

How managers describe themselves in a job context

D.J.W. Strümpfer

Graduate School of Business Administration, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg

By means of self-report inventories, 163 White, male, English-speaking managers described their subjective experiences of job demands and their views of themselves as working people. The mean scores on the Jenkins Activity Survey (measuring Type A – B behaviour) were well above the means of high-scoring American samples. A factor analysis of all scores revealed four interpretable factors. 'Hard Managerial Work' reflected a heavy work load, long hours worked, high utilization of abilities, high participation, and Type A behaviour, with emphasis on hard-driving competitiveness, and role clarity — but all of these experienced rather positively. Another positive factor, 'Individualistic Dedication', reflected high job involvement, full utilization of abilities and low role conflict — more as a matter of personal participation than of reaction to demands. 'Subjective Distress' reflected exhaustion, role conflict, absence of friendliness, joylessness and Type A behaviour, with an emphasis on the rushed aspect of speed and impatience. The second negative factor, 'Vulnerability', reflected high levels of social support from superiors and co-workers, need for role clarity, joylessness, and low personality hardness.

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Een honderd en drie-en-sestig blanke, manlike, Engelsprekende bestuurders het, met behulp van self-beskrywende vraelyste, hul subjektiewe belewings van werkseise en hul sienings omtrent hulself as werkende mense beskryf. Die gemiddelde tellings op die 'Jenkins Activity Survey' (maatstaf van Tipe-A-gedrag) was ver bo die gemiddeldes van Amerikaanse groepe wat hoë tellings behaal het. 'n Faktorentleding het vier interpreteerbare faktore opgelewer. 'Harde Bestuurswerk' het hoë werkslading, lang ure van werk, hoë benutting van bekwaamhede, hoë deelname, rolhelderheid en Tipe-A-gedrag, met die klem op voortgedrewe mededingendheid, weerspieël — maar almal hiervan betreklik positief beleef. 'n Ander positiewe faktor, 'Individualistiese Toegewydheid,' het hoë werksbetrokkenheid, volle benutting van bekwaamhede en lae rolkonflik weerspieël — meer as 'n saak van persoonlike deelneming as van reaksie op eise. 'Subjektiewe Nood' het uitputting, rolkonflik, gebrek aan vriendelikheid, vreugdeloosheid en Tipe-A-gedrag, met die klem op die gejaagde aspek van spoed en ongeduld, weergegee. Die tweede negatiewe faktor, 'Kwesbaarheid,' het 'n hoë mate van sosiale ondersteuning deur meerderes en medewerkers, behoefte aan rolphelderheid, vreugdeloosheid en lae gehardheid van persoonlikheid weerspieël.

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Introduction

Probably the most commonly used description of the contents of managerial work is the classical distinction between planning, organizing and controlling. Planning relates to activities like the setting of objectives and development of policies, decision-making, and allocation of work to individuals and functional units. Organizing flows from planning, since functions have to be allocated to carefully identified units, with the necessary arrangement of these with respect to each other. Controlling refers to authority to advise and command, responsibility for duties, and accountability to those in higher positions of authority.

Actually this is an abbreviation of the list which Fayol made in 1916,¹ which also included the concepts of coordinating and commanding. Other authors have added activities like staffing, directing, reporting, motivating and budgeting.

Descriptions like the above were usually based on arm-chair analyses. More recently researchers have tried to study the daily activities of managers by analysing their diaries, their mail, other communications and other documents, and by observing them at work. The best-known example of this approach was the work of Mintzbergh¹ who developed a list of ten working roles of a manager: three interpersonal roles (figurehead, liaison and leader), three informational roles (monitor, disseminator and spokesman), and four decisional roles (entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator and negotiator).

The most recent example was a study by Kotter² who described how effective executives approached their jobs. The first activity he called 'agenda setting,' i.e. establishing loosely connected goals and plans for short-, medium- and long-term responsibilities. Next followed 'network building', i.e. 'developing a network of cooperative relationships among those people they feel are needed to satisfy their emerging agendas.'^{p.161} Lastly, came 'execution,' getting the networks to implement the agendas.

In an article that has become a *Harvard Business Review* classic, Katz³ described three kinds of skills that make for effective administration. The first, technical skills, referred to specific methods, processes, procedures or techniques required by a specific discipline, like accounting or engineering. The second, human skills, dealt with leadership within the manager's unit, and with intergroup relationships. Lastly, conceptual skills, involved the 'general management

Professor D.J.W. Strümpfer,

Graduate School of Business Administration, University of the Witwatersrand,
P.O. Box 31170, Braamfontein, 2017, Republic of South Africa

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point of view,' the ability to recognize the various interdependent functions of the enterprise, the enterprise as a totality, and its embeddedness in industry, in the community and the country, in the economy and in the political system.

The work of a manager can be viewed from other vantage points too. The approaches described above were all from the outside, impersonal, objective. One could, however, also wonder what it feels like from the inside to do this kind of work, i.e. the subjective experience. How strongly do managers experience various demands made on them? What are their general emotional responses? How do such reactions hang together with work-related personality characteristics? Are there overall dimensions in the patterns of personal experiences that could help one to observe managerial work more accurately? In the present study, a selection of self-report measures was used to give managers an opportunity to describe their subjective experiences of the demands of their jobs and of their views of themselves as working people.

Data collection

The participants in the study were 163 White, male, English-speaking managers from commerce and industry in Johannesburg. The group was kept homogeneous within these limits, since it is conceivable that deviation from these dimensions could introduce variations; it remains for future studies to look at, e.g. Black-White, female-male and Afrikaans-English differences. Selection criteria were that participants should be between 25 and 55 years of age, have a minimum of a matric education, and that they should be in positions of first-line supervisor and above in organizational rank. Table 1 presents data on age, educational level (number of years of formal education completed) and organizational rank (C.E.O. = 1, first-line supervisor = 8). About half of the sample were obtained on my behalf by part-time MBA students and the rest with the assistance of the personnel managers of a variety of organizations. A diversity of disciplines, functional areas and kinds of business and industry were represented.

A subject received an envelope containing a covering letter inviting him to participate anonymously and promising a follow-up report on the research. If he wanted a copy of the report, he was asked to provide his name and address in a small envelope, to be sealed separately. A set of questionnaires stapled together was also enclosed and an addressed envelope in which the completed forms could be sealed for return to the person who asked him to do it, or direct to me. The return rate was about 65 per cent.

Table 1 Characteristics of groups of managers

Variable	Mean	Standard deviation	Range
Age	40,83	6,92	25 - 54
Educational level	14,97	2,08	12 - 19*
Organizational rank	2,91	1,46	1 - 8

*Twenty-eight persons had matric only (= 12 yrs), 16 had Master's degrees, and 6 had Ph.D. degrees (= 19 yrs).

The set of questionnaires included a page of biographical information, a selection of scales describing job demands, taken mainly from Caplan *et al.*,⁴ and labelled 'Your Work Situation,' the Multiple Affect Adjective Check List,⁵ the Jenkins Activity Survey,⁶ and Kobasa's⁷ Hardy Personality Scale. These measures and the reasons for their selection will be described below. The biographical form was always the first page but the sequence of the remaining forms was varied systematically through all combinations, in order to control for sequence effects.

Constructs and measures

Job demands

A logical starting point for managers to describe what they do, is to ask them to indicate the degree to which they have experienced a series of typical demands described in previous research. An extensive study at the University of Michigan⁴ investigated job demands in 23 occupational samples and related these to worker health. Several of the measures used in that study were used in this one too; in part, the selection was determined by the fact that the present study involved managers only.

Leaving out the physical environment as usually not very demanding or stressful for managers, job demands in their environment can be classified in terms of levels of social interaction, as individual, interpersonal/group, and organizational (as well as boundary-spanning, not covered here).

Individual level

These demands relate to the tasks to be performed by the executive. In the present study an 11-item Quantitative Work Load scale⁴ was used to measure the amount of work the person experienced; it contained items like: 'How many projects, assignments or tasks do you have?' Responses to all of the scales taken from Caplan *et al.*⁴ were on 5-point Likert scales, with each point described, e.g. 'A great deal - A lot - Some - A little - Hardly any.' Subjects were also asked to indicate the number of hours worked per week. The third measure in this category was a three-item Utilization of Abilities index,⁴ which referred to the use of one's particular skills, e.g. 'How often can you use skills from your previous experience and training?' Lastly a three-item index describing feelings of Exhaustion was used, e.g. 'At the end of the day I am completely exhausted, mentally and physically.'

Interpersonal and group level

Three four-item indices were used to measure Social Support;⁴ they indicated the extent to which people around the person provided support by being available for help when needed or by being good listeners when he wanted to talk. A sample question was: 'How much can each of the following people be relied on when things get tough at work?' and the subject was asked to answer with respect to: 'Your immediate supervisor (boss),' 'Other people at work,' and 'Your wife, friends and relatives.' In the context of job stress, these scores can be considered negatively in terms of absence of social support, although there are also indications that positive social support could serve as a mitigating factor between stressful life events and their

health consequences.

A fourth measure at this level was a three-item index of Participation (or its absence),⁴ which indicated the amount of influence the person had on shared decisions which affected him, with the emphasis on participating with others. A sample item was: 'How much do you decide with others what part of a task you will do?'

Organizational level

The first measure at this level was a four-item index of Responsibility for Persons,⁴ which reflected the person's responsibilities for the futures, job security, morale, welfare and lives of others.

Two other measures at this level were taken from Rizzo *et al.*⁸ Role Ambiguity (6 items) reflected unpredictability of the outcome of one's behaviour and lack of clarity of requirements to guide one's behaviour or to indicate whether the behaviour is appropriate or not. A sample item was: 'I know exactly what is expected of me.' Role Conflict (8 items) reflected conflict between the person's values and what he had to do, lack of manpower and other resources required by assignments, membership of groups who operated quite differently, and conflicting expectations and demands in terms of requests, standards of evaluation and policies. A sample item was: 'I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others.' Responses to these two scales were given on a 7-point scale, from 'very true' to 'very false.'

General emotional condition

In order to obtain indications of the participants' general emotional responses to their situation in life, the Multiple Affect Adjective Check List (MAACL)⁵ was administered. It contained adjectives to measure three negative feelings: Anxiety (21 items), Depression (40 items) and Hostility (28 items). The form that was used requested the person to check the adjective which described how he generally felt.

With a view to interpretation of scores on these scales, it is important to mention an observation that was made during scoring. Each scale contained 'plus' items that were scored if the subject checked them, and 'minus' items that were scored if the subject did not check them. In the present sample most anxiety and depression scores were not obtained by checking plus adjectives but by not checking minus ones; in other words, not by admitting the presence of anxiety or depression but by not admitting the opposite of these feelings. Though these men did not work with outspoken negative feelings, they described themselves as working without positive joy. A similar tendency, although less pronounced, was also observed on the Hostility scale; rather than to check adjectives like: angry, bitter, discontented, disgusted, etc., subjects tended to obtain scores by not checking adjectives like: agreeable, cooperative, friendly, good-natured, etc.

The Anxiety and Depression scores correlated so highly that they were combined into a single Anxiety/Depression score (sum of standard scores).

Type A-B behaviour

Based on their clinical experience as cardiologists, Rosen-

man and Friedman^{9,10} formulated a description of what they called the 'coronary-prone behaviour pattern,' usually equated to 'Type A' but ranging from high Type A to low Type B. Although most work on Type A-B behaviour has been done in the context of research on coronary heart disease, the behaviour pattern neatly describes how people act, think and feel in their jobs. Hence, it seemed applicable to the present project too.

Type A persons are characterized by:

- Hard-driving, competitiveness and achievement orientation, including perseverance, conscientiousness, ambitiousness and attraction to challenge.
- A sense of time urgency, accompanied by restlessness, multiple activities against deadlines, as well as impatience with delays and with others.
- Self-centredness, poor interpersonal relationships and even hostility.

In general, Type A's seem to have an overwhelming need always to assert control over whatever happens; however, when they experience uncontrollability for some length of time, they tend to over-react by showing dramatically fewer attempts to initiate any control, i.e. almost helplessness. It is as if Type A persons have difficulty in suiting the strength of their reactions to the actual requirements of the situation; they tend to react with 'all or nothing' but in the process they waste energy and strain themselves needlessly. As far back as 1896, an American physician, Osler¹¹ described the typical angina pectoris patient in terms very reminiscent of Type A behaviour, as 'a keen ambitious man, the indicator of whose engines is always at "full speed ahead".'

At the opposite end of the continuum of behaviour, Rosenman and Friedman described Type B persons. They are less competitive, more mellow, satisfied, relaxed and easy going. They work steadily but without a feeling of being driven and without the constant slavery of the clock. They take more time to enjoy pursuits other than work. They prefer to be liked for whom they are, rather than for what they do. They appreciated people more than things.

Type A-B behaviour should, however, not be viewed as resulting from personality only. To an important extent it is also a matter of reaction to the challenges and demands of the environment. Therefore, it seems most likely that the South African managerial environment which makes excessive demands due to a shortage of high-level human resources, would elicit more Type A behaviour than an economy rich in these resources.

Depending on whether oneself is more Type A or Type B, one tends to evaluate the other kind negatively. The Type A pattern is quite close to the commonly held stereotypes of masculinity and of a 'go-getter' business executive; hence it describes something of a folk-hero to some people. Folk-heroes, however, also have their detractors and some people react more favourably to the Type B image; especially in view of its association with coronary-heart disease, some of the popular and semi-professional literature has condemned Type A behaviour. To counter such judgemental tendencies, I want to quote a little poem about Type A's and two bits of research about Type B's.

Edna St. Vincent Millay¹² gave a poetic description that could have been voiced by a Type A person:

'My candle burns at both ends;
It will not last the night;
But ah, my foes, and oh my friends —
It gives a lovely light.'

Then, lest someone condemns Type B's as lazy and rather useless, Howard *et al.*¹³ reported that in their sample of 236 managers from 12 Canadian companies there was a higher percentage of Type B's among top managers than among middle management. Similarly, it has been reported that managers had lower mean Type A scores than middle level salesmen.¹⁴

The measure of Type A-B behaviour used in this study was the *Jenkins Activity Survey*.⁶ It provides four separate scores, a Type A scale and three factor-analytically derived scales, described in Table 2, viz. Speed and Impatience (S), Job Involvement (J) and Hard-driving and Competitive (H).

Table 2 Factor dimensions of Jenkins Activity Survey^{6,p.6}

Speed and impatience (Factor S): Deals with the time urgency revealed in the style of behaviour of the Type A person. Those scoring high tend to eat very rapidly, become impatient with the conversation of others, hurry other people along, have strong tempers and become irritated easily.

Job involvement (Factor J): Expresses degree of dedication to occupational activity. Typically, persons scoring high report having a challenging, high-pressure job; they work overtime and confront important deadlines; they prefer promotion to a pay raise, but usually have received both in the last few years.

Hard-driving and competitive (Factor H): Involves perceptions of oneself as being hard-driving, conscientious, responsible, serious, competitive and putting forth more effort than other people. This series of traits suggests highly socialized but intensive drives.

Since Rosenman and Friedman's pioneering work in the early 1960's, a large number of studies have demonstrated a relationship between the Type A-B behaviour pattern and coronary heart disease.⁽¹⁵⁻¹⁷⁾ The most extensive evidence came from the prospective 'Western Collaborative Group Study' which started in 1960, continued for 8 ½ years, and entailed careful observations on some 3 500 men. In some of the evaluations, the Jenkins Activity Survey was also employed. Jenkins *et al.*,¹⁸ for instance, reported that over a four-year period men scoring in the top third of the distribution of the Type A scores had 1,79 times the incidence of new coronary heart disease as men in the bottom third of the distribution. In a later study, which compared men who had had a single heart attack with men who had had second heart attacks, Jenkins *et al.*¹⁹ demonstrated the Type A score to be the strongest single predictor of recurrent coronary heart disease. Other American studies, as well as studies in e.g. Belgium, Holland and Poland, have also verified the relationship between scores on the Jenkins Activity Survey and the incidence of heart disease.

It is, however, important to note that the Type A-B pattern is a rather imprecise predictor of coronary heart disease, with the vast majority of Type A's never developing heart disease. In the first place, Type A-B behaviour is only one of several risk factors (including excessive smoking, obesity, elevated serum cholesterol, hypertension, diabetes, and

a family history of coronary heart disease) which interact and which even contribute differentially from case to case. In the second place, not all Type A behaviour seems to be coronary-prone behaviour and some current research is directed at searching for its virulent components. Anger, for instance, seems to be a more dangerous component, while job involvement may actually be a protective factor, rather than an indication of increased risk.²⁰

Of course, in the present context, the accent was not on the coronary-proneness of the behaviour described by the Jenkins Activity Survey, but on a comprehensive description of work-related behaviour.

Personality hardiness

Since the late 1960's, a large volume of research has demonstrated a relationship between one's health and life events that are experienced as stressors because they require change and adjustment.¹² The relationship is, however, far from perfect and other factors obviously enter into it too. Kobasa and her co-workers at the University of Chicago²¹⁻²⁴ have provided one indication in this connection, suggesting that what they called the 'hardy personality' is one of the protective or mitigating factors in the relationship.

In the present context, the emphasis was again not on personality hardiness in the context of health, but primarily on the attitudes towards, and values about, life and work reflected by this concept.

The first study on hardiness²⁴ was done on managers in a telephone company. Two samples were selected by means of a measure of stressful life events and an illness questionnaire: a high change/high illness group, and a high change/low illness group. Three components of hardiness were postulated on theoretical grounds, self-report measures to represent each were administered to the two samples, and the concepts were sharpened on the basis of the measures which did discriminate between them. The three components were:

- Commitment (*vs.* alienation), the ability to believe in the truth, importance and value of what one is and of what one is doing. It is a tendency to involve oneself in many situations in life: in work, family, friendship and social organizations. It also reflects considerable curiosity about life and a sense that life is meaningful.
- Control (*vs.* powerlessness), the tendency to believe and act as if, by and large, one can influence the events of one's life, through what one imagines, says and does. As a consequence, there is an emphasis on personal responsibility. It also acts as a self-fulfilling prophecy: believing it makes one go ahead and do what one believes possible. As part of such activity, one also develops a larger coping repertoire. Stressful events even look different in this light: they are seen as predictable consequences of one's own behaviour, and therefore as subject to direction and manipulation by oneself.
- Challenge (*vs.* threat), is the expectation that it is normal for life to change and that such change will present one with opportunities and incentives for development, rather than merely constituting a threat to one's security. As a consequence, one tends to practise responding to the unexpected, by exploring one's surroundings, by

taking action to find out more about the changes and then to incorporate them into an ongoing life plan by learning from change whatever may be valuable for the future. As a result, one also knows where to turn for resources if and when they are actually needed.

The three components are not seen as mutually exclusive but rather as intertwined aspects of an overall style of stress resistance. In general, retrospective and concurrent studies, as well as one prospective study, have all confirmed hardiness as an insulation against illness after stressful experiences of change. A 20-item form of the Hardiness Scale⁷ was used in the present study.

Findings such as the above have obvious implications for attempts at understanding managers' perceptions of themselves in the world of work. Largely on the basis of research on stressful life events and illness, much of both the professional and popular literature on stress is characterized by a 'you-are-inadequate' assumption. The view (rejected by most successful executives and professionals) is that stress is something bad that happens to people and which they have to suffer passively. Drawn to its logical conclusion, it means that a productive life is impossible under the typical contemporary urban and technological conditions. The work of Kobasa and her associates, on the other hand, emphasizes strenuous involvement, rather than escape or avoidance, with obvious implications for stress management and for stress counselling. The role of personality differences and of styles of coping have to be taken into consideration, and the stress of daily work and living should be recognized as ranging from healthy, constructive challenge to unhealthy, destructive distress or 'burnout.'²⁵

Results

Means and standard deviations

For various reasons, it is not worth while to report the means and standard deviations of all the measures in this study. Most readers would find the mean number of hours worked per week by this sample of interest: 48,94 hours (SD = 7,25; compared to a mean of just under 60 hours in Kotter's² group). The other means (and standard deviations) that deserve mention here, are those of the four Jenkins Activity Survey scales, shown in Table 3. Also shown are the standard score equivalents of these mean scores in terms of their standardization in the Western Collaborative Group Study.²⁶ (The American computer scoring system provides standard score equivalents of subject's scores. Hence the Jenkins Activity Survey Manual⁶ reports means and standard deviations in standard score terms. In South Africa it would be inappropriate to use those norms; hence the means and standard deviations in Table 3 were based on raw scores, making it impossible to calculate *t* tests to compare them with the available samples from abroad.)

The norms were based on a sample of 2 588 males between ages 48 and 65, who held 'middle and upper-echelon jobs' in ten large corporations in California. The standard scores had a mean of zero and a standard deviation of 10. From the last column of Table 3 it is clear that all of the standard score equivalents of the means of the present group were well in excess of the standardization sample's means. With the exception of the Hard-driving/Competitive mean, all of these means were equivalent to standard scores higher

Table 3 Means, Standard Deviations and American Standard Score Equivalents of Means of Jenkins Activity Survey Scales

Scale	Mean	Standard deviation	Standard score
Type A	286,94	66,16	7,7
Factor S	219,25	58,96	6,2
Factor J	272,01	34,33	9,6
Factor H	131,82	30,57	2,2

than means reported for any sample, American or other, in the Jenkins Activity Survey Manual.⁶

Elsewhere²⁵ I have presented data on Type A scale means of six other samples of White South African males, where the standard score equivalents of the means were also high, ranging from 2,4 to 10,6. It begins to look as if White South African males do not only have the dubious distinction of leading the rest of the world (with the exception of South African Indian males) with respect to the incidence of coronary heart disease, but also with respect to coronary-prone behaviour.

Factor analysis

Factor analysis provides a systematic method for examining whether some pattern of relationships underlies a matrix of inter-correlations, such that the data may be reduced to a smaller set of factors that account for the interrelations. A principal-component analysis was carried out on the correlation matrix of the present data. Five factors were retained and Table 4 shows the factor pattern, with high loadings italicized. Only four factors were interpreted.

Factor 1 described a high quantitative work load, long hours worked per week, a high degree of utilization of the person's abilities, a high degree of participation with others in decisions that affect him, low role ambiguity (in this context it probably meant role clarity), as well as outspoken Type A behaviour in combination with hard-driving and competitive behaviour. Looking at all of these self-descriptions together, this factor clearly reflected a dimension of sheer Hard Managerial Work. It is reminiscent of Wolf's²⁷ description on the 'Sisyphus Reaction': when Sisyphus was confined to Hades, he was required to push a great rock up a steep hill but whenever he was near the top, it rolled down again which meant that he continued his arduous task endlessly. However, the anxiety/depression score showed a marginal negative regression weight on this factor, indicating that this combination of demands tended to be experienced as positive, 'good' stress.

Factor 2 described a strong feeling of exhaustion, a high degree of role conflict, high hostility (reflecting absence of friendliness), high anxiety/depression (reflecting joylessness), as well as high Type A behaviour, combined with the rushed aspect of speed and impatience. The marginal weights of high work load and low hardiness should perhaps be noted too. This factor seemed to reflect Subjective Distress, i.e. 'bad' stress or 'burnout.'

Factor 3 combined reliance on high levels of support from the person's superior and co-workers, low role ambiguity

(in this context it probably implied need for role clarity), high anxiety/depression (again reflecting joylessness), and lastly low hardiness (alienation from self and work, powerlessness, belief in being controlled from the outside, and need for security). Taking all of these self-descriptions together, this seemed to be a dimension of Vulnerability.

Factor 4 described a feeling that the person's abilities were being utilized fully, a low degree of role conflict and a high degree of job involvement. Hostility also showed a high loading but, in view of the way those scores tended to be obtained (p.47), that weight should probably be interpreted as aloofness or individualism, rather than outright hostility. Considering all of these self-descriptions together, this factor seemed to reflect Individualistic Dedication, a resolute commitment to the task, by oneself (not in response to external demands, as in Factor 1).

Discussion

A factor analysis cannot give back more than what has gone into the original data pool; if other kinds of information had, therefore, been added during the data collection, other dimensions may conceivably have emerged as well. The present set of questionnaires, however, covered quite a wide variety of reactions, experiences and feelings. It did provide a diversity of information on the subjective side of being a manager.

The findings indicated that there are various dimensions to the subjective experience of working as a manager. In the first place, Factor 1 reflected a dimension of a substantial amount of hard work, which already has been described by various authors, although based on totally different

sources of information. The fact has been noted that achievement orientated managers, especially higher up on the organizational ladder, seldom stop thinking about their work: they continue to search for and evaluate information, and they hardly ever stop problem-solving and decision-making, either in their heads or in interaction with others. At the same time, constant demands are made on their time and energy by individuals, meetings, supervisory and inspectional tours, correspondence, telephone calls, etc., *ad infinitum*. Mintzberg asked the question why managers adopt this pace and workload, and answered:

'One major reason is the inherently open-ended nature of the job. The manager is responsible for the success of his organization and there are really no tangible mileposts where he can stop and say, "Now my job is finished"'. The engineer finishes the design of a casting on a certain day, the lawyer wins or loses his case at some moment in time. The manager must always keep going, never sure when he has succeeded, never sure when his whole organization may come down around him because of some miscalculation. As a result, the manager is a person with a perpetual preoccupation. He can never be free to forget his job, and he never has the pleasure of knowing, even temporarily, that there is nothing else he can do. No matter what kind of managerial job he has, he always carries the nagging suspicion that he might be able to contribute just a little bit more.'^{1, p.30}

However, there was an interesting aspect to all of this in the present results. In the description of the 'hard managerial work' factor, it was pointed out that there were

Table 4 Results of Principal-components analysis

Scale	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Communality
Job demands						
Work load	0,57	0,37	-0,12	-0,36	0,17	0,64
Hours/Week	0,54	0,14	-0,31	-0,05	0,35	0,54
Utilization	0,49	-0,01	0,06	0,52	0,21	0,56
Exhaustion	0,13	0,61	0,32	-0,17	0,15	0,54
Support from						
Supervisor	0,30	-0,29	0,38	0,02	0,15	0,34
Co-workers	0,15	-0,30	0,48	-0,13	-0,06	0,36
Wife & others	0,29	-0,25	0,26	-0,17	-0,17	0,27
Participation	0,59	0,08	0,32	0,03	0,30	0,55
Resp. persons	0,58	0,08	0,20	-0,16	0,18	0,44
Role ambiguity	-0,59	0,20	-0,39	-0,16	0,18	0,60
Role conflict	-0,09	0,48	-0,26	-0,44	0,23	0,55
MAACL						
Hostility	-0,21	0,61	0,27	0,46	0,04	0,71
Anx./Dep.	-0,34	0,64	0,38	0,34	0,13	0,80
Jenkins Scale						
Type A	0,63	0,46	-0,15	0,10	-0,37	0,79
Factor S	0,18	0,47	-0,32	0,32	-0,49	0,70
Factor J	0,30	-0,25	-0,23	0,40	0,49	0,61
Factor H	0,67	-0,31	-0,06	-0,22	-0,26	0,66
Hardiness	0,26	-0,34	-0,47	0,31	-0,05	0,50
% Variance explained	33,35	25,61	16,31	14,56	11,91	

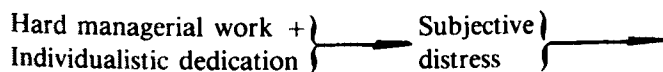
some indications that these managers reacted with positive feelings to the demands they had described. In one's daily association with managers, one is often struck by their manifest enjoyment of what they are doing: in spite of the fact that they may complain about being rushed or overloaded, it hardly ever seems to depress them! Part of the answer is that they tend to derive their main satisfactions from the work itself (intrinsic motivation), compared to the tendency of, for instance, many industrial workers to seek their main satisfaction outside their jobs. For the latter, the level of wages is the more important consideration since it makes these outside satisfactions possible.

The dedication dimension described by Factor 4 should also be viewed in this context, although it reflects personal, individualistic involvement, rather than responding to demands as in Factor 1.

Still in connection with Factor 1, it should be mentioned that some research has suggested that the combination of high scores on both the Type A and Hard-driving/Competitive factor scales of the Jenkins Activity Survey indicate greater risk of coronary heart disease.²⁰ The presence of high loadings on both of these in Factor 1 may thus imply some health risk. Perhaps it merely supports the common sense idea that a person who works very hard should stay in regular contact with his doctor – or that a hard-working machine requires regular maintenance.

The two more negative dimensions should, however, also be considered. No matter how dedicated the manager and how much satisfaction he obtains from work, there are clearly joyless, unpleasant sides to it too. There is no denying that managers sometimes react with impatience and hostility (Factor 2), or that exhaustion may also set in sooner or later (Factor 3). Just as surely as they experience the demands upon them as 'good' stress, they are also aware of the realities of 'bad' stress. They are also aware of their own vulnerability, for instance, in their need for security, for support from others and for role clarity.

One is tempted to speculate about possible causal relationships between these factors. The data were not collected for that purpose, nor did the analyses allow for it, but such conjecture could be turned into hypotheses for future research. My question, at least to myself, is whether there could be a sequence as follows:



Vulnerability (to health risk?)

One outcome of the data-reduction provided by factor analysis is that (on the basis of further computations) each person could be assigned a score on each of the factors that had been identified. In other words, one could obtain scores for Hard Managerial Work, Individualistic Dedication, Subjective Distress and Vulnerability, and then relate these four dimensions to other characteristics, e.g. organizational rank, type of business and industry, functional area, etc. This would, in turn, allow for more accurate description of the demands that are typical at e.g. top, middle and lower levels of management, or of different specialities. Such an ap-

proach could also prove useful in research on the health of management personnel.

The pool of data collected in this study is much richer than the results of the initial analysis would indicate. In consequence, various other aspects are presently under investigation.

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