the exchange of information and resources.

In terms of networking, men belong to "old boys" networks which they use extensively, while women have been disadvantaged by not having and utilising such networks. Koziara et al (1987) found that many female managers feel excluded by their male colleagues both from informal relationships and informal work networks. Through an informal network, women can receive guidance as to job choices, resume preparation, job interview skills and on-the-job difficulties. Official networks are also a necessary but missing source of support for women. There are many of these networks in America which serve to "address the professional and emotional needs of the growing number of women entering the workforce" (Erwee, 1987, p.159).

#### **2.4.4. Structural Organisational Level Barriers**

Structural characteristics of organisations are essentially external barriers to upward mobility, defined by Haynes (1989, p.10) as "those barrier[s] outside the women herself; ... within the environment, in the organisational structure, or in the attitudes and

behaviours of others". These obstacles are structural as they consist of institutional policies, procedures, and patterns that often place women at a disadvantage.

Haynes (1989) identifies five external hindrances to women's upward mobility within organisations, namely, job qualifications and job descriptions, task description and assignment, evaluative mechanisms for performance, distribution of benefits and organisational relationships. Katz (1992) identifies a number of other areas in which discrimination against women still occurs in organisations. According to Katz (1992), the discrimination is covert and difficult to verify. The structural organisational impediments to women's upward occupational mobility will be discussed here.

#### **2.4.4.1. Hierarchical Organisational Structure**

According to Rensner and Gunnarsson (1986, p.23), most organisations are hierarchically constructed. Rensner and Gunnarsson (1986) argue that this hierarchical structure "must be completely transformed" as it is patriarchal and prejudicial to women as it impedes their upward mobility. Marshall (1987) describes hierarchical organisations as hostile environments which are not women-friendly (quoted in Clutterbuck & Devine, 1987).

Rensner and Gunnarsson (1986) claim that the higher up the hierarchy one comes, the fewer women there are, and as support they cite two surveys, a Canadian survey of office work and the Moss-Kanter survey. Both these surveys indicated that within a hierarchy women have far less opportunity for promotion and career development than men. As commitment to work is dependent on promotion opportunities, the hierarchical organisation gives rise to quite different commitment levels between those with promotional opportunities and those without such opportunities.

Within this organisational structure high mobility generates rivalry and unstable working groups because people aiming for promotion show greater concern for the work

than for social relations. Low mobility, however, generates comradeship and stable working groups as people focus on social and material rewards when they have little opportunity for upward mobility. Robbins and Siegel (1983) identify hierarchical structure as a factor which blocks women's occupational mobility.

#### **2.4.4.2. Organisational Culture**

As organisational culture can be a to women in organisations, it is necessary to consider this concept here.

##### **(i) Definition of Organisational Culture**

Egan (1994, p.39) describes organisational culture as "the shared assumptions, beliefs, values and norms of the company insofar as these drive shared patterns of behaviour - 'the way we do things here'." Egan (1994, p.39) states that a "culture can be overt or covert; it can add value or cost." Organisational culture, or corporate culture, is defined as "a set of shared values that characterise a company's operation and determines its competitive strategy" (Balazs, 1990).

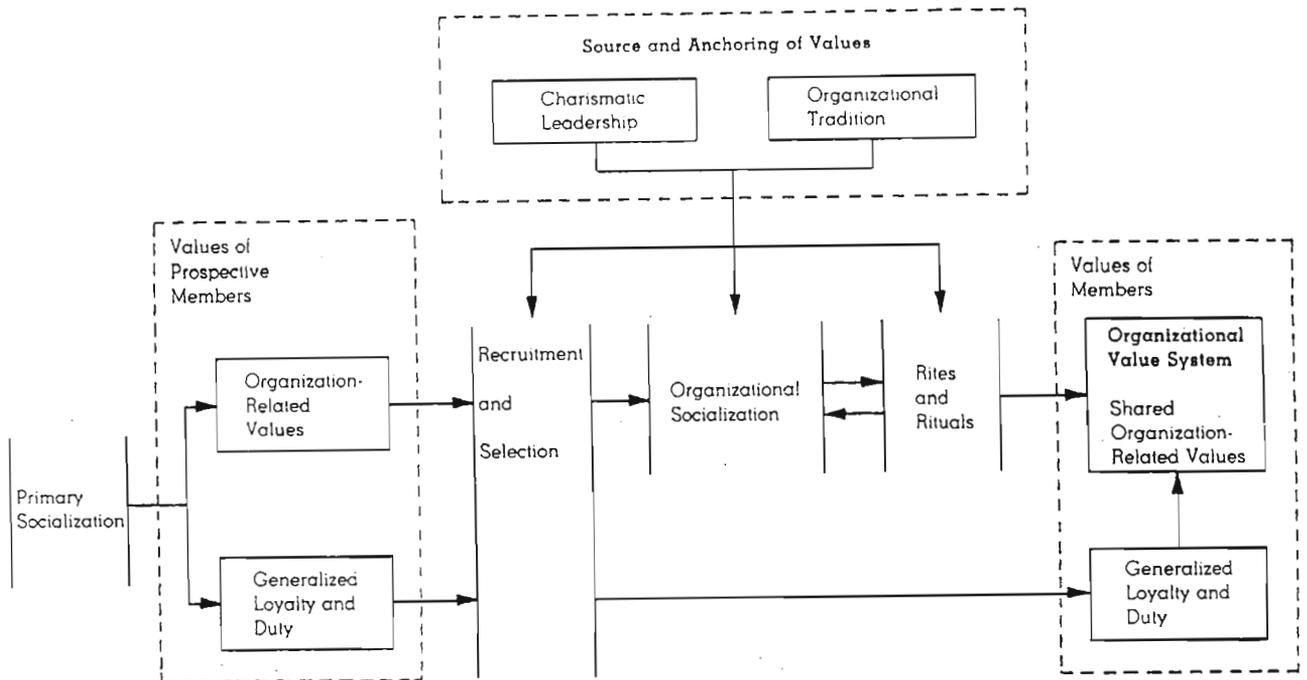
Wiener and Vardi (1990, p.295) define organisational culture as "a system of shared values which produces normative pressures on members of organisations." Culture itself refers to "sets of shared values and beliefs which are themselves articulated by participants-in-the-culture in the form of shared meanings and understandings of organisationally significant phenomena - a set of beliefs, widely shared, about how people should behave at work and a set of values about what tasks and goals are important" (Brown & Starkey, 1994, p.808). Thus, organisational culture can essentially be viewed as a system of shared values within an organisation or what Wiener (1988, p.534) describes as an "organisation value system."

Robbins (1991, p. 573) identifies ten characteristics of which organisational culture is composed. These are individual initiative, risk tolerance, direction, integration, management support, control, identity, reward system, conflict tolerance, and communication patterns. Trice and Beyer (1984) state that there are two components of organisational culture: its substance and its forms. The former refers to the networks of meanings within ideologies, norms, and values, while the latter refers to the practices within the organisation where those meanings are expressed, affirmed and communicated. According to Schein (1983, p.14), organisational culture "is not the overt behaviour or visible artefacts...[but rather] it is the assumptions that underlie the values and determine not only behaviour patterns, but also such visible artefacts as architecture, office layout, dress codes, and so on."

Wiener (1988) developed a model to illustrate the process and events contributing to the transmission and maintenance of organisational culture. According to this model, the source of values is either charismatic leadership or organisational tradition. Wiener (1988) identifies three main interventions which are responsible for the three basic functions of an organisational value system.

- \* *Recruitment and selection: to identify prospective new members with a predisposition to adaption to the organisation's culture*
- \* *Organisational socialisation: to transmit the core organisational values to new members*
- \* *Rites and rituals: to support and renew an existing value system*

**Figure 2.1.: A sequence of processes and events contributing to the transmission and maintenance of organisational value systems.**



(Source: Wiener, Y. *Forms of Value Systems: Focus on Organizational Effectiveness and Cultural Change and Maintenance*. *Academy of Management Review*, 1988, vol.13, no.4, p.542).

## (ii) Problems of Organisational Culture

Organisational culture serves various functions. Komin (1990, p.685), focusing on the motivational property of values, states that work-related values "energise, direct, and sustain human work behaviour at work." According to Robbins (1991), they may also operate as the social or normative glue which holds an organisation together. Robbins (1991) identifies five functions which will be mentioned here. Culture:

- \* defines the boundaries of an organisation.
- \* provides organisational members with a sense of identity.
- \* enables people to develop commitment to something other than themselves.

- \* enhances the stability of the social system
- \* guides and shapes employees attitudes and behaviour by functioning as a mechanism of control.
- \* increases commitment and consistency of employee behaviour and reduces job ambiguity

Clearly organisational culture benefits both organisation and individual employees. Essentially, organisational culture or value systems guide the goals, policies and strategies adopted by the organisation (Wiener, 1988).

Organisational culture can, however, be a liability to organisations where the shared values are dysfunctional to organisational effectiveness (Wiener, 1988). This usually occurs when the organisation's environment is dynamic and the culture is no longer appropriate to the new external demands. Another way in which it can be a liability to an organisation is where the dominant culture reflects the values of one main group within the organisation. This would result in other, disadvantaged groups being dominated and subjected.

According to Marshall (1987), an imbalance exists within organisations because "male values dominate organisations" leaving female values "overshadowed and constrained" (quoted in Clutterbuck & Devine, 1987, p.10,12). This occurs because the "deep structure of valued characteristics and modes of behaviour [within organisations] is still largely patterned by male values" (Clutterbuck & Devine, 1987, p.11). This is confirmed by Pickard (1995, p.43) who states that many South African organisations are "stuck in the old paternalistic mode." Non-acceptance of the values of the dominant group, namely, the males, may prejudice the non-dominant group, in this case the females, within the organisation and prevent their skills and abilities being used to the

full. Both employees and organisation suffer as a result. It is this functioning, highlighted by Godsell (1983), which will be the focus here.

Within any organisation there is usually a dominant culture and many subcultures. Organisations may possess subcultures or "multiple value systems" (Wiener, 1988, p.535). The dominant culture "expresses the core values - those which are primary or dominant - that are shared by a majority of the organisation's members", while subcultures are "minicultures within an organisation, typically defined by department designations and geographical separation" (Robbins, 1991, p.575). In South African organisations, the dominant culture is that of the White male, and females hold a secondary position as a whole within the organisation.

Adler (1983) has developed models which reflect this interaction between organisation and the different "cultural" grouping, namely, the cultural dominance model (Godsell, 1983). This model is set out here and briefly discussed:

## Figure 2.2.: Cultural Dominance Model

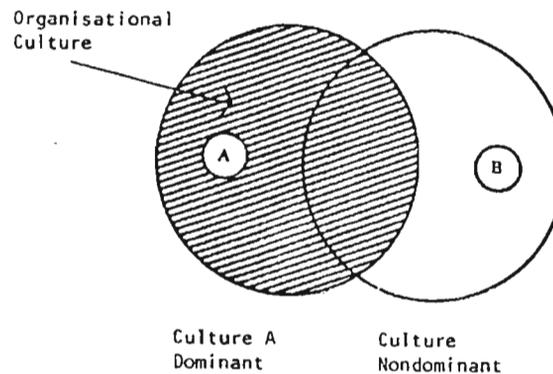


Figure 1. Cultural Dominance Model

*(Source: Adler, N.J. Cultural Synergy: The Management of Cross-Cultural Organizations. In Burke, W.W. and Goodstein, L.D. 1980. Trends and Issues in OD: Current Theory and Practice. California: University Associates. p.171).*

The Cultural Dominance Model is an ethnocentric model as it does not recognise or value the culture of the non-dominant group, but instead, the dominant culture is imposed on members of other groups. This model is useful to illustrate how women are dominated by men in the organisational setting. For Adler (1980) the benefits of this model are its efficiency, consistency and simplicity in terms of being easy to implement. There are, however, major limitations to this model. Firstly, the dominated group may suffer alienation and/or reject, resist, or even subtly sabotage the dominating organisational culture. Secondly, the diversity is not utilised to facilitate learning or to enhance the organisation and, finally, the model is essentially ineffective.

According to Schein (1983), the dominant organisational culture develops as a result of the interaction between the biases and assumptions of the founders of the organisation, and what the first employees learned from their experiences, and is maintained by three factors, namely, selection, the actions of top management and socialisation (Robbins, 1991). The latter is of primary importance in this discussion. The development and functioning of "shared values" or culture within an organisation occurs through a process of organisational socialisation which is similar in nature to that which occurs in early childhood. Organisational socialisation is defined as "the process of learning and assimilating an organisation's values, norms, traditions and behaviours in order to assume a functional role" (Balazs, 1990, p.172). This is similar to Etzioni's (1961) definition as "the process by which the values of members are brought into line with those of the organisation" (Wiener, 1988, p.543).

Kelly (1974, p.344) defines socialisation as "the assimilation of the values and behaviours required to survive and prosper in the organisation." Socialisation incorporates three stages: prearrival, encounter and metamorphosis. Prearrival is the period of learning in the social process which occurs before a new employee joins the organisation. In the encounter stage a new employee sees what the organisation is really like and confronts the likelihood that expectations and reality may diverge. And in the metamorphosis stage a new employee adjusts his or her work group's values and norms (Robbins, 1991).

It is clear that value differences within organisations can create great disparity and are thus problematic. To deal with this issue, Godsell (1983) suggests that organisations should either socialise employees to have the same values as the organisation, or select people with the appropriate values in terms of the organisation. Godsell (1983) states that this can be equally problematic if it is extreme. Rebellion or overconformity result from

extreme socialisation, and this or selection of people with identical values will result in "sterile bureaucracies" (Godsell, 1983, p.13).

### (iii) The Cultural Synergy Model

Adler (1980) suggests one possible way of overcoming the problem of the "glass ceiling", namely, the cultural synergy model which is set out below.

**Figure 2.3.: Cultural Synergy Model**

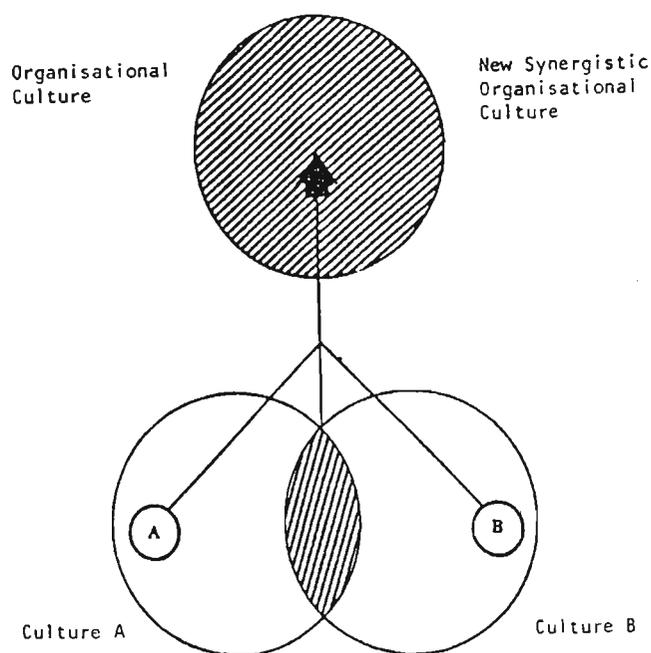


Figure 2. Cultural Synergy Model

*(Source: Adler, N.J. Cultural Synergy: The Management of Cross-Cultural Organizations. In Burke, W.W. and Goodstein, L.D. 1980. Trends and Issues in OD: Current Theory and Practice. California: University Associates. p.173).*

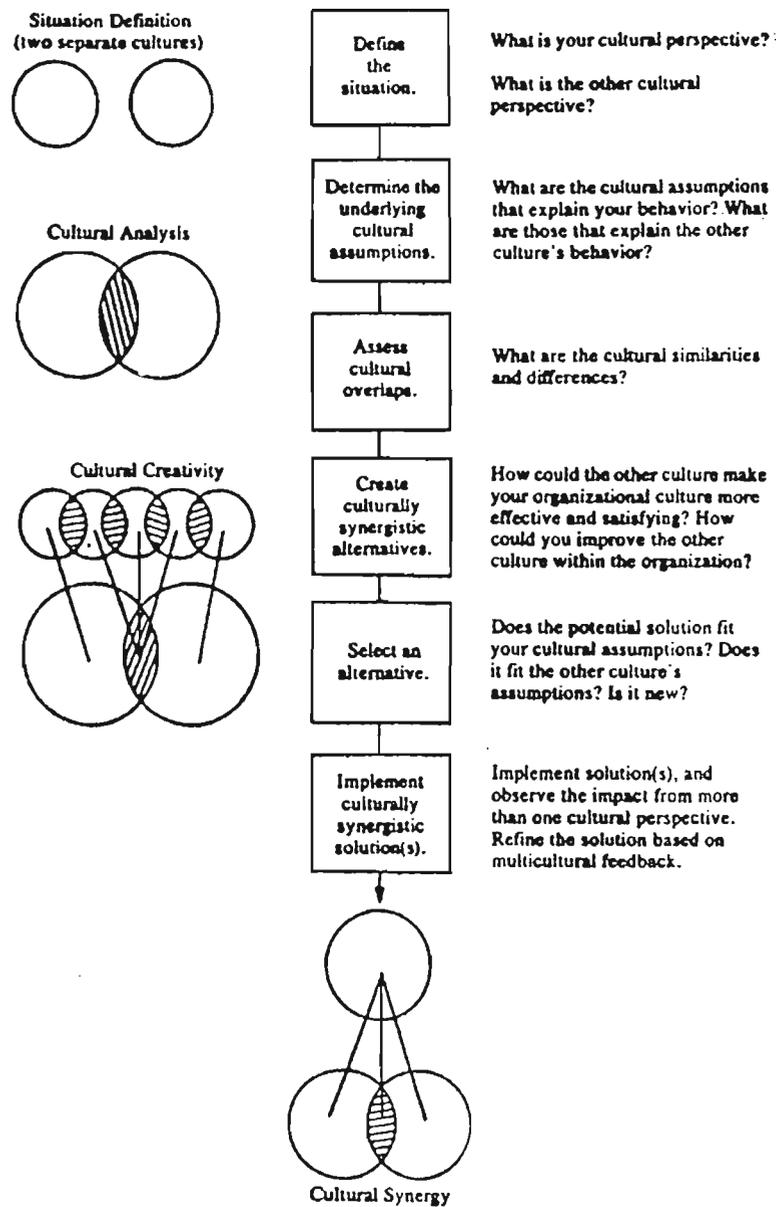
Cultural synergy is "a process in which organisation policies and practices are formed on the basis of, but not limited to, the cultural patterns of individual organisation members and clients" (Adler, 1980, p.172). The Cultural Synergy Model recognises both the similarities and the differences between cultural groups, and adopts a view of diversity as a resource to the organisation in terms of design and development. It is based on the

assumption that management is affected by culture, and that the best management approach transcends specific cultures.

Although this model is more complex and time-consuming as it requires extensive cultural analysis, it is suitable to culturally diverse organisations, makes diverse options available, and is less likely to lead to alienation of the various subgroups. This model is applicable as it enables diversity to become a source of growth and development for the organisation.

Adler (1980, p.173) defines a cultural synergistic organisation as "one in which structure and process reflect the best aspects of all members' cultures without violating the norms of any single culture." Aldler (1980) developed a fourth model which indicates how cultural synergy can be created. This process involves a situation description, cultural analysis, and cultural creativity. The model for creating cultural synergy is set out here:

Figure 2.4.: Creating Cultural Synergy



(Source: Adler, N.J. *Cultural Synergy: The Management of Cross-Cultural Organizations*. In Burke, W.W. & Goodstein, L.D. 1980. *Trends and Issues in OD: Current Theory and Practice*. California: University Associates. p.175).

### 2.4.4.3. Organisational Practices

The tendency for women to occupy lower status occupational positions and to be underemployed in professional careers has often been accounted for by emphasising institutional barriers and sex typing of jobs (Parsons and Goff, 1980). There are many

obstructions to women's advancement at the level of organisational practices such as the selection process, placement, task description and assignment, evaluative mechanisms, advancement processes and the distribution of benefits. These obstacles are often not obvious, but instead covert and hidden.

In a survey to identify the job satisfaction of female employees, Goldberg (1983) found that the most important issues for working women were pay, promotions, training programmes and respect. Second to these came job security, benefits, racial discrimination and sexual harassment. These are clearly important issues for women in organisations.

A study by Tharenou and Conroy (1994) found that for women situation variables were more associated with advancement than were personal variables. This was confirmed by Maupin (1994) who found that women tend to emphasise the situation-centred explanation for their lack of upward mobility and believe that changes in the practices and social composition of firms is necessary to women's advancement. These organisational practices will be discussed here.

#### **(i) Selection Process**

Although officially intended to find the right person for the job, the selection process can be a barrier to women (Katz, 1992). Zeff et al (1994) states that selection can present definite barriers to women's entry into organisations. In this regard, job qualifications and job descriptions are potential areas of discrimination against women (Haynes, 1989).

Often jobs officially equal according to an organisational chart, actually have very different tasks, responsibilities and authority, thus different opportunities and access to power and information. Many positions require "prior managerial experience" which effectively excludes women without such experience from competing for these managerial positions and creates a "catch-22" situation as these women are denied the

opportunity to acquire such experience (Haynes, 1989). A possible solution to this would be to require managerial potential as opposed to experience (Katz, 1992).

Another issue in terms of job qualifications is that when men and women are considered for the same managerial position, subtle differences in necessary attributes are often imposed such that women require personality/appearance and skills/education qualifications, while men require motivational abilities and interpersonal/relations skills (Haynes, 1989). Katz (1992) states that women who reach the short list for a managerial position are usually twice as good as their male counterparts and are still not necessarily selected. Katz (1992, p.17) states that men usually select women who conform to the traditional male patterns and still "remember their place".

The actual selection methods also contain bias against women (Koziara et al, 1987). Bias occurs as a result of recruiters stereotypes in the application of biographical data such as resumes and application information. Assessment centres, scored biographical inventories and paper-and-pencil tests can also screen out women although the discriminatory effects of these methods are not as pervasive as the subjective evaluations of paper credentials (Koziara et al, 1987).

## **(ii) Placement**

Koziara et al (1987) claims that most female managers are placed in dead-end jobs and receive assignments which are non-beneficial to their careers. Women tend to be placed in the support services of the organisation rather than in jobs that contribute to the main goal or objective of the organisation and are primarily ascending. This type of placement does allow for upward mobility, but the top of the support department is far below the upper levels of primary emphasis. According to the South African Government Publication (1994, p.47), this practice is evident in the South African police service

where "female officers are placed in administrative posts which place them on inferior career paths."

### **(iii) Task Description and Job Assignment**

Job title and task assignment and allocation are also areas of discrimination against women (Zeff et al, 1994). Often a women will carry a lower title than men who perform the same function as her (Place & Armstrong, 1975). Haynes (1989) states that women are often assigned tasks that prevents the development of their expertise and keeps them in individualised and invisible positions within the organisation.

Most women are assigned tasks which tend to be organisational maintenance, such as personnel management or staff supervision, and not growth related tasks, such as project development or fund raising. While maintenance tasks are important, but tend to be routine, limited in visibility and non-transitional in that they do not provide skill enhancement necessary to upward mobility. Women's work on team or group projects, often goes unnoticed and many women have sought to focus on individualised tasks where recognition is more likely.

Another issue relates to the clarity of the tasks assigned. If the task is not well-defined, other issues such as division of labour, norms governing task completion and authority and accountability may also be unclear. Women tend to experience task ambiguity more than men as they are outside the informal communication network and lack informal clarity as well (Haynes, 1989).

### **(iv) Training and Development**

According to Wright, Bengtsson and Frankenberg (1994, p.181/2), women "experience less stimulation, fewer development and training opportunities and less influence and recognition" in organisations. Women tend avoid seeking training and

development in areas which are completely unknown. Job rotation is threatening because it requires change. A security orientation encourages women to emphasise repetition and skill development only where they have some level of competence (Fenn, 1978).

Katz (1992) states that accelerated growth programmes have tended to be available first to male high-fliers before women are considered. According to Katz (1992), South African organisations should consider the cost of retraining replacement managers which in the USA has been estimated to be about 90% of that person's annual salary. Women are a good return on investment despite their time off to have and rear children as they usually outlive men and are able to spend their mature years working (Katz, 1992).

#### **(v) Evaluation Mechanisms**

Evaluation mechanisms are another possible barrier to women's mobility. Gioia and Longenecker (1994) describe the executive appraisal as a political tool to control people and resources. Where tasks are ambiguously defined, haphazardly assigned and not considered to be growth-related, the evaluation of such tasks can also not be precise, routine, formalised or objective. Often evaluations are not made formally or at regular intervals which opens them to be subjective and biased. Further, if male managerial styles are used as the criteria for evaluation, females may suffer further discrimination.

As women require positive evaluations for upward mobility, the lack of accuracy and objectivity in the evaluation mechanisms used in organisations function as a barrier to women's advancement. Maurer and Taylor (1994) note that a pro-male evaluation bias such that males are evaluated more favourably than are equally qualified females, is quite a common research finding.

#### **(vi) Advancement and Promotion Practices**

According to Wescott and Seiler (1986), women face real promotion constraints within organisations and tend to be dissatisfied with their advancement opportunities, prestige and management's concern for them as employees. This is confirmed by Aram (1991) who states that women face barriers to promotion in organisations (quoted in Zeff et al, 1994). Katz (1992) states that most women who move upward within organisations tend to be single or married without children. Women with children experience a form of discrimination (Katz, 1992).

The decision to send high-fliers on accelerated training programmes is usually made by male executives who often revert to conservatism and select males for such courses. Management also tend to not promote women sideways from one department to another as willingly as men which prevents them from gaining the experience needed for upward mobility. There seems to be a patriarchal attitude that women cannot cope with different and difficult challenges and must be protected from them (Katz, 1992). Men often find it difficult to recommend women for jobs because they fear the opinions of their male colleagues. For example, if someone received a promotion, he would find it easier to recommend a man to replace him because recommending a women would imply that the he had been holding a "mickey-mouse" job. (Katz, 1992)

In terms of clerical or non-managerial positions, low pay is characteristic, and the solution to this situation should be through promotions. However, this path is generally blocked (Goldberg, 1983). Clearly upward mobility is not usual or expected within clerical-level occupations.

According to Goldberg (1983, p.69), the "nature of the work, the lack of opportunity for mobility, the prevailing ideology about women's family roles type-cast women into the lowest-paid jobs with the least likelihood of promotion" and where

"attempts at mobility are frustrated at every step even among women who have opportunities for advancement." Ressler and Gunnarsson (1986) allege that women's jobs, that is clerical work, tend to have fewer career and development opportunities. The low pay and lack of promotion opportunities leads to economic hardship and frustration with the lack of advancement to more rewarding work (Goldberg, 1983).

#### **(vii) Distribution of Benefits**

Benefits are a further area where there is a potential for to women's upward mobility. Zeff et al (1994) states that pay discrimination occurs within organisations. Salaries are, according to Haynes (1989, p.13), "differentially and inequitable distributed between male and female employees". This is the case even when job tenure, education, part-time employment, marital status and family obligations are controlled for.

This is confirmed by Koziara et al (1987) who identifies a distinct gender gap in terms of remuneration. According to McLachlan (1994), there is a disparity in the salaries paid to male and female directors in the personnel field in Great Britain. Inaccurate beliefs such as women do not have to work, they work for pleasure not economic reasons and they only work for a short time are often used to support this inequality. Even where job titles are identical salaries differ (Haynes, 1989). Katz (1992) states that management benefit plans are still based on the White, male population of breadwinners even though single parents, single-person households and two-career families are more and more common. Valli (1986, p.vii) maintains that employers often pay women considerably less than men because they believe that a woman's proper place is in the home and her that her income is "merely supplemental".

The distribution of other benefits besides salaries such as short leaves to attend conferences, reimbursements for tuition and travel for conferences, extended educational leave to complete degrees or certificates is also important to consider. These benefits are

both a reward and the means to attain new skills, to network and to increase visibility all of which facilitate upward mobility.

Organisational benefits such as flexi-time and part-time work, maternity leave and child care facilities such as crèches are often absent in South African organisations although many countries overseas have adopted and proved the value of these benefits (Katz, 1992). In many American companies these benefits are part of organisational policy for example, Touche Ross and Company who offer four day working weeks for mothers and Arthur Young who provides employment on a flexi-time basis (Sadler, 1988).

The absence of these benefits tends to affect women more than men due to the social pressure on women to be the centre of family units in the role of child bearer and raiser and contributes to turnover, prohibits continuous employment and skill-building of women. According to Sadler (1988), a career woman requires this kind of flexibility in her work so that she is not forced to make an either-or choice of career or family. Other benefits such as pension funds, retirement schemes, housing schemes and medical schemes have also been discriminatory where men receive more privileges than women (Katz, 1992).

#### **(viii) Sexual Harassment**

According to Fitzgerald (1993, p.1070), sexual harassment "has been a fixture of working life since women first offered their labour for sale in the marketplace." Bell (1992) asserts that there has been a substantial increase in the number of sexual harassment incidents reported. According to the South African Government Publication (1994), women are subject to a high degree of sexual harassment in the South African workplace.

The South African Government Publication (1994; p.44) states that violence against women across all socio-economic and racial groups is both widespread and on the increase within the "very violent [South African] society" which president Mandela described as "the country [which] has the second highest crime rate in the world". The number of reported rapes in South Africa between 1983 and 1992 increased by 64%, and an even more radical indication of the extent of the increase is evident in the recent police statistics which set the figures for reported rapes at 4349 in 1992 and 28318 in 1993 (South African Government Publication, 1994). In their examination of workplace sexual assaults of women in Washington, Alexander, Franklin and Wolf (1994) found 63 reported cases of work-related rape mostly of women in their 20s.

Sexual harassment takes many forms, the most violent of which is probably rape (Fitzgerald, 1993). Other forms are not as violent, but reflect "intrusive, unwanted, and coercive sexual attention from which there is frequently no viable escape" such as sexual remarks, physical touching, pressure for dates, repeated telephone calls and unwelcome letters and notes (Fitzgerald, 1993, p.1071). McHale (1994) states that harassment can occur through unwelcome physical attention and jokey abuse.

According to Hawkins (1994, p.26), "all the research into harassment demonstrates its prevalence and the serious consequences it can have for those who suffer it". The results of sexual harassment include job loss, decreased morale and absenteeism, damage to interpersonal relationships at work, as well as endangered psychological and physical health and well-being of the victims evidenced in anxiety, depression, headaches, sleep disturbance, gastrointestinal disorders, weight loss or gain, nausea and sexual dysfunction (Fitzgerald, 1993). Samoluk and Pretty (1994) found that sexual harassment increases dysphoria of women.

McHale (1994) says that other forms of harassment also exist - on the grounds of age, disability and religion, but the issue of sexual harassment of women is the most urgent and must be eradicated from the workplace. Rubenstein (1992) states that to combat sexual harassment, preventive policies and procedures must be instituted at enterprise level. Hawkins (1994) argues that organisations should develop harassment policies as these send a firm, unequivocal statement from the top throughout the organisation that harassment is totally unacceptable.

## **2.5. Remedies to Reduce or Overcome the Barriers**

According to Koziara et al (1987), there are a number of possible remedies to reduce the barriers to upwardly mobile women. The most common of these include affirmative action in hiring, recruitment and promotion, special training for men and women, structural changes, legal remedies and entrepreneurship. These will be discussed after which an action plan for women will be proposed.

### **2.5.1. Affirmative Action in Hiring, Recruitment and Promotion**

Affirmative action is one method which may limit the obstacles which women face. Affirmative action is defined by Van Wyk (1990, p.29) as "the taking of actions which are designed to remedy past discrimination by giving some form of preferential treatment to persons who have been the subject of discriminatory treatment in the past". Taylor (1987, p.2) describes affirmative action as "the selection of people from disadvantaged groups who have the potential to perform adequately, although it may be necessary to provide special developmental assistance initially".

Affirmative action is regarded here as a legitimate way to redress past discrimination and ensure future equitable employment opportunities in South African organisations. Ramsey and Calvert (1994) state that organisational practices such as

recruitment, selection, performance appraisal and promotions decisions are coming under scrutiny a result of pressures for equal opportunity and treatment for women.

According to Koziara et al (1987), the successful implementation of affirmative action requires top management commitment to train women in the skills required to be promotable. One finding of particular note was the attitudes towards top management commitment and affirmative action. Unlike a previous study, also using White, English-speaking male managers, where a large percentage of the group believed that their top management was totally committed to affirmative action and the advancement of Blacks, only a third of the current group felt that their company's top management was fully committed to developing and advancing women into management positions (Koziara et al, 1987). Further, only 23.6% of the respondents believed in affirmative action for women.

If affirmative action is implemented through preferential treatment such that women are hired on the basis of their sex and not their ability, this method can result in reduced organisational commitment and satisfaction and increased role conflict and ambiguity (Koziara et al, 1987). Davidson and Cooper (1986) suggest the adoption of the USA approach of legislated affirmative action such that organisations which are progressive in their employment of women are given government grants or contracts.

### **2.5.2. Special Training for Men and Women**

According to Tharenou, Latimer and Conroy (1994), training leads to managerial advancement. A study by Beynon and Laschinger (1993) indicated that managers attitudes were positively affected as a result of training. Koziara et al (1987) asserts that training for both men and women in the workplace is also a means to address some of the hindrances which women face in organisations. Women should be trained in technical skills, dealing with male sub-ordinates and peers and the functioning of management

politics, while men need training in overcoming their biases and stereotypes toward women, understanding women-related problems, and human relations (Koziara et al, 1987). Davidson and Cooper (1986) state that male managers need training to adopt more efficient, sensitive and sympathetic cooperative management styles, while women managers need to be trained to adopt more flexible management styles.

Tharenou et al (1994) found that pure training is more advantageous for men than for women, while career encouragement has a positive effect on training for women. According to Koonce (1994), executive coaching, which is essentially personalised leadership coaching for top-level executives, may be the key dealing with employees who are problematic due to disruptive, insensitive or inappropriate behaviour. Koonce (1994) claims that this is appropriate both for chauvinistic males and for females who lack confidence.

Zeff et al (1994) state that it is good business ethically and morally to provide women with equal opportunities to gain the skills required for success. A manufacturing firm in Birmingham, England introduced an equal opportunities policy which included management training for women on the three Ms, namely, money, machines and men (Parkyn & Woolley, 1994). This special training resulted in women's empowerment and helped them to overcome their inhibitions and to deal with issues in the workplace (Parkyn & Woolley, 1994). Empowerment within an organisational context is defined as "the belief that one has control over decision making" (Parker & Price, 1994, p.912).

### **2.5.3. Structural Changes**

Kanter (1977) theorises that only by the implementation of structures to improve men and women's quality of life, is it possible for women to achieve equality in organisations (quoted in Koziara et al, 1987). Ressler and Gunnarsson (1986) maintain that the situation must be changed for the majority of women and not just for a few which

requires a structural change within organisations. In order to promote equal opportunities, changes of work organisation are essential (Ressner & Gunnarsson, 1986). Hood and Koberg (1994) argue that the culture within organisations must also be changed to combat the gender gap in management. Borrill and Kidd (1994) support this by maintaining that changes in organisational cultures and policies are necessary to achieve beneficial situations between organisations and female employees.

According to Beaty and Shannon (1990, p.53), structural changes should be implemented which allow women to have their "rights respected, their voices heeded and their opportunities widened". This can be effected by assigning sponsors to lower-level managers, reducing the number of management levels, creating autonomous work units, hiring and placing managerial women in batches to avoid tokenism, extending managerial career paths to clerical employees and accommodating organisational policies and structures to the family roles of the female manager.

According to Curry, Trew, Turner and Hunter (1994), women's work orientation can be that of careerist, adaptive, or home-centred. Burke and McKeen (1993) found that most of the managerial women in their study were more career-family than career-primary orientated. McKeen and Burke (1992) found that women with family responsibilities rated family-friendly policies and time of work above career development and training initiatives. These family-friendly policies refer to extended maternity leave, the creation of lower-level and middle-level managerial positions on a part-time basis, the elimination of relocation flexibility as a promotion condition and flexible work schedules and day care arrangements (Koziara et al, 1987).

Solomon (1994) states that although there is an urgent need for work/family initiatives in organisations, many companies in America, while claiming to value programmes which advance these initiative, do not actually use these programmes.

Solomon (1994, p.79) claims that this is largely due to "the parochial attitude that is ingrained in our culture".

According to Ramsey and Calvert (1994), future needs of organisations are demanding that centrally managed multilevel hierarchies give way to flatter decentralised organisations. Ressler and Gunnarsson (1986) challenge the hierarchical organisational structure as having a negative impact on the upward mobility of women. The alternative organisational structure which is recommended, is the project organisation based on decentralised and democratic working methods in self-steering/autonomous groups, which is more flexible and non-authoritarian thus providing women with a better opportunity to demonstrate their competence (Ressler & Gunnarsson, 1986). According to Stewart (1993), Fortune referred recently to the "dismantling of hierarchy" which is going to be the future trend (quoted in Ramsey & Calvert, 1994).

Exley (1993) maintains that traditional organisations should be replaced with empowered organisations which are flat/team based and where management coaches and facilitates the development of employees. Exley (1993) believes that this new structure benefits the organisation in terms of continuous quality and productivity improvement, reduced need for supervision, greater job ownership and commitment, clearer goals, enhanced job satisfaction, quicker response to customers, faster problem solving and decision-making and enormous financial rewards.

These organisations are characterised by shared authority of managers, shared information and decision-making authority, reduced distinction between the managers and the managed, shared responsibility, commitment to shared goals and a focus on lateral relations rather than a chain of command (Ramsey & Calvert, 1994). Ripley and Ripley (1993) argue that empowered organisations require new organisational cultures and behavioral practices.

#### **2.5.4. Legal Remedies**

There are legal remedies available to women in South Africa. In terms of the South African Labour Relations Act, Act 83 of 1988, an unfair labour practice is considered to "discriminat[ing] unfairly against any person or group of people solely on the basis of race, sex or religion" (Taylor & Radford, 1986, p.13). It is thus possible to claim that a certain unfair discrimination is an unfair labour practice (Taylor & Radford, 1986). This is considered a high-risk alternative, however, as the costs are high and the probability of success is low (Koziara et al, 1987).

With the introduction of the new South African Constitution in 1993, many new legal remedies became available to women particularly in terms of the justiciable Charter of Fundamental Rights which protects individuals against discrimination on the basis of gender among other things and provides for affirmative action of women (South African Government Publication, 1994).

#### **2.5.5. Entrepreneurship**

Another option available to women is to start their own businesses. Koziara et al (1987) claims that although entrepreneurship is becoming quite common, it is not likely to be a major solution to the underrepresentation of women in management.

#### **2.5.6. Action Plan for Women**

Besides the above-mentioned remedies, there are also strategies which women can implement themselves to improve their organisational positions. It is essential that women acknowledge and prepare themselves to deal with the issues which they face. In his book, Smart Women at Work: 12 Steps to Career Breakthroughs, Ward (1987) identifies and refutes twelve myths which restrict career breakthroughs for women. He maintains that women's action plan must incorporate the rejection of inaccurate belief

systems which prevent them from making career advancements. The belief that big corporations offer the best opportunities, getting ahead means becoming president of a company and earning six figures or becoming a workaholic must be dispelled.

Myths such as men have it easy, successful men and women are smarter, men have to develop their careers while women still have a choice and women encounter too many blocks and problems to gain real momentum in getting ahead must also be dismissed (Ward, 1987). Ward (1987) further refutes the beliefs that a good education is the ticket to success, a clear-cut path to advancement and success exists, that job/career changing is difficult and unprofessional and that women cannot easily gain visibility.

Despite the existence of impediments to women's upward occupational mobility, there is also a wider acceptance of female managers now than there was even as recently as the early 1980s (Hirschowitz, 1988). Katz (1992) suggests that women take a number of steps to increase their likelihood of upward mobility. According to Katz (1992), women should obtain more educational qualifications, become more visible in the workplace and outside it, cultivate positive attitudes and seek challenges. They should accept that they are not men and be confident to think and behave as they do, find organisations that support the advancement of women and network with other women (Katz, 1992).

Further, women should be sensitive about socialising with men and learn about power - how to get it and how to keep it. They should learn to be more open and adaptable at meetings, learn to ask for what they need, become more interested in becoming a line manager and learn not to mix social friendships with promotion possibilities. Finally, women must learn to persevere, and know how to handle sexual harassment (Katz, 1992). Frantzve et al (1992) found that high performance, positive

attitude and inner strength are the characteristics which aided their sample of American and Canadian executive women in their quest for upward mobility.

To achieve upward mobility, it is necessary to go beyond one's formal education and training. A woman aspiring to a managerial position must become involved in the socialisation structure including support and personal relationships, task assignments, information provision, opportunities for participation in decision making and increased visibility (Fenn, 1978). Edwards (1995, p.55) states that "good networks and visibility [are] the key to career progression in the future". According to Erwee (1987), successful managerial-level women have the certain entrepreneurial characteristics such as persistence, as willingness to work hard, confidence in their abilities, autonomy and a need to achieve which have contributed to their success.

Marshall (1987) suggests two broad paths of development for women managers, namely, the development of female grounding, and the exploration of the use of the male principle by women (quoted in Clutterbuck & Devine, 1987). Female grounding refers to the process of reevaluation and affirmation one's self-worth as a women through self-knowledge and self-acceptance. Women's use of the male principle (male characteristics) can benefit management women provided they protect the vulnerability of the female principle, clarify and set boundaries to the use of the male principle and begin to contribute to the expression of female values and knowledge (Clutterbuck & Devine, 1987).

## **2.6. Conclusion**

This chapter has been focused on the position of women in organisations. The nature of occupational mobility has been discussed and the critical issues with respect to women's upward mobility have been considered. The barriers which women face to such mobility have been addressed and the potential solutions to these obstacles have been set out.

It is clear that women face many barriers that form a "glass ceiling" and prevent many of them from entering and succeeding in managerial careers. There is a need for high-level manpower in business and industry in South Africa and women are a very real resource to fill this need. Women tend, however, to occupy "female" type jobs and regard employment as temporary. The relevant questions here are how to motivate women to remain in the workforce and to develop careers and aspire to positions of higher status and responsibility.

Discrimination against women and women's adult life roles are often said to be responsible for women's lack of promotion into managerial and high-level positions. These issues are real, but enough women have successfully made it to the top to show that despite all the issues which complicate women's careers, the choice to develop a career and move upward into management ultimately rests with the individual. The choice can be influenced by personality, changing life and work circumstances, environmental demands and economic need, but women must ultimately take responsibility for dealing with their own expectations and aspirations and the complex interaction with work and home. Career development is a personal choice which requires investment of personal resources in occupational activities, the development of work-related activities as a central life interest, a will to progress and success in accepting conflict and integrating multiple role demands (Van Rooyen, 1983).

Katz (1992) argues that what is needed is an attitude change on the part of management, together with an action plan on the part of women themselves - women need champions but they also need to help themselves. According to Sadler (1988, p.33), discrimination against women's upward mobility into management does exist, but she argues that "ability has become a most important criterion".

The following two chapters will focus specifically on the role of the two central constructs of this study, namely, values and achievement motivation, in the upward occupational mobility of women within organisations.

## **CHAPTER THREE: VALUES**

### **Introduction**

All people have value systems which comprise their personal values. According to Tlhopane (1979, p.3), "the nature of a person's system of values provides the key to his behaviour... ." Putti, Aryee and Tan (1988, p.249) state that "the importance of values and value systems derives from the fact that they constitute a basis for orienting the behaviour of individuals in various social settings." According to Musser and Orke (1994), value systems are important for understanding the motives behind behaviour because of their influence on aspirations and choices. Based on these statements, it becomes necessary to examine a person's values in order to determine the type of behaviour he is likely to exhibit.

In the following discussion of values, three main models of values, namely, the philosophical, the anthropological and the psychological models, will be presented. Each will be discussed in terms of its own interpretation of what values are, and how they should be classified and measured. The specific approach to values selected for this study will then be discussed briefly. Thereafter, the gender issues on values will be considered including a discussion of the differences between males and females in terms of values. The occupational level issues on values will then be considered. Firstly the differences between managerial and non-managerial employees will be discussed, followed by a consideration of the values of managerial and then non-managerial women.

It will be argued that there are two distinguishable groupings within organisations, namely, the dominant group of males, and the non-dominant groups, such as women and non-White cultural groups, each of which possess quite different value systems. If

women do have values which differ to, or are in conflict with, those of the men, these values may function as a barrier to their occupational mobility.

The literature analyses whether the values which managerial and non-managerial women possess have had a determining effect on their upward occupational mobility within organisations. To achieve upward mobility within a traditionally male-dominated environment, women would have to adapt themselves somewhat to the values of males (Clutterbuck & Devine, 1987).

It will be argued that the values of managerial women are a combination of the traditional female and the dominant male values made in order to adapt to the culture of male-dominated organisations. This adaptation is at least partially responsible for these women breaking through the "glass ceiling" into management positions (Katz, 1992, p.17). It will be suggested, that the values of the non-managerial women restrict their upward mobility to an extent as these women have not adapted their values, but have instead maintained their traditional female values.

### **3.1. Towards a definition of values**

Values are "conscious, cognitive, and evaluative 'espousals of goals', conceptions of the desirable", or cognitive knowledge of correct behaviour or "the correct end-state to strive for" (Biernat, 1989, p.70). They predict "respondent" behaviours or cognitive decisions as to what should be done, and due to their conscious nature, values can be assessed by direct self-report questionnaires (Biernat, 1989). Reber (1985), in his Dictionary of Psychology, defines a value as "an abstract and general principle concerning the patterns of behaviour within a particular culture or society which, through the process of socialisation, the members of that society hold in high regard. These social values, as they are often called, form central principles around which individual and societal goals become integrated" (Grunert & Scherhorn, 1990, p.97).

According to Feather (1994), values are essentially core aspects of the self-concept and influence thought and action. Feather (1994) states that values transcend more specific attitudes towards objects and situations, but influence the form of these attitudes. Values provide "...standards or criteria that people can use to evaluate actions and outcomes, to justify opinions and conduct, to plan and guide behaviour, to decide between alternatives, to compare self with others, to engage in social influence, and to present self to others" (Feather, 1994, p.469).

Najder (1975) maintains that "value" is an ambiguous term, and there is no consensus as to its definition. Kelly (1974, p.42) states that values "of necessity must always be vague, indefinite, ambiguous statements phrased in the form of moral injunctions or imperatives, because it is impossible to state in clear, unambiguous terms what the purposes of an organisation, group, or individual are."

Despite the general ambiguity surrounding the definition of values, Grunert and Scherhorn (1990) state that the concept of value seems to be characterised by five important features namely, concepts or beliefs, desirable behaviours and/or end states, that go beyond specific situations, guiding the selection or evaluation of events and behaviour and are ordered by a certain hierarchical importance. The concept of a universal value system has also given rise to confusion as different disciplines hold different views as to what this concept entails. Godsell (1981) identified three models of value systems, each with its own approach to the nature and measurement of values. These models will be considered below.

### **3.2. The Philosophical Model**

Philosophical literature allocates three meanings to the term value (Najder, 1975). The first is a quantitative meaning whereby value is the worth of a thing which can be expressed in units of measurement or defined numerically. The second meaning is

attributive and refers to the thing or property to which valuableness is ascribed. The final meaning is axiological in that value is regarded as an idea which causes one to regard as valuable various objects, qualities, and/or events.

Charles Morris (1956), in his book Varieties of Human Value, adopted an axiological approach to the study of values. Morris was a philosopher who relied on an ethical and religious, and later purely ethical, worldview to develop a comprehensive model of human values. This model initially comprised thirteen ways to live or "value-orientations" (Morris, 1956, p.14) and is based on what Morris (1956, p.1) identified as the "values advocated and defended in the several ethical and religious systems of mankind". It was later reduced to five value dimensions (Godsell, 1981, p.2). These are:

- \* *Social restraint and self control*
- \* *Enjoyment and progress in action*
- \* *Withdrawal and self-sufficiency*
- \* *Receptivity and sympathetic concern*
- \* *Self-indulgence and sensuous enjoyment.*

The three main components of values which Morris (1956) identified are dependence, dominance and detachment.

Morris (1956) identified three ways in which the term "value" is commonly employed. In this regard he distinguished between operative, object and conceived values (Morris, 1956, p.10-12). He defines operative values as "the tendencies of living beings to prefer one kind of object rather than another", object values as the desirable as opposed to the preferred, and conceived values as "preference(s) for a symbolically indicated object...directed by an anticipation or foresight of the outcome." Conceived values are important as they "take account of both the individual's own personal characteristics and the requirements of organised society" (Morris, 1956, p.188). Morris

(1956) also held that "value profiles characteristic of various cultures" are formed by the combination of various value dimensions (Godsell, 1981, p.3).

### **3.3. The Anthropological Model**

#### **3.3.1. The Definition of Values**

This model is characterised by the distinction made by Dewey (1939) between "the desired" and "the desirable" (Komin, 1990, p.684). Kluckhohn (1951) defined value as "a conception, explicit or implicit, of the desirable which influences the selection of available modes, means, and ends of action (Komin, 1990, p.684). Following the approach of Dewey and Kluckhohn, Smith (1969) insisted on a clear distinction "between values and preferences, between the desirable and the merely desired" (quoted in Mueller & Wornhoff, 1990, p.692). A model of value orientation will be set out below.

#### **3.3.2. Value Orientation**

F.R. Kluckhohn (1950) and C. Kluckhohn (1951) developed what is known as a model of value orientation (Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961). Value orientations are defined as "complex but definitely patterned (rank-ordered) principles, resulting from the transactional interplay of three analytically distinguishable elements of the evaluation process - the cognitive, the affective and the directive elements - which give order and direction to the ever-flowing stream of human acts and thoughts as these relate to the solution of common human problems" (Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961, p.4).

Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) identified five value orientations. These are human nature orientation, time orientation, activity orientation, man-Nature (-Supernature) orientation, time orientation, activity orientation and relational orientation.

This classification of value orientations is based on three assumptions (Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961, p.10):

- "\* *There is a number of common human problems for which all peoples at all times must find some solution.*
- \* *While there is variability in solutions of all the problems, it is neither limitless nor random but it is definitely variable within a range of possible solutions.*
- \* *All alternatives of all solutions are present in all societies at all times but are differentially preferred."*

These authors distinguished between dominant (most preferred) value orientations and variant (required and permitted) orientations. They claim that dominant values are often overemphasised in cross-cultural analysis to the neglect of variant values (Godsell, 1981).

### **3.3.3. The Typology of Value Structures**

Based on this early work Spiegel (1982) proposed a typology of human values which assumed that all people at all times and in all places were subject to common problems for which solutions must be found (Beutler & Bergan, 1991). Other assumptions made by this model are that the solutions are not limitless or random and that every culture possesses alternative problem-solutions. Spiegel (1982) identified five domains which encompass values relevant to society. These are set out by Beutler and Bergan (1991, p.19-20) as follows:

- \* *Temporal Focus: These refer to the ordering of past, present, and future preferences.*
- \* *Self-definition values: These values form a nominal distinction among "doing", "feeling" and "constraining".*

- \* *Interpersonal Relationship values: These values are reflected on a continuum extending from preference for individualism and autonomy to relative reliance on external authority or the collective norms of social groups to guide one's behaviour in social relationships.*
- \* *Person-nature values: These refer to the relationship to uncontrollable, natural or supernatural environments.*
- *Nature of Person: These values are reflected in the qualitative expressions of belief in the basic nature of people.*

### **3.4. Psychological Models**

Psychology is more concerned with scales and measures of a concept than models and hence the focus here is on various scales and measurements of values.

#### **3.4.1. Allport's Model**

##### **3.4.1.1. The Six Value Types**

Allport defines value as "a belief upon which a man acts by preference" (Allport, 1961, p.454). Spranger, a German philosopher, proposed a six value model which formed the basis for the more well-known Study of Values developed by Allport, Vernon and Lindzey in 1960. The Study of Values was concerned with the categorisation of values, and led to the identification of six value types or directions. Spranger claims that all people approach one or more of these "value orientations," but no one fits perfectly within any one type (Allport, 1961, p.298). These value types are as follows (Robbins, 1991, p.156,160):

- \* *Theoretical: places high importance on the discovery of truth through a critical and rational approach*
- \* *Economic: emphasises the useful and practical*

- \* *Aesthetic: places the highest value on form and harmony*
- \* *Social: assigns the highest value to the love of people*
- \* *Political: places emphasis on acquisition of power and influence*
- \* *Religious: is concerned with the unity of experience and understanding of the cosmos as a whole.*

Allport, together with some of his associates, developed a special test with which one can measure people in terms of their values.

#### **3.4.1.2. The Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values**

Allport, Vernon and Lindzey define values as "basic interests or motives and evaluative attitudes" (Elizur, Borg, Hunt, and Beck, 1991, p.22). The Allport, Vernon and Lindzey scale makes use of a forced choice method to test for value preferences and is composed of 45 items in all. According to Spangenberg (1990), the test is divided into two parts. In part I, which consists of 30 choices, each value is paired twice but with different statements with every other value, and in part II, which consists of 15 choices, each value is compared with all combinations of three other values. Thus, the scale is constructed so that each of the six values is paired with the other five values an equal number of times and subjects make a forced choice between these value pairs. The result is an individual value-hierarchy which indicates the relative strength of the values within a specific context (Godsell, 1981).

Robbins (1991) relates that Allport et al developed a questionnaire describing various preference rank fixed answers. According to Flores and Catalanello (1987), the questionnaire is based on the work of Edward Spranger who held that the study of values is the best way to understand men's personalities. The replies are then ranked according to the importance given to each of the six value types. The result is a value system for

each individual. Further, it has been found that people in different occupations place different importance on the six value types.

### **3.4.2. Rokeach's Model**

Rokeach's model will be discussed here with reference to his definition of values, the classification of values, the function of values and value systems and the measurement of values.

#### **3.4.2.1. The Definition of Values**

Rokeach (1968) defined value as "abstract ideals, positive or negative, not tied to any specific objects or situation, representing a person's beliefs about modes of conduct or ideal terminal goals" (Komin, 1990, p.684). In his book The Nature of Human Values Rokeach set out his more well-known definition of values. Rokeach (1973, p.5) defined a value as "an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence" and a value system as "an enduring organisation of beliefs concerning preferable modes of conduct or end-states of existence along a continuum of relative importance."

Rokeach (1968) states that "a value (or belief about the desirable) therefore involves some *knowledge* about the means or ends considered to be desirable; it involves some degree of *affect* or feeling, because values are not neutral but are held with personal feeling and general affect when challenged; and it involves a *behavioural component*, because a value that is activated may lead to action" (Feather, 1975, p.5). The way Rokeach defined values led to a particular way of classifying them.

### 3.4.2.2. The Classification of Values

Rokeach (1973) makes a distinction between two types of values: instrumental and terminal. Instrumental values are concerned with desirable modes of conduct, while terminal values concern desirable end-states of existence. Rokeach (1973) states that an adult has about eighteen terminal values, and many more instrumental values. He claims that the latter may extend "into the hundreds or even into the thousands..." (Rokeach, 1973, p.11). There are two kinds of terminal values, namely, personal and social. Personal values have end-states such as peace of mind, while for social values brotherhood is an example of an end-state.

In a study by Mueller and Wornhoff (1990) entitled Distinguishing Personal and Social Values the Rokeach Value Survey, among other inventories, was used to determine the extent of its focus on personal and social value applications. It was found that the Rokeach personal terminal scales measure personal value applications, the Rokeach social terminal scales measure social value applications, and the Rokeach instrumental value scales have a mixed focus on both personal and social applications. As most value measurement instruments measure personal values only to the neglect of the social, the finding was significant as the Rokeach Value Survey measures both personal and social value applications.

Rokeach also identifies two kinds of instrumental values, namely, moral values and competence or self-actualisation values. Moral values have an interpersonal focus and refer to modes of behaviour such as behaving honestly or lovingly. If these values are violated, one is likely to experience feelings of guilt for wrong doing. Competence or self-actualisation values, however, are more personal in nature, such as behaving logically or imaginatively, and their violation leads to feelings of shame because of inadequacy. Instrumental and terminal values are related but are separately organised into

a fairly enduring hierarchical organisation according to a continuum of importance. An understanding of the different kinds of values is important for a knowledge of the various functions of values.

### **3.4.2.3. The Function of values and values systems**

Values rarely operate alone, but instead are integrated into value systems which guide an individual's behaviour. According to Rokeach (1973), values function as standards which guide conduct, and value systems function as a learned organisation of principles and rules which facilitate the choice between alternatives and so function as general plans for conflict resolution and decision-making. There are seven ways in which values serve as standards that direct conduct. These are set out by Rokeach (1973, p.13) as follows:

- \* *They direct one to hold a particular position on social issues*
- \* *They incline one to favour a political/religious ideology*
- \* *They guide the presentation of self to others*
- \* *They enable evaluation and judgement*
- \* *They serve as bases for comparison with others*
- \* *They are employed to persuade and influence others*
- \* *They help one to psychoanalytically rationalise beliefs, attitudes and actions.*

Values also have motivational functions, besides the cognitive, affective, and behavioural parts. Instrumental values motivate one as they specify modes of behaviour which are instrumental in achieving one's goals. Terminal values motivate one as they represent the end-goals for which one strives.

Values are also motivating because they serve to maintain and enhance self-esteem or what McDougall (1926) described as "the master of self-regard" (Rokeach, 1973, p.15). This is achieved in three ways: (i) by facilitating the adjustment of person to

society, (ii) by defending his ego against threat, and (iii) by testing reality by increasing an individual's knowledge toward self-actualisation.

#### **3.4.2.4. The Measurement of values and value systems**

The most widely used instrument in the study of values is Rokeach's Value Survey for the measurement of values and value systems (Rokeach, 1973). This Value Survey is composed of two lists of eighteen instrumental and eighteen terminal values, and the respondent is required to rank each list in order of importance. This rank-ordering process gives rise to various measures: (Rokeach, 1973)

- \* *value system stability (obtained by correlating an individual's rankings on one occasion with those made on a later occasion)*
- \* *value system change (obtained from rank orders on two separate occasions)*
- \* *value system similarity between two persons (obtained by rank orders from any two persons)*
- \* *value systems similarity in more than two persons (obtained by employing the coefficient of concordance)*
- \* *perceived value systems of reference persons and groups (obtained by making a comparison between one's values and those attributed to others)*
- \* *reliability of single values (obtained by the rank-ordering method)*
- \* *change in single values (obtained by the rank-ordering method).*

The Value Survey has proved to be reasonably reliable and valid, and has been described by respondents as "interesting, thought-provoking, and ego-involving" (Rokeach, 1973, p.51). It takes approximately ten to twenty minutes to complete the Value Survey and, as responses are expressed in quantitative terms, there is no need to score it. The Rokeach Value Survey has been widely used to determine the values of people in many different countries.

### 3.4.3. Schwartz and Bilsky's Model

Based on Rokeach's (1973) theory of values, Schwartz and Bilsky (1990) proposed a theory of the psychological content and structure of human values in terms of which values are defined as "concepts or beliefs [which] pertain to desirable end states or behaviours, transcend specific situations, guide selection or evaluation of behaviour and events, and are ordered by relative importance" (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1990, p.878).

Values were described in terms of the following three basic facets (Feather, 1991, p.85):

- \* *concern for desirable goals or end-states (terminal values) or with desirable modes of conduct or behaviours (instrumental values)*
- \* *whether they represent individualistic, collectivistic or mixed interests*
- \* *whether they can be classified into a set of motivational domains*

The theory is based on the fact that all individuals and societies must respond to three human requirements which are cognitively represented as values. These requirements are:

- \* *individuals' needs as biological organisms*
- \* *requisites of social interaction*
- \* *needs of groups for survival and interaction.*

Socialisation and cognitive development result in the conscious representation of needs as values, the use of culturally shared terms to communicate the values, and the attribution of importance to values.

There are four aspects of the theory which must be considered: goal type, interests served, motivational domain: content, and motivational domain: structure.

- \* Goal Type: As with many definitions and measurement scales of values, values are classified into two types: terminal (relating to end states of existence), and instrumental (relating to modes of conduct).
- \* Interests served: The attainment of values serves three different categories of interests, namely, individualistic (pleasure), collective (equality) and both (wisdom). Individualism versus collectivism is a major dimension of value differentiation, both at a societal and an individual level. The importance attributed to values is influenced by the interests which values serve - individual or collective.
- \* Motivational domains: content: Motivational domains refer to the universal type of motivational concern which are expressed by values. The theorists derived seven motivational domains from the three universal requirements. These are based on Rokeach's (1973) list and are as follows:
  - \* *Prosocial: active protection or enhancement of the welfare of others*
  - \* *Restrictive conformity: restraint of actions and impulses likely to harm others and to violate sanctioned norms*
  - \* *Enjoyment: pleasure, sensuous and emotional gratification*
  - \* *Achievement: personal success through demonstrated competence*
  - \* *Maturity: appreciation, understanding and acceptance of oneself, others and the surrounding world*
  - \* *Self-direction: independent thought and action- choosing, creating and exploring*
  - \* *Security: safety, harmony, and stability of society, of groups with whom one identifies, of relationships, and of self.*

Schwartz and Bilsky's (1990) study supported the claim that people's values are organised into these categories or types of motivation. In a later study in 1990 involving five new countries, which was conducted to establish whether their theory had universal

application, Schwartz and Bilsky (1990) found that other values emerged in Hong Kong, namely, *power*: position of authority and importance, *self-determination*: ability to determine one's destiny; *equity*: each person being rewarded according to how much contribution he has made; and *social justice*: fairness and no discrimination.

\* Motivational Domains: Structure: *There are dynamic relations among the motivational domains of values, and the psychological, practical, and social consequences of pursuing and expressing values from different domains organise people's value preferences. Schwartz and Bilsky (1990) identify sets of domains from which a compatible simultaneous pursuit of values occurs, namely:*

- \* prosocial, restrictive conformity and security as they support smooth social relations
- \* achievement and enjoyment as they are concerned with self-enhancement
- \* maturity and self-directions as they express comfort with or reliance upon unique experience and capacities.

Schwartz and Bilsky (1990) also identify certain domains from which a contradictory simultaneous pursuit of values occurs, namely:

- \* *self-direction (own independence) v restrictive conformity (self-restraint)*
- \* *prosocial (concern for others) v achievement (personal success)*
- \* *enjoyment (own pleasure) v prosocial (devoted to others' welfare)*
- \* *achievement (pursuit of success) v security (harmonious social relations)*

From their previous statement that the interests that values serve structure the relations between values, Schwartz and Bilsky (1990) found that certain domains served certain interests:

- \* *achievement, enjoyment and self-direction serve individualistic interests*
- \* *prosocial and restrictive conformity serve collective interests*
- \* *security serves both individualistic and collective interests.*

Thus, Schwartz and Bilsky (1990) claim that values may serve individualistic, collectivist or mixed interests (Feather, 1994). Value types concerned with power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation and self-direction serve individualistic interests, while value types concerning benevolence, tradition and conformity serve collectivist interests. Mixed interests are served by value types concerning universalism and security (Feather, 1994). Triandis (1993) supports this distinction by stating that a focus on values like pleasure, competition, achievement, freedom, autonomy and fair exchange characterise individualists, while values like security, obedience, duty, in-group harmony, hierarchy and personalised relationships are more common of communalists (Feather, 1994).

#### **3.4.4. Kahle's Model: The List of Values (LOV)**

According to Grunert and Scherhorn (1990, p.98), the List of Values or LOV is "the most appealing instrument" for measuring values and it is this instrument which is used in this study. It was developed by researchers at the University of Michigan Survey Centre and is based on the work of Feather (1975), Maslow (1970), and Rokeach (1973) whose work has been discussed above.

The List of Values is composed of nine values namely, self-respect, security, warm relationships with others, sense of accomplishment, self-fulfilment, sense of belonging, being well respected, fun and enjoyment in life and excitement.

The understanding of values which lies behind this methodology is captured in the statement by Kahle and Goff Timmer (1983) that "values are regarded as the most abstract type of social cognitions that help to know and to understand the interpersonal world, and whose primary function is to guide the individual's adaptation to the surrounding circumstances" (Grunert & Scherhorn, 1990, p.98). Values are conceived in terms of social adaptation theory which means that values mediate the process of social adaptation as they are the point of intersection between individuals and society at large.

Values are acquired during childhood and adolescence and are therefore relatively stable except for changes in life cycle status, the shift of generations and/or changes in the surrounding environment. As a result, any value differences between groups can be traced back to different environmental conditions and/or to different thoughts, feelings, and behaviours associated with values (Grunert & Scherhorn, 1990).

This interpretation of values is instrumental in this particular study as it assumes that one's value system is formed through socialisation or social adaptation. The childhood socialisation of men and women is generally quite different and ultimately gives rise to quite different values. The thorough discussion of the List of Values is included in chapter five of this study namely, that research design. It is thus unnecessary to provide a detailed description and evaluation of the instrument at this point.

### **3.5. Gender Issues on Values**

A knowledge of the above-mentioned theories of values is essential to an understanding of the value construct. Gender issues on values will be discussed beginning with a consideration of genders as different "cultural groups" within organisations due to their different value systems. Thereafter, the actual gender differences will be considered.

#### **3.5.1. Gender and Values: Two "Cultural Groups"**

Values also form the basis of culture which is a variable that characterises and is used to classify different groups of people both within society and within organisations. According to Clutterbuck and Devine (1987), men and women form two separate "cultural" groups within organisations based on the fact that they hold different values and value systems (Clutterbuck & Devine, 1987). The term culture is associated with "a common set of shared beliefs, attitudes, and values among its members, these orientations being reflected not only in the behaviour of individuals, but also in societal

organisation and functioning" (Feather, 1975, p.195). Komin (1990, p.683) defines culture as "the total pattern which make a society distinct," and which "serves as a framework for shaping and guiding the thoughts, actions, and practices as well as the creativity of its members." According to Ong (1987), culture is "a set of symbols and meanings in terms of which individuals orient themselves to each other and to the world" (Gobodo, 1990, p.94).

Every culture has a particular system of values which directs people's behaviour. Through a process of socialisation, each member of the culture internalises the cultural value system which then becomes the worldview of each person (Retief, 1988). Carter (1990, p.71) states that "cultural values or worldviews reflect the existential assumptions an individual holds about his or her world." Du Preez (1987) states that "a system of meanings is what sustains a culture, what transmits culture and whereby it is changed" (quoted in Retief, 1988, p.151).

According to Clutterbuck and Devine (1987), organisations are mostly run according to male-dominated culture and consequently produce value conflicts for women. Clutterbuck and Devine (1987) state that women traditionally hold a secondary position in organisations or compose the non-dominant culture, while men's values make up the dominant culture as it is their values which are upheld in the organisational culture. A process of cultural dominance tends to exist within organisations such that the "culture" (value systems) of the non-dominant are not considered to be as valuable as those of the dominant group (Adler, 1980).

Women can be regarded as a disadvantaged group or subculture within organisations as they hold values and value systems which differ from and are in conflict with those of the dominant group within organisations, namely, White males, and form invisible barriers or a "glass ceiling" which prevent obstruct women's upward mobility

within organisations (Putti et al, 1988). This leads to frustration both on the part of the female employees because they lack mobility, and on the part of the organisation as they fail to access skills and knowledge of these employees at higher levels. Because of their heterogenous nature, South African organisations have a high potential for value conflict (Godsell, 1983). An understanding of values and value systems is clearly essential in order to identify these potential areas of value conflict and value compromise, and to facilitate the development of "an indigenous, culturally synergetic organisational model for South Africa" (Godsell, 1983, p.7).

### **3.5.2. Gender Differences on Values**

Gender differences in values and social behaviours has been a topic of interest for researchers for many years (Knight and Chao, 1989). Much of the research indicates that males and females are very different, and have totally different values and value systems. According to Koziara et al (1987), this concept of distinctly male and female values is a result of traditional sex role socialisation. Yee and Brown (1994) claim that gender differentiation in terms of values is well developed in very young children.

Gender differences in terms of values will be discussed as it is necessary to establish that the values of women and men are different to show that there are value differences between the dominant and non-dominant groups within organisations. As organisations have traditionally been male-dominated, males form a reference group against which to compare (Clutterbuck & Devine, 1987). This is done in order to illustrate that women may face restrictions to their upward mobility purely due to holding different values. The differences which are set out below are very general categories which describe the traditional male and the traditional female values identified from the literature and clearly do not apply to every individual.

One noticeable difference between males and females, is that while males tend to value independence, females value relationships with others and a sense of belonging (Bankart, Bankart, and Franklin, 1987). Kunen, Tang and Ducey (1991) mention a number of theorists who believe that this is partially due to the fact that males and females differ in the way in which they form their identities (Lyons, 1983) or organise their social perspectives (Kunen et al, 1991).

Maccoby (1986) states that "to a remarkable degree male and female children grow up in a different environment" (McClintock, 1988, p.59). According to Erikson (1968), males usually develop their identity prior to intimacy, while for females this development tends to be simultaneous (Vondracek, Shimizu, Schulenberg, Hostetler & Sakayangi, 1990). Vondracek et al (1990) identified independence as a typically male value. This is confirmed by Chodorow (1974) who views males as being individuated, and females as embedded (Kunen et al, 1991). Lyons (1983) showed further support for this view by stating that females emphasise connectedness, while males focus on separateness (Kunen et al, 1991).

A female's identity is defined primarily in terms of relations to others and connection with others, and males are described as having an "individual orientation" and being "rooted in separation and individualism" respectively (Bankart et al, 1987, p.249-250). Lau and Wong (1992) found that males are more agentic and instrumental and females more expressive and communal in their value preference. In a study based on the mapping sentence of values, Maslovaty and Dor-Shav (1990) found that women tend to value interpersonal relations while men show no interest in this value.

Gilligan (1982) states that females emphasise a "web of connectedness" such that they prefer to be at the centre of connection, and fear being alone (Fiorentine, 1988). This may account partially for "femme fatale", which refers to a women's preoccupation

with love and romance. Males, however, place value in self-reliance (Fiebert, 1990), prefer being alone at the top of social organisations and are afraid of others coming too close (Fiorentine, 1988, p.155).

Clutterbuck and Devine (1987) consolidate this male/female difference in what they refer to as the male and female principles. The male principle is essentially independence, focus, clarity, discrimination, activity, control of the environment and attention to figure rather than context, while the female principle is interdependence, patterns, being, acceptance, receptivity and perception of wholes.

The next major difference between men and women's values is that men generally seem to value achievement and accomplishment (Maslovaty & Dor-Shav, 1990), while women value altruism and uphold an "ethic of care" (Gilligan, 1982; Fiorentine, 1988). As nurturers, women are concerned with responding to the physical and emotional needs of others and as "keeper[s] of the hearth", they are involved with the acquisition and performance of various domestic skills (Fiebert, 1990, p.633).

According to Eccles (1987), females attribute greater value to helping others (Lyson, 1984) than men, while men value financial and status benefits more highly than women (Machung, 1986). This is confirmed by Fiebert (1990) who states that men value success and status. Rokeach (1973) found that males chose values such as ambition and, according to Gilligan (1982), men tend to emphasise a "hierarchy of authority" and "ethics of rights" (Fiorentine, 1988).

There are also a number of theories such as the normative barriers theories and the psychological deficit model which offer further explanation for this sex differentiated career ambition. The normative barriers theories assume that women do not usually aspire to high status professional and executive careers. Fiorentine (1988) suggests various reasons for this: the existence of strong prospective norms (Angrist & Almquist,

1975), anticipated family-occupational role conflict (Angrist et al, 1975), and the absence of role models (Douvan, 1976). The psychological deficit model claims that women suffer lower levels of self-confidence in achievement-related situations which makes them unlikely to aspire to high-status careers (Fiorentine, 1988, p.155).

A third discernable difference between the values of men and women is that men place value on being well respected by others, while women are more concerned with self-respect and self-fulfilment (Fiebert, 1990). In his study, Rokeach (1973) found that men show a preference for the value of social recognition, and according to Fiebert (1990) they value admiration as they have a need to be looked up to. Their need for status also reveals this value of being well respected.

Women, however, tend to be more concerned with inner issues as indicated in their preference for values like happiness and inner harmony (Rokeach, 1973). According to Eccles (1987), females attribute greater value to personal rewards (Machung, 1986). Maslovaty and Dor-Shav (1990) discovered that on behavioural modalities, women tend to stress guiding principles more than men, and in terms of judgement in values, women show more stress on principled-autonomous judgements than men. Further, women appreciate study for study's sake which suggests that they value self-respect.

Another identifiable difference between men and women in terms of their values, is that men generally tend to value excitement, while women show a preference for security (Fiorentine, 1988). Rokeach (1973) found significant differences between males and females on twelve of eighteen terminal values and eight of eighteen instrumental values. One such difference was that men chose values such as exciting life, while women showed preference for values like world peace which suggests a desire for security. Gilligan (1982) states that women tend to fear success and avoided positions of authority which further indicates a need for security, specifically personal security (Fiorentine,

1988). Men do show value for national security, but this is appears to be motivated by a need to protect and not because of fear.

A final difference between the values of men and women set out here is that men and women have difference traditional images of masculinity and femininity respectively which they are taught to value (Fiebert, 1990). A study by Fiebert (1990) identified one of the traditional dimensions of the female role as looking good, defined as "preoccupation with fashion, appearance, and the attempt to adhere to cultural standards of femininity" (Fiebert, 1990, p.633). According to Maslovaty and Dor-Shav (1990), women are taught to emphasise style of clothing. Males, however, have a typical male role.

Fiebert (1990, p.633) refers to Brannon's analysis of the traditional male role. Brannon identified certain basic components of this role, some of which include

- \* *no sissy stuff, which refers to the stigma of anything vaguely feminine*
- \* *Sturdy oak, which refers to a manly air of toughness, confidence, and self-reliance*
- \* *give em hell, which refers to an aura of aggression, violence, and daring (Fiebert, 1990). Thus, males have an image which they feel they have to maintain in order to be accepted.*

Lau and Wong (1992) considered the relations of sex role to value preference and found that masculinity was related to higher ranking on sense of accomplishment and mature love, ambitious, capable, courageous, imaginative, independent and logical, and lower ranking of happiness and cheerful, clean, forgiving, helpful, loving and polite, while femininity was associated with higher ranking of inner harmony and salvation, helpful, honest and loving, and lower ranking of an exciting life and a sense of accomplishment and ambitious, broad-minded, capable, courageous and intellectual.

Parsons and Goff (1980) identify various ways in which sex differences in value systems may be manifest. Firstly, men and women have different incentive values for engaging in and completing certain activities. Secondly, value hierarchies may differ such that core values are ranked in different orders of importance. This implies that various life tasks satisfying different core values have different incentive values, and success and failure are defined differently for the different genders. Finally, the utility value of certain tasks will differ according to gender.

The gender differences in terms of values have been discussed in order to illustrate that women and men have different values and that this difference is reflected within organisations. This suggests that women may face restrictions to their upward mobility purely due to holding values which are different from the male norm.

### **3.6. Occupational Level Issues on Values**

The occupational level issues on values will be discussed here beginning with a consideration of the values of managerial and non-managerial employees generally. Thereafter the values of managerial women will be considered, followed by those of non-managerial women.

By virtue of the fact that South African organisational cultures are composed of predominantly male values, it is clear that to achieve upward mobility, women would have to adapt themselves somewhat to the values of males (Clutterbuck & Devine, 1987). It is argued that managerial women have made a value adaptation and have acquired certain values which are similar to those of males, while still maintaining their traditional female values. They have essentially effected a combination of both value systems as an adaptation to the demands of the male-dominated work environment. In this way, they have become upwardly mobile and gained entry into the managerial positions normally reserved for those of the dominant group. The non-managerial

women, however, remain below the "glass ceiling" partly due to their non-adaptation and maintenance of traditional values. Hence, their values do function as a barrier to upward mobility in non-managerial women. The value systems which women hold clearly can, and do, have a very distinct effect on their occupational mobility within organisations.

### **3.6.1. Values of Managerial and Non-managerial Employees**

There are value differences between managerial and non-managerial employees generally which contribute to the "glass ceiling" restricting or preventing the upward mobility of certain employees. Factors such as education, socio-economic class and roles within the organisation have a determining effect on values and hence value differences.

A study by Flores and Catalanello (1987) found that significant value differences of nonmanagers, measured on the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey value scale, were associated with economic class, education level and organisational roles. In terms of the socio-economic level, all the subjects placed greater emphasis on aesthetic and social values as opposed to economic and political values, with the lower-class nonmanagers showing the least preference for the latter values. Flores and Catalanello (1987, p.636) suggest that, as economic and political achievements are a means to upward mobility, individuals within the non-managerial group who maintain their traditional value structures "will tend to perpetuate their membership in lower social strata." The educational level of the nonmanagers was also related to differences in values. The subjects emphasised aesthetic and social values, and theoretical and political values were higher for those with college education than those with a grammar school education.

The values of managers identified in a study by Alpander (1994) include economic security, belongingness, recognition, self-worth and control. DeLeon (1994) found that the most important values of managers in her study were professionalism, effectiveness

and leadership, while the least important were incrementalism, empathy, futurism and scientism. The values of non-managerial employees were quite different (DeLeon, 1994). These findings indicate that the values of non-managerial employees do differ from those of management and as such can function as a barrier to upward occupational mobility.

This was confirmed by a study conducted by Brenner (1988) in which he examined the relations of age and years of formal education to work values. He found that desire for intrinsic job aspects, independence and opportunity to perform managerial activities was greater amongst men and women with more education. The differences associated with managerial and non-managerial roles were, however, the most significant factors which affected organisational members' value differences. This is consistent with the findings of a study by Sirota and Greenwood (1971) which illustrated that the work values of specific occupational groups within different countries were more similar than those of different occupational groups within a single country (Flores & Catalanello, 1987).

Shapira and Griffith (1990) confirmed this in their research involving a comparison of the work values of engineers with managers, production and clerical workers using the Survey of Work Values. Engineers and managers were found to have similar work values, while those of production and clerical workers were different. Shapira and Griffith (1990) cite Frost's (1982) and Burawoy's (1979) findings that work values of managers and lower level employees differ.

According to Shapira and Griffith (1990), these writers state that clerical-level employees are likely to place less importance on values relating to the nature of their work than professionals and managers. Instead, their work values are related to extrinsic rewards such as pay and other monetary incentives, and job performance and turnover

are hypothesised to be related to these work values. This suggests that individuals who do not share the same value systems as management will not attain management positions either through the selection processes (due to lack of interest in the activities of management), or because of an incongruence between their decision-making practices and those of the managerial population (Flores & Catalanello, 1987).

The studies cited above all indicate clearly that there are many value differences between managerial and non-managerial employees in general associated with issues such as education, socio-economic class and organisational roles which reinforce the invisible barrier to the upward mobility of non-managerial or clerical-level employees.

### **3.6.2. Values of Managerial Women**

The values of managerial women are considered here to determine how they compare to the traditional female values and to the dominant male values. According to a study by Erwee (1990), the values or career anchors of American women from Sloan School alumnae, middle managers with work experience and bank vice presidents respectively were as follows: technical/functional competence 8%, 0% and 35%, managerial competence 32%, 35% and 20%, autonomy/independence 5%, 35% and 0%, security/stability 10%, 0% and 20% and creativity/entrepreneurship 12%, 15% and 0%. Service was 8%, 5% and 5% and unclear was 25%, 10% and 20% (Erwee, 1990).

The hierarchy of career anchors or values of a group of business and professional women in South Africa was found to be service, variety, security, managerial competence, autonomy, identity, technical/functional competence, entrepreneurship and security. Erwee (1990) stated that the identification of career anchors is important as it affects career management in organisations and can be used to identify women who want to move up the corporate ladder.

The values of managerial women can also be seen in their definitions of career success. These were firstly "achieving one's personal goals (52%), secondly, "enjoying one's work" (49%), thirdly, "having self-satisfaction" (22%) and finally, "receiving peer or community recognition" (17%) (Northcutt, 1991). Mason (1994) identified the value of being respected as very important to both managerial and non-managerial women, but found that managerial women also valued being respected.

Schein and Mueller (1992) found that the British, German and American males in their sample believe that managers possess characteristics, attitudes and temperaments more commonly ascribed to men than to women. According to Bridges (1989), "socio-economic and cultural changes have guided women to increasingly endorse traditional male values while simultaneously adhering to more traditional female concerns" (Vondracek et al, 1990, p.284). Marshall (1987) states that many managerial women have adopted a more confronting, competitive interpersonal style which she refers to as a "male tactic" (quoted in Clutterbuck & Devine, 1987, p.19). According to Gaskill (1991), women in managerial positions place value on factors relating to personal ambition.

The literature suggests that managerial women have maintained their traditional female values such as relationships with others, sense of belonging and to a degree even altruism, and yet have incorporated into this value system the achievement or accomplishment value (Maslovaty & Dor-Shav, 1990). According to Clutterbuck and Devine (1987), the values of women in management are seen to be similar to the traditional female values except for one major factor namely, the value of achievement or sense of accomplishment, which is a traditionally male value. The achievement value is evident in the fact that managerial women have different career and status attainment goals to those which fit into the traditional female value framework.

In terms of the career attainment goals, women show greater aspiration to educational attainment such as graduate degrees and in terms of status attainment goals, they aspire to the highest status professional and executive occupations (Maslovaty & Dor-Shav, 1990). According to a study by Regan and Roland (1982), the number of females who placed high value on career attainment doubled between 1970 and 1980 (quoted in Fiorentine, 1988). Fiorentine (1988) found that there was a dramatic increase in the value women placed on status-attainment goals between 1969 and 1984. It appears that there has been a dramatic increase in the aspiration of certain women to professional and executive occupations of the highest status. The outcome is increased congruence between women and men on educational and high-status career goals (Maslovaty & Dor-Shav, 1990). Regan and Roland (1982) argue that an amalgamation, not masculinisation, of the feminine value constellation had occurred as there was no comparable decrease in the value placed on domestic-nurturant goals (quoted in Fiorentine, 1988).

Due to the incorporation of the achievement or accomplishment value on the part of managerial women, there has been a narrowing of the difference in value constellations between males and females with the result that they are not just more congruent, but are in fact very similar. This is due to the recent changes which have occurred in women's values, while males have not increased significantly in the value placed on career and status-attainment goals (Maslovaty & Dor-Shav, 1990).

A study by Vondracek et al (1990) using the Work Aspects Preference Scale, found no gender differences even on stereotypically male work values such as power and independence. According to Smith and Smits (1994), female and male leaders' personality characteristics and values are very similar. Simmons and Penn (1994) maintain that over the last three decades the values of man and women have become more similar. This is possibility due to the fact that women now have a greater interest in

careers dominated by the opposite sex (Fiorentine, 1988). This similarity in value systems between males and females is confirmed by Kunen et al (1991) who discusses the results of a study revealing very few sex differences in values.

As the values and career aspirations of the sexes are becoming more congruent, it appears that males and females are not as different as previously assumed. This is supported by the conclusion of Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) who state that the stereotypes of males and females now have little consistent empirical support (Fiorentine, 1988).

This congruence is further confirmed by Bridges (1989) who sought to examine sex differences in work values by obtaining ratings, by college men and women, of job characteristics for career choice on a Career Decision-making survey. Results showed that females tend to show preference for a large number of values in comparison to men. This is explained by the changes which have occurred in female values due to factors such as financial concerns and new career options such that women now tend to embrace both traditional male values, while retaining traditional female values. According to Lueptow (1980), there was been no significant change in the emphasis which women placed on helping others in difficulty or raising a family [traditional female values] between 1964 and 1975, despite the significant changes toward favouring traditional male values (Maslovaty & Dor-Shav, 1990). Men, however, have maintained their traditional values only (Bridges, 1989). This would account for the larger number of preferences by women than by men.

Thus, the values of managerial women seem to be a combination of the value systems of the traditional female and the traditional male made as an adaptation to the demands of the male-dominated workplace. As the main apparent value difference between the two groups of women is the achievement or accomplishment value, this

value issue must clearly be a key to upward mobility within organisations (Maslovaty & Dor-Shav, 1990). This suggests that those who do not make this adaptation will also have difficulty breaking through the "glass ceiling" within organisations.

### **3.6.3. Values of Non-Managerial Women**

From the consideration of the values of managerial women, there appears to be a greater similarity between the values of managerial women and males than between the two groups of women in the organisational environment, namely, managerial and non-managerial women (Maslovaty & Dor-Shav, 1990). A study by Mason (1994) found that the values of managerial men and women approached similarity, while the values of clerical women and men were the least similar to each other.

According to Koziara et al (1987), non-managerial women tend to conform to the traditional female values only, for example, relationships with others and sense of belonging, altruism and an "ethnic of care", self-respect and self-fulfilment and security. The results of the Women and Employment Survey of 1980 revealed that "[w]omen who expressed traditional attitudes were more likely to experience downward mobility" (Dex, 1987, p.84). This suggests that a value adaptation is essential on the part of women who wish to be upwardly mobile.

According to Koziara et al (1987), many women do not aspire to managerial careers because they have incorporated traditional values and stereotypes into their self-concepts. Fenn (1978) suggests that these female values are not natural or inherent, but are essentially a reflection of women's socialisation to be nurturant, passive, dependent, other-directed and sacrificing. Haynes (1989) confirms this by maintaining that women have been socialised to have a low self-image, to lack of self-confidence, decisiveness and risk-taking and to internalise inferiority to men. Dove (1992) claims that this explains why women accept oppressive domestic relations, submissive customs and

traditional sex roles which prescribe that men are strong, aggressive, thing-oriented, independent and achievement motivated, and women are weak, passive, people-oriented, dependent and non-achievement motivated (Fenn, 1978). It is suggested that a maintenance of these traditional female values would form an internal barrier to women's aspiration to upward mobility, and the non-incorporation of traditionally "male" values on the part of non-managerial women also functions as a hindrance to their upward mobility in organisations.

### **3.7. Conclusion**

Values and value systems are a universal characteristic of all human beings and provide a basis for understanding behaviour. To determine the type of behaviour a person is likely to exhibit, it is necessary to consider his or her value system. According to Barnett and Karson (1987, p.372), the values and value systems which an individual possesses are very important "...since his personal values are such an intrinsic part of his life and behaviour, ... he will eventually have to use them as criteria in making his conscious choice. If he is not very conscious or articulate about his personal values, they will impose themselves no less forcefully on his actual choices, i.e., those evidenced by his behaviour".

Values and value systems have been considered through reference to three different models. The gender issues on values were then considered, including a discussion of the value differences between males and females. Thereafter, the occupational level issues were considered beginning with the differences between managerial and non-managerial employees generally. Finally, the values of managerial and then non-managerial women were discussed.

It has been argued that people's value systems have a determining effect on their occupational mobility within organisations. Disadvantaged groups have values which

differ to or are in conflict with those of the majority group within organisations and these values can function as a barrier to upward occupational mobility. An understanding of values provides an explanation for the discrimination against these disadvantaged groups which occurs within organisations in particular.

Further, it has been argued that managerial women have acquired values which are similar to those of the dominant group while maintaining their traditional female values, and that it is in part due to this change of values which allowed them to move upward in the organisation into managerial positions. Non-managerial women, however have remained below the "glass ceiling" partially due to their maintenance of traditional values and non-adaptation to the traditional "male" values. Hence, their values can function as a barrier to upward mobility for these women.

A study of values is also useful and important in understanding the need to achieve or the achievement motivation of different people as some argue that values have a determining effect on this need. Parsons and Goff (1980, p.365) argue that values and motives are very similar, and quote Smith (1969) who states that "in a sense a value may also be a motive, when one's values influence one's choices they do so by virtue of a motivational force." As the main value difference between managerial and non-managerial women appears to be the achievement or accomplishment value, this issue must clearly be a key to upward mobility within organisations and thus requires a closer examination. The nature, theories and differences in achievement motivation form the content of the following chapter.

## CHAPTER FOUR: ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

### Introduction

The central aim of this chapter is to provide an analysis of the literature available on achievement motivation. It is also to determine whether women's achievement motivation has a determining effect on their occupational mobility within organisations. If women have lower levels of achievement motivation to those of the majority group within organisations namely, males, this achievement motivation may function as a barrier to any occupational mobility.

Achievement motivation is a special type of motivation. In order to discuss achievement motivation, it is necessary to begin by considering the nature of motivation. This will be done by focusing on both process and content theories of motivation. Thereafter, the nature of achievement will be discussed. Once this essential background has been established, the achievement motivation construct itself will be considered, and various theories will be presented in terms of which the construct can be viewed.

Gender issues in terms of achievement motivation will then be discussed including a comparison between the achievement motivation of males and females in terms of achievement motivation. Occupational level issues on achievement motivation will be discussed thereafter. This will involve a consideration of the achievement motivation of managerial and non-managerial employees, followed by a discussion of the achievement motivation of managerial and then non-managerial or clerical women.

From the literature discussion, it will be shown that traditional males have higher levels of achievement motivation than females and that managers are more achievement motivated than non-managerial. It will also be evident that managerial women have levels of achievement motivation which are similar to those of males and higher than

those of non-managerial or clerical women. It is argued that managerial women have adapted to the culture of male-dominated organisations which is at least partially responsible for these women breaking through the "glass ceiling" into management positions. It is further argued that their lower levels of achievement motivation play a role in non-managerial women experiencing a restriction in terms of upward mobility. The results of primary socialisation and sex role training are suggested as possible reasons for these lower achievement motivation levels.

#### **4.1. The Nature of Motivation**

Robbins (1991, p.192) defines motivation as "the willingness to exert high levels of effort toward organisational goals, conditioned by the effort's ability to satisfy some individual need." Motivation can be viewed in terms of the intensity and quality of effort directed toward organisational goals. According to Orpen (1981, p.149), motivation is "whatever incites or induces an employee to action and gives direction to action once the employee has been aroused."

Orpen (1981) identifies three basic aspects of motivated behaviour: an activation aspect, a directional aspect and a persistence aspect. The activation aspect refers to the tendency for motives to produce a "state of readiness for behaviour," the directional aspect refers to the tendency for motives to set off behaviour on a particular path, and the persistence aspect refers to the tendency of motives to differ in their force and power (Orpen, 1981, p.149).

Motives refer to "the inner states that activate the direct behaviour towards certain goals and are responsible for this goal-seeking behaviour being persisted with for at least a certain length of time," and the goal of motives are the object, conditions, or activity toward which the motive is directed (Orpen, 1981, p.149).

According to Robbins (1991), motivation is a need-satisfying process. This is a confirmation of Feldman's (1975, p.32) definition of motivation as "a psychologically determined need or drive, the satisfaction of which will enable the individual to move towards a state of equilibrium, which will be gratifying to his well-being (Robbins, 1991, p.191)." A need is "some internal state that makes certain outcomes appear attractive" (Robbins, 1991, p.192). An unsatisfied need leads to tension which stimulates drives within the individual toward search behaviour in order to satisfy the need and reduce the tension. Tension-reduction effort must be exerted according to the intensity of the need and must be in accordance with organisational goals.

There are essentially two theories of motivation, namely, process and content. Process theories aim to explain how "behaviour is initiated, directed, sustained and stopped", while content theories seek to find "the specific things within individuals which initiate, direct, sustain and stop behaviour" (Landy & Trumbo, 1976, p.296). These will be considered here briefly, but the focus will be on content theories as the achievement motivation theory falls into this category.

#### **4.1.1. Five Process Theories of Motivation**

The process theories of motivation which include the theories of Deci, Locke, Skinner, Adams and Vroom will be discussed below.

##### **4.1.1.1. Deci: Cognitive Evaluation Theory**

Cognitive evaluation theory, developed by Deci, maintains that the overall level of motivation is decreased by the allocation of extrinsic rewards for behaviour that had been previously intrinsically motivated (Robbins, 1991). This change is possibly caused by a loss of control by the individual over his/her behaviour which results in a decrease in intrinsic motivation.

De Charms (1968) distinguishes between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Deci, 1975). Intrinsic motivation refers to "an internal state resulting from knowledge of having accomplished something by individual effort, whereas extrinsic motivation refers to an internal state brought about by the occurrence of external rewards" (Scott, 1975, p.119).

Boal and Cummings (1981) set out the three propositions of Deci's cognitive evaluation theory. These are as follows (Deci, 1975, p.139-143):

- "\* *One process by which intrinsic motivation can be affected is a change in perceived locus of causality from internal to external. This will cause a decrease in intrinsic motivation, and will occur under certain circumstances when someone receives extrinsic rewards for engaging in intrinsically motivated activities.*
- \* *The second process by which intrinsic motivation can be affected is a change in feelings of competence and self-determinations. If a person's feelings of competence and self-determination are diminished, his intrinsic motivation will decrease.*
- \* *Every reward (including feedback) has two aspects, a controlling aspect and an informational aspect, which provide the recipient with information about his competence and self-determination. The relative salience of the two aspects determines which process will be operative. If the controlling aspect is more salient, it will initiate the change in perceived locus of causality process. If the informational aspect is more salient, the change in feelings of competence and self-determination process will be initiated."*

Jordan (1986) conducted a study in which he set out to test Deci's hypothesis that expectation of contingent rewards reduces intrinsic motivation. The results confirmed Deci's hypothesis, but the results cannot be generalised as the assignment of subjects to treatment conditions was not random, and it was a field experiment and thus numerous uncontrollable stimuli were involved.

#### **4.1.1.2. Locke: Goal-Setting Theory**

Locke (1968) developed a theory known as goal-setting theory in terms of which he emphasised the role of cognitive processes and intentional behaviour in motivation (Landy & Trumbo, 1976). Locke advocated that task performance is affected by goals (Argyle, 1989), and stated that specific and difficult goals result in higher performance (Robbins, 1991). Wexley and Yukl (1977, p.94) propose that goal theory "explains behaviour in terms of the influence of conscious goals and interventions."

Locke (1970) focused on four main categories of motivation: money, goal-setting, participation and job enrichment (Smith, Beck, Cooper, Cox, Ottaway & Talbot, 1982). Pay was found to be the most effective motivator, then goal-setting, while job enrichment was the most difficult. Participation in goal-setting means that individuals are more likely to accept even difficult goals more readily than if they are merely given a goal (Robbins, 1991). Argyle (1989) refers to a study by Tubbs (1986) which found that goal-setting was most effective in improving performance when specific goals and difficult goals were set, and feedback was given. Feedback is beneficial as it guides future behaviour, and self-generated feedback is a stronger motivator than externally generated feedback (Robbins, 1991).

#### **4.1.1.3. Skinner: Reinforcement Theory**

Skinner's reinforcement theory forms part of the behaviourist tradition which holds that reinforcement conditions behaviour (Robbins, 1991). The premise of this theory is essentially that "behaviour depends on contingent reinforcement" (Landy & Trumbo, 1976, p.311), and Skinner believes that everything related to an individual can be understood in terms of behaviour (Porter, Lawler and Hackman, 1981). The focus here is not on the inner state of a person and what initiates behaviour, but on what happens to

a person once action is taken. Despite the fact that this is not a true theory of motivation, it is included here as it provides a framework for analysing what controls behaviour.

According to Landy and Trumbo (1976), reinforcement theory holds that people are shaped or manipulated by the environment. Robbins (1991) criticises the theory for this sole focus on the role of the environment to the neglect of internal factors such as feelings, attitudes, expectations, and other cognitive variables which also effect behaviour.

#### **4.1.1.4. Adams: Equity Theory**

Stacey Adams (1965) developed what is known as equity theory which is based on the assumption that equity is an important construct in people's thoughts (Smith et al, 1982). Equity theory is a type of balance theory which is based on the premise that "[b]ehaviour is initiated, directed, and sustained by the attempts of the individual to maintain some internal balance of psychological tension" (Landy & Trumbo, 1976, p.316).

Essentially, the theory holds that in particular situations people balance their input (what they contribute or put into the situation) and their output (what they receive from the situation), and then compare the result with that of other people in similar situations. Thus, individuals establish a ratio of inputs to outputs, and then compare the value of their ratio to that of significant others. Individuals are not so concerned with absolute rewards, as with rewards relative to others.

Perceived equity of ratios results in satisfaction, but if inequality is perceived this produces tension (Landy & Trumbo, 1976). According to Smith et al (1982), inequitable comparisons result in altered behaviour to reduce tension and bring about balance or equity. Robbins (1991) contends that when inequity exists in an organisational setting, people try to correct it according to one of four referent comparisons (Robbins, 1991, p.212):

- \*\* *Self-inside: an employee's experience in a different position inside his/her current organisation*
- \* *Self-outside: an employee's experience in a situation or position outside his/her current organisation*
- \* *Other-inside: another individual or group of individuals inside the employee's organisation*
- \* *Other-outside: outside the employee's organisation."*

Equity theory holds that there are six choices available to an employee who perceives an inequality. These are: i) change the input; (ii) change the output; (iii) distort perceptions of self; (iv) distort perceptions of others; (v) choose a different referent; and (vi) leave the field (Robbins, 1991).

#### **4.1.1.5. Vroom: Expectancy Theory**

Expectancy theory is a type of instrumentality theory in terms of which a person is motivated to engage in an activity if the activity is instrumental in achieving some outcome which is valued by the individual. Vroom (1964), who developed expectancy theory, defines motivation as "a process governing choices made by persons or lower organisms among alternative forms of voluntary activity" (Crane, 1979, p.61). According to Wexley and Yukl (1977, p.94), expectancy theory "explains behaviour in terms of conscious choices among alternative actions or levels of effort."

According to Porter et al (1981), the essence of Vroom's model is that the motivational force to engage in a behaviour is the multiplicative function of two factors, namely the expectancies held by the person concerning the likely outcome of the behaviour, and the valence of these outcomes. This can be stated as an equation (Porter et al, 1981):

$$MF = E \times V,$$

where:

MF = motivational forces,

E = expectancy

V = valence.

Robbins (1991, p.214) defines expectancy theory as "the strength of a tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of an expectation that the act will be followed by a given outcome and on the attractiveness of that outcome to the individual." He asserts that the theory includes three variables:

- \* *Attractiveness: the importance of the potential outcome or reward to the individual*
- \* *Performance-reward linkage: the extent to which the individual believes that a certain level of performance will result in the attainment of the desired outcome*
- \* *Effort-performance linkage: the extent to which the individual expects effort-exertion to result in performance.*

The above explanations of expectancy theory can be described as Vroom's VIE theory (Landy & Trumbo, 1976). The letters stand for valence, instrumentality and expectancy respectively. Valence describes the attracting or repelling capabilities of psychological objects, instrumentality means that the person evaluates a potential outcome in terms of his perception of the relationship between the outcome and other outcomes for which he has varying preferences or valences, and expectancy is the probability estimate of the relationship between an action and an outcome (Landy & Trumbo, 1976).

#### **4.1.2. Five Content Theories of Motivation**

The content theories of motivation which include the theories of Maslow, McGregor, Herzberg, Alderfer and McClelland will be discussed here.

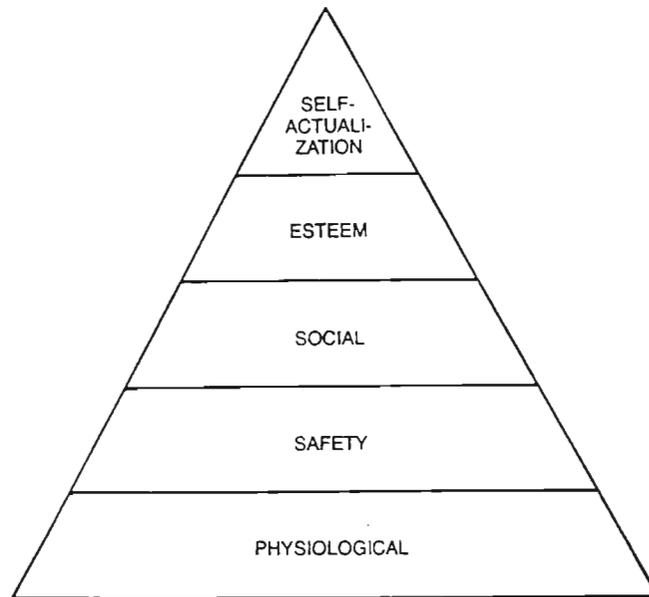
#### 4.1.2.1. Maslow: Five-level Need Hierarchy

Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs is probably the most well-known theory of motivation. According to this theory, each individual has a hierarchy of needs which are sequentially satisfied. These needs are (Robbins, 1991, p.193):

- \* *Physiological: bodily needs eg: hunger, thirst, shelter and sex*
- \* *Safety: physical and emotional needs eg: security and protection*
- \* *Social: belongingness needs eg: affection, acceptance and friendship*
- \* *Esteem: internal and external esteem needs eg: self-respect, achievement and autonomy; and status, recognition and attention respectively*
- \* *Self-actualization: defined as "the drive to become what one is capable of becoming includes growth, achieving one's potential, self-fulfilment."*

These needs can be illustrated diagrammatically in hierarchical form as follows:

Figure 4.1.: Maslow's hierarchy of needs



(Source: Nasser, Van Veijeren, Venter, and Schmickl. 1977. *Organizational Behaviour. Readings for Management*. Johannesburg: McGraw-Hill Company. p.29).

Once one need is substantially satisfied, it no longer has motivating power and the next need becomes dominant. In this way a satisfied need generates movement up the need hierarchy. Maslow differentiated between lower and higher-order needs: the former refers to physiological and safety needs which are mainly externally satisfied, while the latter refers to social, esteem and self-actualization which are internally satisfied.

Maslow (1943, p.382) refers to self-actualization as "the desire for self-fulfilment," namely, as the tendency for one to become actualized in what one is potentially. "This tendency might be phrased as the desire to become more and more what one is, to become everything one is capable of becoming" (Porter et al, 1981, p.35). Maslow (1955) states that all needs, except the self-actualization need, are basic needs as they are "shared values" which all men experience, while self-actualization is "idiosyncratic since every person is different" (Huiziga, 1970, p.37).

Despite this statement, however, Maslow identified six characteristics of self-actualising individuals. These are resolution of dichotomies, creativeness, more efficient perception of reality, problem centring, democratic character structure, and "gemeinschaftsgefühl" or being "at on" with the world (Huizinga, 1970, p.39-45).

Neher (1991, p.90,91) sets out Maslow's theory in four points:

- \* *Each of us is endowed at birth with a full and, to an important extent, unique complement of needs that, allowed expression by our environment, will guide our growth in a healthy direction.*
- \* *These needs function in a hierarchical manner. The bottom step of Maslow's hierarchy, or pyramid, includes physiological needs. Then come safety needs; next, needs for love and intimacy; then self-esteem needs; and, finally, at the apex of the pyramid, self-actualization. By hierarchy is meant that needs lower on the pyramid must generally be satisfied before needs at higher levels are "activated."*
- \* *Needs on the first four levels are called deficiency-needs (or D-needs) because they drive [one] to gratify the need, at which point the need lapses in its importance to [one] until deprivation again motivates [one] to take action to satisfy the need. Self-actualization needs (on the fifth and highest level), on the other hand, are called being-needs (or B-needs) because, among other unique features, they sustain [one's] interest without [one] being driven by feelings of deprivation.*
- \* *The level of self-actualization, the end-point of the process outlined above, constitutes the highest level of human experience.*

According to Robbins (1991), this theory is widely recognised and utilised, but it has no empirical support.

#### 4.1.2.2. McGregor: Theory X and Theory Y

Theory X and theory Y are two contrasting views of human beings proposed by Douglas McGregor. Both of the theories contain assumptions as to the nature of human beings. According to theory X, which is essentially negative, managers make four assumptions, namely (Robbins, 1991, p. 195):

- "\* *Employees inherently dislike work and, whenever possible, will attempt to avoid it*
- \* *Since employees dislike work, they must be coerced, controlled, or threatened with punishment to achieve goals*
- \* *Employees will shirk responsibilities and seek formal direction whenever possible*
- \* *Most workers place security above all other factors associated with work and will display little ambition."*

Theory Y, however, is essentially positive and the assumptions it makes are as follows (Robbins, 1991, p.196):

- "\* *Employees can view work as being as natural as rest or play*
- \* *People will exercise self-direction and self-control if they are committed to the objectives*
- \* *The average person can learn to accept, even seek, responsibility*
- \* *The ability to make innovative decisions is widely dispersed throughout the population and is not necessarily the sole province of those in management positions."*

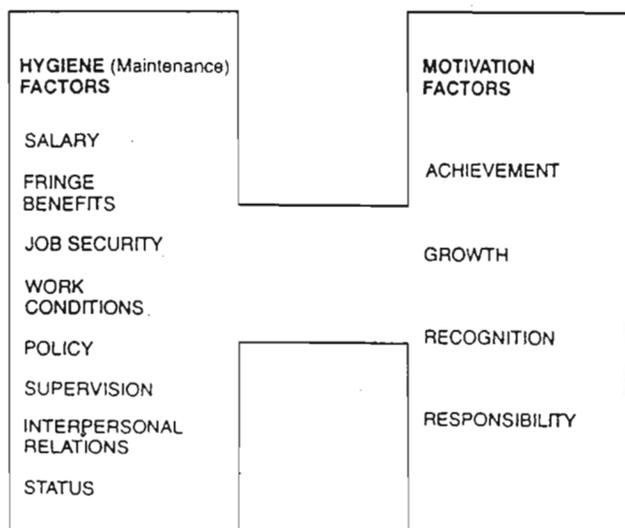
Maslow's theory can be used to explain the motivational implications of this analysis. Theory X and theory Y assume that lower-order and higher-order needs respectively dominate individuals. Although McGregor believed that theory Y had greater validity than theory X, there is no empirical evidence to support the assumptions of either theory or the correctness of theory Y over theory X.

#### 4.1.2.3. Herzberg: Motivation-Hygiene Theory

Frederick Hertzberg proposed a fairly popular theory which is known as motivation-hygiene theory. According to this theory, if certain job factors, called hygiene factors, are present in a job, this will prevent the employees from being dissatisfied. Their absence results in dissatisfaction, while their presence does not lead to satisfaction or motivation.

Hygiene factors are external factors such as salary, company policy and supervision. Other factors, known as motivation factors, will lead to job satisfaction if present, while if they are absent, they do not result in dissatisfaction, but merely no satisfaction. Motivating factors which are related to job satisfaction are intrinsic in nature. Thus, "the opposite of satisfaction is no satisfaction, and the opposite of dissatisfaction is no dissatisfaction" (Robbins, 1991, p.196). This theory can be illustrated diagrammatically:

**Figure 4.2.: The Herzberg two factor model**



(Source: Nasser et al. 1977. Organizational Behaviour. Readings for Management. Johannesburg: McGraw-Hill Book Company. p.31).

Orpen (1981) sets out the main features of Herzberg's theory. He insists that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction lie on different continua which range from feelings of neutrality to feelings of satisfaction and dissatisfaction respectively. Job satisfaction arises from content or intrinsic work factors called motivators which are related to the nature of the work itself. They are able to generate satisfaction as they have the capacity to gratify higher-order needs. They do not, however, effect job dissatisfaction.

Job dissatisfaction is generated by content or extrinsic work factors, called hygiene factors which relate to the environment within which the work occurs and can neutralise dissatisfiers, but have no effect on job satisfaction. Hygiene needs are maintenance needs associated with the avoidance of pain and discomfort, while the motivator needs are linked to the desire to accomplish and be recognised, to develop and grow.

#### **4.1.2.4. Alderfer: ERG Theory**

ERG theory, developed by Clayton Alderfer, is a revision of Maslow's need hierarchy. Robbins (1991) regards it as having greater validity than other versions of the need hierarchy, such as that of Maslow. Instead of five needs, he identifies three groups of core needs, namely, existence, relatedness and growth (ERG). According to McCormick and Ilgen (1981, p.267), ERG theory is "the most promising version of the need hierarchy theory available at this time."

Existence needs refer to the basic material requirements for existence, and include Maslow's physiological and safety needs. Relatedness needs refer to the social and status desires to maintain interpersonal relationships which are of importance to us. These include Maslow's social needs and the external component of his esteem category. Growth needs refer to an intrinsic desire for personal development and include the intrinsic component of Maslow's esteem classification, and self-actualization characteristics. According to this theory, once lower-order needs are satisfied, the desire

to satisfy higher-order needs arises. The theory recognises the fact that individual differences affect the emphasis which different individuals place on different needs (Robbins, 1991).

McCormick and Ilgen (1981) identified a number of improvements of ERG theory over Maslow's theory. Firstly, there is not as much emphasis on hierarchical order. Thus, multiple needs can function as motivators simultaneously, and satisfaction of a need does not necessarily mean upward progression. Secondly, regression to a lower level need may occur as a result of frustration in trying to satisfy higher-level needs. Certain needs may increase in strength when individuals have high conditions to meet the need.

#### **4.1.2.5. McClelland: Three Needs Theory**

David McClelland proposes a three needs theory which views motivation in terms of three needs: the need for achievement, the need for power and the need for affiliation. Robbins (1991, p.200-201) defines the need for achievement as "the drive to excel, to achieve in relation to a set of standards, to strive to succeed," the power need as "the desire to make others behave in a way that they would not otherwise have behaved," and the affiliation need as "the desire for friendly and close interpersonal relationships."

The need for achievement (n Ach) refers to a desire to do something better than it has previously been done. People high on the need enjoy problem-solving and require feedback as to their performance. They tend to set goals which have an equal probability of success and failure, and avoid very easy and very difficult tasks. Thus they are prepared to take calculated risks, and accept responsibility for any success or failure which results. The desire to influence and control others is characteristic of the need for power (n Pow). Competition, status and prestige are concerns of people high in need for power (n Pow). The need for affiliation (n Aff) refers to the desire for acceptance by

people, friendship, preference of cooperative situations over competitive ones, and preference for relationships with much mutual understanding (Nasser, 1984, p.106).

Robbins(1991) argues that fairly well-supported predictions can be based on the achievement need and job performance relationships. This can be seen in various ways:

- \* *People with high n Ach show preference for jobs where they can exercise personal responsibility, obtain feedback and take calculated risks. Where these job characteristics are present, high achievers show great motivation.*
- \* *People high in n Ach are concerned with personal excellence and not influencing others, and thus are not necessarily good managers.*
- \* *Managerial success occurs when an individual has a high n Pow and a low n Aff.*
- \* *Training can stimulate the n Ach*

## **4.2. The Nature of Achievement**

The nature of motivation has been discussed above. As the focus of this chapter is on achievement motivation, it is necessary to also consider the nature of achievement. This is the topic of the following discussion.

### **4.2.1. The Definition of Achievement**

According to Smith (1969), achievement is "task-oriented behaviour that allows the individual's performance to be evaluated according to some internally or externally imposed criterion, that involves the individual in competing with others, or that otherwise involves some standard of excellence" (quoted in Spence, 1982, p.12). Spence (1982) highlights a number of benefits of using this definition. These will be considered here.

This definition includes both activities in the workplace, in school or in other formal training programs, and activities in avocational and extracurricular contexts such

as hobbies. Further, the individual's performance may be designated to be evaluated according to a particular standard of excellence and the standard specified either by him/herself or by an external agency.

The latter situation, where a standard is externally set, is common in the conventional areas where individuals are expected to perform according to some set standard and where rewards, both tangible and intangible, are established to encourage this performance. Although individuals are usually aware of the expectations on them to perform, they may not achieve, either because their achievement motivation is low, or because the activities they are expected to perform do not arouse their achievement motivation.

It is possible, however, to express achievement motivation in unconventional areas such as hobbies, and although there are no established performance standards and no obvious feedback from external sources, individuals are able to establish standards themselves and perform their own evaluations. Thus, the above definition chosen by Spence (1982) for her book entitled Achievement and Achievement Motives, is also selected for this thesis.

#### **4.2.2. Types of Achievement-related Motives**

According to Weiner (1990), studies of achievement motives are a central focus among contemporary motivation theorists. Achievement-related motives and goals can be divided into two types: intrinsic and extrinsic. According to Spence (1982, p.27), "intrinsic motivation implies that performance is self-initiated, self-sustaining, and self-rewarding; whereas extrinsic motivation implies that performance is externally driven..."

Achievement motivation has traditionally been considered to be an intrinsic form of motivation and thus the focus of this study of achievement motivation will concern

intrinsic motivation. According to Deci (1975), there are two sources of intrinsic motivation, namely, White's (1959) notion of competence motivation and De Charm's (1968) notion of personal causation.

### **4.3. Intrinsic Achievement Motivation**

Having considered both the nature of motivation and the nature of achievement, it is now imperative that the achievement motivation construct itself be discussed. This discussion begins with a consideration of the various theories of achievement, namely that of Murray, McClelland and Atkinson, and then the dynamic achievement motivation theory and the attributional theory of achievement motivation are discussed.

#### **4.3.1. Henry Murray**

Henry Murray was a key figure in research on achievement motivation and in the development of achievement theory. The essence of his theory of behaviour was the concept of "need" which he defined as "an organic potentiality or readiness to respond in a certain way under given conditions" or "a latent attribute of an organism" (Weiner, 1972, p.170). Murray showed an interest in personality description. He viewed a person as "an entity with a particular conjunction of distinguishable properties" and believed that each person was subject to an extensive number of needs which are derived from a physiological deficiency and yet are also enduring personality traits.

Included in his taxonomy of needs is the need for achievement. Murray (1939, p.164) describes this as "the desire or tendency to do things as rapidly and/or as well as possible...to accomplish something difficult. To master, manipulate and organise physical objects, human beings, or ideas... .To overcome obstacles and attain a high standard. To excel one's self. To rival and surpass others" (Spence, 1982, p.30). Weiner

(1980, p.180) includes in this quote "To increase self-regard by the successful exercise of talent."

Murray proposed a "multiform" method of personality assessment whereby evaluations of an individual are made from a variety of theoretical viewpoints and by means of various techniques. The psychoanalytic school influenced Murray's conception of needs as mostly unconscious, and this led him to the development of what is known as the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) towards need assessment.

#### *The Thematic Apperception Test (TAT)*

Murray is regarded as the originator of the Thematic Apperception Test or TAT. This method of assessing needs involves a series of ambiguous pictures of one or more people about whom the respondent must write or relate a story. Murray (1938) states that "the purpose of this procedure is to stimulate literary creativity and thereby evoke fantasies that reveal covert and unconscious complexes (Spence, 1982, p.172). The TAT is regarded as the most extensively used instrument for the assessment of personality. David McClelland and John Atkinson have utilised this method for measuring the need for achievement or achievement motivation.

#### **4.3.2. McClelland's Theory of Achievement Motivation**

McClelland's theory of motivation is essentially concerned with predicting the behaviour of those who have either high or low needs for achievement (McCormick & Ilgen, 1981, p.267). According to McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, and Lowell (1976, p.28), a motive is defined as "the reintegration [previous learning] by a cue of a change in an affective situation." McClelland (1985) defines motives as "nonconscious needs, wants, drives, or 'recurrent concerns about goal states'...[which] energise, orient, and select behaviour...they make one active in pursuing a goal, sensitive to cues relating to goals, and quick to learn what is necessary to reach a goal" (Biernat, 1989, p.70).

McClelland (1980) also states that motives predict "operant" behaviour as opposed to "respondent" behaviour (Biernat, 1989). The former refers to people's spontaneous actions or behaviour, while the latter refers to people's cognitive decisions as to what should be done (Biernat, 1989). According to Piedmont, DiPlacido, and Keller (1989), the TAT has traditionally been regarded as the best method of assessing operant processes, while self-report measures measure the respondent aspects of motivation.

In contrast to the three previous models, namely, the survival model proposed by Hull (1943) which considers motives as biologically defined survival needs, the stimulus intensity model of Miller and Dollard (1941), and the stimulus pattern model by Hebb (1949) and Brown and Farber (1951), McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, and Lowell (1976) developed what is known as the affective arousal model (McClelland et al, 1976).

This model differs from the other models as the drive conception is expanded to include behaviour undertaken for pleasure and not merely to avoid undesirable conditions. Further, motives, besides giving energy to behaviour, direct and guide individuals to achieve specific goals or end states. Another difference is that this model regards all motives as learned and even biological discomforts (hunger) or pleasure (sex) are only regarded as "drives" once they are linked to cues which signal its presence or absence. Affective experiences then give rise to motives or "affectively toned associative networks" which are arranged hierarchically according to the importance a person attributes to it (McClelland, 1965, p.321).

McClelland differentiates clearly between motives and values, and between needs and values. In a study by Biernat (1989), it was established that motives and values are uncorrelated and are instead distinct, independent personality constructs. Values and motives predict different kinds of behaviour: motives predict "operant" (spontaneous) behaviour and values predict "respondent (Stimulus-driven) behaviours. Finally, with

regards to the interaction of these two constructs, it was found that subjects with high achievement values would perform better than those with low values, but only when their motives were also high. The study also found that each construct was useful in different cases: motives aided the prediction of "real" activity, and values served to predict self-report (thinking) responses.

A previous study by Ravan (1988) focuses on the importance McClelland placed on distinguishing between needs and values, and also between operant and respondent measures. Ravan (1988) proposes that other researchers have not been able to achieve the same results as he has. This is not because of their measurement of values instead of motives, or the use of respondent (instead of operant) measures, but rather, he claims it is due to a failure to understand that McClelland measured needs as indices of important competencies which people use to achieve valued goals. The indices were value based, and the scores required the summing of independent predictors of performance. Thus, the study presents a new understanding of psychometric principles that form the basis of McClelland's measures and this indicates the way in which measures of needs can be developed, and provides a new approach to the development of indices of many important human qualities.

An aspect of a study conducted by Berndt and Miller (1990) focused on whether values affect achievement motivation. Using subjects from Junior High School, these researchers set out to determine whether students' motivation to achieve in schools was dependent on the value they attached to success. Berndt and Miller (1990) found that values were distinct indicators of achievement motivation. This finding was supported by Platt (1988), who found that values were significantly related to achievement, and also by Eccles, Adler and Meece (1984) (Berndt & Miller, 1990). Berndt and Miller (1990) maintain that theorists need to focus on values in order to optimise the effectiveness of

practical interventions to increase achievement motivation. The effect of personal values on achievement motivation is central to the current study.

#### **4.3.2.1. Definition of Achievement Motivation**

The achievement motive, also referred to as the need for achievement, is defined by Weiner (1972, p.175) as "the positive or negative anticipatory goal reactions aroused in situations that involve competition with a standard of excellence, where performance may be evaluated as a success or a failure." According to Korman (1977, p.53), the achievement motive is defined by McClelland (1961) as the "desire to exceed some standard of behaviour". In a journal article entitled The Urge to Achieve, McClelland asserts that it is the achievement motive which makes a person desire improvement in conduct and behaviour. He identifies three characteristics which are present in an achievement motivated person (Kelly, 1974, p.283):

- \* *They "set moderately difficult, but potentially achievable goals for themselves."*
- \* *They "prefer to work at a problem rather than leave the outcome to chance or to others." That is, "they are concerned with personal achievement rather than with the rewards for success per se."*
- \* *They have "a strong preference for work situations in which they get concrete feedback on how well they are doing".*

#### **4.3.2.2. Measurement and Assessment of Achievement Motivation**

McClelland et al (1953) made use of Murray's Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) which measures fantasy in order to measure achievement motivation (McClelland et al, 1976). This projective technique is necessary since motive strength cannot be directly stated because motives are nonconscious. According to McClelland (1985), projective measures such as the TAT "capture underlying, nonconscious motivational levels which are

associated not so much with particular behaviours as with the direction one's life takes" (Biernat, 1989).

Biernat (1989) states that the TAT prevents conscious shaping of thoughts by subjects to meet expected desires, and renders the subject "naively unconscious of himself and the scrutiny of others and, therefore, defensively less vigilant" (Biernat, 1989, p.71). In terms of their affective arousal model, attempts were made to experimentally alter the content of fantasy to assess individual differences in the strength of the achievement motive.

The pictures used for the TAT were especially chosen for their capacity to evoke imagery relating to achievement. McClelland et al (1953) identified three imagery categories into which stories are placed according to achievement motivation content of the story (quoted in McClelland et al, 1976). These are 1) achievement imagery, 2) doubtful achievement imagery, and 3) unrelated imagery. To obtain an achievement motivation score (a n Ach score), a subject's fantasies, as displayed in the story written or told about the given pictures, must be coded, and the strength of the achievement motive is measured by counting the number of associations which belong to this motive or "affectively toned associative cluster" (McClelland, 1965, p.322). According to Sorrentino and Higgins (1986), "the projective measure of n achievement continues to be the best predictor of actual performance in achievement-oriented activity" (Biernat, 1989, p.72).

Heinzen, Teevan and Britt (1988), in a study aimed at determining the correlation between achievement, dominance and creativity, utilised the TAT for the measurement of achievement motivation. The results from the TAT (which measures achievement in fantasy), however, did not correspond with those of the Adjective Check List, which is a self-descriptive mechanism, and it is clear that these instruments measure different

processes. This finding shows that the TAT is able to identify underlying motives which cannot be discovered using other available methods such as self-report methods.

A study conducted by Koestner, Ramey, Kelner, Meenan, and McClelland (1989) made use of the TAT for the measurement and assessment of achievement motivation. Both adults suffering from osteoarthritic and rheumatoid arthritis and a control group of non-arthritics were given the Thematic Apperception Test, and when their imaginative stories were coded, the achievement motivation levels of the arthritics was lower than that of the controls. Self-report measures of achievement motivation, however, showed no differences between the experimental and the control groups. The results indicated that the TAT can reveal underlying motivational levels such as the achievement motivational deficit of the arthritic adults in the above study.

#### **4.3.2.3. Sources of Achievement Motivation**

McClelland (1976) identifies various sources of achievement motivation. He claims that it is essentially the values and resultant child-rearing practices of the parents that are responsible for the development or lack of development of achievement motivation. McClelland (1976) refers to a study by Winterbottom (1958) in the USA where it was found that high achievement motivation is promoted by early mastery training provided this is not a reflection of generalised restrictiveness, authoritarianism or rejection on the part of the parents. Thus, achievement-orientated values and child-rearing practices are essential to the development of achievement motivation.

McClelland (1976) also identifies four indirect influences on achievement motivation, namely, physique, the family structure, the economy - slavery and occupational status, and physical environment or climate. A study by McClelland and Winter (1969), however, found that achievement motivation can be learnt, and is not solely dependent on one's socialisation (quoted in McCormick & Ilgen, 1981, p.267).

### 4.3.3. Expectancy - Value Theory: Atkinson

Atkinson and Reitman (1956, p.361) define a motive as "a latent disposition to strive for a particular goal-state or aim, e.g., achievement, affiliation, power." Motivation is then described as "the aroused state of the person that exists when a motive has been engaged by the appropriate expectancy, i.e., an expectancy that performance of some act is instrumental to the attainment of the goal of that motive.

Atkinson (1957) proposed a theory of achievement motivation known as expectancy-value theory which is based on the understanding of achievement motives as stable characteristics of personality. In order to understand motivational processes, Atkinson stresses that individual differences must be considered (Weiner, 1980). The results of a study by Harackiewicz and Elliot (1993) showed that individual differences in achievement orientation moderate the influence of achievement goals on intrinsic motivation.

The theory holds that the sum of two opposing tendencies determines the strength of an achievement motive, or the tendency to achieve (TA), aroused in an achievement-oriented situation. These tendencies are set out by Spence (1982, p.32) and are:

- "\* *The tendency to approach success ( $T_s$ ), which is manifested by engaging in achievement oriented activities*
- \* *The tendency to avoid failure ( $T_{af}$ ), which is manifested by not engaging in these tendencies".*

There are three components which determine the strength of these opposing tendencies (Spence, 1982, p.32):

- \* *The motive to approach success ( $M_s$ ) or the motive to avoid failure ( $M_f$ )*
- \* *The expectancy (probability) that an achievement-oriented act will result in success ( $P_s$ ) or the probability that it will result in failure ( $P_f$ )*

\* *The incentive value of success ( $I_s$ ) or the incentive value of failure ( $I_f$ )*

Thus both positive and negative affective anticipations result from achievement-related activities: the former as a result of past achievements and resultant pride, and the latter from previous failures and resultant shame.

*Component 1: The motive to approach success and the motive to avoid failure.*

This component essentially refers to the need for achievement, defined by Atkinson (1964, p.214) as a "capacity to experience pride in accomplishment," and the fear of failure described as a "capacity to experience shame given non-attainment of a goal (failure)" (Weiner, 1980, p. 194). The TAT is usually used to measure the motive to approach success, which is an individual difference variable. The motive to avoid failure or fear of failure is usually measured by objective self-report instruments, namely, the Mandler-Sarason Test Anxiety Questionnaire (TAQ) (Spence, 1982) or the Alpert-Haber Debilitating Anxiety Scale (Spence, 1982).  $M_s$  was measured by a projective instrument, while  $M_{AF}$  was measured by an objective self-report method leading to results which cannot be compared.

Heckhausen (1967) successfully attempted to assess fear of failure with a projective instrument, and Mehrabian (1968) attempted to measure the achievement need with an objective measure which was also successful (Mehrabian, 1968). Mehrabian (1968) constructed scales designed to distinguish high achievers, defined as those with a stronger motive to achieve success than to avoid failure, from low achievers, defined as those who have a stronger motive to avoid failure than to achieve success.

Moot, Teevan and Greenfeld (1988) conducted a study aimed at assessing the effect of the strength of the achievement motive (n Ach) and the strength of the fear-of-failure motivation (FF) on recall of interrupted and completed tasks using the Hostile Press scoring system. It was found that individuals high in n Ach (low on fear-of-failure)

recalled more uncompleted tasks than low- or mid-n Ach subjects (high on fear-of-failure). This study was a partial replication of Atkinson's (1953) study and the results parallel those obtained by him.

The results also support Zeigarnik's (1938) finding that recall of interrupted tasks is better than recall of completed tasks for motivated subjects, while unmotivated subjects tend to remember completed tasks more than interrupted tasks as this enabled them to avoid the negative feelings associated with failure (Atkinson, 1953).

Component 2: The expectancy or probability of success and the expectancy of failure

The expectancy or probability that success or failure will result from engaging in achievement-oriented activities forms the second component of the tendency to approach success or the tendency to avoid failure. According to Weiner (1972), it is mainly through the incorporation of "expectancy" into his model that Atkinson became known as a cognitive theorist. Weiner (1972) states that "the theory of achievement motivation...calls attention to the fact that the concept of expectancy...serves to represent the associative link between performance of an act and the attainment of the goal" (Weiner, 1972, p.196).

Atkinson adopted a variety of methods used to manipulate  $P_s$  or the probability of success to determine individuals beliefs about their chances of attaining their goals. These are identified by Weiner (1980) as supplying subjects with normative information about the difficulty of the attempted task, making subjects compete against a number of others or by varying the task difficulty. If one adds  $P_s$  and  $P_f$  the total will be one, as success and failure are all the possibilities. Therefore, since this can be expressed as an equation  $P_s + P_f = 1$ , the tendency to avoid failure can also be expressed as  $P_f = 1 - P_s$ .

### Component 3: The incentive value of success and the incentive value of failure

Atkinson describes the third and final component as "the degree of anticipated satisfaction or pride in succeeding at a task or the degree of anticipated shame in failing" (Spence, 1982, p.33). The incentive value of success is often operationally reduced to a property of probability of success ( $P_s$ ), and, according to Escalona and Festinger's resultant valence theory, it is inversely related to  $P_s$  ( $I_s = 1 - P_s$ ) such that the incentive value of success ( $I_s$ ) increases with a decrease in probability of success ( $P_s$ ) (Weiner, 1980, p.193). Task difficulty affects the degree of pride or shame experienced following success or failure on a task respectively. The more difficult the task, the greater the level of pride at success, while shame is greatest after failure at an easy task (Weiner, 1980).

### Achievement Motivation

The strength of the tendency to approach success ( $T_s$ ) and the tendency to avoid failure ( $T_f$ ) is determined by multiplicatively combining the above-mentioned components, namely, motive, expectancy and incentive. Overall achievement motivation or the tendency to achieve is determined by an algebraic sum involving the two opposite tendencies ( $T_A = T_s - T_{AF}$ ) or, alternatively, by including the assumptions about each component and then simplifying the formula algebraically. Achievement motivation or the tendency to approach success can be defined as:  $T_A = (M_s - M_{AF})[P_s \times (1 - P_s)]$  (Spence, 1982).

The findings of Piedmont (1988), who examined the independent and interactive contributions of achievement motivation and anxiety to performance on a cognitive task, were reasonably consistent with Atkinson's (1965) tendency to achieve and its components. Arousal of personality variables was achieved by experimentally manipulating expectancy of success and rate of presentation, and it was found that, irrespective of situational manipulations, the positive effects of achievement motivation

were constant, except in certain instances where the situation facilitated performance in an additive manner. Depending on the level of achievement motivation, anxiety had a differential effect on performance.

The expectancy-value theory has been the subject of much current research which has attempted to examine the theory's predictions for measures such as level of aspiration, task persistence and risk taking in task difficulty choices. According to Atkinson and Litwin (1960), individuals whose motive to achieve success is greater than their motive to avoid failure should prefer tasks of intermediate difficulty, show more persistence at achievement-related tasks, and show greater efficiency or a higher level of accomplishment than individuals whose motive to avoid failure is stronger than their motive to achieve success.

Research conducted by Atkinson and Litwin (1960) confirmed their hypotheses. Atkinson, Bastian, Earl and Litwin (1960) developed a model of risk taking in terms of which subjects will prefer tasks of intermediate probabilities of success when the motive to approach success is stronger than the motive to avoid failure, while tasks with very high or very low probabilities of success will be preferred where the motive to avoid failure is stronger. Research conducted by Atkinson and Litwin (1960) confirmed the usefulness of the model. This study confirmed an earlier study by Atkinson (1957).

Spence (1982) regards the predictions regarding individuals' preferred task difficulty level as the most interesting part of Atkinson's theory. Spence (1982) explains that the equation used to determine the tendency to achieve ( $T_A$ ) implies that, where the probability of success is  $1/2$ , the tendency to achieve is strongest for individuals who have a stronger motive to approach success than the motive to avoid failure ( $M_S > M_{AF}$ ). Thus, these success-oriented individuals tend to prefer tasks of intermediate difficulty and to persist at them longer than at tasks of high or low difficulty. Failure-avoidant

individuals (those who are dominated by a motive to avoid failure) are least-likely to choose or persist at tasks of intermediate difficulty, but instead show the highest achievement tendency when the task difficulty is high or low. Weiner (1972), however, believes that irrespective of motive strength, people tend to prefer tasks of intermediate difficulty.

Task persistence was investigated by Kroll (1990). He examined the effect of failure (defined normatively) on subsequent persistence on an achievement task by giving subjects two successive unsolvable tasks described according to two levels of difficulty ie: most subjects could solve the tasks or most could not solve the tasks. These tasks were also described as intelligence measures. He hypothesised that persistence on a target task would be greatest if both the prime and target tasks were described as moderately easy, while persistence on a target task will be least if both are described as highly difficult.

Kroll (1990) found that where both the tasks were described as moderately easy, persistence was greatest, while persistence was least where the primary and target tasks were described as highly difficult. Kroll (1990) relied on Atkinson's (1982) expectancy-value theory, particularly the motive, incentive and expectancy components of achievement motivation, to explain his findings. Kroll (1990) described failure at the primary task described as moderately easy as a motive to strive for success.

Success and high effort were viewed as incentives as they can compensate for the disgrace of previous failure, and can facilitate success, provide positive self-affirmation and social approval. Expectancy mediates persistence in pursuit of incentives. It means that highly difficult tasks imply lower expectancies than moderately easy tasks. Thus persistence is greatest when a moderately easy task follows failure on a moderately easy primary task, while persistence is lowest when a highly difficult task follows failure on a

highly difficult primary task. Atkinson's (1957) expectancy-value theory held that the relationship between achievement motivation and task difficulty choices is such that positively motivated subjects ( $M_s < M_{AF}$ ) would show preference for tasks which are either very easy or very difficult (Atkinson & Litwin, 1960). In 1979, Kuhl and Blankenship provided data indicating a systematic shifting of task difficulty choices by both positively and negatively motivated subjects towards more difficult tasks over time (Atkinson & Litwin, 1960).

#### **4.3.4. Dynamic Achievement Motivation Theory**

Atkinson and Birch (1970) in their dynamic achievement motivation theory provided a theoretical explanation for the finding of Kuhl and Blankenship (Slade & Rush, 1991). This theory alleges that there is an interaction between personality variables and motivational tendencies which determine achievement-related behaviour, and it assumes that motivation and action are dynamic processes. The main focus of this theory is on "when [an] action will be initiated, how involved the individual will become in the activity, and how long it will continue" (Atkinson & Birch, 1970, p.326).

According to the principle of action of dynamic achievement motivation theory, people are constantly engaging in some form of behaviour which is an expression of the dominant behavioural tendency of the individual at a particular time. According to Atkinson and Birch (1970), "the behavioral life of an individual is a constant flux of activity" (Weiner, 1980, p.209). Any change of activity of an individual implies a change in the dominance relations of the behavioural tendencies. This is based on the assumption that "tendencies would persist in their present state unless subjected to some external influence..." (Atkinson & Birch, 1970, p.319).

The inclusion of this persisting tendency, also known as the inertial tendency, means that this theory is one of the behaviour of an active organism which makes choices

as opposed to merely being influenced by the environment. There are two kinds of motivational tendencies: action tendency which determines an individual's activity performance choice, and negation tendency which "opposes, resists and dampens the effect of an action tendency" (Atkinson & Birch, 1970, p.204). The strength of the behavioural tendency of an individual is the algebraic result of the conflict between the action tendency and the negation tendency. The changes in the relative strength of these tendencies can be explained in terms of three interrelated dynamic processes: instigation, resistance and consummation. The relative strength of the behaviour tendencies is controlled by the simultaneous occurrence of these processes. The instigation of an action refers to the increased and sustained strength of an action tendency to stimulate an activity. Resistance to an action "accounts for how the strength of a negation tendency is increased and sustained by the inhibitory force of the immediate stimulus situation, how the negation tendency functions to resist the behavioural expression of an action tendency, and how this resistance dissipates the strength of the negation tendency" (Atkinson & Birch, 1970, p.320). Consummation functions to reduce the strength of action tendencies.

Instigating and inhibitory or resistance forces relate the action and negation tendencies to personality. The motive to achieve success is related to instigating forces as highly achievement motivated people are more responsive to achievement cues, quicker to engage in achievement tasks, and show longer task persistence than individuals low in achievement motivation. In the same way, the motive to avoid failure is related to inhibitory forces leading to those people with a high fear of failure being slower to engage in achievement tasks and less likely to persist at such tasks.

A computer simulation of the mental processes affecting task difficulty choices which was developed by Kuhl and Blankenship (1979) demonstrates the interplay

between the above-mentioned forces (Slade & Rush, 1991). Thus, in their discussion of dynamic achievement motivation theory, Slade and Rush (1991) contend that the theory assumes that, regardless of achievement motivation level, people will show preference for successively more difficult tasks. The initial level of task difficulty choice and the rate of shift to more difficult tasks is, however, influenced by achievement motivation.

Slade and Rush's (1991) findings differed from the approach of Atkinson (1957) and Kuhl and Blankenship (1979) in that, while they did show that, irrespective of achievement motivation level, choices of task difficulty shift toward more difficult tasks with task experience, they also found non-linear trends in the task difficulty choices where individuals eventually shift back to easier tasks. They did not find any differences between positively and negatively motivated subjects in initial task difficult choices. However, they identified a delayed emergence of differences in task choice between positively and negatively motivated subjects. This linear trend interacted with the achievement motivation group such that positively motivated subjects shifted faster. This study provides an indication of the developments, both theoretical and empirical, since Atkinson's work in 1957.

A study by Halvari (1991) involved testing for achievement motives, future-time orientation, and perceived intrinsic instrumentality. The results were interpreted and discussed in terms of Atkinson et al's (1970, 1978) dynamic theory of action. The findings of the study showed that success-oriented individuals and those with high future-time orientation perceived goals as closer, planned the initiation of preparations for goals earlier, and planned to devote more preparation time to goal-achievement than failure-oriented individuals and those with low future-time orientation.

Further, motives and future-time orientation appeared to interact with perception of goal proximity and planned time of initiating goal preparations. The findings also

showed that individuals high in instrumentality would start preparations earlier, devote more time to goal preparations, and perceive greater worry for the goal closest in time than low-instrumentality individuals. Further, motives and instrumentality, as well as future-time orientation and instrumentality were shown to interact.

#### **4.3.5. The Attributional Theory of Achievement Motivation**

According to Weiner (1986, p.190), literature on achievement motivation "is assuming more and more of an attributional perspective," and thus, it is necessary to include a section on what attribution theory is, and then to discuss the attributional theory of achievement motivation.

##### **4.3.5.1. The Nature of Attribution Theory**

Attribution theory offers another method in terms of which achievement motivation can be considered. It focuses on the origin of achievement motivation, that is, whether achievement motivation is intrinsic or extrinsic. Attributions are explanations which people make for the causes of things which help them to understand and react to their social surroundings. According to Eiser (1986), there are three classical attribution theories based on social psychology, namely, Heider's Naive Psychology, Correspondent Inference Theory, and Covariation and Configuration.

Fritz Heider (1959) is regarded as the father of attribution theory as he played a major role in making naive psychology a field of study. He regarded the lay person as a naive scientist who is searching for rational explanations for observed occurrences and relies on theories to understand, predict and control the environment (Eiser, 1986). Heider (1959) made a distinction between internal (dispositional) attributions and external (situational) attributions. The former were personal forces including "trying" - a

motivational concept determined by intentions and exertion - and "power" or ability. The latter refers to environmental forces such as task difficulty and luck.

This can also be understood as a distinction between personal and impersonal causality. Personal causality or intentionality refers to a situation where actions are intentional or purposeful. According to Heider (1959), the central factor in personal causality is intention (Eiser, 1986). Impersonal causality, however, refers to a situation where environmental factors are responsible, that is the actions or behaviour are unintended.

The second classical attribution theory is the Theory of Correspondent inferences by Jones and Davis (1965). Eiser (1986) advocates that the central proposition of this theory is that one infers a correspondence between the action (and the intention behind it) and a stable disposition or trait of the actor. Jones and Davis (1965, p.222) set this out in their Action-Attribute paradigm. This is as follows:

**Figure 4.3.: Action-Attribute Paradigm**

Consensus	Distinctiveness	Consistency	Causal Attribution
Low The actor is the only person who kicks this dog.	Low The actor also kicks other dogs.	High The actor has kicked this dog before.	Person The actor is cruel.
High Numerous people kick this dog.	High This is the only dog that the actor kicks.	High The actor has kicked this dog before.	Entity The dog is a bad animal.
Low The actor is the only person who kicks this dog.	High This is the only dog that the actor kicks.	Low The actor has never kicked this dog before.	Circumstance Neighbours were complaining about the noise.

*(Source: Jones & Davis. 1965. From Acts To Dispositions: The Attribution Process in Social Perception. In Berkowitz, L (ed.). Advances in Experimental Social Psychology: Volume 2. New York: Academic Press. P.222).*

In terms of the above model, Jones and Davis (1965) explained how attributions are made. Firstly, the action and its effects are observed. Then, to determine whether the effects were intended, one must ascertain whether the actor knew that his action would produce the effect (knowledge), and whether he/she had the ability to perform the action (ability). If a decision was made that intention (knowledge and ability) was present, then the cause of the action was attributed to a disposition. Thus, a correspondence between the action and a disposition is inferred. An inference such as the above will only occur if the effects of the action are non-common or unique, or if the action was socially undesirable.

Jones and Davis (1965) identify three expectancy conditions where one would be least likely to make a correspondent inference. These are firstly, target-based expectancy (how an actor or target is expected to behave), secondly, category-based expectancy (how a member of the actors' social group or category is expected to behave), and finally, role-based expectancy (how anyone in the actor's role is expected to behave).

The Covariation and Configuration model of Kelley forms the third and final classical attribution theory considered by Eiser (1986). According to Eiser (1986), this model rests on Heider's notion of the person as a naive scientist who searches for and uses information in a logical, systematic manner. There are two methods which can be used to explain a particular event, namely, the covariation method and the configuration method. The former is used when there is much information about the situation, while the latter is used when only small amounts of information are available.

Covariation refers to the tendency for two things to happen at the same time, and when two things covary, one concludes that one thing caused the other. The covariation principle is as follows: "An effect is attributed to the one of its possible causes with which, over time, it covaries" (Kelley, 1971, p.3). While correspondence inference

theory only considered internal attributions in terms of dispositions and character traits, the covariation method of Kelley's theory considers three types of attributions - personal, entity and circumstance. According to Finchilescu (1991), there are three tests of covariation, namely, consensus, distinctiveness and consistency, which lead an observer to attribute the cause of behaviour to the entity, the person, or the circumstances. This process is similar to the statistical technique known as analysis of variance or ANOVA (quoted in Foster & Lowe-Potgieter, 1991).

When there is only a little information available about a particular situation, one relies on what Kelley (1973) refers to as a causal schema. According to Finchilescu (1991), these are "existing beliefs, theories of how certain causes result in particular effects" (quoted in Foster & Lowe-Potgieter, 1991, p.14). Kelley (1973) offered two principles to aid in making attributions with a small amount of data. The augmentation principle holds that the personal attribution will be augmented if the behaviour occurs when inhibiting environmental forces are present. The discounting principle proposes that when multiple plausible causes are present, the attribution is discounted such that the observer attributes the effect less to any one cause than he would if only that cause were plausible (Deci, 1975). Kelley (1971, p.8) defines this principle as "the role of a given cause in producing a given effect is discounted if other plausible causes are also present."

#### **4.3.5.2. The Attribution of Achievement Motivation**

The attribution of motivation is concerned with how intrinsic or extrinsic motivation is attributed to a person. Deci (1975, p.248) defines intrinsically motivated behaviours as those "for which the rewards are internal to the person," while extrinsically motivated behaviours are those "which the actor engages in to receive some extrinsic reward."

Deci (1975) classifies causality into three types: internal (personally caused intentions), external (environmentally caused intentions, which still constitute personal

causality), and impersonal-environmental (were there are no intentions). Distinctiveness of behaviour differs between internal and external causality such that the former is low and the latter is high. Deci (1975) concludes that intrinsically motivated behaviours are characterised by internal causality, while extrinsically motivated behaviours are characterised by external causality. Both of these involve personal causation as there is intention present. When luck or environmental forces cause an event, it is impersonally caused.

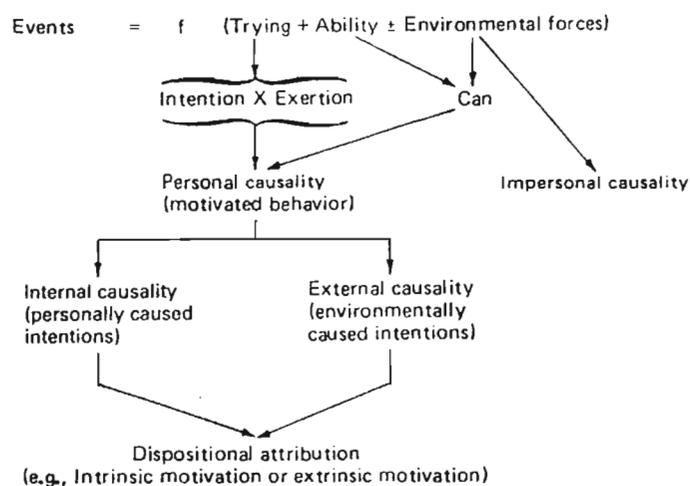
Deci (1975) reviews a number of studies concerning the attribution of intrinsic motivation and then proposes a general model of attribution. This model advocates that when making attributions, people first look for impersonal causes, then for external causes, and finally, if these cannot be found, internal causality is inferred. The model shows that expectations, rewards, and affect motivate and influence the attributional process. Finally, people's attributions differ because of situational factors and individual differences.

According to Spence (1982), analyses of intrinsic motivation in terms of attribution theory have focused on the expectancy and intentional aspects of motivation and assume that behavioural intentions are affected by reinforcer salience. When a reward is given for performing an interesting task, this leads to expectancies of intentions in performance. The introduction of extrinsic reinforcers, thus, reduces intrinsic motivation.

The attributional theory of motivation is based on the work of Weiner and his associates (Duda and Allison, 1989). Weiner (1985) proposed that causal attributions for success and failure, such as ability, effort, task difficulty and luck can be categorised into a three-dimensional taxonomy: locus of causality, stability and controllability. Weiner (1985) also included intentionality and globality as other possible causal

structures. Locus of causality refers to whether the attribution is internal or external to the individual, stability refers to whether it is stable or unstable over time, and controllability refers to whether the attribution is controllable or not. Thus each causal attribution can be classified as internal or external, stable or unstable, and controllable or non-controllable. Weiner's (1986) attributional theory of achievement motivation can best be explained in terms of a diagram.

**Figure 4.4.: Diagram to Explain Attributional Theory of Achievement Motivation**



(Source: Weiner, B. 1986. *An Attributional Theory of Motivation and Emotion*. New York: Springer-Verlag. p.554)

A motivational sequence is initiated by an outcome that a person interprets as positive or negative according to whether a goal is attained or not. Outcome perceptions are linked with effects such that if an outcome is regarded as positive it results in happiness, while a negatively perceived leads to frustration or sadness. If the outcome was unexpected, negative or important, a causal search is undertaken to determine the reason for the outcome (linkage two). On the basis of causal antecedents such as specific information and causal rules, causal ascription(s) are reached (linkage three). This causal decision may elicit a unique affective reaction (linkage four). The cause is then located in

dimensional space (linkage five). The three main properties of causes are locus, stability and controllability. Globality and intentionality are also causal properties (Weiner, 1986).

There are psychological consequences of causal attributions. The stability of a cause affects the relative expectancy of future success (linkage six). By affecting expectancy of success, the stability of a cause also fosters feelings of hopelessness or hopefulness (linkage eight). The locus of a cause influences self-esteem and pride - internal ascriptions result in greater self-esteem for success and lower self-esteem of failure than do external attributions (linkage seven).

Finally, causal controllability affects social emotions: internal, controllable causes of personal failure promote guilty feelings, while internal, uncontrollable causes cause shame (linkage nine). Anger (given failure that is controllable by others), pity (given an uncontrollable cause of failure), and gratitude (given volitional benefit from others) are other emotions which result (linkage 10). Action is presumed to be determined by expectancy and affect (linkages 11,12, and 13). The actions may be in any motivational domain, and can be described in terms of factors such as their intensity and their latency (Weiner, 1986).

Weiner (1986) used this diagram to explain or account for motivational enhancement following failure and motivational enhancement after success. Weiner holds that the attributional theory of achievement motivation is superior to all other theories of achievement motivation as it "is able to capture the complications of human motivation" (Weiner, 1986, p.166).

In terms of this theory of achievement motivation, perception of causality is regarded as the mediating factor of achievement motivation. This perception of causality further influences affective reactions to success and failure, and also the expectation of

success in the future (Dalal and Sethi, 1988). These authors maintained, however, that this mediating role of achievement motivation had not been empirically supported and, so in their study entitled An Attributional Study of High and Low Need Achievers in India, they attempted to assess the causal attributions for repeated success and failure by individuals differing in their achievement need.

In this study, students were given anagram tasks on which they either succeeded or failed on all three trials. In comparison to low need achievers, high need achievers showed a greater tendency to attribute success to their own efforts and failure to both lack of effort and task difficulty. The study confirmed Weiner's theory that affective responses correlated with internal causes and expectations with stable causes. Highly achievement motivated students who failed showed stronger correlations.

Weiner and Kukla (1970) conducted a number of studies relating achievement motivation to causal ascription. They found that achievement is positively related to effort expended. Firstly, achievement motivated individuals appeared more likely to approach achievement activities and attribute success to themselves and experience greater reward for goal attainment than those low on the construct. Secondly, persistence after failure is longer among highly achievement motivated individuals than those without this tendency, and failure is more likely to be attributed to lack of effort and less likely to be attributed to lack of ability. Finally, tasks of intermediate difficulty are chosen more often by those high in achievement motivation than those low in this motivational tendency.

A study by Gaeddert (1987) found that gender was not nearly as important as the subjects' achievement orientations in determining variance in attribution. This was achieved by obtaining descriptions by students of important accomplishments in their lives, and the attribution for the cause of their success. The subjects' attributions to

effort, luck and ability were affected by the domains of their accomplishments, and their attributions to task difficulty, effort and ability were predicted by their achievement orientations.

#### **4.3.6. Achievement Motivation: A Multidimensional Construct**

Achievement motivation was initially conceived as a unidimensional construct. McClelland (1965) clearly held this view as he described achievement motivation as "a striving for challenging and moderately difficult goals supported by high personal standards of excellence," and used projective tests to measure the construct (Erwee, 1986, p.1).

According to Erwee (1986), it was Heckhausen (1968) and Atkinson's research (Atkinson & Raynor, 1978) which led to the conceptualisation of achievement motivation as a multidimensional construct. Theorists such as Spence and Helmreich (1983), Jackson, Ahmed and Heapy (1976), and Lynn, Hampson and Magee (1983) have incorporated more than one factor into their measures of achievement motivation (Cassidy and Lynn, 1989). This concept of achievement motivation as a multidimensional construct is the currently accepted view of achievement motivation.

Neumann, Finaly and Reichel (1988), however, maintain that the conception of achievement motivation as multidimensional emerged from studies by McClelland (1960), Herman (1970) and Pottas, Erwee, Boshoff, and Lessing (1980). These studies showed achievement motivation as comprised of two dimensions, namely, goal-directedness and personal excellence.

Goal-directedness refers to a strong desire to accomplish important goals. According to Neumann et al (1988, p.555) it consists of the personal skills of persistence, planning ability, timetable and action orientation. Persistence refers to overcoming obstacles and persevering in seeking solutions to problems despite adverse

circumstances. Planning ability is the ability to plan ahead, take future consideration into account, and prepare well in advance for eventualities. Timetable refers to working according to a time schedule and feeling uneasy when deviating from one's own timetable, while action orientation means using time efficiently, remaining active, energetic, and avoiding idleness.

Personal excellence is defined as "the need to excel, the need to obtain a high standard of performance," and includes aspiration level, an inclination to embark on demanding and challenging tasks, risk taking, a propensity to prefer some risks over the certainty of success and locus of control, a belief that control can be exerted on various life events, and that individual's initiatives can affect unfavourable circumstances (Neumann et al, 1988, p.555). It is this conception of achievement motivation which forms the basis for the achievement motivation questionnaire.

A number of questionnaires and projective techniques have been adopted in order to measure the various dimensions of achievement motivation. According to Fineman (1977), twenty-two instruments were available but the correspondence between them was low (Erwee, 1986). Motivated by the lack of a comprehensive measure of achievement motivation, Cassidy et al (1989) attempted to develop a comprehensive, multifactorial approach to achievement motivation and produced a 49-item scale which measured the following seven factors: work-ethic (WE), acquisitiveness (for money)(Acq), dominance (Dom), excellence (the pursuit of)(Exc.), competitiveness (Com), status aspiration (SA), and mastery (Mast).

From the many instruments available, the Achievement Motivation Questionnaire (AMQ), constructed by Pottas et al (1980), was selected for use in this present research study. This questionnaire aims to measure an adult's achievement motivation or need for achievement, and has been chosen largely because it has been locally constructed and has

proven reliability within the South African context, that is, where the current research has taken place. It is based on the multidimensional understanding of the achievement motivation construct, and measures the two main dimensions above-mentioned, namely, goal-directedness and personal excellence. Pottas (1981) described the personal excellence factor as "the origin of the motive to achieve success, viz. the basic drive which motivates the individual to achieve" (Erwee, 1986, p.2). The specific skills which compose each of these dimensions is a condensed form of those identified by Neumann et al (1988). According to the Achievement Motivation Questionnaire, goal-directedness is composed of persistence, awareness of time and action-orientation, while personal excellence consists of aspiration level and personal causation. A discussion of this questionnaire will be undertaken when discussing the measuring instruments used for the study in the following chapter.

In a research study by Charoux (1985) the achievement motivation questionnaire was employed to assess the relationship between leadership effectiveness and achievement motivation. The results of the study indicated that values and value systems, formulated through socialisation in education and socio-economic background, are very important both for the development and expression of achievement motivation. This finding is useful for the present study as it utilised the same questionnaire and was conducted in the South African context as with the current study.

#### **4.4. Gender Issues on Achievement Motivation**

Following the discussion of the nature of motivation and specifically the nature of the achievement motivation construct in the previous sections, it is now necessary to focus attention on the central issue namely, the nature of women's achievement motivation.

Despite the vast amount of research that has been conducted on achievement motivation, there are still a large number of issues which remain unanswered. Sutherland

and Verloff (1985) highlight one issue which has been the subject of much study, but is still without any absolute solution, namely, gender or sex differences. Atkinson (1958) states that the question of sex differences is "perhaps the most persistent unresolved problem in research on Achievement" (Horner, 1968, p.222). There are many studies on this topic, but the results are often contradictory. Generally, however, it is assumed that there are differences between men and women in terms of achievement motivation.

The literature reveals that traditionally men are more achievement motivated than women and possible explanations for these differences are presented.

#### **4.4.1. Gender Differences on Achievement Motivation**

According to Berndt and Miller (1990), most research has found sex differences in measures related to achievement. Women have been found to be lower on achievement motivation than men, and this is reflected in women's tendency to occupy lower status occupational positions and to be underemployed in professional careers (Parsons & Goff, 1980).

This sex differentiation in achievement motivation was confirmed by Raina and Vats (1990) who conducted an investigation on the life goals of Indian and American male and female students using the Life Goals Inventory. They found that males in both cultures showed greater concern for achievement than females, and they referred to studies by Reddy and Bhatt (1970) and Mead and Singh (1973) which supported this finding (Raina & Vats, 1990).

In another study designed to investigate the extent to which achievement motivation can be predicted from a range of personality and attitudinal variables, Heaven (1990) found gender differences in the personality correlates of achievement motivation. Females showed a significant correlation between high achievement motivation and positive attitudes to authority, internal locus of control and positive self-esteem, while

for males positive attitudes to authority, extraversion, "tendermindedness", and positive self-esteem were regarded as significant correlates (Heaven, 1990). These studies support the view of achievement motivation being stronger among males (Slade & Rush, 1991).

In a very early study by McClelland and his associates, achievement motivation was assessed using the TAT administered under two conditions - neutral and aroused. The arousal condition involved instructions emphasising the competitive nature of the tasks to be performed, which were used to engage the latent achievement motive. While males showed an increase in n Ach scores from the neutral to the aroused condition, female showed no such increase (Sutherland & Veroff, 1985).

Hoffman and Horner believed that the TAT was composed of solely male-oriented cues for imaginative stories and concluded that in order to measure need for achievement in females, it was necessary to develop cues on the TAT featuring females (Thomson, 1990). Further studies were conducted using female cues, but females' scores were still lower than those of males and the study results revealed that males showed longer persistence after task failure and showed preference for moderate risks and consecutively more difficult tasks after success, while females did not (Thomson, 1990).

#### **4.4.2. Explanations for Gender Differences**

From the research it appears that differences do exist between males and females in terms of the achievement motivation construct such that males have higher levels of achievement motivation than women. Various explanations have been offered for this phenomena and these will be discussed here.

One of the main explanations for differences between males and females in terms of achievement motivation is primary socialisation and sex role training. All the other explanations essentially stem from this one. Primary socialisation was found to be the key to gender differences on achievement motivation for Stevens and Brenner (1990),

who conducted an investigation using the Miner Sentence Completion Scale (MSCS). They proposed that female business students would achieve lower "motivation to manage" scores than male business students based on the hypothesis that socialisation of females inhibits managerial motivation. The conclusion of the study was that the scores obtained by males showed a higher motivation to manage generally than the scores for females. Stevens and Brenner (1990) suggest that this is due to primary socialisation, and the view of a business career as temporary and secondary to the role of wife and mother.

Carr and Mednick (1988) studied the effect of sex role socialisation practices on achievement motivation (n Ach) of pre-school children of differing class levels using the Sex Role Socialisation Scale. The results they obtained supported their hypothesis that higher achievement motivation for girls results from non-traditional sex role training, while for boys, higher achievement motivation develops from traditional sex role training. Thus, differential treatment of girls and boys in terms of traditional sex role socialisation facilitates the development of achievement motivation in boys, but is antagonistic to such a development in girls. They argue that this is a reason why women exhibit lower levels of achievement motivation than men.

Clearly, the primary socialisation of the genders is different and normally results in women being socialised to value traditional role fulfilment above achievement, while men value achievement. Males are trained to need and want success largely because of the traditional sex role of the man as the primary bread winner. He is thus encouraged to be achievement motivated and is rewarded for related behaviour. Females, however, are socialised to avoid success as their traditional sex role is that of wife and mother and success outside of the home is considered to restrict this role fulfilment (Piedmont, 1988). Thus they are discouraged from exhibiting achievement motivation and are taught

to fear social rejection for deviance from the norm. Fear of success is clearly a very real reason why women would repress their achievement motivation (Piedmont, 1988).

Horner's (1968) concept of fear of success or "an expectancy held by some women that success in certain achievement-related situations will be followed by negative consequences" is a second explanation which is used in an attempt to explain the gender differences on the achievement motivation construct (Piedmont, 1988, p.468). This is a result of socialisation and sex role training. Fear of success is postulated to reduce achievement motivation or the tendency to achieve, and consequently to restrain achievement-related behaviour (Piedmont, 1988). This is confirmed by Sutherland et al (1985) who state that females, more often than males, fear success, which inhibits the expression of achievement motivation in behaviour.

According to Piedmont (1989), males only experience fear of success as a "negative success orientation" as they fear losing the recognition for success and have no fear in terms of losing gender identity. Spence (1982, p.36) describes this motive to avoid success as a "a stable dispositional tendency, acquired relatively early in life, to become anxious about achieving success". Horner (1968, p.224) confirms this by stating that the fear of success is "a stable characteristic of the personality acquired early in life in conjunction with sex-role standards" and can be viewed in two ways:

"\* *As a predisposition to feel uncomfortable or expect negative consequences, that is, be anxious when successful in competitive achievement situations because such behaviour is inconsistent with one's internal 'sex role identity.'* It is unfeminine to be successful in competitive and, by implication, aggressive achievement situations.  
And,

\* *As a predisposition to expect or be anxious about social rejection following success in such situations".*

Sex-role socialisation in women results in "a very personal conflict...[as] success would fulfil basic needs in their personality while simultaneously costing them a very high price - their gender identity" (Piedmont, 1988, p.468-470). Thus, success or achievement is associated with loss of femininity and social penalties for violation of role expectations.

This was confirmed by Halvari's (1990) study on the effects of achievement motives and sex on wrestling ability and motor performance. What emerged from this study was that women tend to be more conflict-oriented than men. This refers to the fact that they strive for achievement, but simultaneously have a high fear of success. The conflicts which women experience are related to fear of losing femininity and self-esteem, and suffering social rejection as a result of achievement (Halvari, 1990).

Horner (1968) conducted a study in which the relationship between fear of success and achievement motivation was considered. The results showed that females who have high ability, high achievement motivation and are competitively successful show a higher motive to avoid success than those with low ability, low achievement motivation, and who have no past success. A TAT-like method was used to measure fear of success in this study. This uses a verbal cue instead of a pictorial one, and depicts an individual of the same sex as the respondent who is successful in a competitive situation (Sutherland & Veroff, 1985). The results showed that female have complex, sometimes conflicting, responses to themes of women in achievement situations (Sutherland & Veroff, 1985, p.103). It was found that women who are high on fear of success tend to inhibit their expression of achievement motivation and it is suggested that this pattern may also exist beyond the experimental situation into the real world.

The results of a study by Thomson (1990) found no significant differences between men and women in terms of achievement motivation, but there was, however, a significant negative correlation between female n Ach and fear of success which supports

Horner's findings that fear of success functions as an intervening variable inhibiting female achievement motivation scores. Thus, the conclusion of the study was that while the incidence of fear of success in South Africa appeared to be less than that of America (taken from the results of Horner), its effect seems to be similar. Both studies illustrate that women experience a sex role conflict when placed in achievement situations which results in a fear of success and consequently a reduced level of achievement motivation.

A third explanation offered for the difference between males and females in terms of achievement motivation is presented in Bakan's (1966) model of agency and communion (Bankart et al, 1987). According to Bankart et al (1987, p.250), agency is "the existence of the organism as an individual," while communion refers to "the participation of the individual within a larger social entity of which the organism is a part." Evidence indicates that, as a result of sex role socialisation, men tend to have an orientation towards agency and individualism which separates achievement and affiliation motives and needs, while women have an orientation towards communion or being in a group which integrates achievement and affiliation motives and values (Parsons & Goff, 1980).

Nasser (1984, p.106) focused on the need for affiliation and the need for achievement, and described the characteristics of the former as "group minded, dependent, high on support, goals dictated by others, follower behaviour, evasion of obstacles, [and] lacks tenacity," and the latter as "individualistic, independent, self-starter, moderate risk-taker, problem-solver, high on decision-making, leader behaviour, [and] high tenacity." As men emphasise their need for achievement independently of their need for affiliation, they tend to show higher levels of achievement motivation than women for whom the two needs are connected which dilutes the strength of their

achievement motivation. Sutherland and Veroff (1985) states that female are motivated for achievement by social approval and the need for affiliation. According to Charoux (1985, p.25), women appear to have "a group-minded tendency ... [which] has tended to keep dormant the need for achievement characteristic which may have otherwise emerged" (Charoux, 1985, p.25).

A fourth explanation for gender differences on achievement motivation relates to how men and women deal with competitiveness and relationships which results from the agency/communion difference between men and women and ultimately from their socialisation. For men relationships are not of primary importance which allows them to be free and fearless in competing with others, while for women relationships with others are very important and they experience a conflict between relationship and the competitive nature of achievement.

Griffin-Pierson (1986) states that women have lower levels of achievement motivation than men because of this conflict between relationships and the pursuit of achievement. Griffin-Pierson (1988) indicates that much literature on achievement motivation shows women as being less achievement motivated than men largely because women lack the attribute of competitiveness. Competitiveness is understood to mean performing better than others, but if one considers that women value relationships more highly than men, one can understand women's reluctance to "beat" others (Griffin-Pierson, 1988).

Pollak and Gillian (1982) support this proposition that women do not fear success but competitiveness as they value interpersonal relationships (Griffin-Pierson, 1988). Ultimately they claim that there is no real difference between men and women on achievement motivation, but it has been the way the concept has been understood that has led to incorrect findings that women are less achievement motivated. This illustrates

the need to include the communion perspective into the concept of achievement motivation.

Griffin-Pierson (1988) goes even further and proposes a new, multidimensional concept of competitiveness. The new definition thus includes achievement in both traditional and non-traditional settings, and allows the competitive nature of achievement motivation to be redefined as "the striving toward performance excellences" (Griffin-Pierson, 1986, p.316) and not only the traditional understanding of achievement as competing to beat others. This concept incorporates both the traditional notion of competitiveness, interpersonal competitiveness (IC), defined by Helmreich and Spence (1978) as "the desire to do better than others, the desire to win in interpersonal situations, the enjoyment of interpersonal competition" (Griffin-Pierson, 1988, p.494), and competitiveness in terms of some standard of excellence. Griffin-Pierson (1988) then suggests that while the former conception is a male notion of competitiveness, the latter is a female expression of the same.

A survey by Stockdale, Galejs and Wolins (1983) demonstrated that girls scored lower than boys when competitiveness is seen as the first concept only, while if goal-attainment is the focus, there are no sex differences (Griffin-Pierson, 1988). Jenkins (1987) found that highly achievement-motivated women experienced job satisfaction from competition with a standard of excellence, which confirms the above understanding of competitiveness as related to women. When the traditional understanding of achievement motivation is considered, however, men usually appear more achievement motivated than women.

Piedmont et al (1989) offer a fifth explanation for the gender differences. They state that men and women do differ in achievement motivation, but the differences are not in quantity or amount, but in the type of achievement motivation. They used two

self-report measures of achievement motivation: the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS) and the Adjective Check List (ACL).

High scores on the EPPS relate to success-orientation, determination, assertiveness and independence. Accomplishment, recognition and social status are also important. These are all central to the traditional masculine concept of achievement motivation, and it is thus not unexpected that the instrument predicts better for men than for women. High scores on the ACL, however, show preference for items which are less goal-directed and which represent "a consistent need to live up to high and socially commendable criteria of performance" (Piedmont et al, 1989, p.236). They include items such as alertness, ambition, efficiency and conscientiousness, among others. The ACL is thus more sensitive to the internal motivation of women, and so predicts better for women than for men. Scores on both instruments are valid, and reveal meaningful gender-related differences in achievement motivation (Piedmont et al, 1989).

The above finding was consistent with research by Gaeddert (1985) and Gaeddert, Noelting and Littlefield (1984) who held that "...men were more likely than were women to define their success in terms of external referents (gaining prestige through accomplishment)...[and] women were more likely...to define success by referring to internal standards ('I did what I set out to do')" (Piedmont et al, 1989, p.230).

Erwee (1981) confirmed this by stating that males and females define success and failure differently: males use more tangible, objective definitions, while those of females are more internal and subjective (Halvari, 1990, p.529). Both this and the above studies illustrate how achievement motivation has been considered from an agentic perspective as opposed to a communion perspective. It is essential to consider the latter as well in order to predict career aspirations, life goals and achievement motivation of both women and men.

Griffin-Pierson (1986) states that alternative expressions of achievement motivation exist. Traditionally, researchers of achievement motivation "have tended to regard male behaviour as the "norm" and female behaviour as some kind of deviation from that norm" (Griffin-Pierson, 1986, p.313). The focus of research on achievement motivation in women has been on why women differ from men, and theorists have essentially tried to explain women's behaviour in terms of male models.

Gilligan (1982) and Spence et al (1983) have challenged this traditional approach and hold that it is necessary to adopt a new approach to the study of achievement motivation among women (quoted in Griffin-Pierson, 1986). Helmreich and Spence (1978) suggest that achievement motivation should be redefined as "...task-oriented behaviour that allows the individual's performance to be evaluated according to some internally or externally imposed criterion that involves the individual in competing with others, or that otherwise involves some standard of excellence" (Griffin-Pierson, 1986, p.314).

According to Northcutt (1991), most of the research on the achievement motivation of women has used a male model of success or achievement in which high-status criteria such as income, position and power are most important. Other characteristics of success in terms of this model are high power and achievement needs, high self-esteem and high motivation to manage. It is necessary, however, to consider that this male model may not be appropriate to women who are late-comers into the employment world, have to combine work and home, have varied career developments and have a different socialisation process to men (Northcutt, 1991). According to Stein and Bailey (1973), the major problem in achievement motivation theory is that "like much psychological theory, achievement motivation theory was developed to explain the behaviour of males. Then attempts were made to use the theory with females. Not surprisingly, it does not work as

well for females" (Northcutt, 1991, p.34/5). The result is a lack of achievement needs defined appropriately for females.

The literature on gender differences on the achievement motivation concept presented above indicates that women have lower levels of achievement motivation than men and offers many explanations for this phenomena.

#### **4.5. Occupational Level Issues on Achievement Motivation**

The occupational level issues on achievement motivation will be considered here. Firstly, the achievement motivation of managerial and non-managerial employees generally will be discussed, after which that of managerial women will be considered. Finally, the achievement motivation of non-managerial women will be discussed.

It will be shown that managerial women have achievement motivation levels which are more similar to those of males than to those of the typical female. It will be argued that these women have learnt to overcome gender-related suppression of achievement motivation which has facilitated their upward mobility within organisations. The non-managerial women, however, are restricted from upward mobility and so remain below the "glass ceiling" by their lower achievement motivation levels. It is argued that non-managerial women suppress their achievement motivation as a result of primary socialisation and sex role training which teaches them to fear of success and its consequences, and to have a high need for affiliation and relationship which leads them to fear competitiveness. Hence, achievement motivation does function as a barrier to upward mobility in non-managerial or clerical women.

##### **4.5.1. Achievement Motivation of Managerial and Non-Managerial Employees**

In a study conducted by Northcutt (1991) to determine whether there are differences in achievement motivation between the career levels of management and non-management,

the results showed a significant difference between the two groups such that managerial employees have higher levels of achievement motivation than non-managerial employees.

Parker (1994, p.5) states that managers are "marked by a lust for personal achievement, [are] fiercely competitive in pursuing the extremely high aims they set for themselves to the extent of being ruthless with anyone seen as standing in their way." According to Boldy, Jain and Northey (1993), managers are characterised by ambition, competitiveness, achievement and goal orientation. This is confirmed by Bhargava (1993) who describes the role of a manager as that of a motivator who is a high achiever, a high performer and an innovator. Clearly, achievement motivation is high among managers.

Non-managerial employees, however, tend to lack assertiveness and have lower levels of achievement motivation (Koziara et al, 1987). Valli (1986) states that non-managerial employees lack ambition and competitiveness. The findings of a study by Stimpson, Narayanan and Shanthakumar (1993) revealed that managerial employees had higher scores on achievement, innovation and personal control than the non-managerial employees.

It is possible that the differences between these two groups are influenced by background and environment. McClelland developed a generalised model of the derivation of n Ach which assumes that individuals with high n Ach have grown up in environments where competence is expected, independence is granted, and fathers are not authoritarian and mothers are not dominant (Korman, 1977). Maehr and Nicholls (1980) describe McClelland's hypothesis regarding culture, personality and the "Achieving Society" which is as follows: Achievement-orientated culture leads to achievement training of children. This in turn leads to the development of achievement-motivated persons, followed by the emergence of achievement-orientated societal

leadership. The ultimate result is societal achievement. This is known as the "Culture - Child Rearing - Personality - Achieving Society" hypothesis (Maehr & Nicholls, 1980, p.222). In this way people served as carriers of the "Spirit of Hermes" or an entrepreneurial restlessness (Maehr & Nicholls, 1980, p.222).

The literature shows that managers are more achievement motivated than non-managerial employees and suggests possible reasons for this phenomena.

#### **4.5.2. Achievement Motivation of Managerial Women**

According to Erwee (1987), managerial women are more achievement motivated than non-managerial women. A review of studies on female's achievement motivation by Bowen and Hisrich (1986) found that female managers scored higher than females in general on the achievement scale of the Edwards' Personal Preference Schedule, and higher than secretaries on the Mehrabian Achievement Questionnaire (Erwee, 1987). Clutterbuck and Devine (1987) also maintain that women in management are more achievement motivated than the traditional female. This is confirmed by Stimpson et al (1993) who found that female managers scored higher than non-managerial women on achievement and innovation.

The results of a study by Lobel, Agami-Rozenblat and Bempechat (1993) showed that career and non-career women differed significantly in terms of achievement motivation among other personality characteristics. It was found that the career women were more independent and emotionally stable, and had a higher need for achievement and a higher self-esteem than the non-career women (Lobel et al, 1993). Women entering male-dominated fields, such as management, are less affiliative than women entering female-dominated fields (McLean & Kalin, 1994).

In a study of graduated South African women, Van Rooyen (1981) found that masculine sex role identity subjects were significantly more independent, need-to-achieve

orientated and had a greater interest in career than their feminine sex role identity counterparts (irrespective of age or marital status) (Erwee, 1990). This was confirmed by Morinaga, Frieze and Ferligoj (1993) who found that women with less traditional gender-role attitudes are more career oriented.

According to Northcutt (1991), hard work, determination, perseverance, career commitment, direction for pursuit and lack of rigid goals are the characteristics of a successful career and managerial women. This indicates that in terms of achievement motivation, managerial women are more similar to the traditional "male" than to the typical "female". This is significant as, according to Zeff et al (1994, p.756), good managers are "higher in stereotypical masculine traits than stereotypical feminine traits." This is confirmed by Brenner, Tomiewics and Schein (1989) who state that possessing "male" characteristics is associated with a "successful" manager (quoted in Zeff et al, 1994).

A study by Harlan and Weiss to compare the achievement motivation of male and female managers, found that the achievement motivation levels between these two groups were very similar (Northcutt, 1991). According to Slade and Rush (1991), managerial women have the same level of achievement motivation as men due to an increase in achievement motivation in women which has occurred especially in recent years. In their study on achievement motivation, they found no effects of gender on the theoretical relationships. Slade and Rush (1991) refer to research by Veroff, Depner, Kukla and Douvan (1980) which showed a significant increase in achievement motivation levels in American women from 1957-1976, and a study by Jenkins (1987) which shows an increase from 1967-1981.

According to Maslovaty and Dor-Shav (1990), there has been a dramatic increase in recent years in the aspiration and achievement motivation of certain women to high-

level management and professional occupations. This is confirmed by the results of a fairly recent study conducted by Erwee (1987) using the Achievement Motivation Questionnaire. Erwee (1987) found no significant sex differences in achievement motivation between male and female university students which reflects this increase in the achievement motivation levels of certain women (Erwee, 1987). This study affirmed the findings of an earlier study which also found females to be as achievement motivated as men (Erwee, 1981, p.48).

The achievement motivation of managerial women has been considered here. It is clear that managerial women have higher levels of achievement motivation than the traditional female, and are instead more similar to males. These women have become achievement motivated despite their traditional sex role socialisation and have thus learnt to overcome gender-related suppression of achievement motivation. This, it is postulated, has facilitated their upward mobility within organisations.

#### **4.5.3. Achievement Motivation of Non-Managerial Women**

The above consideration of the achievement motivation of managerial women reveals that this group are more similar to that of males than non-managerial women (Erwee, 1987). Women are socialised to have a need for affiliation and to shun and suppress the need for achievement out of fear of threatening their gender identity (Sutherland & Veroff, 1985).

Koziara et al (1987) claims that non-managerial women have internalised this socialisation and the accompanying traditional stereotypes into their self-concepts. According to Koziara et al (1987), non-managerial women tend to conform to the traditional stereotypes of women as evidenced by higher scores on need to affiliate, empathy for others, conformity to group pressures and lower assertiveness. As a result of primary socialisation and sex role training which teaches women to fear of success and

its consequences, and to have a high need for affiliation and relationship which leads them to fear competitiveness, these women have never developed their achievement motivation or suppress it out of fear (Koziara et al, 1987).

According to Cassidy and Lynn (1991), it is through formal and informal socialisation that achievement motivation is developed. Fenn (1978) believes that low female achievement motivation is not natural or inherent, but reflects women's socialisation to believe that they are affiliative, passive, dependent and non-achievement motivated. This is confirmed by Elizur and Beck (1994) who maintain that gender differences in achievement motivation are actually rooted in socialisation processes rather than in basic differences between women and men. Clearly, the lower achievement motivation levels of non-managerial women do restrict their upward mobility.

#### **4.6. Conclusion**

The above discussion concerns the nature of achievement motivation. The nature of motivation, in terms of both the process and the content theories, and the nature of achievement were considered in order to set the achievement motivation construct in its context. Thereafter, the various theories of achievement motivation were considered.

Gender issues in terms of achievement motivation were then discussed which involved discussion of the differences between the achievement motivation of males and females and possible explanations for these differences. Occupational level issues on achievement motivation were then considered including a consideration of the achievement motivation of managerial and non-managerial employees, followed by a discussion of the achievement motivation of managerial and then non-managerial women.

It has been shown that traditional males have higher levels of achievement motivation than females and that managers are more achievement motivated than non-managerial employees. Further, it has been found that managerial women have levels of

achievement motivation which are similar to those of males and higher than those of non-managerial.

It has been argued that managerial women have adapted to the culture of male-dominated workplace and overcome the traditional gender-related suppression of achievement motivation. Non-managerial women, however, display lower levels of achievement motivation possibly due to the effect of primary socialisation and sex role training. It seems that achievement motivation does play a role in the upward occupational mobility of women in the sense that higher achievement motivation levels of managerial women facilitate their upward mobility, while the lower levels of non-managerial women place a restriction on their upward mobility.

## **CHAPTER FIVE: THE RESEARCH DESIGN**

### **Introduction**

The research design and the investigative procedures used in the current study form the content of this chapter. The sample will be described first with reference to the area from which the sample was drawn and the actual selection procedure adopted. The measuring instruments used are then introduced, and their aims, nature and composition briefly discussed. Finally, the data analysis techniques are presented.

### **5.1. Objectives of the Study**

The defined objectives of the current study are as follows:

- 1) To investigate whether there is a difference between the values of the managerial and non-managerial female employees
- 2) To consider whether a difference exists between the achievement motivation of the managerial and non-managerial female employees
- 3) To determine whether there is a significant relationship between the values and the achievement motivation of the managerial female employees
- 4) To assess whether there is a significant relationship between the values and the achievement motivation of the non-managerial female employees
- 5) To ascertain whether a significant relationship exists between the biographical variables and the values of the managerial female employees
- 6) To evaluate whether there is a significant relationship between the biographical variables and the values of the non-managerial female employees
- 7) To determine whether a significant relationship exists between the biographical variables and the achievement motivation of the managerial female employees

- 8) To assess whether there is a significant relationship between the biographical variables and the achievement motivation of the non-managerial female employees.

## **5.2. Description of the Sample**

The sample of subjects for this research study was drawn from four different institutions within the banking industry which are situated in the Durban area. With regard to gender, the sample was made up solely of female subjects. The sampling procedure adopted was stratified random sampling: The subjects were stratified into occupational-level groups, namely, managerial and non-managerial levels, and from each strata random sampling was employed in order to draw a sample.

A total of two hundred and ninety female subjects were selected to participate in the study and the same number of questionnaires were delivered to the respective banking institutions. However, only forty-two percent of those selected returned the questionnaires so that only one hundred and twenty-one subjects eventually participated in the study. The demographic information concerning the respondents is presented in the following tables.

### **Frequency Tables of Biographical Variables (N = 121)**

To determine the frequency of each of the biological variables, a frequency analysis was undertaken. Frequencies are usually used to summarise information especially biographical information. A frequency analysis can be presented in the form of graphs or tables. The latter has been used in this study.

**Table 5.1: Table of Frequency of Occupational Position**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Occup.Position</b>		
Managerial	57	47.1
Non-Managerial	64	52.9
Total	121	100

**Findings:**

Table 5.1 reveals that the distribution of subjects between the two occupational positions was fairly even with non-managerial employees comprising 52.9% of the group and managerial employees 47.1%.

**Table 5.2: Table of Frequency of Ages**

Variable	Number	%
Age		
< 20	0	0
20 - 29	41	33.9
29 - 39	35	28.9
39 - 49	28	23.1
49 - 59	17	14.1
60+	0	0
Total	121	100

**Findings:**

Table 5.2 reveals that more than a third of the subjects (33.9%) fell within the age group of 20-29, and the second largest category was the 30-39 age group which comprised 28.9%. Exactly 50% of the group fell within the 29-49 age group. None of the subjects fell within the <20 or the >60 groups.

**Table 5.3: Table of Frequency of Marital Status**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Marital Status</b>		
Single	26	21.5
Married	71	58.7
Divorced	20	16.5
Widowed	4	3.3
Total	121	100

**Findings:**

Table 5.3 reveals that married women made up 58.7% of the subject group, with single people forming 21.5%. The percentage of divorced women was 16.5 and widowed women comprised only 3.3% of the total group.

**Table 5.4: Table of Frequency of Institutions in the Banking Industry**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Institution</b>		
Institution A	32	26.4
Institution B	25	20.7
Institution C	35	28.9
Institution D	29	2.0
Total	121	100

**Findings:**

Table 5.4 reveals that a reasonably equal number of subjects were drawn from the four institutions within the banking industry: 26.4% from Institution A, 20.7% from Institution B, 28.9% from Institution C and 2.0% from Institution D.

**Table 5.5: Table of Frequency of Ethnic Groups**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Ethnic Group</b>		
Asian	25	20.7
Black	5	4.1
White	87	71.9
Coloured	4	3.3
Total	121	100

**Findings:**

Table 5.5 reveals that with regard to ethnic group, the majority of the subjects were Whites who comprised 71.9%, with the second largest group being the Asians with 20.7%. The Black and the Coloured groups comprised 4.1% and 3.3% of the total group respectively.

**Table 5.6: Table of Frequency of Education**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Education</b>		
Pre-Matric	15	12.4
Matric	77	63.6
Course	8	6.6
Diplomat	7	5.8
Graduate	4	3.3
Post-Graduate	8	6.6
Unknown	2	1.7
Total	121	100

**Findings:**

Table 5.6 reveals that of the whole subject group, 63.6% had a matric, 12.4% were without a matric, and 24% had post-matric training. Of the latter group, 6.6% had completed a course, 5.8% held diplomas, 3.3% were graduates and 6.6% held post-graduate degrees. Of the total group, the education of only 2 persons (1.7% of the group) was unknown.

**Table 5.7: Table of Frequency of Income**

Variable	Number	%
<b>Income</b>		
< R1000	1	0.8
R1000 - 1500	6	5.0
R1500 - 2000	24	19.8
R2000 - 2500	24	19.8
> R2500	65	53.7
Unknown	1	0.8
Total	121	100

**Findings:**

Table 5.7 reveals that the income category >R2500 was the largest in this sample with 53.7%. The categories 1500-2000 and 2000-2500 each had 19.8%. Only one person (0.8% of the total group) had an income of <R1000 and six persons (5% of the total group) earned between R1000 and R1500. The income of only one subject was unknown.

**5.3. Procedure**

The personnel departments of the four banking institutions randomly selected female employees for the administration of the questionnaires. The employees who participated in

the study were unaware of the real purpose of the investigation, and simply understood that they were assisting a Masters student in conducting a thesis.

The questionnaires administered to the subjects comprised a values questionnaire, an achievement motivation questionnaire as well as a section requiring brief biographical information. Participation was voluntary, and the respondents were assured that the questionnaires were anonymous and confidentiality would be protected. The subjects were informed that the questionnaires measure their values and level of need for achievement, and that there are no right or wrong answers. They were also encouraged to be as honest as possible when completing the questionnaires as this would affect the accuracy of the results.

A total of two hundred and ninety questionnaires were distributed, but one hundred and sixty-nine subjects either failed to answer the questionnaires, or did so incorrectly. As a result, only one hundred and twenty-one respondents were included in the final sample. The following discussion concerns the measuring or research instruments.

## **5.4. The Measuring Instruments**

Three measuring instruments were used in this research study, namely, the Biographical Data Questionnaire, the Values Questionnaire and the Achievement Motivation Questionnaire. These questionnaires are not included in the appendices due to copyright regulations. The questionnaires will be discussed in terms of their aims and composition.

### **5.4.1. The Biographical Data Questionnaire**

The Biological Data Questionnaire was constructed in order to obtain certain necessary biographical information from the subjects. The questionnaire requests subjects to provide information on their occupational position, age, marital status, ethnic group, educational qualifications, and income. This biographical information was thought to be significantly related to values and achievement motivation.

## **5.4.2. The Values Questionnaire**

The nature, aim and composition of the values questionnaire will be discussed first, followed by a consideration of the psychological properties and, finally, the advantages of the values questionnaire.

### **5.4.2.1. The Nature, Aim and Composition of the Values Questionnaire**

The List of Values or LOV was developed by researchers at the University of Michigan Survey Research Centre for the purpose of value assessment (Beatty, Kahle, Homer & Misra; 1985). It has as its theoretical base the work of Feather (1975), Maslow (1954) and Rokeach (1973) on the nature and measurement of values (Kahle, Beatty & Homer, 1986). The List of Values has a close theoretical link to social adaptation theory (Kahle, 1983, 1984) in which value fulfilment is regarded as an important requirement for individuals' adaptation to various life roles (Beatty et al, 1985).

This values questionnaire is essentially composed of a list of nine values, namely, sense of belonging, security, self-respect, warm relationships with others, fun and enjoyment in life, being well respected, sense of accomplishment, self-fulfilment and excitement. According to Kahle et al (1986), these values can be used to classify people on Maslow's (1954) hierarchy, and show a close relationship to the values of major life roles such as work, marriage and parenting.

There are a number of methods for the administration of this List of Values. Initially, subjects were required to identify their two most important values from the list of nine values. Other methods require subjects to rank the values, to evaluate using paired comparison or to rate the values on a scale (Kahle et al, 1986). For the purposes of this study, subjects were presented with a list of values and requested to rate these values on a 9-point scale ranging from "important to me" to "MOST important to me." They were

required to circle the appropriate number selected for each value presented. Subjects were then requested to rank the values by assigning numbers 1-9 next to each list, where 1 is most important and 9 is least important.

#### **5.4.2.2. Psychological Properties**

The psychological properties of the questionnaire, namely, the reliability and validity, will be considered here briefly.

##### Reliability

According to Beatty et al (1985), the test-retest reliability of the List of Values was assessed when LOV was utilised in two other studies. It was found that 92% and 85% of those who identified any given first value ranked it first or second a month later. There is a reasonable comparison between these reliability figures and the average test-retest reliability of 0.73 for Rokeach's terminal values over various diverse studies with time lags of three to seven weeks (Beatty et al, 1985).

##### Validity

According to Homer and Kahle (1988), the List of Values (LOV) is very similar to the Rokeach methodology and a number of the List of Values match up with values from Rokeach's Value Survey (RVS) such as a sense of accomplishment and self-respect, while others are similar like security versus national security and family security.

The List of Values has been compared to the Rokeach Value Survey in order to assess whether items that supposedly measure the same construct are highly associated or correlated with one another (convergent validity) and to ascertain whether items that are supposedly measuring different constructs are not associated or correlated with one another (discriminant validity) (Beatty et al, 1985). The individual LOV items were correlated with the individual RVS items by Spearman's Correlation and the results revealed a reasonable

degree of convergent and discriminant validity which together provide a partial test of construct validity. Thus, when compared to the Rokeach Value Survey, the List of Values appears to have construct validity (Beatty et al, 1985). Further, according to Beatty et al (1985, p.198), the List of Values has "a degree of empirical or concurrent validity."

#### **5.4.2.3. Advantages of the List of Values**

Beatty et al (1985) states that in comparison to Rokeach's Value Survey, the List of Values is simpler to administer, a much easier task for the respondent and the actual ranking or rating procedure takes less than half the time of the former. Further, the List of Values has parsimony and a higher degree of relevance and influence over daily lives (Homer & Kahle, 1988).

In comparison to the Values and Lifestyle Styles (VALS) questionnaire, the List of Values is "far easier to administer and is not tied to proprietary data analysis algorithms that effectively block independent validation of the system" (Kahle and Kennedy, 1988). It also does not have the cultural bias toward the United States which VALS appears to have. Kahle and Kennedy (1988) further state that LOV reduces the methodological problems such as responding in terms of social desirability rather than in a candid manner. The List of Values also allows the researcher to use the most powerful and advanced techniques of causal analyses which require that variables be measured at the interval level as is done with LOV. The Rokeach Value Survey (RVS) and the Values and Life Styles (VALS) use nominal analyses and ordinal analyses respectively.

Thus, in comparison to other contemporary methods of values' measurement, the List of Values is short, quick to complete, simple to administer, encourages candid responses, avoids cultural bias, allows more powerful analysis and is more directly relevant to the subjects' lives.

#### **5.4.2.4. Description of the Values Construct**

Each of the values in the List of Values will be described here briefly, and the findings from a study by Kahle and Kennedy (1988) on the characteristics of people who endorse these values will also be set out.

##### **1. Sense of Belonging**

This refers to the desire to be accepted and needed by your family, friends and community. It requires the help of others and is regarded as a social value which is selected by women. It is a home and family-oriented value which seems to result in greater dependency. Those who uphold this value tend to be house wives and non-managerial workers, and, while they usually only have high school education, they tend to fall in the middle-income group (Kahle & Kennedy, 1988).

##### **2. Security**

This refers to the desire to be safe and protected from misfortune and attack. It is a deficit value which is endorsed by people who lack economic and psychological security (Kahle & Kennedy, 1988).

##### **3. Self-respect**

This refers to the desire to be proud of yourself and confident with who you are. Kahle and Kennedy (1988) found this to be the value which was selected most by his American subjects of all age and income groups.

#### **4. Warm Relationships with Others**

This is the desire to have close companionship and intimate friends. It is an excess values, endorsed by people, especially women, who have a lot of friends and who are friendly. Clerical workers tend to endorse this value (Kahle & Kennedy, 1988).

#### **5. Fun and enjoyment in life**

This is the desire to lead a pleasurable, happy life. According to Kahle and Kennedy (1988, p.51), people who endorse this value tend to be those who would "stop and smell the roses". They tend to be young people who appreciate life.

#### **6. Being well respected**

This refers to being admired by others and receiving recognition. People who endorse this value tend to be over fifty, have little occupational prestige, low incomes and lack formal education. Kahle and Kennedy (1988) states that these people tend to be external, depressed, unhappy, pessimistic and unhealthy.

#### **7. Sense of accomplishment**

This is the desire to succeed at what you want to do. These people tend to have accomplished allot. They also usually have good jobs and high incomes, and tend to be well-educated managers and professionals (Kahle & Kennedy, 1988).

#### **8. Self-fulfilment**

This is to find peace of mind and to make the best use of your talents. Kahle and Kennedy (1988) state that those who endorse this value are healthy, self-confident and relatively well fulfilled economically, educationally, and emotionally.

## **9. Excitement**

This refers to a sense of exhilaration and enthusiasm. It can also be described as a thrill.

This method of measuring values allows subjects to be classified on a vertical dimension of love versus achievement, and on a horizontal dimension of striving for pleasure and change versus striving for comfort and constancy (Grunert & Scherhorn, 1990). It also provides for a classification in terms of an inner-outer distinction. This is made between an internal and external locus of control where the external values are sense of belonging, being well respected and security, and the internal values include the remaining values (Grunert & Scherhorn, 1990).

Further, value fulfilment can be achieved in three ways, namely, through interpersonal relationships (warm relationships with others, sense of belonging), personal factors (self-respect, being well respected, self-fulfilment), or apersonal things (sense of accomplishment, security, excitement, fun and enjoyment in life) (Grunert & Scherhorn, 1990).

### **5.4.3. The Achievement Motivation Questionnaire**

The nature, aim and composition of the achievement motivation questionnaire will be discussed first. Thereafter the psychological properties and then the advantages of the achievement motivation questionnaire will be considered.

#### 5.4.3.1. The Nature, Aim and Composition of the Achievement Motivation

##### Questionnaire

The Achievement Motivation Questionnaire was compiled by C.D. Pottas D. Litt et Phil, R. Erwee D. Phil, A.B. Boshoff D. Com, and B.C. Lessing M. Com. It was developed to measure the level of achievement motivation or the need for achievement in adults. This is accomplished by means of two primary factors, namely; goal-directedness and personal excellence, which are each comprised of sub-factors as follows:

<i>Goal-Directedness:</i>	<i>Persistence</i>
	<i>Awareness of Time</i>
	<i>Action Orientation</i>
<i>Personal Excellence:</i>	<i>Aspiration Level</i>
	<i>Personal Causation</i>

The questionnaire consists of eighty-four forced choice items. In each item two persons, A and B, are described. One of them exhibits achievement motivated behaviour whereas the other depicts the opposite tendency. The respondent has to decide whether he resembles A or B. In this way his or her own self-perception is indirectly disclosed.

#### 5.4.3.2. Psychological Properties

The psychological properties of this questionnaire, namely, the reliability and the validity, have been discussed by Spangenberg (1990). These will be briefly mentioned here.

##### Reliability

The final selection of items for the achievement motivation questionnaire was made by means of the Kuder-Richardson 20 reliability coefficients on the basis of responses of 123 White members of the standardisation group. The Kuder-Richardson 20 formula was then employed to determine the questionnaire's reliability. Spangenberg (1990) states that

reliabilities are available for White and Black students (male and female) and White managers (male and females). The total score (PM) shows a reliability of between 0.89 and 0.92. (89% and 92%). Reliabilities are all above 0.70 (70%) for all scales except the personal causation for which the coefficients were variable.

### Validity

To ensure that the construct achievement motivation was measured as accurately as possible, factor analysis, involving two main factors and three and two sub-factors respectively, was employed. Further, the questionnaire was correlated with another known related test, Strumpfer's ASAV (Autonomous Social Achievement Values), to statistically determine the interrelationships between what they were measuring. The result was an indication that there is a degree of similarity between what each instrument is measuring.

#### **5.4.3.3. Advantages of the Achievement Motivation Questionnaire**

The achievement motivation questionnaire can be used to make selection and placement decisions in organisational settings as it is able to measure the relative strength of individuals' achievement motivation. It may also have diagnostic value in vocational guidance. Norms are available for the different language groups, English and Afrikaans, in both the White and Black population groups and this allows for cross-cultural use of the questionnaire. As separate norms are provided for males and females, gender differences in the five dimensions of achievement motivation can be examined.

#### **5.4.3.4. Description of the Achievement Motivation Construct**

Usually decisions can be based on the scores for the main factors or the total score. However, the relative levels of the five sub-factors should be considered if it is necessary to make subtle distinctions between people, or if the construct is being measured for diagnostic purposes. The three main factors and the sub-factors will be discussed here:

## **1. Achievement Motivation (PM)**

The PM score or total score is obtained by adding the scores of the five sub-factors (A, B, C, D, and E) or by adding the scores of the two main factors (AA and BB). Individuals who obtain a high score can be described as individuals who endeavour to do their best in everything which they undertake. Underlying this striving is an inclination to formulate high personal standards of excellence and the belief that reliance on own skills and abilities is decisive in achieving success. In order to attain their objectives they persist in their endeavour, are action-orientated and are aware of the necessity of effective time management.

## **2. Goal-directedness (AA)**

The score for this factor is derived by adding the scores from the first three sub-factors, A, B, and C. Individuals who obtain high scores on this main factor are intent on achieving personal goals and persevere despite adversity. They are methodical and their behaviour is future oriented. Time is regarded as a vital resource which must be utilised effectively in order to achieve objectives. They have a tendency to be industrious, to exert themselves and are action oriented.

### **2.1. Persistence**

Individuals who obtain high scores on this factor tend to persevere in seeking solutions to problems despite adverse circumstances. Setbacks are regarded as new challenges. When success is achieved they ascribe it mainly to the utilisation of their own skills. In conjunction with this tenacity, there is also a tendency to want to complete tasks, not to procrastinate and to refrain from delay when confronted with complex tasks.

## **2.2. Awareness of time (B)**

High scorers work according to a time schedule and plan ahead. They keep their affairs in good order and prefer to have structure in their lives. They prepare well in advance for any eventuality. They feel guilty about inefficient use of time, when they are late for an appointment or if they deviate from their timetable. They are concerned with the future and their precisely formulated plans for the future include definite career goals.

## **2.3. Action orientation (C)**

Individuals with high scores on this sub-factor are active, energetic people. They constantly have much to do and want to utilise time optimally. They cannot tolerate idleness and are not inclined to take extended rest breaks when completing a task. Time is perceived as dynamic and fast-moving.

## **3. Personal excellence (BB)**

The score for this factor is computed by adding the scores for the last two sub-factors, D and E. High scores on this factor indicate that high personal standards of excellence are formulated. High scorers are convinced that one should depend on one's skills and abilities to achieve success, rather than on luck or mere effort. They enjoy challenges, take calculated risks and believe that unfavourable circumstances can be overcome by taking the initiative.

### **3.1. Aspiration level (D)**

When high scores are obtained on this factor it can be interpreted as an inclination to take on demanding and challenging tasks even though failure may be experienced. Therefore

calculated risks are taken and challenges are preferred to certainty of success. They set high performance standards for themselves and expect the same of others. They are willing to go to great lengths to obtain their goals. They would rather manage their own enterprises than merely be part of a large organisation. They do not easily accept help in the solving of complex tasks.

### **3.2. Personal causation (E)**

High scores on this factor indicate a trust in one's own abilities and skills and a conviction that control can be exerted over life events and the environment. They generally do not believe that they are victims of circumstance. They tend to believe that their actions are correct in most cases and that they will be able to execute a task to the best of their ability. They prefer situations where they can take personal initiative and want at all costs to reach the highest point in life. They are therefore characterised by a motivation to achieve success rather than by a motivation to avoid failure.

## **5.5. Techniques for the Statistical Analysis of Data**

### **5.5.1. Mean and Standard Deviation**

The mean and the standard deviation are essentially summary statistics which are calculated for the whole data group and for important subgroups (Chatfield, 1990). In this study, they are calculated for each of the values and the achievement motivation factors both for the total sample and for the managerial and non-managerial subject groups respectively. The mean provides a measure of location or central tendency and the standard deviation provides a measure of spread or variability (Chatfield, 1990). Both these scores are designed for roughly symmetric, bell-shaped distributions (Chatfield, 1990).

According to Levine (1981), the mean is the best known definition of the average. Clayton (1984, p.18) defines the mean as "the sum of all scores in the set divided by the total number of scores". The mean is the more widely used in inferential statistics and has been selected as the measure of central tendency for this study as it is more stable than its counterparts, namely, the median and the mode (Clayton, 1984). This essentially means that it varies the least from sample to sample and is safer when drawing inferences about parameters from statistics (Clayton, 1984). Another advantage of the mean over the other methods of measuring central tendency is the standard deviation. The standard deviation is the positive square root of the variance or the degree to which the scores deviate from the mean (Clayton, 1984).

### **5.5.2. Intercorrelation**

The statistical technique of intercorrelation was used six times in the current study. The first two intercorrelations were used to determine the relationship between the values and then the achievement motivation factors for the total sample. The third and fourth intercorrelations were used to discover the relationship between the values and then the achievement motivation factors for the managerial subjects. The last two intercorrelations were for the non-managerial group and were also used to determine the relationship between the values and the achievement motivation factors for these groups respectively.

Rowntree (1981, p.187) describes correlations as the measure of "the relationship between related pairs of values from two different variables". A correlation coefficient provides a measure of the linear association between two variables (Chatfield, 1990, p.200). Intercorrelations are concerned with correlations between the factors within the same variable. The criteria used to ascertain whether the relationships between the variables are significant are specified by Lindquist, E.F. (1970) in his book, Statistical Analysis in

Educational Research. At the 5% level, a correlation of 0.25 is considered to be significant, and at the 1% level, 0.330 is significant.

### **5.5.3. Correlation**

Clayton (1984, p.236) describes correlation as "a statistical technique for controlling variance. The Pearson product-moment correlation or Pearson's  $r$  is a correlation coefficient which measures the closeness of two paired values from two different variables (Rowntree, 1981) Two correlations were utilised in this investigation to discover the relationship between the values and achievement motivation factors for the managerial subjects, and for the non-managerial subjects respectively.

The criteria used to determine whether the relationships between the variables are significant are specified by Lindquist, E.F. (1970). At the 5% level, a correlation of 0.25 is considered to be significant, and at the 1% level, 0.330 is significant.

### **5.5.4. t-Test**

The t-test was utilised twice in this study. The first t-test was conducted to determine whether there is a difference between the values of managerial and non-managerial female employees. The second t-test was used to discover whether there is a difference between the achievement motivation factors for the non-managerial female employees.

Clayton (1984) describes the t-test as a test for the difference between means which takes all the data together and essentially tests a general null hypothesis that there are no differences between the means. The t-test is usually only used for two groups. It has been utilised as there are only two groups, namely, the managerial and the non-managerial subject groups. The value of the t-test is that it determines whether two variables are significantly related or not which allows for certainty in claims as to relationships between variables (Rowntree, 1981).

### 5.5.5. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

The statistical technique of analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used four times in this investigation. The first ANOVA was used to determine whether there is a relationship between the biographical variables, namely, age, marital status, ethnic group, education and income, and the values for the managerial subject group. The second ANOVA was used to ascertain whether there is a relationship between these same biographical variables and the values for the non-managerial subject group. The third and fourth ANOVAs were used to establish whether a relationship exists between the biographical variables and the achievement motivation factors for the managerial and non-managerial subjects respectively.

With an ANOVA, all the data is treated together, and it tests a general null hypothesis of no difference among the means. An ANOVA is usually only used for more than two groups, while the t test is used for two groups although both tests provide the same results. In the above-mentioned cases, although there are only two groups, the F test (ANOVA) was selected over the t test as there are many variables being considered, and, according to Chatfield (1990), the ANOVA is used to test the effects of different influences in more complicated data structures.

According to Keppel and Saufley (1980, p.109), "In the early years researchers used the t test as a special case of the F test - to be more specific, if you were to conduct a t test and an F test on the data from the same two group experiments, you would obtain exactly the same information. The reason the results would be identical is that the two statistical tests are algebraically equivalent, that is,  $F = t^2$  and  $t = \sqrt{F}$ ".

## **5.6. Conclusion**

The above discussion centred on the research design of the current study, including the sampling procedure and the measuring instruments utilised. The sampling procedure was discussed in terms of the area from which the sample was drawn, and the actual procedure used to affect the sampling. Thereafter, the measuring instruments were discussed. Finally, the data analysis techniques were presented. These are the statistical methods which were used to interpret the results of the study. In the following chapter the research results will be presented and discussed.

## **CHAPTER SIX: PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS**

### **Introduction**

In order to test the hypotheses stated in Chapter One, various statistical tests have been applied and the results of the study are presented and discussed in this chapter. The chapter is structured according to the following format as it is simple and facilitates the systematic and logical flow of the presentation and discussion of the research findings. Firstly, the statistical results are presented in tabular form. Thereafter, the findings of each table are explained and possible interpretations are provided. Finally, the findings of the current research are compared to previous research findings in a search for further tentative reasons for the present results.

The means and standard deviations are calculated to assess the levels of the values and achievement motivation factors for the groups managerial and non-managerial female subjects. Pearson's  $r$  correlation coefficient is computed to establish the intercorrelations within each of the constructs for the managerial and non-managerial groups respectively. It is also utilised to determine the correlations between the constructs within the respective groups.

The t-test is used to ascertain whether a difference exists between managerial and non-managerial subjects on the main constructs of the study. The Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is utilised to determine whether a relationship exists between the biographical variables, age, marital status, ethnic group, education and income, and the values and the achievement motivation factors for the two subject groups respectively.

## 6.1. Measures of Central Tendency and Dispersion of the Constructs

The means and standard deviations were calculated on the central constructs of this study, namely, values and achievement motivation factors.

### 6.1.1. Means and Standard Deviations of the Values and the Achievement Motivation Factors for the Total Sample

The means and standard deviations for the total sample are presented in Table 6.1 and Table 6.2.

**Table 6.1: Means and Standard Deviations of the Values for the Total Sample**

Values	Mean	SD
Sense of Belonging	7.98	1.38
Security	8.06	1.69
Self-Respect	8.60	0.89
Warm Relationships with Others	7.10	1.94
Fun & Enjoyment	7.77	1.54
Being Well Respected	8.16	1.24
Sense of Accomplishment	8.55	1.20
Self-Fulfilment	8.51	0.94
Excitement	7.12	1.63

**Findings:**

The mean scores shown in Table 6.1 reveal that the subjects regard all the values as important. On closer examination, it is clear that subjects scored higher on the values, self-respect, sense of accomplishment and self-fulfilment ( $x = 8.60, 8.55$  and  $8.51$  respectively), while the spread of the scores on these factors is much smaller than for the other factors ( $SD = 0.89, 1.20$  and  $0.94$  respectively). The factor warm relationships with others has the lowest mean score ( $x = 7.10$ ), but it has the highest spread ( $SD = 1.94$ ). This value was given a lower level of importance in comparison to the other eight.

The findings indicate that the subjects tend to value self-respect which is the tendency to be confident and proud of who they are, self-fulfilment or the wish to make the best use of their abilities, and have a sense of accomplishment such that they desire to succeed at what they do. The value which is least important to this group is the desire to have warm relationships with others expressed in close companionship and intimate friends. It is necessary to determine whether these differences are significant, and thus statistical tests must be utilised.

**Interpretation:**

These findings are consistent with other research such that of Fiebert (1990) which has found women to be concerned with self-fulfilment and self-respect. A study by Eccles (1987) found that women value personal rewards (Machung, 1986), and, Rokeach (1973) found that women focus on inner issues such as happiness and inner harmony. According to Maslovaty and Dor-Shav (1990), women tend to rely on guiding principles in making value

judgements. These studies indicate a need to be fulfilled as a person and suggest a respect for oneself.

In terms of warm relationships with others and self-accomplishment, the results differ from other studies. Maslovaty and Dor-Shav (1990) found that women value interpersonal relationships highly, and are not as concerned with self-accomplishment. This is confirmed by Bankart et al (1987) who hold that women attribute high value to relationships with others and a sense of belonging. According to Kunen et al (1991), females emphasise connectedness, and Chodorow (1974) maintains that females are embedded (Kunen et al, 1991). A study by Lau and Wong (1992) found that women are expressive and communal. This is confirmed by Gilligan (1982) who states that females emphasise a "web of connectedness," and by Clutterbuck and Devine (1987) who state that part of the female principle is interdependence.

According to Fiorentine (1988), women value altruism. Fiebert (1990) found women to be nurturers who respond to the physical and emotional needs of others. This was confirmed by Eccles (1987) who found that females attribute great value to helping others (Machung, 1986). These differences could be due to the recent changes which have occurred in managerial female values such that these women's values incorporate traditional male values such as self-accomplishment. (Fiorentine, 1988; Bridges, 1989; Vondracek et al, 1990; Maslovaty & Dor-Shav, 1990). This serves as a tentative reason for the findings.

**Table 6.2: Means and Standard Deviations of the Achievement Motivation Factors for the Total Sample**

<b>Achievement Motivation Factors</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>
Persistence	8.41	1.24
Awareness of Time	7.52	2.02
Action Orientation	8.22	1.66
Aspiration Level	7.06	2.05
Personal Causation	8.28	1.42
Goal Directedness	8.45	1.18
Personal Excellence	7.88	1.70
Achievement Motivation	8.52	1.04

**Findings:**

The mean scores depicted in Table 6.2 reveal that the subjects consider all the achievement motivation factors as important. The subjects are particularly high on factors persistence, goal directedness and achievement motivation ( $x = 8.41, 8.45$  and  $8.52$  respectively), and the spread of the scores is lowest for these achievement motivation factors ( $SD = 1.24, 1.18$  and  $1.04$  respectively). The smallest mean score is for aspiration level ( $x = 7.06$ ) and this also has the largest spread ( $SD = 2.05$ ).

From these results, it appears that generally the subjects are achievement motivated, have perseverance and tenacity and are intent on achieving personal goals despite adversity. In comparison to the other aspects of achievement motivation, aspiration level, or risk-taking and the inclination to take on demanding, challenging tasks even though failure is possible, is slightly less prevalent among the subjects. Statistical tests must be employed to ascertain whether these differences are significant.

### **Interpretation:**

The finding that these women are fairly high on achievement motivation is inconsistent with certain of the research findings reported in the literature review. In comparison to males, women have been found to be lower on achievement motivation (Parsons & Goff, 1980). Two studies, one by Raina and Vats (1990) and another by Slade and Rush (1991), confirm this finding. A study by Thomson (1990) found that men displayed a greater level of persistence than women and were more inclined than women to take risks. Thus, the current findings differ to other research findings in terms of persistence, but are consistent with regards to aspiration level.

It is largely because the level of persistence is high and the aspiration level is lower, that the goal-directedness is higher compared to the other achievement motivation factors as persistence is a component of goal-directedness. The higher persistence and achievement motivation levels may possibly be accounted for by the general increase in achievement motivation among managerial women in recent years (Slade & Rush, 1991). This suffices as a tentative explanation for the results.

**6.1.2. Means and Standard Deviations of the Values and the Achievement Motivation Factors for the Managerial Subjects and the Non-Managerial Subjects**

The means and standard deviations of the values and achievement motivation factors for the two groups are presented in Tables 6.3 and Table 6.4.

**Table 6.3: Means and Standard Deviations of the Values for the Managerial and the Non-Managerial Subjects**

Values	Managerial Mean	SD	Non- Managerial Mean	SD
Sense of Belonging	8.02	1.53	7.94	1.23
Security	8.05	1.62	8.06	1.75
Self-Respect	8.56	1.02	8.64	0.76
Warm Relationships with Others	6.91	2.02	7.27	1.87
Fun & Enjoyment	7.63	1.71	7.89	1.38
Being Well Respected	8.14	1.47	8.17	1.00
Sense of Accomplishment	8.61	1.21	8.48	1.21
Self-Fulfilment	8.63	0.06	8.41	1.81
Excitement	7.12	1.76	7.11	1.52

## Findings:

In terms of the values, the mean scores in Table 6.3 reveal that both managerial and non-managerial subjects obtained high scores on the values self-respect, sense of accomplishment and self-fulfilment compared to the other values. The highest mean score for the non-managerial group was for self-respect ( $x = 8.64$ ) with a very low standard deviation of 0.76, while that for the managerial group was self-fulfilment ( $x = 8.63$ ) with 1.06 as the standard deviation. Managerial subjects acquired slightly higher mean scores than their counterparts on the values sense of accomplishment and self-fulfilment (managerial:  $x = 8.61$  and  $8.63$  respectively, non-managerial:  $x = 8.48$  and  $8.41$  respectively), and the non-managerial subjects were slightly higher on warm relationships with others, self-respect and fun and enjoyment (managerial:  $x = 6.91$ ,  $8.56$  and  $7.63$  respectively, non-managerial:  $x = 7.27$ ,  $8.64$  and  $7.89$  respectively). The remaining values approach equivalence.

These findings suggest that non-managerial females primarily value self-respect which means they have a desire to be proud and confident of who they are, while managerial females are more concerned with self-fulfilment or finding peace of mind by making the best use of their talents and abilities. Managerial women show a slightly greater desire than non-managerial women to succeed at what they want to do (sense of accomplishment) and a stronger aspiration to find peace of mind and to best make use of their talents (self-fulfilment). Non-managerial women display more concern than managerial women for close companionships and intimate friends (warm relationships with others), a desire to be proud of and confident with oneself (self-respect) and a desire to lead a pleasurable, happy life (fun and enjoyment in life). These differences cannot be accepted at face value, but must be subjected to statistical testing to determine whether they are significant.

**Interpretation:**

The finding that both the managerial and non-managerial women were high on self-respect, sense of accomplishment and self-fulfilment is consistent with the findings for the total sample. In terms of a review of the literature, it appears that the findings are consistent with the current research studies.

According to Clutterbuck and Devine (1987), managerial women have been found to have a stronger sense of accomplishment than non-managerial women. Gaskill (1991) found that managerial women value personal ambition and self-fulfilment. Managerial women have been found to have a greater aspiration to educational (Maslovaty & Dor-Shav, 1990) and status (Fiorentine, 1988) attainment than non-managerial women, and, according to Regan et al (1982), place higher value on career attainment (quoted in Fiorentine, 1988). This confirms the findings for managerial women (Fiorentine, 1988). Koziara et al (1987) found that non-managerial women tend to uphold traditional female values, namely, relationships with others, sense of belonging, altruism, ethic of care, self-respect, self-fulfilment and security. Clearly these research findings offer support for the above results.

**Table 6.4: Means and Standard Deviations of the Achievement Motivation Factors for the Managerial and Non-Managerial Subjects.**

<b>Achievement Motivation Factors</b>	<b>Managerial Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>Non-Managerial Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>
Persistence	8.53	1.00	8.31	1.42
Awareness of Time	7.54	2.11	7.50	1.96
Action Orientation	8.23	1.76	8.20	1.58
Aspiration Level	7.51	2.00	6.66	2.02
Personal Causation	8.32	1.44	8.25	1.41
Goal Directedness	8.58	0.94	8.33	1.36
Personal Excellence	8.12	1.69	7.67	1.69
Achievement Motivation	8.68	0.81	8.38	1.20

**Findings:**

The mean scores of Table 6.4 reveal that the managerial subjects obtained slightly higher mean scores than the non-managerial group on all the achievement motivation factors, and the spread of the scores on all but three factors are equal to or lower than those for the non-managerial subjects. The mean scores for the managerial subjects are highest on factors achievement motivation, goal directedness and persistence ( $x = 8.68, 8.58$  and  $8.53$  respectively) and the standard deviations here were the lowest ( $SD = 0.81, 0.94$  and  $1.00$ ).

In comparison, the non-managerial subjects, who also scored highest on these three factors, obtained mean scores of 8.38, 8.33 and 8.31 respectively with much higher spreads about the mean (SD = 1.20, 1.36 and 1.42). The lowest mean score for both groups was for aspiration level, with the non-managerial group displaying the lowest score ( $\bar{x}$  = 6.66). However, this factor also had the highest spread about the mean for both groups.

These findings intimate that managerial women are more achievement motivated than non-managerial women which means that they endeavour to do their best in everything which they undertake. This they accomplish by formulating high personal standards of excellence, by believing that reliance on one's own skills and abilities is decisive in achieving success, by persisting in their endeavours and by being action-orientated and aware of the necessity of effective time management. Goal directedness is the resolve to achieve personal goals and to persevere despite adversity. This is characterised by methodical, future-oriented behaviour, effective time utilisation, an industrious tendency and action orientation. Persistence refers to perseverance in problem-solving despite adverse circumstances, where setbacks are regarded as challenges, success is ascribed to skill-utilisation, tasks are completed and procrastination is avoided. Both these achievement motivation factors appear higher for managerial than for non-managerial women.

Aspiration level, or the inclination to take on demanding and challenging tasks even though failure may be experienced, was given the lowest level of importance for both the managerial and the non-managerial women, with the latter being the lowest. This implies that for both groups of women and particularly for the non-managerial group certainty of success may possibly be preferred to challenges and risk-taking. It also suggests that these women may not set very high performance standards for themselves and others, and may possibly not be willing to go to extreme lengths for goal-attainment. Further, they may prefer to be part of a large organisation rather than manage their own enterprises. In order

to draw conclusions as to the differences between these two groups in terms of the achievement motivation factor, it is necessary to conduct statistical tests.

### **Interpretation:**

The finding that both the managerial and non-managerial women were high on achievement motivation, goal-directedness and persistence is consistent with the findings for the total sample. A review of the literature indicates that the findings correspond to current research findings.

According to both Erwee (1987) and Clutterbuck and Devine (1987), managerial women are more achievement motivated than non-managerial women. Stimpson et al (1993) confirms this by finding that female managers scored higher than non-managerial women on achievement and innovation. The results of a study by Northcutt (1991) found that hard work, determination, perseverance, career commitment, direction for pursuit and lack of rigid goals are the characteristics of managerial women. Lobel et al (1993) found that career women were more independent, emotionally stable, had a higher need for achievement and a higher self-esteem than non-career women.

According to Erwee (1990), managerial women with their masculine sex role identities were significantly more independent, need-to-achieve orientated and had a greater interest in career than their feminine sex role identity counterparts. Morinaga et al (1993) confirm this in their finding that women with less traditional gender role attitudes are more career oriented. This provides a tentative explanation for the apparent results.

## **6.2. Intercorrelations**

The intercorrelations were established using Pearson's Correlation Coefficient. These intercorrelations were conducted for the total sample, the managerial subjects and the non-managerial subjects.

### **6.2.1. Intercorrelations between the Values and Achievement Motivation Factors**

#### **Respectively for the Total Sample**

The intercorrelations between the values and achievement factors respectively for the total sample are presented in the following two tables, namely, Table 6.5 and Table 6.6.

**Table 6.5: Intercorrelation between the Values for the Total Sample**

	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7	V8	V9
V1	1.00								
V2	0.50**	1.00							
V3	0.34**	0.39**	1.00						
V4	0.60**	0.41**	0.23	1.00					
V5	0.55**	0.52**	0.27*	0.58**	1.00				
V6	0.40**	0.27*	0.62**	0.23	0.23	1.00			
V7	0.30*	0.31*	0.51**	0.15	0.27*	0.47**	1.00		
V8	0.46**	0.25	0.62**	0.20	0.26*	0.53**	0.75**	1.00	
V9	0.49**	0.32*	0.15	0.40**	0.65**	0.34**	0.12	0.15	1.00

\* = 0.254 ≤ P ≤ 0.330

\*\* = P > 0.330

The meanings of the abbreviations are specified in the key below.

**Key:**

V1 = Sense of Belonging

V6 = Being Well Respected

V2 = Security

V7 = Sense of Accomplishment

V3 = Self-Respect

V8 = Self-Fulfilment

V4 = Warm Relationships with Others

V9 = Excitement

V5 = Fun & Enjoyment

Table 6.5 reveals a number of highly significant and significant correlations for the total sample which will be discussed here.

### **Sense of Belonging:**

There is a highly significant correlation between the value sense of belonging and the values warm relationships with others (0.60), fun and enjoyment (0.55), security (0.50), excitement (0.49), self-fulfilment (0.46), being well respected (0.40) and self-respect (0.34). There is also a significant correlation between sense of belonging and sense of accomplishment (0.30).

Sense of belonging refers to the desire to be accepted and needed by your family, friends and community. It requires the help of others and is regarded as a social value which is selected by women. It is a home and family-oriented value which seems to result in greater dependency (Kahle et al, 1988). Warm relationships with others or close companionships and intimate friends can provide one way of satisfying this need for belonging and is also especially found among women. Once a person feels a sense of belonging, he/she is more likely to feel more secure, to lead a pleasurable, happy life and to desire excitement in life.

A sense of belonging can be related to self-fulfilment, which refers to finding peace of mind and making the best use of one's talents, and being well respected, or being admired and receiving recognition from others, as it is possible to obtain these through relationship or belongingness. A desire to be proud of and confident with oneself (self-respect), a desire to succeed (sense of accomplishment) and the wish to find peace of mind by making the best use of their talents and abilities (self-fulfilment) can all be related to a sense of belongingness as it is this which gives a person the security base from which to pursue these other needs.

**Security:**

A highly significant correlation exists between the value security and self-respect (0.39), warm relationships with others (0.41) and fun and enjoyment (0.52). There is a significant correlation between security and being well respected (0.27), sense of accomplishment (0.31) and excitement (0.32).

Security refers to the desire to be safe and protected from misfortune and attack. It is a deficit value which is endorsed by people who lack economic and psychological security (Kahle et al, 1988). Self-respect, success and a sense of accomplishment, being well respected or receiving admiration and recognition from others as well as close companionships and intimate friends (warm relationships with others) can all provide a person with a sense of security. From a basis of security, a person can focus on fun and enjoyment and pursue excitement.

**Self-Respect:**

There is a highly significant correlation between the value self-respect and being well respected (0.62), sense of accomplishment (0.51) and self-fulfilment (0.62). This value also correlates with fun and enjoyment (0.27).

Self-respect is the desire to be self-confident and proud of oneself (Kahle et al, 1988). This could derive from being admired and receiving recognition from others (being well respected), one's ability to succeed at what one wants to do (sense of accomplishment) and/or from making the best use of their talents and abilities (self-fulfilment). When a person is self-confident, he/she is more likely both to desire to and to lead a pleasurable, happy life (fun and enjoyment in life).

### **Warm Relationships with others:**

The value warm relationships with others correlates highly significantly with fun and enjoyment (0.58) and excitement (0.40).

The desire for warm relationships with others refers to the wish for close companionships and intimate friends. It is an excess values, endorsed by people, especially women, who have a lot of friends and who are friendly (Kahle et al, 1988). Friends can contribute to one's enjoying a life and having both fun and excitement in daily activities.

### **Fun and Enjoyment:**

The value fun and enjoyment shows a high correlation with excitement (0.65) and also correlates with the values sense of accomplishment (0.27) and self-fulfilment (0.26).

The value fun and enjoyment in life refers to a desire to lead a pleasurable, happy life and to appreciate life (Kahle et al, 1988). This may be attainable through success and the resultant sense of accomplishment as well as through finding peace of mind by making the best use of their talents and abilities (self-fulfilment). Excitement can be an aspect of fun and enjoyment.

### **Being Well Respected:**

The value being well respected correlates highly significantly with sense of accomplishment (0.47), self-fulfilment (0.53) and excitement (0.34).

Being well respected refers to being admired by others and receiving recognition (Kahle et al, 1988). To achieve the admiration and recognition from others many people strive to be successful (sense of accomplishment) and to best use their talents and abilities (self-fulfilment).

**Sense of Accomplishment:**

Sense of accomplishment, or the desire to succeed at what you want to do, shows a highly significant correlation with the value self-fulfilment (0.75).

This relationship can be tentatively explained as people relying on accomplishments and success to achieve a sense of self-fulfilment.

The significant and highly significant correlations which emerged from Table 6.5 have been discussed and tentative explanations have been presented.

**Table 6.6: Intercorrelation between the Achievement Motivation Factors for the Total Sample**

	A	B	C	D	E	AA	BB	PM
A	1.00							
B	0.29*	1.00						
C	0.34**	0.46**	1.00					
D	0.31*	0.15	0.06	1.00				
E	0.53**	0.25	0.11	0.40**	1.00			
AA	0.64**	0.72**	0.69**	0.25	0.36**	1.00		
BB	0.45**	0.23	0.10	0.82**	0.70**	0.37**	1.00	
PM	0.71**	0.59**	0.51**	0.45**	0.58**	0.87**	0.62**	1.00

\* = 0.254 <= P <= 0.330

\*\* = P > 0.330

The meanings of the abbreviations are specified in the key below.

**Key:**

- A = Persistence*
- B = Awareness of Time*
- C = Action Orientation*
- D = Aspiration Level*
- E = Personal Causation*
- AA = Goal Directedness*
- BB = Personal Excellence*
- PM = Achievement Motivation*

## **Findings:**

Table 6.6 reveals a number of highly significant and significant correlations for the total sample which will be discussed here.

## **Persistence:**

There is a highly significant correlation between persistence and the factors achievement motivation (0.71), goal directedness (0.64), personal causation (0.53), personal excellence (0.45) and action orientation (0.34). There are also two significant correlations which exist between persistence and the factors aspiration level (0.31) and awareness of time (0.29).

Persistence refers to perseverance and tenacity despite adverse circumstances (Pottas et al, 1980). Goal directedness should correlate significantly with persistence as persistence is one of the three factors which comprise goal directedness. Action orientation and awareness of time are the two other factors which make up goal directedness, a fact which offers a feasible explanation for the significant correlation between persistence and these two factors respectively. As persistence is part of goal directedness which is one of the two main factors of which achievement motivation is composed, it is to be expected that achievement motivation would correlate significantly with persistence.

Personal causation refers to the conviction that one can control life events and the environment rather than being a victim of circumstances, and that personal initiative and a motivation to achieve success will lead one to reach the highest point in life. Aspiration level refers to the willingness to take calculated risks and challenges despite the possibility of failure. These are the two factors of which personal excellence is composed. Each of the factors, personal causation, aspiration level and personal excellence, has an element of

perseverance within it which would explain the significant correlations between perseverance and the other three factors.

### **Awareness of Time:**

A highly significant correlation exists between awareness of time and the factors goal directedness (0.72), achievement motivation (0.59) and action orientation (0.46).

Awareness of time refers to the tendency to prefer a structured life, to plan and prepare for the future and to always make efficient use of time (Pottas et al, 1980). As awareness of time is one of the three factors comprising goal directedness, it is understandable that these two factors correlate highly significantly. Action orientation would also be expected to correlate significantly with awareness of time as these factors make up two of the three factors of which goal directedness is composed. The relationship between achievement motivation and awareness of time can also be understood as the latter is part of goal directedness which is one of the two factors which make up achievement motivation.

### **Action Orientation:**

The factor action orientation correlates highly with the factors goal directedness (0.69) and achievement motivation (0.51).

Action orientation implies action and energy and is used to describe those who are industrious, utilise time optimally as it is regarded as dynamic and fast-moving, and cannot tolerate idleness (Pottas et al, 1980). Action orientation is one of three factors which comprise goal directedness, and the latter is one of two factors which make up achievement motivation. Thus, one would expect there to be significant correlations between the two.

**Aspiration Level:**

Other highly significant correlations exist between aspiration level and personal excellence (0.82), achievement motivation (0.45) and personal causation (0.40).

Aspiration level refers to the inclination to take on demanding and challenging tasks and calculated risks even though failure may be experienced (Pottas et al, 1980). Aspiration level forms one of the two factors of which personal excellence is comprised which provides a potential explanation for the highly significant relationship between the two factors. Personal causation is the second of the two factors composing personal excellence which provides an understanding of the significant relationship between personal causation and aspiration level. As aspiration level is part of personal excellence which is one of the two factors of which achievement motivation is made up, it is not unexpected that there is a highly significant relationship between aspiration level and achievement motivation.

**Personal Causation:**

A highly significant correlation exists between personal causation and the factors personal excellence (0.70), achievement motivation (0.58) and goal directedness (0.36).

Personal causation is essentially a trust in one's own abilities and skills together with a conviction that life events and the environment can be controlled (Pottas et al, 1980). It is to be expected that personal excellence correlates highly significantly with personal causation because the latter is one of the two factors of which personal excellence is composed. The fact that achievement motivation correlates with personal causation can be understood because personal causation is part of personal excellence which is one of the two factors of which achievement motivation is comprised. The highly significant correlation

between personal causation and goal directedness can be appreciated as both factors focus on achieving something despite the circumstances and possible adversities.

### **Goal Directedness:**

There is a highly significant correlation between goal directedness and the factors achievement motivation (0.87) and personal excellence (0.37).

Goal directedness refers to resolve to achieve personal goals and to persevere despite adversity through a methodical, action oriented, future-oriented approach where time is effectively utilised (Pottas et al, 1980). Goal directedness and personal excellence together compose achievement motivation which provides a probable explanation for the highly significant correlation between goal directedness and both achievement motivation and personal excellence respectively.

### **Personal Excellence:**

A highly significant correlation exists between personal excellence and achievement motivation (0.62).

Personal excellence refers to the formulation of high personal standards together with a reliance on one's own skills to achieve success (Pottas et al, 1980). Challenges and calculated risks are enjoyed because of the belief that initiative can overcome unfavourable circumstances. Personal excellence is one of two factors which compose achievement motivation so it is expected that there should be a highly significant correlation between these two factors.

The significant and highly significant correlations which emerged from Table 6.6 have been discussed and tentative explanations have been presented.

### **6.2.2. Intercorrelations between the Values and the Achievement Motivation Factors Respectively for the Managerial Subjects**

The intercorrelations between the values and the achievement motivation factors respectively for the managerial subjects are presented in the following two tables, namely, Table 6.7 and Table 6.8.

**Table 6.7: Intercorrelation between the Values for the Managerial Subjects**

	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7	V8	V9
V1	1.00								
V2	0.57**	1.00							
V3	0.35**	0.37**	1.00						
V4	0.55**	0.48**	0.23	1.00					
V5	0.57**	0.51**	0.18	0.65**	1.00				
V6	0.30*	0.28*	0.64**	0.16	0.09	1.00			
V7	0.30*	0.06	0.78**	0.09	0.12	0.65**	1.00		
V8	0.43**	0.15	0.76**	0.13	0.17	0.50**	0.89**	1.00	
V9	0.53**	0.50**	0.11	0.46**	0.71**	0.20	0.01	0.04	1.00

\* = 0.254 <= P <= 0.330

\*\* = P > 0.330

The meanings of the abbreviations are specified in the key below.

**Key:**

V1 = Sense of Belonging

V6 = Being Well Respected

V2 = Security

V7 = Sense of Accomplishment

V3 = Self-Respect

V8 = Self-Fulfilment

V4 = Warm Relationships with Others

V9 = Excitement

V5 = Fun & Enjoyment

Table 6.7 reveals a number of highly significant and significant correlations for the managerial subjects which will be discussed here.

### **Sense of Belonging:**

There is a highly significant correlation between the value sense of belonging and the values security (0.57), fun and enjoyment (0.57), warm relationships with others (0.55), excitement (0.53), self-fulfilment (0.43) and self-respect (0.35). There are significant correlations between sense of belonging and the values being well respected (0.30) and sense of accomplishment (0.30).

Sense of belonging refers to the desire to be accepted and needed by your family, friends and community. It requires the help of others and is regarded as a social value which is selected by women. It is a home and family-oriented value which seems to result in greater dependency. Those who uphold this value tend to be house wives and non-managerial workers, and, while they usually only have high school education, they tend to fall in the middle-income group (Kahle et al, 1988).

A sense of belonging can contribute to a feeling of security or the feeling of being safe and protected from misfortune and attack. Belongingness can thus provide a security base from which a person can experience fun and enjoyment in life and even desire excitement. Warm relationships with others in the form of close companionships and intimate friends can provide one way of satisfying this need for belonging and is also especially found among women.

Belongingness can also provide a person with the basis from which to attain a sense of self-fulfilment and self-respect. Being well respected, or being admired and receiving recognition from others, and the sense of accomplishment can all be related to a sense of

belongingness as it is this which gives a person the security base from which to pursue these other needs.

### **Security:**

A highly significant correlation exists between security and the values fun and enjoyment (0.51), excitement (0.50) warm relationships with others (0.48) and self-respect (0.37). There is a significant correlation between security and the value being well respected (0.28).

Security refers to the desire to be safe and protected from misfortune and attack. It is a deficit value which is endorsed by people who lack economic and psychological security (Kahle et al, 1988). From a basis of security, a person can focus on fun and enjoyment and pursue excitement. Self-respect, being well respected, or receiving admiration and recognition from others, as well as close companionships and intimate friends (warm relationships with others) can all provide a person with a sense of security.

### **Self-Respect:**

There is a highly significant correlation between self-respect and the values sense of accomplishment (0.78), self-fulfilment (0.76) and being well respected (0.64).

Self-respect is the desire to be proud of and confident with oneself (Kahle et al, 1988). This could derive from being admired and receiving recognition from others (being well respected), one's ability to succeed at what one wants to do (sense of accomplishment) and/or from making the best use of their talents and abilities (self-fulfilment). When a person is self-confident, he/she is more likely both to desire to and to lead a pleasurable, happy life (fun and enjoyment in life).

### **Warm Relationships with Others:**

A highly significant relationship exists between warm relationships with others and the values fun and enjoyment (0.65) and excitement (0.46).

The desire for warm relationships with others refers to the wish for close companionships and intimate friends. It is an excess values, endorsed by people, especially women, who have a lot of friends and who are friendly (Kahle et al, 1988). Friends can contribute to one's enjoying a life and having both fun and excitement in daily activities.

### **Fun and Enjoyment:**

Between the value fun and enjoyment and the value excitement (0.71) there is a highly significant correlation.

The value fun and enjoyment in life refers to a desire to lead a pleasurable, happy life and to appreciate life (Kahle et al, 1988). This may be attainable through excitement which can be an aspect of fun and enjoyment.

### **Being Well Respected:**

There is a highly significant correlation between being well respected and the values sense of accomplishment (0.65) and self-fulfilment (0.50).

Being well respected refers to being admired by others and receiving recognition (Kahle et al, 1988). To achieve the admiration and recognition from others many people strive to be successful (sense of accomplishment) and to best use their talents and abilities (self-fulfilment).

**Sense of Accomplishment:**

Sense of accomplishment and self-fulfilment (0.89) are highly significantly correlated.

Sense of accomplishment is the desire to succeed at what one does (Kahle et al, 1988). Self-fulfilment is the value of finding peace of mind and making the best use of your talents. This relationship between these two values can be tentatively explained as people relying on accomplishments and success to achieve a sense of self-fulfilment.

The significant and highly significant correlations which emerged from Table 6.7 have been discussed and tentative explanations have been presented.

**Table 6.8: Intercorrelation between the Achievement Motivation Factors for the Managerial Subjects**

	A	B	C	D	E	AA	BB	PM
A	1.00							
B	0.05	1.00						
C	0.15	0.39**	1.00					
D	0.27*	0.07	0.06	1.00				
E	0.39**	0.23	0.05	0.45**	1.00			
AA	0.26*	0.71**	0.71**	0.21	0.19	1.00		
BB	0.39**	0.20	0.01	0.83**	0.73**	0.35**	1.00	
PM	0.41**	0.52**	0.45**	0.46**	0.40**	0.83**	0.61**	1.00

\* = 0.254 <= P <= 0.330

\*\* = P > 0.330

The meanings of the abbreviations are specified in the key below.

**Key:**

- |                               |                                    |
|-------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| <i>A = Persistence</i>        | <i>E = Personal Causation</i>      |
| <i>B = Awareness of Time</i>  | <i>AA = Goal Directedness</i>      |
| <i>C = Action Orientation</i> | <i>BB = Personal Excellence</i>    |
| <i>D = Aspiration Level</i>   | <i>PM = Achievement Motivation</i> |

## **Findings:**

Table 6.8 reveals a number of highly significant correlations for the managerial subjects which will be discussed here.

### **Persistence:**

There is a highly significant correlation between persistence and the factors achievement motivation (0.41), personal excellence (0.39) and personal causation (0.39). Significant correlations exist between persistence and aspiration level (0.27) and goal directedness (0.26).

Persistence refers to perseverance and tenacity despite adverse circumstances (Pottas et al, 1980). Personal excellence is composed of the two factors, aspiration level and personal causation. Each of these three factors have an element of perseverance within it which serves as an explanation for the significant correlations between persistence and personal causation, aspiration level and personal excellence. Goal directedness should correlate significantly with persistence as persistence is one of the three factors which comprise goal directedness. As persistence is part of goal directedness which is one of the two main factors of which achievement motivation is composed, it is to be expected that achievement motivation would correlate significantly with persistence.

A highly significant correlation exists between awareness of time and the factors goal directedness (0.71), achievement motivation (0.52) and action orientation (0.39).

Awareness of time refers to the tendency to prefer a structured life, to plan and prepare for the future and to always make efficient use of time (Pottas et al, 1980). Action orientation would be expected to correlate significantly with awareness of time as these factors make up two of the three factors of which goal directedness is composed. This

provides an explanation for the relationship between awareness of time and goal directedness. The relationship between achievement motivation and awareness of time can also be understood as the latter is part of goal directedness which is one of the two factors which make up achievement motivation.

### **Action Orientation:**

The factor action orientation correlates highly with the factors goal directedness (0.71) and achievement motivation (0.45).

Action orientation implies action, energy and industriousness, and is used to describe those who utilise time optimally as it is regarded as dynamic and fast-moving, and cannot tolerate idleness (Pottas et al, 1980). Action orientation is one of three factors which comprise goal directedness, and the latter is one of two factors which make up achievement motivation. Thus, one would expect there to be significant correlations between action orientation and the factors goal directedness and achievement motivation respectively.

### **Aspiration Level:**

There is a highly significant correlation between aspiration level and the factors personal excellence (0.83), achievement motivation (0.46) and personal causation (0.45).

Aspiration level refers to the inclination to take on demanding and challenging tasks and calculated risks even though failure may be experienced (Pottas et al, 1980). Aspiration level forms one of the two factors of which personal excellence is comprised which provides a viable explanation for the highly significant relationship between the two factors. Personal causation is the second of the two factors composing personal excellence which provides an understanding of the significant relationship between personal causation and

aspiration level. As aspiration level is part of personal excellence which is one of the two factors of which achievement motivation is made up, it is not unexpected that there is a highly significant relationship between aspiration level and achievement motivation.

### **Personal Causation:**

Highly significant correlations exist between personal causation and the factors personal excellence (0.73) and achievement motivation (0.40).

Personal causation is essentially a trust in one's own abilities and skills together with a conviction that life events and the environment can be controlled (Pottas et al, 1980). It is to be expected that personal excellence correlates highly significantly with personal causation because the latter is one of the two factors of which personal excellence is composed. The fact that achievement motivation correlates with personal causation can be understood because personal causation is part of personal excellence which is one of the two factors of which achievement motivation is comprised.

### **Goal Directedness:**

There is a highly significant correlation between goal directedness and the factors achievement motivation (0.83) and personal excellence (0.35).

Goal directedness refers to resolve to achieve personal goals and to persevere despite adversity through a methodical, action oriented, future-oriented approach where time is effectively utilised (Pottas et al, 1980). Goal directedness and personal excellence together compose achievement motivation. This provides a tentative explanation for the highly significant correlation between goal directedness and both achievement motivation and personal excellence respectively.

### **Personal Excellence:**

Personal excellence and achievement motivation (0.61) are highly significantly correlated.

Personal excellence refers to the formulation of high personal standards together with a reliance on one's own skills to achieve success. Challenges and calculated risks are enjoyed because of the belief that initiative can overcome unfavourable circumstances (Pottas et al, 1980). Personal excellence is one of two factors which compose achievement motivation so it is expected that there should be a highly significant correlation between these two factors.

The significant and highly significant correlations which emerged from Table 6.8 have been discussed and tentative explanations have been presented.

#### **6.2.3. Intercorrelations between the Values for the Non-Managerial Subjects**

The intercorrelations between the values and the achievement motivation factors respectively for the managerial subjects are presented in the following two tables, namely, Table 6.9 and Table 6.10.

**Table 6.9: Intercorrelation between the Values for the Non-Managerial Subjects**

	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7	V8	V9
V1	1.00								
V2	0.42**	1.00							
V3	0.33**	0.43**	1.00						
V4	0.68**	0.36**	0.22	1.00					
V5	0.53**	0.55**	0.38**	0.50**	1.00				
V6	0.58**	0.27*	0.06	0.32*	0.47**	1.00			
V7	0.30*	0.53**	0.21	0.22	0.45**	0.27*	1.00		
V8	0.50**	0.37**	0.45**	0.33**	0.41**	0.60**	0.61**	1.00	
V9	0.44**	0.15	0.20	0.33**	0.58**	0.55**	0.26*	0.30*	1.00

\* = 0.254 ≤ P ≤ 0.330

\*\* = P > 0.330

The meanings of the abbreviations are specified in the key below.

**Key:**

V1 = Sense of Belonging

V6 = Being Well Respected

V2 = Security

V7 = Sense of Accomplishment

V3 = Self-Respect

V8 = Self-Fulfilment

V4 = Warm Relationships with Others

V9 = Excitement

V5 = Fun & Enjoyment

Table 6.9 reveals a number of highly significant and significant correlations for the non-managerial subjects which will be discussed here.

### **Sense of Belonging:**

A highly significant correlation exists between warm relationships with others (0.68), being well respected (0.58), fun and enjoyment (0.53), self-fulfilment (0.50), excitement (0.44), security (0.42) and self-respect (0.33). There is a significant correlation with sense of accomplishment (0.30).

Sense of belonging refers to the desire to be accepted and needed by your family, friends and community. It requires the help of others and is regarded as a social value which is selected by women (Kahle et al, 1988). It is a home and family-oriented value which seems to result in greater dependency. According to Kahle et al (1988), those who uphold this value tend to be house wives and non-managerial workers, and, while they usually only have high school education, they tend to fall in the middle-income group.

Warm relationships with others or close companionships and intimate friends can provide one way of satisfying this need for belonging and is especially found among women. The value being well respected reflects a desire for recognition and admiration from other people and corresponds to the desire for acceptance from people in the form of belongingness needs. From the security of belongingness, a person is more likely to focus on fun and enjoyment in life and to desire excitement. Self-fulfilment, which refers to the wish to find peace of mind and to make the best use of one's talents, can be achieved through relationship or belongingness. A sense of belonging can also provide the feeling of security as it allows one to feel accepted and needed. Self-respect or the desire to be self-confident and proud of oneself, and sense of accomplishment or the desire to succeed can be easier pursued when one works from the basis of belongingness.

**Security:**

The value security correlates highly significantly with fun and enjoyment (0.55), sense of accomplishment (0.53), self-respect (0.43), self-fulfilment (0.37) and warm relationships with others (0.36). There is a significant correlation with the value being well respected (0.27).

Security, the desire to be safe and protected from misfortune and attack, is a deficit value which is endorsed by people who lack economic and psychological security (Kahle et al, 1988). From a basis of security, a person can focus on fun and enjoyment and pursue excitement. A sense of accomplishment can make a person feel secure as can self-fulfilment which is a confidence that one has best utilised one's abilities. Self-respect and being well respected, or receiving admiration and recognition from others can also provide a person with a sense of security. Warm relationships with others in the form of close companionships and intimate friends can also provide a great security.

**Self-Respect:**

Highly significant correlations exist between the self-respect and the values self-fulfilment (0.45) and fun and enjoyment (0.38).

Self-respect is the desire to be proud of oneself and self-confident (Kahle et al, 1988). This respect can derive from doing ones best or making the best use of their talents and abilities (self-fulfilment). From the basis of self-confidence, fun and enjoyment is more likely.

**Warm Relationships with Others:**

There is a highly significant correlation between warm relationships with others and the values fun and enjoyment (0.50), self-fulfilment (0.33) and excitement (0.33). The value being well respected (0.32) is significantly correlated to warm relationships with others.

The desire for warm relationships with others refers to the wish for close companionships and intimate friends. This value is endorsed by people, especially women, who have a lot of friends and who are friendly (Kahle et al, 1988). Friends can contribute to one's enjoying a life and having both fun and excitement in daily activities. One can obtain a sense of self-fulfilment from close friendships and having these warm relationships can lead one to be respected and admired by others.

### **Fun and Enjoyment:**

Fun and Enjoyment, or leading a pleasurable and happy life, correlates highly significantly with the values excitement (0.58), being well respected (0.47), sense of accomplishment (0.45) and self-fulfilment (0.41).

Excitement can be an aspect of fun and enjoyment. Receiving recognition and praise from others (being well respected), achieving something (sense of accomplishment) and utilising ones abilities to the optimum (self-fulfilment), all contribute to and derive from fun and enjoyment in life.

### **Being Well Respected:**

There is a highly significant correlation between being well respected and the values self-fulfilment (0.60) and excitement (0.55), and a significant correlation exists with sense of accomplishment (0.27).

Being well respected is essentially being admired by and receiving recognition from other people (Kahle et al, 1988). One can obtain such recognition through the optimum use of one's talents and abilities (self-fulfilment) as well as by striving to achieve success (sense of accomplishment). Excitement can be derived from and/or contribute to this value.

### **Sense of Accomplishment:**

A highly significant correlation exists between sense of accomplishment and the value self-fulfilment (0.61), and the correlation between sense of accomplishment and excitement (0.26) is also significant.

The accomplishment of a task can cause one to experience a sense of self-fulfilment which is peace of mind achieved through the best use of ones talents (Kahle et al, 1988). Excitement can derive from accomplishment or contribute to its occurrence.

### **Self-Fulfilment:**

Excitement (0.30) correlates significantly with self-fulfilment.

Excitement can lead to one experiences self-fulfilment and it can also stimulate one toward self-fulfilment.

The significant and highly significant correlations which emerged from Table 6.9 have been discussed and tentative explanations have been presented.

**Table 6.10: Intercorrelation between the Achievement Motivation Factors for the Non-Managerial Subjects**

	A	B	C	D	E	AA	BB	PM
A	1.00							
B	0.46**	1.00						
C	0.48**	0.53**	1.00					
D	0.31*	0.23	0.17	1.00				
E	0.63**	0.28*	0.26*	0.36**	1.00			
AA	0.80**	0.76**	0.70**	0.26*	0.48**	1.00		
BB	0.49**	0.26*	0.18	0.81**	0.68**	0.37**	1.00	
PM	0.84**	0.66**	0.59**	0.43**	0.72**	0.89**	0.64**	1.00

\* = 0.254 <= P <= 0.330

\*\* = P > 0.330

The meanings of the abbreviations are specified in the key below.

**Key:**

- A = Persistence*                      *E = Personal Causation*
- B = Awareness of Time*            *AA = Goal Directedness*
- C = Action Orientation*            *BB = Personal Excellence*
- D = Aspiration Level*              *PM = Achievement Motivation*

## **Findings:**

Table 6.10 reveals a number of highly significant correlations which will be discussed here.

### **Persistence:**

Highly significant relationships exist between persistence and the factors achievement motivation (0.84), goal directedness (0.80), personal causation (0.63), personal excellence (0.49), action orientation (0.48) and awareness of time (0.46). There is also a significant correlation between persistence and aspiration level (0.31).

Persistence refers to perseverance and tenacity despite adverse circumstances (Pottas et al, 1980). Goal directedness should correlate significantly with persistence as persistence is one of the three factors which comprise goal directedness. Action orientation and awareness of time are the two other factors which make up goal directedness, a fact which offers a possible explanation for the significant correlation between persistence and these two factors respectively. As persistence is part of goal directedness which is one of the two main factors of which achievement motivation is composed, it is to be expected that achievement motivation would correlate significantly with persistence.

Personal causation refers to the conviction that one can control life events and the environment rather than being a victim of circumstances, and that personal initiative and a motivation to achieve success will lead one to reach the highest point in life. Aspiration level refers to the willingness to take calculated risks and challenges despite the possibility of failure. These are the two factors of which personal excellence is composed. Each of these three factors has an element of perseverance within it which would explain the significant correlations between this factor and the personal causation, aspiration level and personal excellence.

### **Awareness of Time:**

There are highly significant correlations between awareness of time and the factors goal directedness (0.76), achievement motivation (0.66) and action orientation (0.53). Significant correlations exist between personal causation (0.28) and personal excellence (0.26).

Awareness of time refers to the tendency to prefer a structured life, to plan and prepare for the future and to always make efficient use of time (Pottas et al, 1980). As awareness of time is one of the three factors comprising goal directedness, it is understandable that these two factors correlate highly significantly. Action orientation would also be expected to correlate significantly with awareness of time as these factors make up two of the three factors of which goal directedness is composed. The relationship between achievement motivation and awareness of time can also be understood as the latter is part of goal directedness which is one of the two factors which make up achievement motivation.

The highly significant correlation between awareness of time and personal causation can be understood because both factors contain a sense of control over one's life events, the former by structuring one's life and preparing for future events, and the latter by taking personal initiative and not allowing oneself to become a victim of circumstances. Personal causation, which is essentially a trust in one's own abilities and skills together with a conviction that life events and the environment can be controlled, is one of the two factors of which personal excellence is composed. This provides a tentative explanation for the highly significant correlation between awareness of time and personal excellence.

### **Action Orientation:**

Action orientation correlates highly significantly with the factors goal directedness (0.70) and achievement motivation (0.59), and significantly with the factor personal causation (0.26).

Action orientation implies action and energy and is used to describe those who utilise time optimally as it is regarded as dynamic and fast-moving, and cannot tolerate idleness (Pottas et al, 1980). Action orientation is one of three factors which comprise goal directedness, and goal directedness is one of two factors which make up achievement motivation. Thus, one would expect there to be highly significant correlations between action orientation and both goal directedness and achievement motivation. The significant correlation between personal causation and action orientation can be tentatively explained as both factors involve taking action and relying on personal initiative to complete tasks.

#### **Aspiration Level:**

A highly significant correlation exists between aspiration level and personal excellence (0.81), achievement motivation (0.43) and personal causation (0.36), and there is also a significant correlation with goal directedness (0.26).

Aspiration level refers to the inclination to take on demanding and challenging tasks and calculated risks even though failure may be experienced (Pottas et al, 1980). Aspiration level forms one of the two factors of which personal excellence is comprised which provides a potential reason for the highly significant relationship between the two factors. Personal causation is the second of the two factors composing personal excellence which provides an understanding of the significant relationship between personal causation and aspiration level. As aspiration level is part of personal excellence which is one of the two factors of which achievement motivation is made up, it is not unexpected that there is a highly significant relationship between aspiration level and achievement motivation. The

significant relationship between aspiration level and goal directedness can be tentatively explained as both involve an element of goal setting and determination to achieve these goals even although failure may be experienced.

### **Personal Causation:**

Personal causation correlates highly significantly with achievement motivation (0.72), personal excellence (0.68) and goal directedness (0.48).

Personal causation is essentially a trust in one's own abilities and skills together with a conviction that life events and the environment can be controlled (Pottas et al, 1980). It is to be expected that personal excellence correlates highly significantly with personal causation because the latter is one of the two factors of which personal excellence is composed. The fact that achievement motivation correlates with personal causation can be understood because personal causation is part of personal excellence which is one of the two factors of which achievement motivation is comprised. The highly significant correlation between personal causation and goal directedness can be appreciated as both factors focus on achieving something despite the circumstances and possible adversities.

### **Goal Directedness:**

Highly significant correlations exist between goal directedness and the factors achievement motivation (0.89) and personal excellence (0.37).

Goal directedness refers to a resolve to achieve personal goals and to persevere despite adversity through a methodical, action oriented, future-oriented approach where time is effectively utilised (Pottas et al, 1980). Goal directedness and personal excellence together compose achievement motivation which provides a viable explanation for the highly

significant correlation between goal directedness and both achievement motivation and personal excellence respectively.

### **Personal Excellence:**

There is a highly significant correlation between personal excellence and the achievement motivation (0.64).

Personal excellence refers to the formulation of high personal standards together with a reliance on one's own skills to achieve success. Challenges and calculated risks are enjoyed because of the belief that initiative can overcome unfavourable circumstances (Pottas et al, 1980). Personal excellence is one of two factors which compose achievement motivation so it is expected that there should be a highly significant correlation between these two factors.

The significant and highly significant correlations which emerged from Table 6.10 have been discussed and tentative explanations have been presented.

## **6.3. Hypothesis 1 and 2: The Relationship between Managerial and Non-Managerial Subjects, and their Values and Achievement Motivation Respectively**

These hypotheses concern the relationship between managerial and non-managerial subjects and the central constructs in this study, namely, values and achievement motivation factors respectively.

### **6.3.1. Hypothesis 1**

"There is a significant difference between managerial and non-managerial subjects in terms of the respective values, sense of belonging, security, self-respect, warm relationships with

others, fun and enjoyment, being well respected, sense of accomplishment, self-fulfilment and excitement".

**Table 6.11: T-Test of Difference in the Values between Managerial and Non-Managerial Subjects**

Values	T- Ratio	P
Sense of Belonging	-0.314	0.754
Security	0.032	0.974
Self-Respect	0.480	0.633
Warm Relationships with Others	0.994	0.322
Fun and Enjoyment	0.910	0.365
Being Well Respected	0.136	0.892
Sense of Accomplishment	-0.590	0.557
Self-Fulfilment	-1.299	0.197
Excitement	-0.045	0.965

### Findings

Table 6.11 reveals that at the 0.05 level of significance, there is no significant difference between the values of the managerial and non-managerial subjects. This implies that there are no differences between managerial and non-managerial subjects in terms of their values.

The findings obtained differ from the research on this subject when considering managerial and non-managerial employees generally. A study by Flores and Catalanello (1987) found significant differences between the values of managerial and non-managerial employees, and this finding was supported in a different study by DeLeon (1994). Studies by Brenner (1988) and Shapira and Griffith (1990) confirm that differences exist between managerial and non-managerial employees in terms of values. When considering managerial and non-managerial women, the results are consistent with the research except for the factor sense of accomplishment. According to Clutterbuck and Devine (1987), managerial and non-managerial women's values are similar to each other except for the value achievement motivation or sense of accomplishment.

Maslovaty and Dor-Shav (1990) found that managerial women have maintained their traditional female values such as relationships with others and sense of belonging, and have incorporated the achievement value, known as a traditionally "male" value, into their value systems. Studies by Regan et al (1982) and Fiorentine (1988) found that managerial women had greatly increased in their aspiration and their desire for achievement and accomplishment (quoted in Fiorentine, 1988). According to Gaskill (1991), managerial women value factors relating to personal ambition more than non-managerial women. Smith and Smits (1994) found that the values of managerial women were more similar to those of males than were non-managerial women.

According to Regan et al (1982), this is due to an amalgamation, and not a masculinisation, of the feminine values by managerial women (quoted in Fiorentine, 1988). It is possible that the difference between the current findings and the research is due to the small size of the sample group. Thus, there are a number of possible ways of accounting for the findings in this investigation.

### 6.3.2. Hypothesis 2

"There is a significant difference between managerial and non-managerial subjects in terms of the respective achievement motivation factors, namely, achievement motivation, goal directedness, persistence, awareness of time, action orientation, personal excellence, aspiration level and personal causation."

**Table 6.12: T-Test of Difference in the Achievement Motivation Factors between Managerial and Non-Managerial Subjects**

<b>Achievement Motivation Factors</b>	<b>T -Ratio</b>	<b>P</b>
Persistence	-0.963	0.338
Awareness of Time	-0.118	0.906
Action Orientation	-0.082	0.935
Aspiration Level	-2.330	*0.022
Personal Causation	-0.253	0.801
Goal Directedness	-1.190	0.237
Personal Excellence	-1.464	0.146
Achievement Motivation	-1.678	0.096

\* = P < 0.05

## Findings

Table 6.12 reveals that at the 0.05 level of significance, there is a significant difference between the managerial and non-managerial subjects on the achievement motivation factor aspiration level. At the same level of significance, there is no significant difference between the two groups on any of the other achievement motivation factors.

A consideration of the literature indicates that the findings obtained are not consistent with the research when considering managerial and non-managerial employees generally, nor when focusing on managerial and non-managerial women specifically. The finding that there is a significant difference between the two groups of women in terms of aspiration level, however, does correspond to the literature.

The results of a study by Northcutt (1991) revealed that there are differences in achievement motivation between managerial and non-managerial employees. This was confirmed by a number of other studies which found that managers are achievement motivated (Parker, 1994; Boldy et al, 1993; and Bhargava, 1993), while non-managerial employees have lower levels of achievement motivation (Koziara et al, 1987), lack ambition and competitiveness (Valli, 1986) and have lower levels of innovation and personal control (Stimpson et al, 1993).

When considering managerial and non-managerial women, the literature also indicates that there are differences in achievement motivation between the two groups. Erwee (1987) found that managerial women are more achievement motivated than non-managerial women. This was confirmed by Stimpson et al (1993), who found that female managers more achievement orientated and innovated than non-managerial female employees, and Lobel et al (1993), who found that career and non-career women differ significantly in terms of achievement motivation. According to Northcutt (1991), managerial women differ

to non-managerial women as they have more determination, perseverance and direction for pursuit than their counterparts. Slade and Rush (1991), Jenkins (1987) and Maslovaty and Dor-Shav (1990) state that there has been an enormous increase in achievement motivation among women in recent years and Northcutt (1991) found that managerial women have a more similar level of achievement motivation to males than to the traditional female. This was confirmed in studies by Slade and Rush (1991), Erwee (1981) and Erwee (1987). Clearly these findings are inconsistent with the current finding that there are no differences between managerial and non-managerial female employees.

The finding that aspiration level is significantly different between the managerial and non-managerial groups is confirmed by Fiorentine (1988) who found that managerial women had greatly increased in their aspiration and their desire for achievement and accomplishment and by Maslovaty and Dor-Shav (1990) who state that there has been a dramatic increase in recent years in the aspiration and achievement motivation of certain women to managerial positions. It is possible that the finding that the managerial and non-managerial subjects differ on aspiration is due to this reason.

#### **6.4. Hypothesis 3 and 4: The Relationship between Values and Achievement Motivation for the Managerial and Non-Managerial Subjects Respectively.**

These hypotheses concern the relationship between values and achievement motivation for the managerial and non-managerial subjects respectively.

##### **6.4.1. Hypothesis 3**

"There is a significant relationship between the values, namely, sense of belonging, security, self-respect, warm relationships with others, fun and enjoyment, being well

respected, sense of accomplishment, self-fulfilment and excitement, and the achievement motivation factors, namely, achievement motivation, goal directedness, persistence, awareness of time, action orientation, personal excellence, aspiration level and personal causation, for the managerial subjects. "

**Table 6.13: Correlation between Values and Achievement Motivation Factors for the Managerial Subjects**

	<b>V1</b>	<b>V2</b>	<b>V3</b>	<b>V4</b>	<b>V5</b>	<b>V6</b>	<b>V7</b>	<b>V8</b>	<b>V9</b>
A	0.16	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.06	0.02	0.02	0.11
B	0.01	0.02	0.05	0.09	0.04	0.23	0.01	0.08	0.08
C	0.13	0.05	0.06	0.07	0.19	0.02	0.05	0.09	0.09
D	0.09	0.19	0.07	0.01	0.09	0.22	0.14	0.07	0.16
E	0.16	0.08	0.10	0.13	0.07	0.03	0.00	0.17	0.16
AA	0.13	0.21	0.08	0.21	0.26	0.22	0.11	0.02	0.17
BB	0.04	0.15	0.06	0.04	0.04	0.28	0.18	0.04	0.06
PM	0.08	0.21	0.06	0.13	0.20	0.19	0.11	0.01	0.12

*italic* = 0.254 ≤ P ≤ 0.330

**bold** = P > 0.330

The meanings of the abbreviations are specified in the key below.

## Key:

<i>V1 = Sense of Belonging</i>	<i>V6 = Being Well Respected</i>
<i>V2 = Security</i>	<i>V7 = Sense of Accomplishment</i>
<i>V3 = Self-Respect</i>	<i>V8 = Self-Fulfilment</i>
<i>V4 = Warm Relationships with Others</i>	<i>V9 = Excitement</i>
<i>V5 = Fun &amp; Enjoyment</i>	
<i>A = Persistence</i>	<i>E = Personal Causation</i>
<i>B = Awareness of Time</i>	<i>AA = Goal Directedness</i>
<i>C = Action Orientation</i>	<i>BB = Personal Excellence</i>
<i>D = Aspiration Level</i>	<i>PM = Achievement Motivation</i>

## Findings:

Table 6.13 reveals that at the 0.254 level of significance, there are two significant correlations between the values and the achievement motivation factors for the managerial subjects. These significant correlations are between the value fun and enjoyment and the achievement motivation factor goal directedness (0.26), and between the value being well respected and the achievement motivation factor personal excellence (0.28). Besides these, there are no significant correlations between the values and the achievement motivation factors for the managerial subjects.

The value fun and enjoyment refers to the desire to lead a pleasurable, happy life and is supported by those who appreciate and enjoy life (Kahle et al, 1988). Goal-directedness refers to a determination to achieve personal goals, to persevere despite adversity, to be methodical and future-orientated, to effectively utilise time and to be industrious and action oriented (Pottas et al, 1980). It is suggested that through goal-directedness managerial women can realise personal satisfaction and enjoy life.

The relationship between being well respected and personal excellence can be tentatively accounted for as follows. Being well respected refers to being admired by others and receiving recognition. Personal excellence is essentially the formulation of high personal standards of excellence and the reliance on one's own skills, abilities and initiative to achieve success despite the presence of challenges, risks and unfavourable circumstances (Kahle et al, 1988). It is possible that managerial women may be well respected because they have personal excellence. They may also seek recognition and respect from others through personal excellence.

#### **6.4.2. Hypothesis 4**

"There is a significant relationship between the values, namely, sense of belonging, security, self-respect, warm relationships with others, fun and enjoyment, being well respected, sense of accomplishment, self-fulfilment and excitement, and the achievement motivation factors, namely, achievement motivation, goal directedness, persistence, awareness of time, action orientation, personal excellence, aspiration level and personal causation for the non-managerial subjects."

**Table 6.14: Correlation between Values and Achievement Motivation Factors for the Non-Managerial Subjects**

	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7	V8	V9
A	0.08	0.25	0.16	<i>0.27</i>	0.00	0.05	0.10	0.09	0.07
B	0.18	0.21	0.14	<b>0.35</b>	0.08	0.03	0.09	0.16	0.06
C	<b>0.35</b>	0.15	0.04	<b>0.34</b>	0.00	0.18	0.06	0.03	0.09
D	0.05	0.05	0.00	<i>0.17</i>	0.08	0.01	0.20	0.11	0.12
E	0.01	<b>0.41</b>	0.13	0.10	0.19	0.00	<b>0.37</b>	0.20	0.10
AA	0.15	0.12	0.10	<b>0.35</b>	0.05	0.00	0.04	0.05	0.05
BB	0.07	0.08	0.03	0.12	0.06	0.04	<i>0.30</i>	0.17	0.24
PM	0.08	0.22	0.08	<i>0.28</i>	0.01	0.07	0.18	0.09	0.01

*italic* = 0.254 ≤ P ≤ 0.330

**bold** = P > 0.330

The meanings of the abbreviations are specified in the key below.

## Key:

<i>V1 = Sense of Belonging</i>	<i>V6 = Being Well Respected</i>
<i>V2 = Security</i>	<i>V7 = Sense of Accomplishment</i>
<i>V3 = Self-Respect</i>	<i>V8 = Self-Fulfilment</i>
<i>V4 = Warm Relationships with Others</i>	<i>V9 = Excitement</i>
<i>V5 = Fun &amp; Enjoyment</i>	

<i>A = Persistence</i>	<i>E = Personal Causation</i>
<i>B = Awareness of Time</i>	<i>AA = Goal Directedness</i>
<i>C = Action Orientation</i>	<i>BB = Personal Excellence</i>
<i>D = Aspiration Level</i>	<i>PM = Achievement Motivation</i>

## Findings:

Table 6.14 reveals a number of significant and highly significant correlations between the values and the achievement motivation factors for the non-managerial subjects. A highly significant correlation exists between the value sense of belonging and action orientation (0.35); between the value self-respect and personal causation (0.41), and between the value warm relationships with others and the achievement motivation factors awareness of time (0.35), goal-directedness (0.35) and action orientation (0.34). There are also significant correlations between warm relationships with others and achievement motivation (0.28) and persistence (0.27) respectively. Sense of accomplishment correlates highly significantly with personal causation (0.37) and significantly with personal excellence (0.30).

Sense of belonging refers to the desire to be accepted and needed by your family, friends and community (Kahle et al, 1988). Action orientation is essentially activity, energy and the optimal utilisation of time (Pottas et al, 1980). It is difficult to offer an explanation for the relationship between these two factors except that a person could engage in energetic

activity and full her time in order to attain a sense of acceptance from the people with whom she interacts.

The highly significant relationship between self-respect, the desire to be self-confident and proud of oneself, and personal causation or the trust in one's own abilities, skills and initiative together with a sense of control over life events and circumstances will be considered here. Personal causation includes the belief that one's actions are usually correct and that one is able to execute a task optimally which leads one to be achievement motivated rather than motivated to avoid failure. This suggests that a person who has personal causation is more likely to be a self-confident person who has self-respect.

Non-managerial women have been found to be passive and dependent (Fenn, 1978), lacking in self-confidence and decisiveness (Haynes, 1989) and conforming and lacking in assertiveness (Kozlarski et al, 1987). These findings suggest that non-managerial women do not have a strong internal locus of control or a sense of control over their life. A possible explanation for the significant correlation is that because these women are lacking in personal causation, they also experience a lack of self-respect.

Warm relationships with others is a desire to have close companionships and intimate friends (Kahle et al, 1988). As the factor goal directedness is essentially composed of persistence or the intention to achieve and perseverance with goal attainment despite adversity, awareness of time or future orientation and effective time utilisation, as well as action orientation or the tendency to be industrious and action oriented, it makes sense to discuss the relationship between warm relationships with others and this composite factor.

A possible way of understanding the connection between these factors is that the security which one gains from warm relationships with others may provide the basis from which to aspire to goal directedness. Achievement motivation is comprised of two factors one of which is goal directedness. If goal directedness correlates significantly with warm

relationships with others, one would anticipate that achievement motivation would also be significant.

Sense of accomplishment refers to the desire to succeed at what one does (Kahle et al, 1988). It is to be expected that if sense of accomplishment correlates significantly with personal causation, it should also correlate significantly with personal excellence as the latter is comprised of only two factors, one of them being personal causation. Personal causation refers to the trust in one's own abilities, skills and initiative, a sense of control over life events and circumstances as well as the belief that one's actions are usually correct and that one is able to execute a task optimally which leads one to be achievement motivated rather than motivated to avoid failure (Pottas et al, 1980). The fact that the factors sense of accomplishment and personal causation are very similar in nature provides a plausible account for their highly significant correlation.

### **6.5. Hypothesis 5 and 6: The Relationship between Biographical Variables and Values for the Managerial and Non-Managerial Subjects Respectively**

These hypotheses are concerned with the relationship between the biographical variables, namely, age, marital status, ethnic group, education and income respectively, and a central construct of this study, namely, values, for the managerial and the non-managerial subjects respectively.

#### **6.5.1. Hypothesis 5**

"There is a significant relationship between the biographical variables, age, marital status, ethnic group, education and income, and the values of the managerial subjects."

**Table 6.15: Analysis of Variance of Age, Marital Status, Ethnic Group, Education and Income, and the Values for the Managerial Subjects**

	1		2		3		4		5	
	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P
V1	0.15	0.93	0.57	0.57	0.79	0.51	1.17	0.34	0.403	0.67
V2	0.40	0.75	2.17	0.12	0.27	0.85	0.37	0.87	0.89	0.42
V3	0.41	0.75	0.76	0.47	0.26	0.85	2.97	<i>0.02</i>	0.47	0.63
V4	0.88	0.46	0.56	0.58	0.91	0.44	0.63	0.68	1.01	0.37
V5	0.58	0.63	2.54	0.09	0.76	0.52	0.53	0.76	1.26	0.29
V6	0.75	0.53	0.19	0.83	1.31	0.28	3.04	<i>0.02</i>	0.89	0.42
V7	0.54	0.66	0.36	0.70	0.17	0.92	5.78	<b>0.00</b>	0.26	0.78
V8	0.74	0.53	0.21	0.80	0.18	0.91	2.68	<i>0.03</i>	0.34	0.72
V9	0.56	0.64	0.44	0.65	1.75	0.17	1.33	0.27	0.83	0.44

*italic* = P < 0.05

**bold** = P < 0.01

## **Key:**

*1 = Age*

*2 = Marital Status*

*3 = Ethnic Group*

*4 = Education*

*5 = Income*

*V1 = Sense of Belonging*

*V6 = Being Well Respected*

*V2 = Security*

*V7 = Sense of Accomplishment*

*V3 = Self-Respect*

*V8 = Self-Fulfilment*

*V4 = Warm Relationships with Others*

*V9 = Excitement*

*V5 = Fun & Enjoyment*

## **Findings**

Table 6.15 reveals a number of significant and highly significant relationships for the managerial subjects. These will be discussed here.

### **Age:**

At the 0.05 level of significance, there are no significant relationships between age and the values for the managerial subjects.

### **Marital Status:**

At the 0.05 level of significance, there are no significant relationships between marital status and the values for the managerial subjects.

**Ethnic Group:**

At the 0.05 level of significance, there are no significant relationships between ethnic group and the values for the managerial subjects.

**Education:**

At the 0.05 level of significance, there is a significant relationship between education and the values self-respect (0.02), being well respected (0.02) and self-fulfilment (0.03) for the managerial subjects. At the 0.01 level of significance, there is a significant relationship between education and the value sense of accomplishment (0.00).

Self-respect is being proud of oneself and having self-confidence, being well respected refers to being admired and receiving recognition from others, and self-fulfilment is finding peace of mind through making the best use of one's abilities (Kahle et al, 1988). Kahle et al (1988) found that the value self-fulfilment tends to be endorsed by people who

are self-confident and are relatively well fulfilled economically, educationally and emotionally. Sense of accomplishment is the desire to succeed at what one does and tends to be endorsed by well-educated managers and professional who have accomplished allot, have good jobs and high incomes (Kahle et al, 1988).

It is tentatively suggested that managerial women may use education to attain self-respect, respect from others, self-fulfilment and a sense of accomplishment. This idea seems to be supported by Maslovaty and Dor-Shav (1990) who found that managerial women have a great aspiration to educational attainment such as graduate degrees to attain professional and executive occupations of the highest status. This could satisfy their desire for the

respect of others as well as the need for self-respect, self-fulfilment and a sense of accomplishment. Studies by Fiorentine (1988) lend support to this idea.

**Income:**

At the 0.05 level of significance, there are no significant relationships between income and the values for the managerial subjects.

**6.5.2. Hypothesis 6**

"There is a significant relationship between the biographical variables, age, marital status, ethnic group, education and income, and the values of the non-managerial subjects."

**Table 6.16: Analysis of Variance of Age, Marital Status, Ethnic Group, Education and Income, and the Values for the Non-Managerial Subjects**

	<b>1</b>		<b>2</b>		<b>3</b>		<b>4</b>		<b>5</b>	
	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P
V1	0.88	0.46	0.32	0.81	0.83	0.48	1.32	0.28	3.28	<i>0.02</i>
V2	0.48	0.70	0.24	0.87	8.26	<b>0.00</b>	7.15	<b>0.00</b>	1.73	0.16
V3	0.06	0.98	2.03	0.12	1.35	0.27	12.4	<b>0.00</b>	0.48	0.75
V4	<i>01.90</i>	0.15	0.54	0.66	0.89	0.45	<i>0.03</i>	0.99	5.35	<b>0.00</b>
V5	1.96	0.13	0.47	0.70	2.18	0.10	1.66	0.19	0.62	0.65
V6	1.90	0.14	0.54	0.66	1.02	0.39	3.43	<i>0.02</i>	1.76	0.15
V7	<i>0.02</i>	1.00	0.18	0.91	34.24	<b>0.00</b>	0.34	0.80	2.97	0.03
V8	1.09	0.36	0.48	0.70	3.32	<i>0.03</i>	0.27	0.85	3.81	<b>0.01</b>
V9	2.25	0.09	1.06	0.37	1.46	0.23	5.07	<b>0.00</b>	1.67	0.17

*italic* = P ≤ 0.05

**bold** = P ≤ 0.01

## **Key:**

*1 = Age*

*2 = Marital Status*

*3 = Ethnic Group*

*4 = Education*

*5 = Income*

*V1 = Sense of Belonging*

*V6 = Being Well Respected*

*V2 = Security*

*V7 = Sense of Accomplishment*

*V3 = Self-Respect*

*V8 = Self-Fulfilment*

*V4 = Warm Relationships with Others*

*V9 = Excitement*

*V5 = Fun & Enjoyment*

## **Findings**

Table 6.16 reveals a number of significant and highly significant relationships for the non-managerial subjects which will be discussed here.

### **Age:**

At the 0.05 level of significance, there is a significant relationship between the biographical variable age and the value sense of accomplishment (0.02).

It is not possible to comment on the relationship between age and sense of accomplishment because there is no indication concerning the age group into which the women in this group fall.

### **Marital Status:**

At the 0.05 level of significance, there are no significant relationships between marital status and the values for the non-managerial subjects.

**Ethnic Group:**

Ethnic group has a significant relationship with the value, self-fulfilment (0.03) at the 0.05 level of significance, and with the values security (0.00) and sense of accomplishment (0.00) at the 0.01 level of significance.

The fact that there are significant relationships between ethnic group and self-fulfilment, security and sense of accomplishment is interesting to consider within the South African context where ethnic group differentiation has been so prevalent. Membership of certain ethnic groups has provided a sense of security from which self-fulfilment and a sense of accomplishment may ensue. For those who belong to non-privileged ethnic group, that is the Blacks, Asians and Coloureds, insecurity, lack of self-fulfilment and a sense of accomplishment has often been regarded as normality. It is also necessary to consider that different ethnic groups have different cultures which allow varying degrees of security, self-fulfilment and a sense of accomplishment to women.

**Education:**

There is also a significant relationship between education and being well respected (0.02) at the 0.05 level of significance, and between education and security (0.00), self-respect (0.00) and excitement (0.00).

The relationship between education and the values security, self-respect, sense of accomplishment, being well respected and self-fulfilment can be tentatively explained as non-managerial women seeking to satisfy these values through educational attainment.

**Income:**

Another significant relationship exists between the variable income and the values, sense of belonging (0.02) and sense of accomplishment (0.03) at the 0.05 level of significance, and between income and sense of belonging (0.00) and self-fulfilment (0.01) at the 0.01 level of significance.

In terms of income, non-managerial women tend to have lower incomes than their managerial counterparts. This may lead them to focus on warm relationships with others and a sense of belonging and to find their sense of accomplishment and self-fulfilment in the area of belongingness and relationship in order to counteract the lack in the area of income. These explanations are all tentative and cannot be assumed to be fact.

**6.6: Hypothesis 7 and 8: The Relationship between Biographical Variables and Achievement Motivation for the Managerial and Non-Managerial****Subjects Respectively**

These hypotheses are concerned with the relationship between the biographical variables, namely, age, marital status, ethnic group, education and income respectively, and a central construct of this study, namely, achievement motivation factors for the managerial and non-managerial subjects respectively.

**6.6.1 Hypothesis 7**

"There is a significant relationship between the biographical variables, namely, age, marital status, ethnic group, education and income, and the achievement motivation factors for the managerial subjects."

**Table 6.17: Analysis of Variance of Age, Marital Status, Ethnic Group, Education and Income, and the Achievement Motivation Factors for the Managerial Subjects**

	1		2		3		4		5	
	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P
A	0.12	0.95	2.43	0.10	0.61	0.61	2.22	0.07	0.62	0.54
B	0.67	0.57	1.20	0.82	0.59	0.63	0.79	0.56	0.51	0.61
C	0.39	0.76	1.15	0.32	0.37	0.78	1.39	0.25	0.73	0.49
D	2.06	0.12	1.91	0.16	0.25	0.86	0.83	0.53	0.44	0.65
E	2.75	<i>0.05</i>	1.18	0.32	0.20	0.90	1.62	0.17	0.23	0.80
AA	0.15	0.93	0.92	0.40	0.54	0.66	0.33	0.89	0.33	0.72
BB	2.85	<i>0.05</i>	1.24	0.30	0.20	0.90	1.72	0.15	0.14	0.87
PM	0.05	0.99	1.95	0.15	0.21	0.89	0.20	0.96	0.66	0.52

*italic* = P ≤ 0.05

**bold** = P ≤ 0.01

## Key:

1 = Age

2 = Marital Status

3 = Ethnic Group

4 = Education

5 = Income

V1 = Sense of Belonging

V6 = Being Well Respected

V2 = Security

V7 = Sense of Accomplishment

V3 = Self-Respect

V8 = Self-Fulfilment

V4 = Warm Relationships with Others V9 = Excitement

V5 = Fun & Enjoyment

## Findings

Table 6.17 reveals only two significant relationships at the 0.05 level of significance, between the biographical variable, age, and the achievement motivation factors personal excellence (0.05), and personal causation (0.05) respectively. There are no other significant relationships between the biographical variables and the achievement motivation factors.

It is not possible to comment on the relationship between age and either personal excellence or personal causation because there is no indication concerning the age group into which the women in this group fall.

### 6.6.2. Hypothesis 8

"There is a significant relationship between the biographical variables, age, marital status, ethnic group, education and income, and the achievement motivation factors of the non-managerial subjects."

**Table 6.18: Analysis of Variance of Age, Marital Status, Ethnic Group, Education and Income, and the Achievement Motivation Factors for the Non-Managerial Subjects**

	1		2		3		4		5	
	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P
A	0.61	0.61	2.64	0.06	2.90	<i>0.04</i>	3.72	<i>0.02</i>	0.40	0.81
B	0.99	0.41	1.77	0.26	0.37	0.77	1.65	0.19	1.67	0.17
C	0.58	0.63	0.80	0.50	0.12	0.95	0.84	0.48	1.18	0.33
D	2.31	0.09	0.44	0.72	2.04	0.12	1.54	0.21	2.77	<i>0.04</i>
E	1.46	0.24	0.75	0.53	6.10	<b>0.00</b>	0.82	0.49	0.91	0.46
AA	0.55	0.65	1.73	0.17	0.30	0.83	2.10	0.11	0.93	0.45
BB	2.17	0.10	0.08	0.97	3.25	<i>0.03</i>	2.08	0.11	1.03	0.40
PM	1.65	0.19	0.90	0.45	2.36	0.08	1.47	0.23	0.66	0.63

*italic* = P ≤ 0.05

**bold** = P ≤ 0.01

## **Key:**

*1 = Age*

*2 = Marital Status*

*3 = Ethnic Group*

*4 = Education*

*5 = Income*

*V1 = Sense of Belonging*

*V6 = Being Well Respected*

*V2 = Security*

*V7 = Sense of Accomplishment*

*V3 = Self-Respect*

*V8 = Self-Fulfilment*

*V4 = Warm Relationships with Others V9 = Excitement*

*V5 = Fun & Enjoyment*

## **Findings**

Table 6.18 reveals a number of significant and highly significant relationships which will be discussed here.

### **Age:**

At the 0.05 level of significance, there are no significant relationships between age and values for the non-managerial subjects.

### **Marital Status:**

At the 0.05 level of significance, there are no significant relationships between age and the value factors for the non-managerial subjects. However, the relationship between marital status and persistence approaches significance (0.06).

### **Ethnic Group:**

At the 0.05 level of significance, there is a significant relationship between ethnic group and the achievement motivation factors persistence (0.04) and personal excellence (0.03), and between ethnic group and personal causation (0.00) at the 0.01 level of significance.

There is a highly significant relationship between ethnic group and personal causation which is essentially a trust in one's own abilities and skills, and a conviction that control can be exerted over life events and the environment. People high on personal causation do not see themselves as victims of circumstances, and they tend to believe that their actions are usually correct and that they have the ability for the task at hand. These people desire to reach the highest point in life and are thus characterised by a motivation to achieve and not to avoid failure (Pottas et al, 1980).

Personal excellence, which refers to a tendency to formulate high personal standards and to believe that success depends on one's skills and abilities rather than luck or mere effort, is also significantly related to ethnic group and is composed of the achievement motivation factors, personal causation and aspiration level (Pottas et al, 1980). Ethnic group, both in terms of the cultural differences between groups and the South African Apartheid-based legislative distinctions, can affect a person's sense of control over his/her life or personal causation. In terms of cultural differences, the cultures of certain ethnic groups allow varying degrees of personal causation. In terms of Apartheid-based ethnic groups, the privileged group, Whites, could exercise personal causation, while others, the Blacks, Asians and Coloureds, were subject to external governmental control.

According to Stimpson et al (1993), non-managerial women have a lower level of personal control. Lobel et al (1993) states that they are more dependent, have lower emotional stability and lower self-esteem. Koziara et al (1987) confirms that these women

have a high level of conformity to group pressures and lower assertiveness, and Erwee (1990) found that non-managerial women are dependent. From this it can be very tentatively surmised that of the non-managerial group of women, the non-White group have lower levels of personal causation and personal excellence than do the White group. Where there is a lack of personal control, persistence which is the tendency to persevere despite setbacks and/or adverse circumstances is less likely.

### **Education:**

A significant relationship exists between education and persistence (0.02) at the 0.05 level of significance.

Education is significantly related to persistence, the tendency to persevere despite setbacks and/or adverse circumstances. According to Maslovaty and Dor-Shav (1990), non-managerial women do not regard education as important as and are not as qualified as managerial women. Lobel et al (1993) found that non-managerial women have lower emotional stability and self-esteem, and, according to Erwee (1990), they are dependent. Haynes (1989) found that these women tend to have a low self-image, lack self-confidence and decisiveness and tend to feel inferior. These personality characteristics do not describe a person who is likely to persist at a task. Perhaps a lack of persistence and a lack of value in education could offer some explanation for the relationship between the two variables.

### **Income:**

There is a significant relationship between income and aspiration level (0.04) at the 0.05 level of significance.

Income and aspiration level, or the inclination to take on demanding, challenging tasks and calculated risks despite the possibility of failure, may be related in the sense that the low income levels of non-managerial women may lead one to aspire to something better. However, Valli (1986) found that these women tend to lack ambition which was confirmed by Sutherland and Veroff (1985) who found that they do not have a strong need for achievement. Haynes (1989) found that non-managerial women are not risk-takers and tend to lack self-confidence and decisiveness. Perhaps the relationship between income and aspiration level is that low income levels quench the aspiration of non-managerial women.

## **6.7. Conclusion**

The results of the statistical methods used to test the hypotheses of the current study have been presented and discussed in this chapter. These results provide the necessary information for the interpretation of the research findings.

The means and standard deviations have been calculated to determine the levels of the values and achievement motivation factors for the managerial and non-managerial female subjects. Pearson's  $r$  correlation coefficient has been computed to establish the intercorrelations within each of the constructs for the managerial and non-managerial groups respectively. It has also been utilised to ascertain the correlations between the constructs within the respective groups.

The t-test was used to determine whether a difference exists between managerial and non-managerial subjects on the main constructs of the study, namely, values and achievement motivation. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was utilised to establish whether a relationship exists between the biographical variables, age, marital status, ethnic group, education and income, and the values and the achievement motivation factors for the two subject groups respectively.

The current research findings must be considered in relation to contemporary studies in the field in order to enhance the value and application of the research results. Meaningful and useful decisions can only be made provided current research findings and the findings of similar studies are integrated to provide a background in terms of which the results can be assessed.

## **CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **Introduction**

This chapter is concerned with the conclusion of the current research project. Firstly, a brief summary of the study will be set out, and then the recommendations for future investigations of a similar nature will be presented.

### **7.1. Summary**

The principle objective of this investigation was to compare the values and the achievement motivation or need for achievement of management and non-managerial female employees in the banking industry in South Africa. This research investigation was primarily aimed at determining whether there is a difference between these two groups in terms of their values and their achievement motivation and, if there is such a difference, whether this is a key to an understanding of upward mobility in women.

The results of the study reveal that there are a number of significant relationships between the values for the total sample, the managerial and the non-managerial subject group, and between the achievement motivation factors for each of these three groups. No significant differences were found between the managerial and the non-managerial groups in terms of their values, but when considering their achievement motivation, a significant difference emerged in terms of aspiration level. There were a number of significant relationships between the values and the achievement motivation factors for both the managerial and the non-managerial subjects. Finally, significant relationships were found between a number of the biographical variables and the values both of the managerial and the non-managerial groups, and between the biographical variables and the achievement

motivation both of the managerial and the non-managerial groups. Various tentative explanations for these findings were set out in the previous chapter.

## **7.2. Recommendations**

A number of recommendations emerge from the current investigation. Firstly, some method should be employed in order to carry out this study on illiterates and non-English-speaking subjects or to include them in such a study. Another suggestion concerns the fact that this study should be conducted on males and larger proportions of different ethnic groups within South Africa, namely, Blacks, Asians and Coloureds. A final recommendation is that a larger sample group of subjects should be used as this will ensure greater representativeness of the sample to the population under study, and hence greater generalisability.

## **7.3. Conclusion**

A conclusion to the current research project has been presented in the above discussion. Firstly, a summary of the focus and content of the study was set out, and then the recommendations for future studies on this topic have been presented.

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