

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LOCUS OF CONTROL, SELF EFFICACY
AND ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION AMONGST EMPLOYEES WITHIN A
FINANCIAL SERVICES ORGANISATION**

By

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ABSTRACT

In an attempt to create a workforce that is representative of the demographic profile of the new South Africa, recruitment and appointment of racial groups and minority groups are the order of the day (Bothma & Schepers, 1997). Many South African organisations attempt to predict levels of job performance, through the use of competency-based interviews, cognitive measures, and or work simulations (role plays) prior to employment. According to Van Zyl and Visser (1998), psychometric tests are largely based on either overseas or South African middle class White values or norms and knowledge, and are less valid for groups from different social and ethical backgrounds.

Large portions of tests used in organisations are mainly based on verbal and numerical cognitive reasoning. However, due to discrimination in past and even current educational systems Black applicants may not always pitch at the same level as that of White candidates. Bothma and Schepers (1997) postulate that proof of educational qualifications bare little evidence of competence and do not necessarily ensure high levels of job performance. An issue of interest to behavioural scientists is the question of whether personality factors measured by questionnaires such as the Occupational Personality Questionnaire, Customer Contact Styles, Myers Briggs Type Indicator, Locus of Control Inventory, Achievement Motivation Questionnaire and Self Efficacy can predict performance in organisations (La Grange & Roodt, 2001).

According to Bothma and Schepers (1997), work performance is a human function based upon many inputs and types of learning. It is therefore very important that instruments used to determine an individual's work performance focus on basic psychological constructs, such as their locus of control, need for achievement and self-efficacy.

The aim of this research was to examine whether a significant relationship exists between locus of control, need for achievement and self-efficacy amongst individuals within a financial services organisation. The Achievement Motivation Questionnaire, Locus of Control Inventory, and Self Efficacy Scale were administered to a sample of 84 employees in a large financial institution within South Africa. The researcher used a non probability sampling technique specifically, a convenience sampling approach.

The results of this study indicate that there is a statistically significant correlation between locus of control and achievement motivation. Similarly, a significant relationship also exists between self efficacy and locus of control. There is also a significant relationship between achievement motivation and self efficacy. The findings also indicated that there is a statically significant difference in achievement motivation based on gender. There were significant gender differences in awareness of time and personal causation on the Achievement Motivation Questionnaire. However, there were no race differences in achievement motivation. In addition, the study also indicated that a statically significant difference existed in self efficacy, internal locus of control and external locus of control based on gender. There were also statistically significant differences in self efficacy, internal locus of control and external locus of control based on race.

Notwithstanding the limited generalisability of this study, implications for research and practice are suggested and recommendations are made to facilitate improved functioning.



DECLARATION

The researcher hereby declares that the thesis, “**The Relationship between Locus of Control Self efficacy and Achievement Motivation Amongst Employees within a financial Services Organisation**” is her own work, and that all sources that have been referred to and quoted have been indicated and acknowledged with complete references.

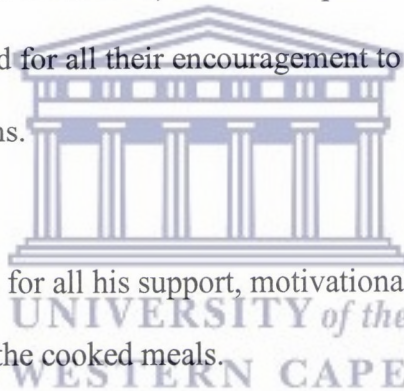
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND AN OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Many South African organisations attempt to predict levels of job performance through the use of competency-based interviews, cognitive measures, and or work simulations (role plays) prior to, or during employment. However, according to Maehr and Pintrich (2005) previous performance accomplishments or the skills that people possess are not necessarily good predictors of future performance, because self-perceptions of capability help determine what individuals do with the skills and knowledge they have. Numerous studies have reported a significant relationship between self-efficacy and work-related performance (Bandura, 1987). Research has demonstrated that self-efficacy beliefs affect performance achievements by influencing effort, persistence and perseverance in task attainment (Cervone, 2000, Pajares, 2000) In addition, many researchers have also emphasised that certain personality characteristics such as locus of control have been found to be strong predictors of behaviour within organisations.

While studies suggest that a relationship exists between job performance and personality, it is also important from a South African perspective, to consider the relationship that exists between race, gender and personality. According to Ivancevich and Matterson (1993), cultural, social, family relationships and hierarchy forces

influence personality. Past political, economical, social and historical factors have not only impacted on the educational systems and organisational rights of Black people in South Africa (Cornelius, 2003), but have also impacted on the way that Black people perceive themselves, their ability to achieve and the degree to which they feel that outcomes are controlled by forces outside their control. Similarly, women have also been discriminated in the past specifically with regard to fair access of certain educational and organisational rights (Cornelius, 2003).

Van Zyl and Visser (1998) state that many tools used to assess for performance are largely based on either overseas or South African middle class White values or norms and knowledge, and are less valid for groups from different social and ethnic backgrounds. These norms also often determine the cut off scores that many organisations use to out select applicants. According to the Employment Equity Act (1998) it is therefore important that employers, from an ethical, legal and business perspective, use selection techniques that are contextually relevant to different South African population groups, and that positive steps should be taken to advance equal representation in all occupational categories and levels in the organisation. The Employment Equity Act, (1998, p. 15) specifically states that “Psychological and other similar assessment of an employee is prohibited unless the test or assessment being used:

- I. Has been sufficiently shown to be reliable,
- II. Can be applied fairly to all employees and
- III. Is not biased against any employee or group”

Large portions of tests used in organisations are mainly based on verbal and numerical cognitive reasoning. However, due to discrimination in past and even current educational systems, Black applicants may not always pitch at the same level as that of White candidates. Bothma and Schepers (1997), postulate that proof of educational qualifications bare little evidence of competence and do not necessarily ensure high levels of job performance. For years, human resource practitioners and psychologists have turned to cognitive ability as a predictor of job performance. Smarter people were perceived as more likely to succeed on the job (Hogan, Hogan & Gregory, 1992). According to the above-mentioned authors, intelligence alone is only part of the measurement. Creativity, leadership integrity, confidence and co-operation also play a major role in an individual's job performance. Personality rather than intelligence predicts these qualities. An issue of interest to behavioural scientists is the question of whether personality factors measured by questionnaires such as the Occupational Personality Questionnaire (OPQ), Customer Contact Styles (CCSQ), Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), Locus of Control Inventory, Achievement Motivation Questionnaire and Self Efficacy can predict performance in organisations (La Grange & Roodt, 2001).

According to Bothma and Schepers (1997), work performance is a human function that is based upon many inputs and types of learning. It is therefore very important that instruments used to determine an individual's work performance focus on basic psychological constructs, such as their locus of control, need to achieve, and self-efficacy to assist in predicting job performance.

1.2 RESEARCH QUESTION

Sekaran (2001, p. 44) defines a problem statement as “a clear, precise and succinct statement of the question or issue that is to be investigated with the goal of finding and answer or solution”.

The problem statement for this study is presented below:

Does a relationship exist between Locus of Control, Achievement Motivation, and Self Efficacy, based on gender, race and age?

1.3 HYPOTHESES

The following hypotheses will be investigated:

- I. There is no statistically significant relationship between locus of control, self efficacy, and achievement motivation.
- II. There is no statistically significant difference in achievement motivation based on age, race and gender.
- III. There is no statistically significant difference in self efficacy, internal and external locus of control based on race, age and gender.

1.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Organisations are moving towards a high performance driven culture, where employees are expected to be performance driven and highly motivated to achieve organisational goals. This study could assist in organisations realising the psychological dimensions that influences job performance and how it is preventing, or can assist specifically Black employees in demonstrating their full potential, and effectiveness on the job. It could also raise awareness amongst employers and

employees in understanding how self-efficacy impacts on an individual's self perceptions, self-judgement of skills, as well as responses to challenges and demands of their jobs.

Through the use of these personality questionnaires psychologists, operating as human resource consultants can identify a low need for achievement and check for or clarify any confidence, self-esteem or self-efficacy issues or feelings of helplessness. This would be especially beneficial in development or career assessment centres, and could assist in addressing these issues through the use of personal development plans. In this way, managers can play an active role in assisting in goal setting, working on esteem or achievement issues through properly identified training courses (Hogan & Nicholson, 1998). Policies around various practices in place within the organisation such as training, fast tracking programmes, succession planning and mentoring can be revisited to determine the degree to which these programmes influence the locus of control and need for achievement of employees. The study may also provide employees with more insight into their own behaviour, and can be used as development towards becoming more achievement driven and internally controlled.

Organisations to a large extent rely on ability measures, such as verbal and numerical reasoning tests, as well assessment centres to determine candidate 'suitability' for jobs. The norms used against which these candidates are measured, are often based on the White South African standards. Determining a correlation between achievement motivation, locus of control and self - efficacy could result in organisations using one of these inventories as part of a selection or assessment battery in the selection and development of previously disadvantaged employees in South Africa.

1.5 OVERVIEW OF THE CHAPTERS

This chapter has provided a brief overview of the study in terms of previous research that was conducted, problem statement, hypotheses of the study, as well as the significance applicable to the research conducted. Chapter 2 defines the concepts and presents reviewed literature relevant to this study. Chapter 3 addresses the methodology, specifically reflecting the sample of the study, research instrument, procedure that was followed, problems experienced and data analysis. Chapter 4 presents the research findings per hypothesis and chapter 5 discusses the conclusions as well as the recommendations on issues to be addressed and implications for further research and practice in this field.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The degree to which individuals are motivated, or the perceptions that they have about their abilities, influences the way they behave, and the performance results that they can achieve (Bandura, 1997). Previous performance accomplishments or the skills that people possess are not necessarily good predictors of future performance, because self-perceptions of capability help determine what individuals do with the skills and knowledge they have (Maehr & Pintrich, 2005). Information derived from different sources in the environment also influences the formation of self-efficacy judgements (Bandura, 1997).

Little attention has been paid to individual personality in research on job motivation. Predominantly the major theories in organisational psychology assumes that the same basic processes validate behaviour across all individuals, and that situational characteristics cause predictable behaviour across all individuals (Spector, 1982). Understanding how an individual's motivation influences thoughts, feelings and actions, is steadily becoming an area of growing interest in personality research (Little, 1983).

The study attempts to reveal the usefulness of personality in explaining human behaviour, and specifically focuses on locus of control, need for achievement and self efficacy as it relates to behaviour, particularly within an organisational setting. This research investigates the effect of past and current laws on Black employees. Attention will also be paid to the concept of personality, and the impact of personality on job performance. Theories relating to locus of control, need for achievement and self-efficacy, as well as the impact that culture and gender has on it, will also be discussed.

2.2 THE EFFECT OF PAST AND CURRENT LAWS ON LOCUS OF CONTROL, NEED FOR ACHIEVEMENT AND SELF EFFICACY

The role of locus of control, achievement motivation and more so self-efficacy in relation to job performance in South Africa, should not be seen in isolation. Rather it should be linked to political, economical, social and historical factors that includes issues such as, inferior education systems, limited, and in some instances, no access to organisational opportunities (Cornelius, 2003).

From the beginning of the apartheid era until the rise of the new democratic dispensation in 1994, Black employees and to some extent female employees suffered severely under apartheid laws that governed the workplace and consequently created feelings of inferiority, incompetence, low self esteem and low levels of self efficacy which ultimately affected their job performance (MacCrone, 1957).

The immediate attempt of the present government was to attend to, and alleviate factors influencing poverty and inequality. Therefore, in order to redress these imbalances, the government has introduced policies and Acts to safeguard Black and female employees from any further economic and social discrimination.

2.2.1 Employment Acts and Policies

In 1994 the Government of National Unity (GNU) was faced with the challenges of redressing unequal distribution of economic resources and distorted industrial development. From 1995 to 1996 a number of policy documents dealing with employment standards were published, such as the Labour Relations Act (LRA), Basic Conditions of Employment Act (BCEA), Employment Equity Act (EEA) and the Skills Development Act (SDA) (South African Survey 1996/1997).

Labour Relations Act 66

The purpose of the Labour Relations act was to advance economic development, social justice and the democratisation of the work place (Juta Statutes of South Africa, 1998).

The Basic Conditions of Employment Act 75

The above mentioned act aimed to advance economic development by fulfilling the right to fair labour practices (Juta Statutes of South Africa, 1998).

The employment Equity Act 55

The EEA is meant to achieve equity in the work place by promoting equal opportunity and fair treatment in employment through the elimination of unfair discrimination (Juta Statutes of South Africa, 1998).

The Skills Development Act

The Skills Development act is aimed at improving and addressing the great skills disparity that exists between White and Black employees by means of a levy-grant scheme and National skills funds. The purpose of this Act is to improve the quality of work life for employees, to better their prospects of upward mobility in organisations, it is also about education and assisting employees, especially Black employees, to acquire new skills, gain work experience and most importantly improve their employment prospects (Statutes of the Republic of South Africa, 1910).



The above-mentioned Acts are aimed at improving the poor record of industrial relations and working conditions that have resulted in so many Black employees believing that their inputs are worthless and inferior to those of their White counterparts. From the above explanation it is obvious that organisations are still striving to achieve organisational transformation. According to Cornelius, (2003, p.30) “Black empowerment, is still not seen as part of the transformation process, and as a result, many Black employees are still left feeling inferior to others, lacking in knowledge, abilities, and most of all, having no belief in their ability to perform on the job”. This feeling is only compounded when psychometric assessments used for selection in organisations place a higher weighting on verbal and numerical cognitive measures.

Nevertheless, in eliminating unfair discrimination in the workplace and introducing the Skills Development Act and the Employment Equity Act, as well as amending past Acts and employment policies, a culture of developing skills and abilities has been instilled in organisations. This may ultimately lead to better job performance, job satisfaction, self-fulfilment, and most importantly, higher levels of self-efficacy thus encouraging a stronger sense of achievement drive. Consequently the question also arises as to whether the implementation of these Acts would then result in black and female employees becoming more externally controlled, thus relying on these Acts to assist in what is now become so commonly referred to as “token EE” placements. In the next sections performance, personality and its relation to job performance, as well as the concepts of locus of control, need for achievement and self –efficacy will be explored.

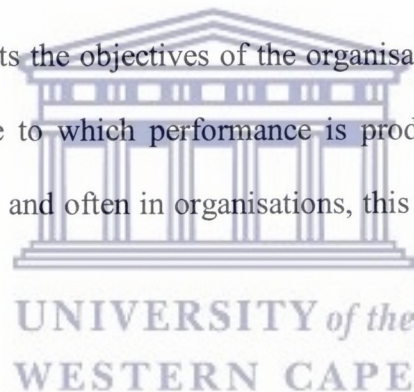
2.2.2 PERFORMANCE



The domain of job performance is both multifaceted and complex in nature, and as a result, has been the most widely used criterion in applied psychology (Adler, 1996). Performance is usually perceived as a person’s ability in terms of their skills, abilities, educational level and character trait in relation to the job at hand. According to Ilgen and Schneider (1991), performance is what an individual does in the context of the job. Maier and Visser (1982) support the above mentioned author’s view of performance in that they believe that the term performance refers to what a person actually does under given conditions. Human (1989), however, postulates that optimal performance is possible when an individual is able, willing and allowed to do the job, and that an interrelationship exists between these factors of performance. An

organisation wishing to maximise the performance of their employees should take a closer look at the operation of the following factors: ability, willingness and conduciveness of the organisation's environment in which the employees must work and perform. It therefore becomes evident that not only ability, but also an individual's personality and factors influencing it, such as motivation and belief in own ability, impacts on job performance.

According to Bailey (1984), job performance is critical in making decisions about employment as well as the utilisation and maintenance of human capital. As a result, specific emphasis is often placed on the degree to which the individual's work performance is effective and meets the objectives of the organisation's overall goals. In order to determine the degree to which performance is productive or effective, measurement needs to take place, and often in organisations, this is achieved through a performance appraisal process.



2.2.2.1 Performance appraisal

According to Milkovich and Boudreau (1997), performance appraisals emphasise a behaviour-orientated approach, which concentrates on the task or behaviour associated with a job. Performance appraisal should be a formal session between a manager and an employee with the aim of discussing current performance and if necessary, future improvements. It can also be seen as a manager's tool in assisting in developing the employee through appropriate goal setting. Often during this process the individual is required to, in consultation with the manager, rate the performance, identify strengths and development areas, and plan the way forward. For this process

to be optimised, employees as well as managers must have insight into their (the employee) behaviour/personality.

The employee should be self assured, confident, achievement driven and open to feedback. This may then raise the question as to what about those individuals or employees who do not possess the self-confidence to rate themselves appropriately during the performance appraisal session, and rather rely on the manager to provide a rating; would this low sense of self efficacy and external locus of control then not impact on the individual? According to Cardy (1998; Cardy & Dobbins, 1994; Murphy & Cleveland, 1995), individual reactions and attitudes are important performance appraisal criteria. In the following section, insight will be provided into how personality impacts on job performance.

2.3 PERSONALITY



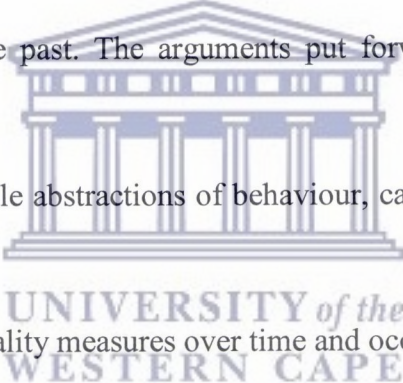
In order to gain a better understanding of how locus of control, need for achievement and self-efficacy impact on job performance, it is necessary to look at how personality as a whole relates to job performance.

2.3.1 Role of personality in job performance

Allport (1937, p. 48) defined personality as “the dynamic organisation within the individual of those psycho physical systems that determines his unique adjustment to his environment.” Two assumptions often made by competency based human resource management are that practitioners can identify knowledge, skill, abilities and other attributes required in a given organisational role and, subsequently measure or

assess the degree to which individuals possess these attributes with cognitive measures and or assessment centres. The aim of a competency-based model is usually to extract behaviours that would determine job performance. These behaviours displayed by individuals relate closely to their personality.

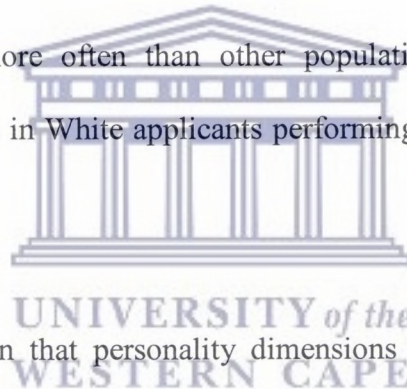
According to Ivancevich and Matterson (1993), the relationship between work behaviour and personality is one of the most complex matters to understand in organisational settings, as cultural, social, family relationships and hierarchy forces also influence personality. According to Barrick and Mount (1991) and Hogan and Nicholson (1988), researchers in the field of personality have recently advanced more compelling arguments than in the past. The arguments put forward by the above-mentioned authors are that;

- 
- i. Personality constructs, while abstractions of behaviour, can be measured with reasonable reliability
 - ii. There is stability to personality measures over time and occasions,
 - iii. Personality measures are significantly related to some non test criterion measures of performance and
 - iv. Personality measures are useful in predicting performance of employees in certain settings.

Barrick and Mount (1991) conducted research on the relation of the “big five” personality dimensions (neuroticism, extroversion, openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness) to three job performance criteria. A major finding of this study indicated that one dimension of personality (conscientiousness)

proved to be a valid predictor of all job related criteria for all occupational groups studied.

A study conducted by Joubert (2004) for a financial institution indicated that psychologists, when integrating assessment information, placed a higher weighting on the abilities scores and role-plays rather than the Occupational Personality Questionnaire (OPQ). In this study, it was found that there was a high correlation between the competences measured and the dimensions of the OPQ. Consequently, Joubert (2004) recommended that psychologists place a greater weighting on personality indicating that failure to do so could lead to adverse impact. Black applicants would be rejected more often than other population groups, as past educational systems have assisted in White applicants performing better on cognitive measures than Black applicants.

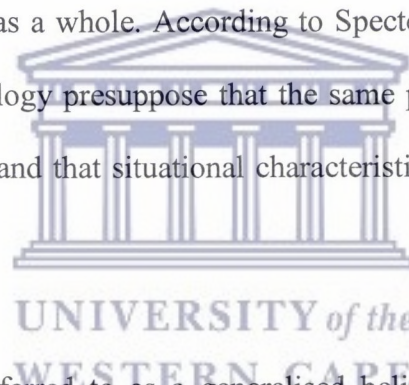


While many researchers ascertain that personality dimensions can be used in the prediction of successful employees, there are however differing viewpoints on the role of personality in the prediction of performance. Prior to the 1900's personality was not viewed as a predictor of job performance. Guion and Gotlier (1965) argued that there is no generalisable evidence that personality measures could be recommended or used in most situations as a basis for making selection decisions. Despite these arguments, a substantial body of research emerged in response to the study conducted by Barrick and Mount (1991) and contributed to the recent strides made in understanding the role of personality measures in predicating job performance.

Bothma and Schepers (1997) conducted a study on the role of locus of control and achievement motivation in the work performance of Black managers. The main objective of their study was to search for an instrument(s) that would be good predictors of work performance. Based on the findings, the study revealed that the Locus of Control Inventory and the Achievement Motivation Questionnaire could be used as predictors of job performance.

2.4 CONCEPT OF LOCUS OF CONTROL

In general, little focus has been placed on individual personality and its impact on job performance or the organisation as a whole. According to Spector (1982), the major theories in organisational psychology presuppose that the same process accounts for behaviour across all individuals, and that situational characteristics cause predictable behaviour across all individuals.



In this study, control will be referred to as a generalised belief of an individual, concerning the extent to which he or she can control outcomes of importance. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) postulate that a feeling of personal mastery relates to an individual's belief in his/her personal control. These beliefs have been reviewed as a generalised way of thinking, and a situation specific expectation.

2.4.1 LOCUS OF CONTROL DEFINED

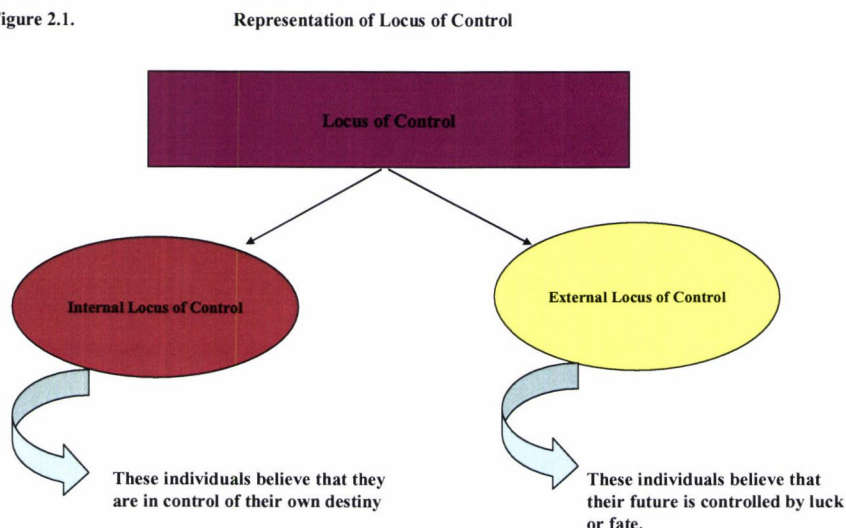
Locus of control is an important variable describing individual differences, and predicting behaviour in organisational settings (Phares, 1976). However, according to Spector (1982), not much attention has been paid to individual personality in research

on job motivation. It is therefore important to demonstrate the usefulness of locus of control as it relates to behaviour in organisational settings.

Phares (1957) in Bothma and Schepers (1997) conceptualises the concept of locus of control in terms of the propensity of some individuals to ignore reinforcement contingencies. The tendency for internals to believe that they control events and externals to believe that they cannot, leads to a number of predications about their behaviour (Palenzuela, 1984 p, 684).

Rotter developed the concept of locus of control and maintained that it relates to the expectancy about the outcomes of actions, rather than the actions themselves. Rotter studied the perception of individuals concerning the connection between their own behaviour and occurrences around them (Bothma & Schepers, 1997). He developed the Internal – External Control Scale (I-E), which measures the degree to which individuals perceive that outcomes follow from, or are contingent upon their own behaviours or attributes, versus the degree to which individuals feel that outcomes are controlled by forces outside their control and may occur independently of their own actions. The hypothesis behind Rotter's work is that people who are internally orientated believe that they are more in control of their destiny than those who are more externally orientated and believe that their future is controlled by luck, chance or fate. Locus of control therefore refers to the belief that a response will or will not influence the attainment of a reinforcement. This is depicted in figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1.



According to Clarke (1979), depending on an individual's past reinforcement, he/she would have developed a consistent attitude towards being either an internal or external locus as the source of reinforcement.



According to Palenzuela (1984), Rotter's work became one of the most influential in psychology after the publishing of his article in 1966 where he discussed the internal external (I-E) control of reinforcement. Palenzuela goes on to say that one of the greatest difficulties in research with the I-E dimension lies in the different definitions given to the construct. Dailey, Keenam and Tayeb (1990) define locus of control as an individual's belief that one's actions (whether internal or external) influence the outcomes and experiences in life. Generally, according to Dailey et al (1990), internalises are more attracted to work situations which have opportunities for personal achievement. Externalises are more trusting, and they dismiss failure more

readily. They are normally sensitive to organisational attempts to change their thinking and behaviour.

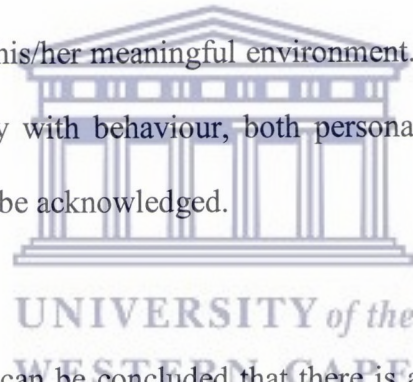
Carver and Scheiner (1988, p. 372) proffer the following definition of locus of control, “Locus means place. People termed internals, see reinforces as controlled from within, by their own actions. Those termed externals, see reinforces as controlled from something outside their own, something other than their own actions.” De Charms (1968), argues that individuals who feel responsible for the consequences of their actions, are more inclined to be internally controlled.

Accordingly, an individual who perceives reinforcement as a result of fate, under the control of powerful others, is categorised as having an external locus of control. In contrast to this, an individual who has an internal control perceives reinforcement as contingent upon personal characteristics and his/her behaviour. Contrary to this, an individual who has a belief in internal control perceives reinforcement as contingent upon personal characteristics and his/ her behaviour (Hassman & Koivula, 1996).

As a personality variable, locus of control has been subjected to the large-scale debate around personality theory and research, which is whether individual differences or situations are the main determinants of behaviour. Type, trait and psycho-dynamic models of personality assume that behaviour is determined by internal factors, while many social learning theorists argue that behaviour is determined by situational or external factors (Endler & Edwards, 1978).

Theorists, who argue that behaviour is determined by internal factors, regard these as stable, enduring and generalisable across different situations. Contrary to this, those theorists who regard behaviour as externally (situationally) determined, argue that responses to the environment are domain specific and thus change according to the situation. Endler (1976) argues that notions of stability and variability (specificity) are a matter of degree, much like a continuum. As a result of the above, a question arises as to where exactly locus of control falls within the personality debate.

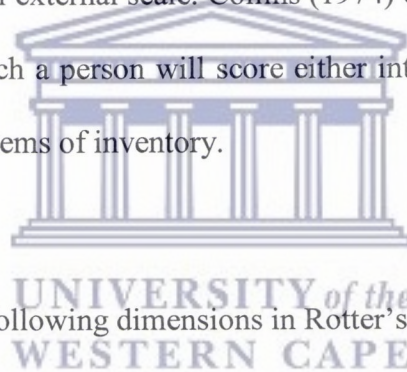
According to Rotter (1954, p. 85), a fundamental principle underlying the locus of control construct is that “the unit of investigation for the study of personality is the interaction of the individual, and his/her meaningful environment.” He therefore goes on to say that, to deal accurately with behaviour, both personal determinants, and environmental determinants must be acknowledged.



Despite some opposing views, it can be concluded that there is a general agreement among researchers, in that internal control refers to individuals who believe that reinforcements are contingent upon their own behaviour, capacities or attributes. Conversely, external control refers to individuals who believe that reinforcements are not under their personal control of powerful others, luck fate or chance. Thus, while providing a precise definition is necessary, it is also difficult (Bothma & Schepers, 1997).

2.4.2 MEASUREMENT OF THE INTERNAL – EXTERNAL CONTROL DIMENSION

According to Bothma and Schepers (1997), research on locus of control had become a focal point for a number of years. In particular there was some enquiry regarding locus of control as a personality variable. According to these researchers, Lefcourt (1976), and Phares (1976), cautioned researchers about the number of misinterpretations as well as misuses regarding the scales that had been used to assess the variable. However, an important advancement in the area of research was Rotter's (1966) development of the internal external scale. Collins (1974) conducted a study to determine the dimensions on which a person will score either internal or external on Rotter's scale, through grouping items of inventory.



Collins (1974), distinguishes the following dimensions in Rotter's scale. These are;

- **The difficult - easy world**

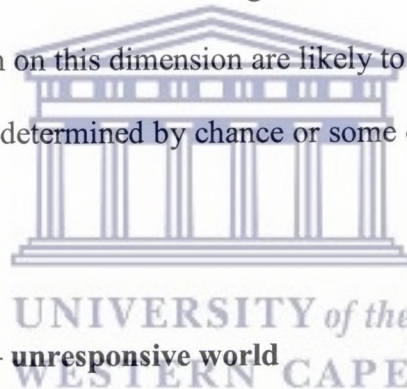
To determine this dimension, Collins (1974) grouped the external alternatives in the original scale which mainly referred to statements about the environment. Items such as “Exam questions are so unrelated to course work, that studying is useless; peoples lives are controlled by accidental happenings” were used. According to the researcher individuals endorsing these items believes that his/her environment is made up of complicated and unsolvable tasks.

- **The just - unjust world**

To determine this dimension, Collins (1974, p. 20) used statements such as “what happens to me is my own doing” thus indicating that persons supporting these items believe that the feedback they receive from the world is a function of the input into the environment and that they take responsibility for what happens to them, and is conscious of the fact that there is a causal relationship between a person’s behaviour and the feedback they receive.

- **The predictable – unpredictable world**

To determine this dimension items referring to luck and fate were used. Hence, people scoring high on this dimension are likely to believe that courses of events in their lives are determined by chance or some other external factor (Collins, 1974).



- **The political responsive – unresponsive world**

In this dimension, items grouped together refer to politics, government and wars. People scoring high on this dimension believe that in some way, government has some bearing on their lives and are either responsive or unresponsive to their needs (Collins, 1974).

Collins (1974) therefore concludes that there is a common theme running through the internal-external control of reinforcement scale. In addition to this there are also the four distinct themes. Rotter (1966) also states that the I-E scale does not simply cluster luck and skill on opposite ends of the same dimension. Therefore, from Rotter’s theoretical perspective, the four types of

externality (difficult world, unjust world, it is a random world, politically unresponsive world) are functionally equivalent. He goes on to say that any one of these beliefs are likely to inhibit effective coping and will also lower an individual's self esteem. The opposite of the same items would represent the other extreme of each dimension.

2.4.2.1 INTERNAL VERSUS EXTERNAL LOCUS OF CONTROL (LOC)

The I-E scale measures the extent to which a person believes that events are under his or her own control (internal locus), as opposed to external control (external locus). From the definitions of LOC it becomes apparent that there are distinct differences in those who are internally controlled as opposed to those who are externally controlled (O'Brien, 1984).



O'Brien (1984), states that on the one end of the continuum is the internally controlled individual who believes that rewards are determined largely through personal ability or effort. On the other end of this continuum is the externally controlled individual who believes that the achievement of rewards is based largely on the effects of the outside environment that impacts on him, be it other people, luck or fate. Considering these two extreme points on the continuum, the question could be posed as to whether there are those individuals who report themselves as borderline in terms of being internally and externally orientated given different situations or scenarios.

Furnham and Steele (1993) however, maintain that there are some theoretical problems with locus of control, in that much of the research conducted on locus of control is based on the assumption that it is good or healthy to be internal or bad to be external (Furnham & Steele, 1993). It can be argued that although this is the case, it is questionable to assume that only positive attributes are associated with internality. Furnham and Steele (1993) maintain that internals are inclined to take responsibility for their actions more readily than externally controlled individuals, but are more likely to experience a lowered self esteem in the event that they encounter failure. They are also more likely to react more unfavourably to uncontrolled environments.

In terms of their theory, internals believe that responsibility lies with the individual, and as a result, may be less inclined to assist others in need of help. Therefore, it can be argued that externality may be associated with unselfish and cooperative attitudes, while internals may be associated with selfish, more individualistic attitudes. Furthermore, making assumptions about the nature of positive and negative qualities of internality and externality serves to anticipate and limit the set of possible behavioural outcomes (Furnham & Steele, 1993).

The next section will consider the I-E dimension when relating it to performance rewards, value of feedback and, control and conformity.

2.4.3 LOCUS OF CONTROL AND SELF-RECOGNITION FOR PERFORMANCE REWARDS AND PERCEIVED VALUE OF FEEDBACK

One of the more frequently observed phenomena is the enhancing effect of feedback on performance (Quaglieri, 1980). Feedback for the purposes of this study, refers to the process whereby information about the effectiveness regarding an individual's performance on a task, is reported back to the individual (be it formal or informal) from a number of sources. Rotter (1990), maintains that there are significant differences in individuals' beliefs as to whether environmental reinforcements are within their personal control or not.

According to Lam and Schaubroeck (2000), the primary variable influencing how people perceive the strength of the link between their own actions and the outcomes, is locus of control. People with an internal locus of control, by definition, have a stronger tendency to perceive that the job related rewards they receive, such as good performance appraisals, promotions, company awards, are a result of their own actions. Research conducted by Lam, and Schaubroek (2000), indicated that persons rated high on internal locus of control believed that events such as promotions tended to be caused by their own actions and also placed greater value on having personal control over other rewards in the organisation. These positive beliefs were reflected in their intentions to stay with the organisation, increased organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and increased job performance.

Quaglieri (1980) surmises that internally orientated individuals are regarded as more active seekers and superior analyses of job related information than are externally

orientated individuals. In his study, using a sample of 75 men and 72 women ranging from the age of 25 to 45 years of age, internals perceived more informal sources of feedback, such as self and coworkers as being more useful, whereas externally controlled individuals found formal sources of feedback, such as performance discussions/appraisals, to be more useful (Quaglieri, 1980).

According to Rotter (1966), internally orientated individuals seek, and accept information which they deem to be of some instrumental value to them. Furthermore, internals are usually skilful at determining the combination of environmental cues and reinforcement contingencies, which explain the parameters of effective and rewarding performance.

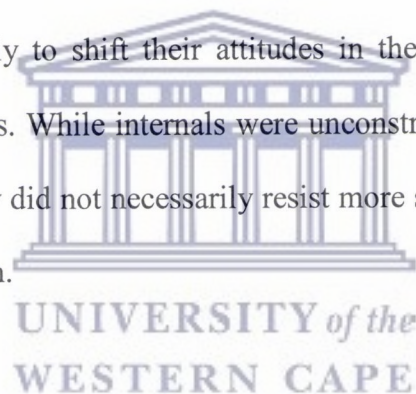
Bellack (1975) and Bellack and Tillman (1974) reported that external subjects are more dependent upon experimenter feedback, than internal subjects. Spector (1982) reports on several studies in which the superior performance of internals have been related to locus of control with learning and problem solving ability.

According to Cravens and Worchel (1977), effectiveness of success or failure related feedback in a group situation where the leader dispenses extrinsic rewards, would best be considered by arguing that externals should react by adjusting performance better and reacting more effectively to the leaders feedback than internals. They tested this premise in a study where ninety-six male volunteers were assessed to indicate that internals less frequently complied with the leader's demands, regardless of the power that was utilised, and complied less frequently under coercive power when feedback was provided. The contrary was true in the case of externally controlled respondents.

2.4.3 LOC AND CONTROL AND CONFORMITY

Leone and Burns (2000) view conformity as an act where an individual is likely to abide by social pressures to either obtain a reward, or avoid punishment. Internals are more inclined to exhibit less conformity than externals, as they tend to seek more personal control (Spector, 1982). Hjelle and Clouser (1970), found that internals exhibited less attitude change after exposure to influencing messages.

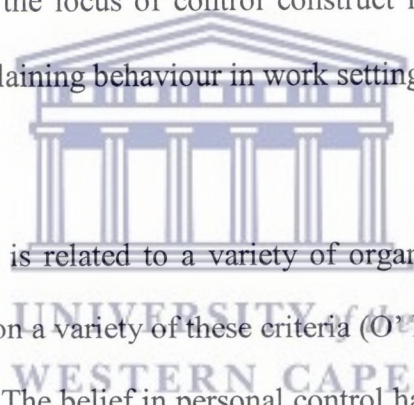
Biondo and MacDonald (1971) showed that internals are not only resistant to influence but are also more likely to shift their attitudes in the opposite direction following the influencing attempts. While internals were unconstructively influenced by high influencing attempts, they did not necessarily resist more subtle manipulation yet, they still neglected to conform.



Internals however, may be more susceptible to social influence from an informational standpoint than externals. These results are not surprising, given the previous research conducted, where internals are more inclined than externals to acquire more information and use information more adequately and independently, pay more attention to relevant information, and also seem able to dismiss the irrelevant cues of the situation (Hassman & Koivula, 1996).

2.4.5 LOCUS OF CONTROL IN AN ORGANISATIONAL CONTEXT

Locus of control has been found to be a relevant factor in behaviour in the work environment. The construct has also been found to be of importance in determining managerial behaviour (Bothma & Schepers, 1997). Chafetz (1990), found a positive relationship between internal locus of control and entrepreneurial behaviour. According to this researcher, entrepreneurs who score high on this scale believe that personal achievements and courses of action in their lives, are dependent on the handwork that they apply rather than external factors such as fate and influences of other people. Blau(1993) and Spector and O'Connell (1994) concur based on recent studies that have suggested that the locus of control construct is an important and useful personality variable for explaining behaviour in work settings.



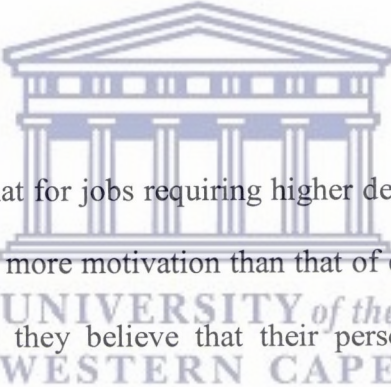
Considering that locus of control is related to a variety of organisational variables, internals and externals will differ on a variety of these criteria (O'Brein, 1984 cited in Palenzuela, 1984; Spector, 1982). The belief in personal control has an influence on a variety of organisational dimensions, such as for example, motivation in the workplace, job performance, job satisfaction and leadership, among others.

2.4.5.1 Locus of Control and Job Motivation

Spector (1982) maintains that it should be easier to motivate internals as they are more in control of the external environment. In the event that the performance reward is appropriate, then internally orientated individuals are inclined to be responsive to motivation. Rotter (1990) points out that if rewards are not provided based on performance in the job setting, then over time, there will not be much difference

between the internally and externally orientated individual. In fact, the internal is more likely to then take a more external perspective in the event that effort does not lead to reward.

Reitz and Jewell (1979) report that there was a significant relationship between locus of control and job involvement, whereby internals showed more involvement in work tasks and also projecting more motivation. In a more recent study conducted by Markku (1996), where work involvement, need satisfaction and locus of control was measured, it was found that work involvement was positively correlated with internal locus of control.



From the above, one can deduce that for jobs requiring higher degrees of motivation, internals are more likely to display more motivation than that of externally orientated individuals. This is mainly so as they believe that their personal efforts lead to rewards. Therefore, according to Spector (1982), it would appear that internally orientated individuals would be best suited for technical or skilled jobs, while their external counterparts are more likely to be suited for jobs where it is easier to conform, and where lower degrees of motivation is needed such as for example, clerical or jobs of a more routine nature.

2.4.5.2 Relationship between Locus of Control and Job Performance

Many studies support the view that internals wield more effort on the job, and perform more efficiently than externals. Some have investigated personal career effectiveness across several jobs, and others were concerned with more immediate job

performance (Spector, 1982; Valecha, 1972). According to Spector (1982), career effectiveness is measured over time through salary increments and through promotion. He admits that although there may not be a strong association between performance on specific jobs and promotion or salary increases, however, in a global sense career effectiveness reflects in job performance and therefore one would expect internals to be more successful in their careers

Spector (1982), argues that individuals who are internally orientated are more inclined to anticipate that their personal effort will lead to good performance, and ultimately good rewards. Similarly, they are more open to feedback and thus seek more relevant information, and also perform better than externals in complex task situations.

Phares (1957) quotes a study conducted by Walk and Decette whereby they presented verbal materials to subjects to be scanned for errors. In a measure of incidental learning internals were superior to externals. When exposed to tasks, which were either ambiguous or very difficult, internals were even more superior on finding errors and incidental learnings. In a study of a 146 full time bank tellers working for a US bank, Blau (1993), found that bank tellers who were internals exhibited higher initiative performance (performing beyond basic job requirements) than their external counterparts.

Tseng (1970) hypothesised that locus of control would correlate with job proficiency, employability, and training satisfaction of clients in a vocational centre. He found that in comparison to externals, internals showed significantly higher instructor ratings on job proficiency and personal quality, higher self ratings on training satisfaction, and

higher need for achievement. In examining the relationship of locus of control and work relevant variables, Valecha (1972) found that white internals were in higher level occupations, made better progress on the job, had more stable work histories, worked more hours per week and had higher incomes than White externals. No such relationships were found for Black employees. Biggs and Felton (1977) found that people who are highly motivated towards success are internal in their orientation, realistic, persistent and responsible.

2.4.5.3 Locus of Control and Job Satisfaction

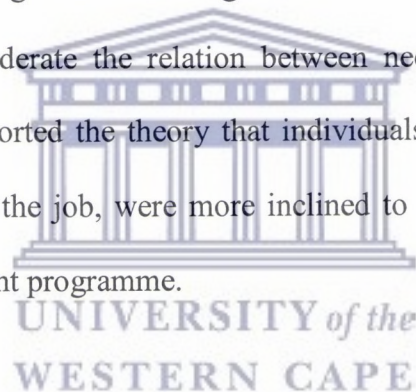
McCormick and Illigen (1980, p. 303) define job satisfaction as “the attitude one has towards his or her job.” Locke (1983) states that while much research has been done on the effects of pay, supervision and working conditions on job satisfaction, little attention has been paid to the influence of personality factors on job satisfaction. According to him, locus of control orientations has shown to have a powerful effect in a variety of work environments for both the employer and the employee.

Spector (1982) suggested that locus of control is related to a number of variables such as turnover, motivation, performance and job satisfaction. This was supported by Locke (1983) who found that individuals with an internal locus of control reported higher performance rates, were more motivated, and expressed higher job satisfaction levels than those displaying an external locus of control.

In addition to Locke’s findings, Traver, Canada and Lim (1999) conducted a study to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and locus of control among college students affairs administrators and academic administrators. The findings

indicated that positive job satisfaction and locus of control orientations were found among administrators. Similarly, Gemmil and Heisler (1972) support the locus of control–job satisfaction premise, in that they found a significant correlation between these variables. In a study conducted by Munoz (1973) among New York City policeman, it was determined that internals were more satisfied than externals.

Giles (1977) provided interesting data based on his study involving female factory workers, who were administered a questionnaire of the shortened version of the I-E scale and also a measure of satisfaction. Following this, they were then asked to volunteer for a self enrichment programme. Although locus of control did not predict who would volunteer, it did moderate the relation between need satisfaction and volunteering. This therefore supported the theory that individuals, who experienced lowered levels of satisfaction on the job, were more inclined to take action, in this case, volunteer for a job enrichment programme.



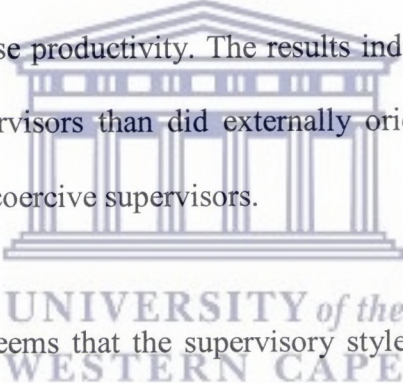
2.4.5.4 Locus of Control and Leadership

Anderson and Schneier (1978) conducted a study, whereby they assessed the locus of control, leader behaviour and leader performance among management students. The results indicated that leaders were more likely to be internally than externally controlled. Findings also indicated that superior performance was achieved by internal leaders and in teams lead by internally controlled management students. Mitchell, Smyser and Weed (1974) found that external supervisors were more inclined to use their formal position to see coercion as an affective way to get their subordinates to do their jobs. Internal supervisors on the other hand were more inclined to use rewards,

respect and their expertise as a means to manage and motivate their subordinates, thus leading more productive teams.

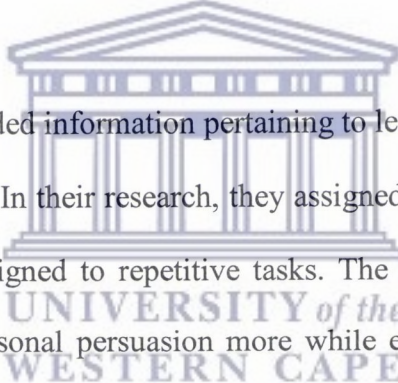
Results of research conducted amongst manufacturing employees indicate that internals were more satisfied with their supervisors under a participative leadership style, and simultaneously externally controlled individuals were more satisfied when supervised under a more directive leadership style (Runyon, 1973).

Cravens and Worchel (1977) conducted a study where subjects were asked to work on a repetitive manual task, under a supervisor who used either a coercive or non coercive leadership style to increase productivity. The results indicated that internals complied less with coercive supervisors than did externally orientated individuals. There was no difference with non coercive supervisors.



According to Spector (1982), it seems that the supervisory style used by managers should be adjusted accordingly, and will therefore differ depending on the subordinate's locus of control. In elaborating on Spector's comment, one can therefore see how useful it would be to understand the subordinate's locus of control. Not only will this help organisations to optimise the performance of their employees, but also to help managers understand how to best manage them in order to build good relationships, which will ultimately impact on how managers can then align their (the subordinates) performance for success. Assessing the employee's locus of control and ultimately their personality as a whole can be of great use to both organisations and the individual.

In a study conducted by Le Roux, Schmidt and Schepers (1997), among 117 education managers in a government organisation, it was found that a positive relationship between internal locus of control and participative management exists. According to Armstrong (1977), participative managers who are more inclined to exhibit leadership tendencies, consult their employees and as a result make working together as a team seamlessly. Newstorm and Davies (1993) concur and state that participative managers do not abandon their responsibility as managers, but will rather retain ultimate responsibility for the operation of their work divisions, while sharing operating responsibility with those who actually perform the tasks. This is likely to result in employees feeling that there is a sense of involvement in group goals.

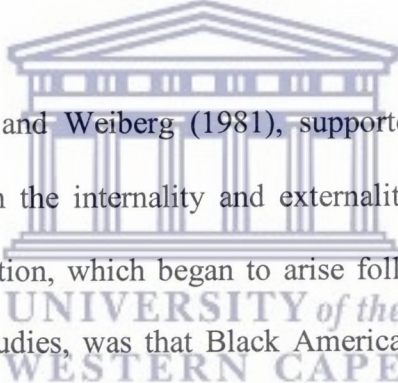


Goodstadt and Hjelle (1973) provided information pertaining to leaders who are either internally or externally orientated. In their research, they assigned college students as supervisors over work groups assigned to repetitive tasks. The results showed that internals were inclined to use personal persuasion more while externals were more inclined to use coercion to get results.

These findings were supported in a study conducted by Miller, Kets de Vries and Toulouse (1982). In their article they discussed how locus of control influences supervisory styles. The researchers also conducted a study among top executives and found that internally controlled chief executives tended to pursue more product-market innovation, undertook greater risks in decision making and concentrated on being a market leader as opposed to following the competition.

2.4.6 IMPACT OF RACE AND CULTURE ON LOCUS OF CONTROL

In the mid 1970s and continuing through the early 1980s, many studies were conducted in an attempt to determine the degree to which an individual's culture has an impact on his or her locus of control. Research conducted by Gaa and Shores (1979) supported the assumption that domain specific locus of control measures reflect distinct but not consistent differences in culturally diverse groups. In their study, they found that there were in fact significant differences in the internal or external sense of control between Black, Anglo, and Chicano undergraduates. It was however not concluded that Blacks were more external than Whites in all circumstances.



A study conducted by Krampen and Weiberg (1981), supported Gaa and Shores (1979). They found differences in the internality and externality of American and German students. One popular notion, which began to arise following this wave of culture related locus of control studies, was that Black Americans tend to be more external in their perceived control than Caucasian Americans. Many studies have reached this specific conclusion through various approaches, including those of Gurin, Lao, and Beattie (1969); and Vecchio (1981).

The most recent of these particular studies indicates specifically that young Black workers tend to be more external in terms of locus of control in comparison to White workers of similar age and education. A worker with an external locus of control, for example, might blame a mistake made at work on his/her demanding boss and selfish co-workers. He/she might think to themselves "Well, I never would have made the mistake in the first place if my boss hadn't been putting so much pressure on

me to get the job done on time." Someone with an internal locus of control, on the other hand, might blame the mistake on his/her own carelessness or failure to pay enough attention to the details.

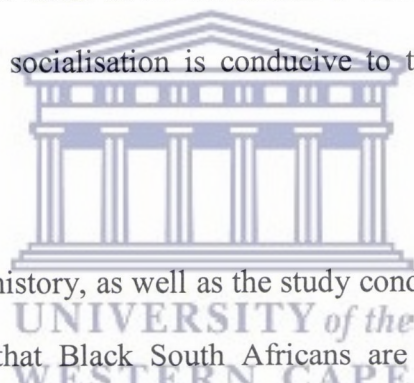
Schaap, Buys and Olckers (2003) conducted a study on the construct validity of the Scheepers' Locus of Control Inventory among Black and White students at a tertiary institution in South Africa. The findings indicated that there were infact differences in the construct validity of the Locus of Control Inventory for Black and White students respectively. According to their study, while White students scored more consistently on the internal locus of control scale, Black students scored less consistently on this scale than their White counterparts.

Vecchio also suggested that this racial difference appears not only in adult workers, but also in children and adolescents. He went on to suggest that the racial difference for adult male workers could be as a result of, a function of sub cultural differences in colloquial speech, as well as the result of depressing personal job experiences (Vecchio, 1981). Vecchio's suggestion of negative job experiences, as a source of increased externality certainly is a valid one.

A host of opposition relating to the connection between culture and locus of control arose in the late 1970s (Buriel, 1981; Cole & Cole, 1974; Furnham & Henry, 1980; Singh & Verma, 1990). Furnham & Henry (1980) found a number of problems and inaccuracies in one study, including the methodologies utilised. They specified that taking college students from two different cultures is not a sufficient way to obtain

matched equivalent samples, due to the fact that third world students, for example, are certainly not representative of their entire culture (Furnham & Henry, 1980).

Singh and Verma (1990) have suggested that there are other factors that have a greater impact on locus of control than that of culture. They noted, that knowledge of, and a positive attitude toward environment, active involvement in recreation, and emphasis on freedom in socialization are conducive to the development of internality. The answer to the question of whether or not cultural factors influence one's sense of control in one's life may not be definite, but the implications of one's degree of internality and externality are quite clear. In the researcher's view, Singh and Verma (1990) postulate that freedom of socialisation is conducive to the development of internal locus of control.

The logo of the University of the Western Cape, featuring a classical building facade with columns and a pediment, with the text 'UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE' overlaid in a serif font.

Referring back to South Africa's history, as well as the study conducted by Schaap et al (2003), it becomes apparent that Black South Africans are likely to be more inclined to have an external locus of control as laws of segregation impacted on their freedom to socialise both in a social as well as in a work setting. The environment therefore impacted on the individual and dictated the course of events.

According to Dickens and Dickens (1982) Black employees often enter organisations armed with their own cultural and behavioral patterns, such as ubuntu, African time, Sisonke (we are together), Siyakula (we are growing) etcetera. they soon realize that this cannot be fully utilised in 'White' corporations to accomplish results and consequently, Black employees find that they need to adjust to the external environment, by developing additional behavioural styles. Dickens and Dickens

(1982) go on to say that during the adjustment phase, the black employee realizes that race becomes an issue that can affect their work outputs. Another barrier to the development of internal locus of control for black employees is that of mentorships. Dickens and Dickens (1982) maintain that corporations have often developed a system whereby certain people are moved up the ranks. This is often achieved by managers who are further up the hierarchy sponsoring others for managerial positions. The coach or sponsor performs the function of mentoring or 'grooming' the individual. However, the process often breaks down because the organisation does not have the necessary criteria to select Black employees with potential. In addition, according to Dickens and Dickens, another factor that inhibits from getting a sponsor is the need to feel emotionally attached to the sponsor. While this is often not a need for the White employee, the Black employee often becomes frustrated and develops a sense of helplessness in attaining their goals. Questions such as "why do I have to take the initiative? ; I didn't create the situation, so why should I be responsible to fix it?" (Dickens & Dickens, 1982, p. 23).

In relating this back to the study conducted by Vecchio (1981) it becomes evident how the above mentioned incidents experienced by Black employees in South African organisations support the theory that Black employees tend to be more externally controlled in comparison to their White counterparts. One can also argue that the Black employee is constantly drawn to respond to and or rely on the external environment by the very nature of a lack of, or slow movement of current organizational transformation.

The literature discussed this far, focuses primarily on the concept of locus of control and its relationship with other variables. What has also specifically been touched on, is the relationship between locus of control and motivation. The next section will provide a more in-depth discussion of motivation, specifically, achievement motivation and its association with performance, race, and gender, and also in relation to locus of control.



2.5 ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

Le Roux et al. (1997) state that many researchers have attempted to identify and describe achievement motivation, and in the process, this has brought about a wide variety of definitions. However, according to Le Roux et al. (1997), when comparing the definitions put forth by various researchers it becomes evident that they are noticeably similar in terms of the dimensions related to achievement motivation. Understanding an individual's motivation and how this motivation influences the person's thoughts, feelings and actions, has been a growing field of interest (Little, 1983).

This section will examine the concept of achievement motivation. In doing so, this it will look at the historical background of the variable, as well as various definitions that will be discussed. Attention will also be paid to the relationship between achievement motivation and performance, the need for achievement and its impact on race and culture, as well as the relationship between achievement motivation and gender.

2.5.1 THE CONCEPT OF MOTIVATION

According to Smith and Cronje (1993, p. 306), "A motive is an inner state that energises or moves (hence motivation), and that directs and channels behaviour towards goals."

2.5.2 THE NEED FOR ACHIEVEMENT-HISTORY AND DEFINITION

According to Schmalt (1999), Murray played a dual role in the history of achievement motivation, in that, he firstly drew attention to the need for attention. Historically, the concept of drive and need were often used interchangeably, or were linked very closely. Over time, drives became identified with states of deprivation, behaviourism, and research employing subhuman organisms. The concept of need on the other hand, was identified with molar personality and signified more stable characteristics of individuals (Weiner, 1992). Murray (1938) went on to formulate a classification table that included 20 basic human needs. This is illustrated in the table 2.1

Table 2.1. Summarised version of Murray's Taxonomy of Needs:

NEED	DOMAIN
N Achievement	Pertaining to ambition
Recognition	
N Exhibition	
N Acquisition	Pertaining to Inanimate Objects
N Conservance	
N Order	
N Retention	
N Construction	
N Inviolacy	Pertaining to Defence or Status
N Inavoidance	
N Dominance	Pertaining to human Power
N Affiliation	Pertaining to affection between people
N Cognisance	Pertaining to exchange of information

Source: Carver, C.S. and Scheier, M.F. (1988). *Perspectives of Personality* (2nd ed.), p.103.

As shown in the table, one of the needs identified was that of achievement motivation. According to Thompson (1984, pp. 5-6) definitions of achievement motivation start with Murray who defined the concept as “an accomplishment of something difficult, an ability to master, manipulate or organise physical subjects, human being or ideas. To do this as rapidly and independently as possible. To overcome obstacles and to attain a high standard, to excel one’s self, to rival and surpass others, or increase self regard by the successful exercise of talent.”

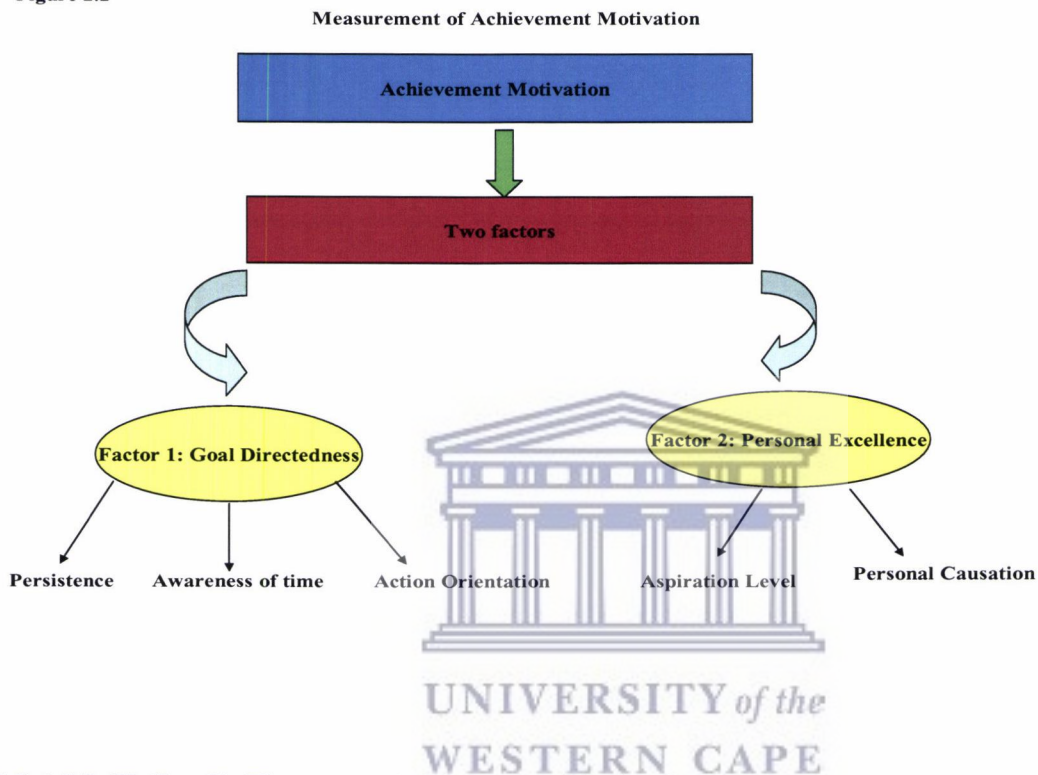
Atkinson (1964) further, states that people with a high need for achievement are inclined to set difficult goals, welcome performance feedback, and take personal responsibility for the tasks that they embark on. De Wet (1990) concurs in that he states that high achievers display more independent behaviour and are less inclined to conform to pressure placed upon them.

Dweck (1986) defines Achievement motivation as involving two classes of goals with accompanying adaptive and maladaptive motivational patterns. According to the researcher, goals are viewed as adaptive when they challenging, and lead to the mastery of valued achievement goals. Contrary to this, goals are viewed as maladaptive when they restrain the individual from establishing performance goals, or when they inhibit behaviour that would lead to the mastery of these goals

In an effort to measure the nature achievement motivation, the Achievement Motivation Questionnaire was developed by Pottas, Erwee, Boshoff and Lessing (1980). Upon performing a factor analysis, two factors with a number of sub factors were identified (Le Roux et al., 1997). Factor 1 which was labelled goal directedness,

included three sub factors. These were: persistence, awareness of time and action orientation. Factor 2 which was labelled personal excellence included aspiration level and personal causation as sub factors. This is depicted in figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2



2.5.2.1 McClelland's Theory on Achievement Motivation

Motive, which plays a role in many human activities have been studied extensively by McClelland (Carver & Scheier, 1988). Although earlier research indicated that individuals have a need for achievement, Mc Clelland argued that some individuals have a greater need to achieve than others.

McClelland emphasises that the motive to achieve will be aroused when the individual considers himself responsible for the outcome of an activity. He goes on to say that their must be explicit knowledge of results so that the individual knows when

he has succeeded, and linked to this, there must be sufficient risk concerning the possibility of success (Weiner, 1992).

McClelland (1970) further examines reasons why some individuals are challenged by opportunity and willing to work hard, while others have a low need to achieve. In researching this, he closely examines the concept of nAch in relation to economic development and growth. According to Mc Clelland, it is not difficult to understand why people, who concentrate on performing tasks better, actually are more apt at doing things better. They set moderately achievable goals for themselves, and also prefer working in situations where they are able to monitor their performance. McClelland's theory provides more insight into how achievement motivation can be linked to the organisational context. Having said this, managers can now be in a better position to supervise and develop their subordinates in a manner that will benefit both the organisation, and the individual. He also pointed out that environmental factors have a great influence on achievement motivation. According to McClelland, high achievers will generally be attracted to business environments which is likely to offer personal responsibility for accomplishments (McClelland, 1970).

2.5.3 NEED FOR ACHIEVEMENT AND THE FEAR OF FAILURE

According to Atkinson (1958), achievement motivation is defined as a disposition to strive for success and or the capacity to experience pleasure contingent upon success. The motive to avoid failure is described as a disposition to strive to avoid failure and or the capacity to experience shame or humiliation as a consequence of failure. It is

important to turn our attention to the desire to avoid failure as this also plays an important part in achievement behaviour.

Elliot and Sheldon (1997) researched the nature of achievement motivation relating to the desire to approach success (need for achievement) and the desire to avoid failure (fear of failure). The study revealed that the fear of failure (low need for achievement) leads to the pursuit of avoidance of achievement goals, and this ultimately results in negative achievement or lack of outcomes achieved. The research supported the fact that the desire to avoid failure caused a decrease in self-esteem, personal control, vitality and life satisfaction. When linking Elliot and Sheldon's research to the fast paced environments of organisations today, where the employee is expected to build networks to obtain information, build and maintain relationships, analyse situations and make decisions on a daily basis, it becomes evident that individuals who have a low need to achieve may be viewed by their superiors and colleagues as incompetent. Experiencing feelings of competence with regards to one's goals according to Elliot and Sheldon (1997) appears to be a psychological need. Failure to fulfil this need is likely to affect one's goal or specific outcomes.

Halvari and Kjormo (1999) found that there was an association of motive to avoid failure with performance avoidance. This is likely to result in people avoiding the risk of failure through avoiding achievement related situations altogether, never having to try means that there is no risk of failing. Another way of avoiding failure is through the very act of succeeding. This may mean that there are those people who do try hard to achieve, but do not care about merely just gaining the success, as much as they are

aware that gaining the success simply means avoiding failure (Carver & Scheier, 1998).

Mehrabian (1969, p .494) classified high achievers as “individuals who have a stronger motive to achieve relative to their motive to avoid failure, as compared to low achievers who are more concerned with avoiding the possibility of failing, than concentrating on their willingness to achieve”. The highly achievement motivated individual is more likely to embark on tough tasks (even though there is a chance that he/she may fail). The primary reason for this is that the individual is less likely to feel shameful of his/her failure.

2.5.4 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN NEED FOR ACHIEVEMENT AND PERFORMANCE



According to Bothma and Schepers (1997), achievement motivation, like that of locus of control, is also regarded as playing an important role in the work performance of individuals. The individual, who has a high Need for Achievement, usually has a strong desire to assume personal responsibility for performing a task, tend to set difficult goals, and have a strong desire for performance feedback (McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, & Lowell, 1958).

According to Mc Clelland (1970), Achievement motivated people prefer to work on a problem rather than leave it to chance. Achievement motivated people take the middle ground, preferring a moderate degree of risk because they believe that their efforts

and abilities will influence the outcome in successfully completing the task. They are deadline driven and will most likely to deliver on tasks within agreed timelines.

This aggressive realism is the mark of a successful entrepreneur and or employee.

Erwee and Pottas (1982) support Lefcourt's theory (1976) that the causative agent regarded as a person's locus of control is a basic motivation human force in man. In their study, Black entrepreneurs were subjected to various programmes following which motivation training was found to be associated with a decrease in externality, and an increase in achievement motivation. Furthermore, it was also found that entrepreneurs with a high degree of internal locus of control and increase in achievement motivation were found to engage more in business activities than those with an external locus of control.

2.5.5 IMPACT OF RACE AND CULTURE ON ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION



While achievement motivation is a dimension of personality, and as such relates to differences between individuals, considerable evidence suggests that it also differs across cultures (Greenberg & Baron, 1997). McClelland (1985) analysed stories in 22 different cultures with respect to which these stories contained elements of achievement motivation such as for example “the little train that thought he could” which was read by millions of children in the United States. He then related these levels of achievement to two elements of economic development. McClelland's findings were clear in that the greater the emphasis placed on achievement in stories told to children in various nations, the more rapid the economic growth in these nations as these children grew up.

The findings of Furnham, Kirkcaldy and Lynn (1994) involving 12 000 participants in 41 different countries, where achievement motivation was linked to attitudes towards work, competitiveness, money, spending and the gross domestic product and the growth rate, supports that of McClelland. A very clear example of this relationship is provided by Japan, where there is a constant preoccupation with achievement and accomplishment. Such philosophy is referred to as Kaizen, which is an emphasis for continuous improvement for everyone in the organisation. This is the direct opposite of the American (and often many other country's) philosophy, "if it ain't broke, don't fix it" (Greenberg & Baron, 1997, p. 125).

According to McClelland cited Greenberg and Baron (1997), regardless of culture or gender, people are driven by three motives:

- *Achievement*
- *Affiliation and*
- *Influence*

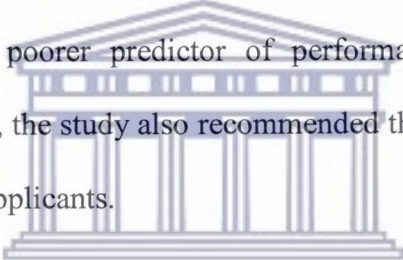


Since McClelland's first experiments, over 1,000 studies relevant to achievement motivation have been conducted. These studies strongly support the theory.

According to Dickens and Dickens (1982), Black employees, when first joining an organisation, are often hit head on with a subtle form of racism in terms of their work task performance and accomplishments. It may seem that their White colleagues often question their ability to competently carry out their tasks. Often Black employees remain in training positions because they are perceived as taking longer to familiarise themselves with their tasks. As a result, these employees begin to undermine their confidence, self-esteem and self worth.

The study conducted by Dickens and Dickens (1982) supports the research of Singh and Verma (1990) who postulate that knowledge and positive attitude towards the environment and emphasis on freedom of association, increases internality, and ultimately achievement motivation. It is evident that it could be increasingly difficult for Black South African employees to have or develop a strong sense of internal control, achievement motivation, and even self-efficacy in some companies.

In a study conducted by Bothma and Schepers (1997), 102 Black managers were assessed using the Achievement Motivation Questionnaire (AMQ), the Locus of Control Questionnaire, and a Performance Appraisal Questionnaire. The findings indicated that the AMQ was a poorer predictor of performance among Black managers in South Africa. As such, the study also recommended that the AMQ not be used as a selection tool for Black applicants.



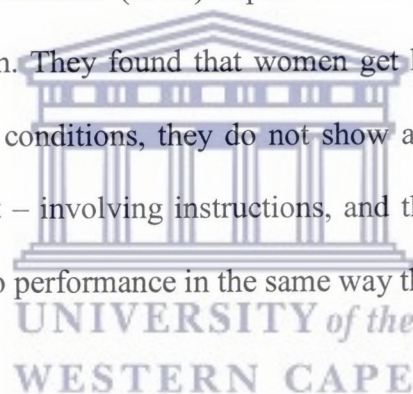
2.5.6 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION, LOCUS OF CONTROL AND GENDER

Only recently has there been a move to understand the effects of the achievement motive on women, since most of the past research has been primarily focused on male subjects. Much of the literature regarding research on achievement motivation and women suggests that achievement needs are expressed in different ways in women, depending on where they see their direction in life.

According to a study conducted by Al-Emadi (2003), it was found that girls attributed their success or failure to effort, while boys attributed their success or failure to luck.

The study therefore argues that males have an external locus of control while females are more internally controlled. According to Dickens and Dickens (1982), women tend to react (emotionally) more easily to the external environment than that of males. Gastfriend and Wu (2005) maintains that based on the empirical findings of their study, females indicated more external locus of control, while males reflected a more internal locus of control.

Swart (1982) found that high levels of nAch predicted women's career persistence over a period of 14 years. This was, however, only in the case of women who did not have any children. Carver and Scheiner (1988) report on research conducted on achievement motivation in women. They found that women get higher achievement scores than men in under neutral conditions, they do not show an increase in nAch scores, as a result of achievement – involving instructions, and their scores seem as valid as men's in that they relate to performance in the same way that men do



Abu-Hilal (2001) states that girls have been found in several studies to be more motivated and higher achievers than boys. Both at school and college level, females have registered higher achievement scores than males (Hassan & Khalifah, 1999). According to Abu-Hilal (2001), several explanations exist why one could argue this, the most commonly being that the socialization of boys and girls are often very different thus explaining the differential gender effect on achievement. Females are usually more confined to the home, especially during the adolescence stage than boys. This seems to give females more time to concentrate on studies than males who have more freedom outside of the room. Ablard and Lipschultz (1998) found that although

females could master tasks more easily than males, there was no significant difference in how boys fared in work performance.

In more recent findings, researchers agree that women show a greater orientation towards any social and interpersonal relationships, as well as greater conformism in relation to men's drive for achievement and less conformism (Erwee & Boshoff, 1982; & Carver & Scheier, 1988). McClelland (1951) cited in Getzkow (1951) stated that women's motivation for achievement is less significant and different in character to that of men. Women's self esteem is more socially based than that of men's who is more materially inclined.



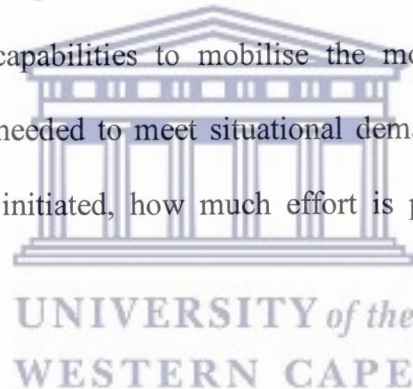
2.6 DEFINITION, CHARACTERISTICS AND MEASUREMENT OF SELF EFFICACY

This section reviews the various definitions of the self-efficacy construct, the three dimensions of self-efficacy and the measurement of the construct.

2.6.1. SELF EFFICACY DEFINED

Self-efficacy relates to an individual's belief in being able to cope with a specific task (Bandura, 1987). It therefore refers to what a person believes he/she can actually do in carrying out a job or task (Mitchell, Hopper, Daniels, Falvy & James, 1994).

Wood and Bandura (1989, p. 408) expanded the definition by adding that self-efficacy “refers to the beliefs in one's capabilities to mobilise the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to meet situational demands”. Such beliefs can affect whether behaviour is initiated, how much effort is put forth, and how persistent the behaviour is.



Bandura's (1991), later definition of the self-efficacy construct emphasized perceived control as a fundamental aspect of the construct, defining it as beliefs about one's capabilities to exercise control over one's own level of functioning and other events that affect one's life. Bandura's (1997, p. 3) more recent definition highlighted perceived competence as the essential factor of the construct defining self-efficacy as the “belief in one's capabilities to organise and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments.”

McAuley (1992) similarly believes that self-efficacy can be broadly defined as beliefs that people have in the capability to engage successfully in a course of action sufficient to satisfy situational demands.

It could also be argued that self efficacy does not represent a generalized feeling of control or success, but rather an individual's judgment or perception of his/her capability to perform in particular settings or environments (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Therefore self-efficacy is not concerned with the actual skill that one possesses, but rather with the judgment or belief in what one can do with that skill (Katz, 1995).

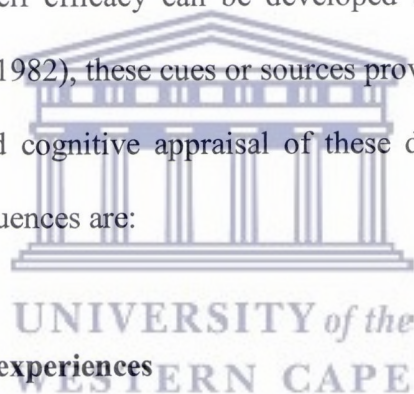
Bandura, 1986 states that firstly it is an individual's judgment of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action in order to achieve preferred types of performance. Secondly, according to Gist and Mitchell (1992), self-efficacy is a dynamic construct that changes over time as new information and experiences are acquired. Hence it therefore stands to reason that with positive mentoring programs, and creating opportunities to gain experience, can result in an individual's perception of his/her ability changing positively over time. Thirdly, self-efficacy beliefs involve a more complex and generative process or mobilisation component in that people who possess the same skills may perform differently based on their utilisation, combination and sequencing of their skills in a particular work context (Gist & Mitchell, 1992).

Woods (1995) suggests that four psychological processors are affected by self efficacy. These are:

- **Cognitive-** if people believe that they are able, then self efficacy can affect their thought patterns and behaviour.
- **Motivational-** people are more likely to persist if they have a higher level of self efficacy.
- **Affective-** people high in self efficacy show less stress and anxiety.
- **Selection-** people who have higher levels of self efficacy will choose more challenging but realistic tasks.

2.6.2 SOURCES OF SELF EFFICACY

Bandura (1994) postulates that self efficacy can be developed by four sources of influence. According to Bandura (1982), these cues or sources provide important data, however, it is the integration and cognitive appraisal of these data that ultimately determine self efficacy. These influences are:



- **2.6.2.1 Through mastery experiences**

Enactive mastery has shown to enhance self efficacy more than any other kind of cues. According to Bandura (1994), success builds a strong belief in an individual's personal efficacy. While failure on the other hand, undermines an individual's belief in him/herself. Hence, easily achievable goals will only give rise to people expecting quick results and ultimately being discouraged in the face of failure. Persevering through the tough times will assist in emerging stronger in the face of adversity and, in turn, resulting in a healthier sense of worth.

- **2.6.2.2 Through experiences provided by social models**

When enactive mastery is not possible, vicarious experience may be identified as useful although somewhat less influential. In this instance, role models to whom an individual may admire or aspire toward being, based on their sustained effort to succeed, is one way to influence and strengthen self efficacy (Bandura, 1994). Self modelling for example may be a special type of experience that may involve videotaped feedback in which the subject's mistakes are edited and rectified so that the individual sees him/herself performing the task correctly. This was confirmed in a study conducted by Gonzales and Dowrick (1982) cited in Gist (1987), where they found that self modelling led to improved performance through enhancing self beliefs. In another study conducted by Brown and Inouye (1978) cited in Gist (1987), it was found that modelling of ineffective performance (negative modelling) reduced self efficacy, persistence, and ultimately performance. As a result, the study suggests that modelling can have a negative as well as a positive effect in self efficacy depending of course of the influence applied.

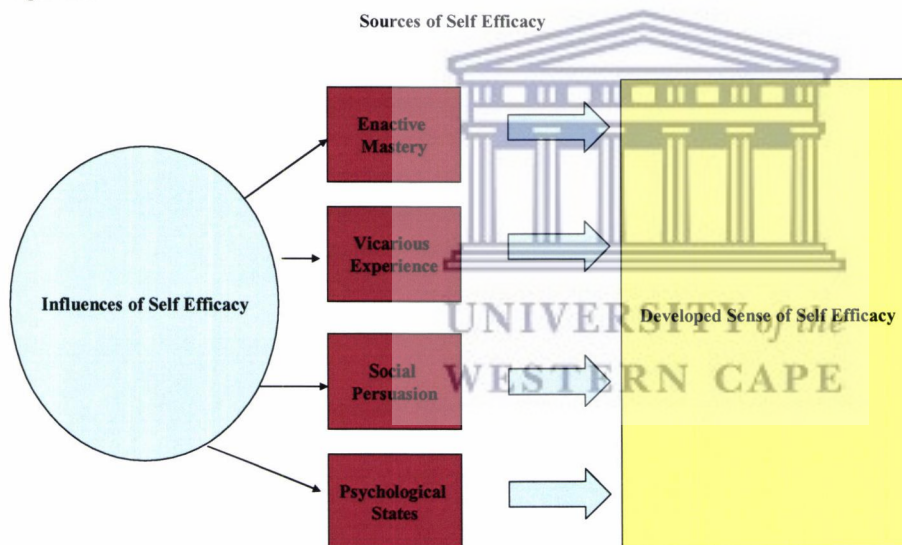
- **2.6.2.3 Through social persuasion**

Social persuasion as suggested by Bandura (1994), is the third source of strengthening an individual's beliefs. He explains that verbal persuasion is one way in which to boost self efficacy so as to mobilise greater effort and sustain it. To this extent it is believed that persuasion in perceived self efficacy can result in individuals trying hard enough, so much so, that it ultimately results in success. According to Bandura (1982), this source of self efficacy is less effective than enactive mastery and vicarious experience.

2.6.2.4 Through somatic and emotional states

Moods, according to Bandura (1994), have the ability to affect a person's judgement regarding their personal efficacy, in that they are likely to interpret their stress reactions as signs of vulnerability or poor performance. Positive mood enhances perceived self efficacy, while despondent moods are more inclined to diminish it. Therefore, the fourth way to reinforce self efficacy, is to reduce individuals stressors, and alter their negative emotional states. The sources of self efficacy is summarised in figure 2.3.

Figure 2.3.



2.6.3 DIMENSIONS OF SELF-EFFICACY

Self-efficacy varies along three dimensions, namely: level (the number of tasks a person can do or the expected performance attainments); strength (the certainty or conviction an individual has in his/her ability to successfully perform each task); and generality (the extent to which self-efficacy expectations can be generalised from one situation to the next (Sadri, 1996; Wiegand & Stockholm, 2000).

Generally, self-efficacy is regarded as a situation-specific concept, however, Bandura (1997) advocates that self-efficacy can also range from specific self-efficacy to generalised self-efficacy. Specific self-efficacy is a state-based expectation. In other words, it is a judgement made immediately before any effort is used on a task, and reflects an employee's momentary belief in his/her capability to perform a specific task at a specific time (Gardner & Pierce, 1998).

Research conducted by Gardner and Pierce (1998) support Bandura's (1997) notion regarding generalised self-efficacy, and further identified two factors that are likely to lead to high generalised self-efficacy, namely, repeated success at a specific task and the accumulation of successful experiences across a wide variety of tasks. Although Bandura (1997) recognises that perceptions of self-efficacy may generalise across situations, there is a lack of empirical research dealing with the questions of how and why self-efficacy appraisals generalise across various contexts (Cervone, 2000).

2.6.4. MEASUREMENT OF SELF-EFFICACY

Bandura (1986) proposes that the measurement of self-efficacy cognitions should be carried out in microanalytical fashion, by assessing specific task-based self-efficacy along three dimensions, namely, level of expected performance strength, which concerns the certainty with which individuals expect to successfully attain the task and generality, which refers to the number of domains in which individuals feel they are self-efficacious.

Bandura's (1986) concept of generality suggests that a high level of self-efficacy in one domain does not necessarily result in a high level of self-efficacy in another domain. This is based on the view that self-efficacy is not a generalised personality trait, but rather a context-specific judgement. A scale designed to measure self-efficacy must reference task abilities that are specific to the situation. Bandura (1986) also suggests that the most refined test of self-efficacy's contribution to behaviour would involve close monitoring of changes in perceived self-efficacy as external influences are applied; this test would therefore involve the systematic variation of self-efficacy, the findings of which could then address causality.

2.6.5 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-EFFICACY AND PERFORMANCE

Research during the past years has increasingly focused on the contribution that Social Cognitive Theory can make in the area of work performance (Appelbaum, 1996). Empirical evidence yielded by research conducted in the 1990's has given strong support to the relationship between task performance, motivation and self-efficacy (Gist, 1987).

Gist (1987) also postulate that research has generally supported the relationship between self efficacy and performance. Bandura (1986) argues that given the appropriate skill and incentive, self efficacy is very often the critical determinant of performance. The reason behind this is that an individual's self concept can prevent even the most talented individual from realizing his/her potential.

Research conducted by Cornelius (2003) argued that skill alone is not enough to ensure effective performance by the employee. According to Cornelius (2003),

employees need a combination of four factors in order to demonstrate effectiveness in their jobs. The factors are outlined as follows;

- Skill
- Opportunity to perform
- Supportive environment
- Strong sense of self efficacy

Assuming that these factors are in place, it will then better equip employees to put new skills in place in order to boost their performance.

2.6.5.1. Effects of Self Efficacy on Behaviour and Performance

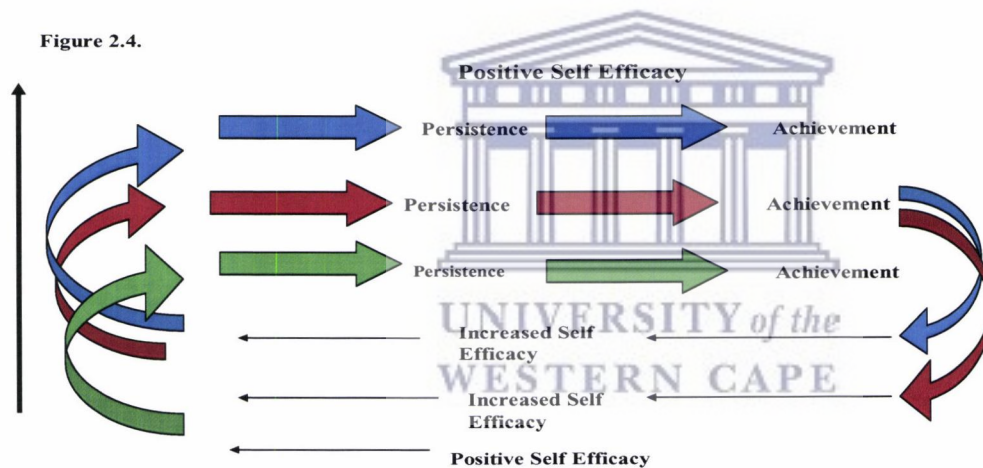
Ormrod (1999), maintains that an individual's self efficacy affects behaviour and ultimately performance in many ways. According to the researcher, self efficacy not only affects which tasks are attempted, but also how much one learns, as well the manner in which tasks are completed. It therefore makes sense that for these reasons, self efficacy should be of concern to managers in organisations.

Ormrod (1999) outlines four characteristics that impact on self efficacy and its effects on behaviour. These are;

- Choice
- Effort
- Persistence
- Learning/Achievement

According to him, individuals typically choose activities they feel they will be successful in doing. Individuals will tend to put more effort and persistence into activities and behaviors they consider to be successful in achieving. Learning and achievement also plays a role in that employees with high self-efficacy tend to achieve more.

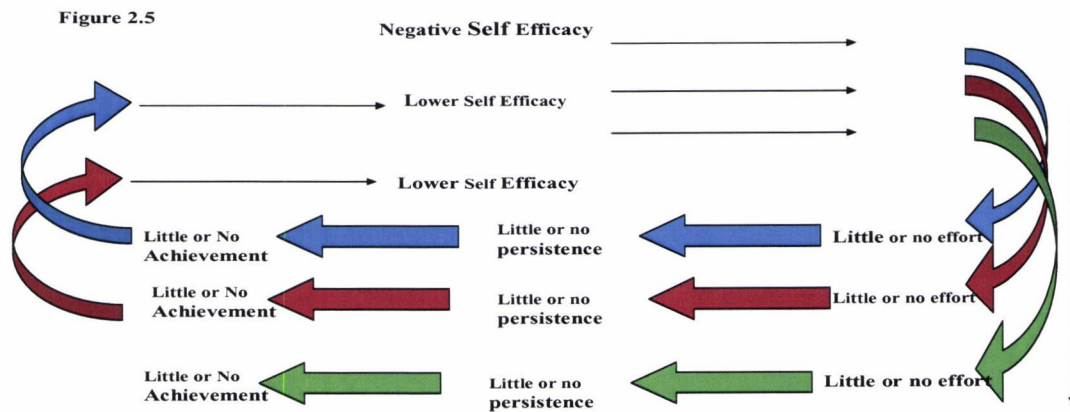
The following diagram indicates the relationship between persistence and achievement of tasks based on positive self efficacy.



Source: Ormrod, J.E. (1999). *Human Learning* (3rd Ed.), p.11.

On the flip side, Ormrod (1999) states that not everyone starts of life with a positive sense of self efficacy, and thus may lead him/her to attempt a specific task or tasks less often. In addition to choosing this task less often the individual is also more likely not to exert much effort in completing the task. Therefore with minimal exertion of persistence and effort the individual is likely to learn very little and thus not being very successful.

The following diagram indicates the relationship between these four characteristics and achievement of tasks based on negative self efficacy.



Source: Ormrod, J.E. (1999). *Human Learning* (3rd Ed.), p.12.

2.6.5.2 Improving self efficacy for optimal work performance

According to Bruning, Schraw and Ronning (1999), self efficacy is an important element in both teaching and learning, yet it is often overlooked as a factor that could influence behaviour and performance on work tasks. The following methods are outlined to assist in increasing or improving an individual's self efficacy:

2.6.5.2.1 Increase awareness of the self efficacy concept

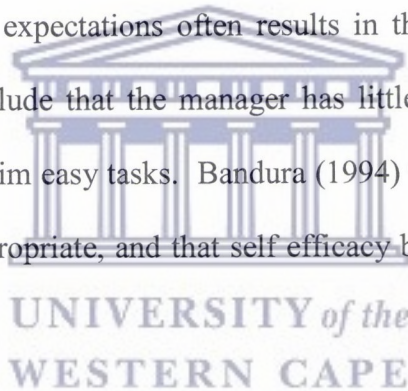
To optimise performance, it is important that employees become aware of the importance of self efficacy, specifically with regards to the effect that it may have on their behaviour. For a start, managers can emphasize the links between self esteem and achievement (Bruning et al., 1999).

2.6.5.2.2 Provide feedback

One of the most influential ways of improving self efficacy is through constructive feedback. Employees should not only receive feedback of success or failure but more importantly why the success or failure had occurred (Bruning et al., 1999).

2.6.5.2.3 Build Self efficacy rather than reduce expectations

Providing easy tasks or reducing expectations often results in the lowering of self efficacy. The employee will conclude that the manager has little confidence in his ability thus the reason for giving him easy tasks. Bandura (1994) therefore maintains that expectations must remain appropriate, and that self efficacy be built through the use of small, intermediate goals.



2.6.5.2.4 Encourage self regulation

Employees should be taught to manage and control their own behaviour. According to Bruning (1999), the way in which to achieve this is:

- **Setting personal standards and goals-** determining limits or boundaries for one's behaviour
- **Self observation-** determining whether one's current behaviours are in line with set standards and goals
- **Self judgment-** evaluating behaviour in light of personal standards

- **Self reaction-** self reinforcement or punishment based on either meeting or not meeting the one's standards and goals.

2.6.6 SELF EFFICACY, SUPPORTIVE ORGANISATIONAL ENVIRONMENT AND JOB PERFORMANCE

2.6.6.1 Supportive Organisational environment and Self Efficacy

Katz (1995) believes that performance deteriorates rapidly in the absence of a supportive and a rewarding environment. Organisational environment is an important factor in ensuring that employees assume personal responsibility for success in an organisational environment that is conducive to optimal job performance, employee advancement and empowerment (Hollander, 1985).

In a study conducted by Cornelius (2003) it was found that an individual's response to the organisation's environment is dependent on hi/her self efficacy, as it is this factor that plays an important role in how an individual deals with pressures and demands of the job. Furthermore, the study pointed out a relationship between organisational environment and self efficacy as well as a relationship between job performance and self efficacy. The researcher also reported a strong correlation between personal competence and self efficacy. As a result a high level of self efficacy is therefore more likely to yield perseverance in dealing with and managing occupational stress which is likely to ultimately impact on the individual's work performance.

Cornelius (2003) also claims that a favorable organisational environment will enable employees to make meaningful contributions to the organisational goals because

when one feels confident and comfortable in ones working environment, then the talent, ability and capability will come naturally.

2.6.7. FEEDBACK AND PERFORMANCE APPRAISALS IN RELATION TO SELF EFFICACY

According to Bandura and Cervone (1983), feedback plays an important role in formulating self efficacy perceptions that interact with goal setting to enhance performance motivation. Self generated feedback may be particularly beneficial in strengthening self efficacy. In a study conducted among engineers, it was found that engineers who generated their own structured feedback, and reported progress to their managers on a quarterly basis, performed better than another group of engineers who were given feedback by their supervisor once per quarter (Gist, 1987).

A study was conducted amongst managers in a financial institution to propose and test a model that links multi source feedback to the employees' attitudes and reactions to improve (Williams & Lueke, 1999). According to these researchers, the results also indicated that individuals who had self ratings of performance, and which were inconsistent with others' ratings of performance, had lower self efficacy and lower intentions to improve performance. As such, it therefore becomes more evident that self efficacy impacts not only on performance but also on performance management.

According to Cardy (1998; Cardy & Dobbins, 1994; Murphy & Cleveland, 1995), self efficacy can impact on performance ratings. This is evident in that employees are

often invited to discuss their ratings with the manager in the performance session, and in some organisations asked to rate their self worth. It therefore also makes sense that an employee who is confident in his/her ability and ultimately has a higher sense of self efficacy, will rate their performance more favorably. The contrary will apply to the individual who has a lower self esteem.

Gist and Mitchell (1992) argue that feedback can degrade the efficacy-performance relationship. Employees with a greater need for feedback from external sources, used feedback based goals to enhance their performance more so than those who had a lower sense of self efficacy. The researchers also points out though, that positive and constructive feedback particularly with regards to employees with a low sense of self efficacy is an important consideration for enhancing their level of self efficacy. This study is consistent with a study conducted by Pearce and Porter (1986) where it was found that employee attitudes dropped over a period of time after receiving negative feedback.

According to Bandura and Cervone (1983), when feedback provided to employees indicated a dip in performance, various reactions were observed. Some individuals became de-motivated, and others felt demoralized showing lower levels of self efficacy and selecting lower goals. However, they also found that some employees exhibited motivated behaviour indicating that it is possible that a mutual relationship exists whereby performance feedback affects self efficacy, but self efficacy and goals also affect responses to feedback.

2.6.8 SELF EFFICACY AND ITS RELATION TO MOTIVATIONAL CONCEPTS

The conceptual differentiation between self-efficacy and other similar constructs is important in understanding the distinctiveness of self-efficacy. This section reviews the distinction and relation between self-efficacy and self-esteem, self-efficacy and locus of control and self-efficacy and achievement motivation.

2.6.8.1 Self-Efficacy and Self-Esteem

According to Gist and Mitchell (1992), self-efficacy is most frequently confused with self-esteem. Self-esteem is considered to be a trait reflecting an individual's feelings of self-worth or self-liking, while self-efficacy is a judgement about task capability that is not inherently self-evaluative (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). The difference between the two constructs is that while self-esteem can be global in nature (that is, evaluation of the total self) and specific (that is, situational or task-specific self-esteem), self-efficacy by contrast always refers to the individual's ability relative to the task at hand (Gist & Mitchell, 1992).

Gardner and Pierce (1998) propose that self-esteem and self-efficacy, although distinct conceptually, are also related both theoretically and empirically. They argue that it is reasonable to assume that individuals who have come to perceive themselves as highly capable, significant and worthy will also perceive themselves to be more capable of achieving task success.

Woods (1995) states that self esteem is an evaluation about us which can be either negative, or positive, however, how effective and able one is, relates to self efficacy, which is an aspect of self esteem.

The two concepts are similar in that both range from general to specific, both appear to reflect state and trait properties and both contain multiple dimensions (Gardner & Pierce, 1998). Gardner and Pierce (1998) believe that the two concepts differ in terms of their time perspectives (current assessment of one's self vs. a future assessment of one's performance level), their perceptual targets (the self vs. the self-vis-à-vis some task), and the degree to which they are a belief versus an evaluation.

Rosenberg (1965) postulates that self esteem requires more than feedback from a single source, whereas self efficacy is task specific, and is more influenced by feedback from a single task. It can thus be deduced that self efficacy should be more affected by personal goals and performance than that of self esteem.

2.6.8.2 Goal Setting

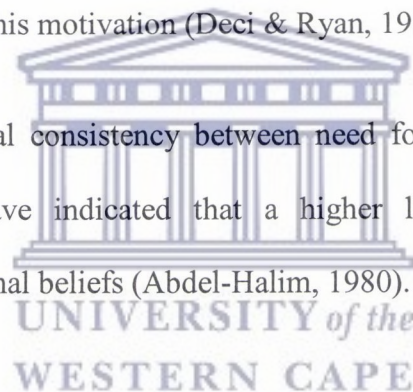
Locke (1983) stressed the important role of goal setting in employee motivation. According to Gist (1987), groups who set specific and challenging goals have consistently shown higher levels of performance than groups who are more inclined to set easily achievable goals. Gist cites a study where it was found that perceived task ability had significant effect on performance even after controlling other variables. In a laboratory experiment conducted by Locke (1983), it was found that the magnitude of self efficacy was positively related to goal achievement. In addition, this research also indicated that the strength of self efficacy also impacted on the goal level chosen, as well as goal commitment and task performance



2.6.9. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LOCUS OF CONTROL, NEED FOR ACHIEVEMENT AND SELF EFFICACY

A high level of need for achievement presupposes that the individual displays trust in his/her own efforts, and also believes that good outcomes are caused by those efforts. As a result, people with internal LOC beliefs are thought to have a high level of need for achievement (Abdel-Halim, 1980; Spector, 1982). Theories of intrinsic motivation also support this association. According to these theories, internal locus of causality is associated with intrinsic motivation. Need for achievement may be considered as a concept of intrinsic motivation because the need for competence and self-determination is characteristic to this motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

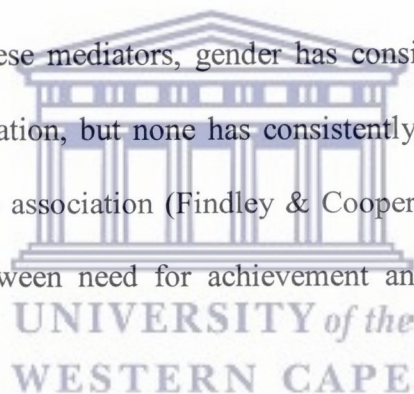
In accordance with the theoretical consistency between need for achievement and internal LOC, some studies have indicated that a higher level of Need for Achievement correlates with internal beliefs (Abdel-Halim, 1980).



Beck (1968, p. 335) suggests that people who have a high need to achieve will attribute their performance and or success to an internal factor as opposed to an external one. Clarke (1979) supports the study of Beck by stating that the development of intrinsic motivation and internal locus of control are important goals in helping people to function in a society and find personal satisfaction in what they set out to achieve. He concludes by saying that achieving and well-being relates to one's personal power and perception of inner control. However, some studies indicate no correlation between the variables (Hollenbeck, Williams & Klein, 1989). These findings can be compared with those from educational settings, where the association between need for achievement and locus of control has received perhaps the most

attention. Many reviews of these studies (in which children are typically the subjects) have indicated that academic achievement correlates mildly or moderately with more internal beliefs (Findley & Cooper, 1983; Phares, 1976).

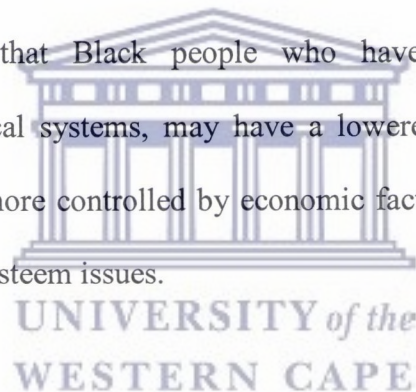
Several reasons have been suggested for the non-association of need for achievement with LOC. Perhaps the most important is the existence of subjects with defensively external beliefs. Although these subjects behave like those with internal beliefs, and also have a high level of need for achievement, they verbalize external beliefs to defend themselves against expected failure in achievement (Rotter, 1966). On the other hand, factors such as age, gender, and race have been suggested to mediate the association (Phares, 1976). Of these mediators, gender has consistently contributed only to the strength of the association, but none has consistently contributed to the existence (or nonexistence) of the association (Findley & Cooper, 1983). Thus, it is not clear why a relationship between need for achievement and LOC sometimes exists, but not always.



The results of a study conducted by Al-Emadi (2003), support the argument of Feshback and Weiner (1986) that locus of control is not a common trait that might appear in most conditions. They therefore argued that it is possible that an individual may be external in some circumstances and internal in others. The correlation of internal control and performance goals in their study seems to contradict the findings of Phares (1976) who found that students who attributed their success or failure to internal causes tend to be more motivated, exert more effort in their tasks and achieve better performance than those who attribute success or failure to external causes.

Marsh (1984) also found no relationship between internal effort attributions and achievement outcomes.

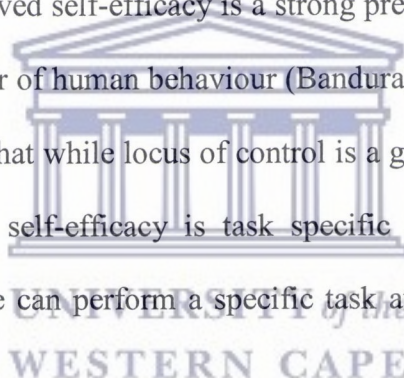
Some scholars believe that there is a component of locus of control within self-efficacy. This means that an individual's personal behaviour will lead to a given outcome, and that the outcome is contingent upon that individual's behaviour (internal control) (Bandura, 1982; Greenwood, 1990). Bandura (1994) explains that individuals with a high level of efficacy attribute failure to insufficient effort or deficient knowledge that is acquirable. In contrast, it is also true that the external environment (social, economical and political) can affect and make one dependent on it. For example, it could be argued that Black people who have been previously disadvantaged due to past political systems, may have a lowered self esteem and might as a direct result become more controlled by economic factors such as a need for higher wages to address their esteem issues.



According to Bandura (1994), there is a strong association between self-efficacy and need for achievement. He postulates that a strong sense of self-efficacy enhances human accomplishment and personal well-being. People with a high degree of belief in their abilities approach difficult tasks, and view these as challenges to be mastered rather than failures to be avoided. Such individuals set stretch targets for themselves, maintain strong commitment to them and sustain their efforts in the face of failure. In the event that failures do occur, they quickly recover their sense of efficacy. In contrast to this, people who doubt their abilities shy away from difficult tasks and deliberately set themselves easily achievable goals, to which they often have weak commitment towards.

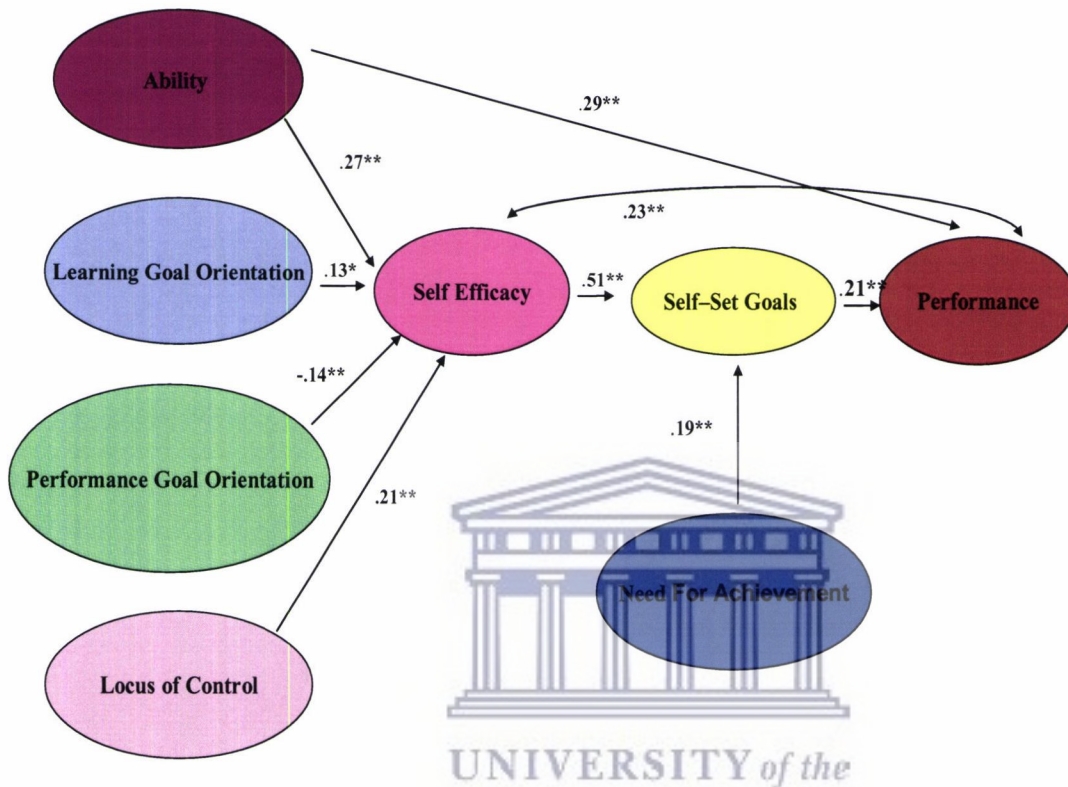
Research conducted by Gist (1987) indicated evidence of a relationship between internal locus of control and self-efficacy, and proposed in particular a three-way interaction between self-efficacy, locus of control and goal setting. Bandura (1997) clarified this issue in his later work, and provided a persuasive argument that beliefs about whether one can produce certain actions (perceived self-efficacy) are not the same as beliefs about whether actions affect outcomes (locus of control).

Research data does not show support for an empirical relationship between the two constructs, moreover, while perceived self-efficacy is a strong predictor of behaviour, locus of control is a weak predictor of human behaviour (Bandura, 1997). Gist (1987) points out a further distinction in that while locus of control is a generalised construct covering a variety of situations, self-efficacy is task specific and focuses on an individual's conviction that he/she can perform a specific task at a specific level of expertise.



Below is a diagram depicting the relationship between achievement motivation or goal setting, self efficacy, and locus of control;

Figure 2.6. Integrated Model of Locus of Control Need for Achievement and Self Efficacy Theories, with standardised path co-efficients



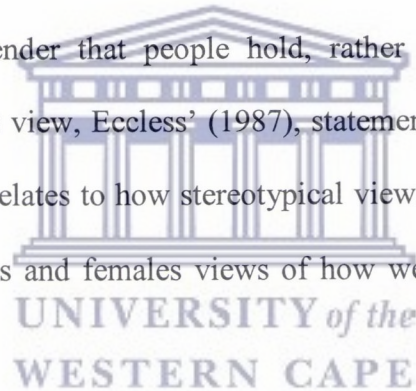
Source: Philips, J.M. & Gully, S.M. (1997). Role of goal orientation, ability, need achievement, and locus of control in the self efficacy and goal setting process. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82(5), 792-802.

2.6.10. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF EFFICACY AND GENDER AND THE IMPACT OF CULTURE ON SELF EFFICACY

Relating gender to self efficacy has steadily become a focus of research in recent years. Pajares (1996), suggests that a number of factors impact on gender differences in self efficacy. According to the researcher, girls and boys are inclined to adopt an opposing stance when asked to complete a self efficacy instrument. This was confirmed in a study conducted by Pajares and Viliante (1999) among middle school children, where both male and female students were asked to rate their writing proficiency. It was concluded that while females performed better than males on writing skills, they did

not report this when asked to rate their ability. This therefore indicates that females may not always display confidence in their ability to perform or execute tasks, despite the fact that they may possess the ability to do so. Pajares (1996) maintains that boys tend to be more self confident in their responses to self efficacy items, whereas girls on the other hand, are more inclined to be modest in their responses.

Eisenberg, Martin and Fabes (1996), supports the above research in that they report that men tend to be more confident than women even in the event that the gap in achievement differences are either lessening or have been breached. Some researchers have put forward the argument that differences in efficacy and gender may be a result of stereotypical beliefs about gender that people hold, rather than gender itself (Eccles, 1987). In the researcher's view, Eccles' (1987), statement regarding gender and self efficacy to some degree relates to how stereotypical views often imposed by culture may impact on both males and females views of how well they are able to execute tasks.



Gender differences were investigated in 1989 as well (Marrow, Mullen & McElroy 1989). In support of previous studies, it was found that while men showed equal efficacy levels in both men and women dominated fields, women, on the other hand, rated significantly higher in self efficacy in predominantly traditional female roles as opposed to male dominated fields.

Graham (1994) and Pintrich and Schunk(1996) states that unlike gender differences in self efficacy, much less has been researched on how culture impacts on self efficacy. According to these researchers, while some research indicates that minority students

hold lower perceptions of competence than non minority students, much of the research have confused ethnicity with social class, by for example comparing middle class White children with lower class minority groups, and in this case not comparing apples with apples.

However, in a study conducted by Eccles (1987), regarding a model of educational and occupational choices, it was suggested that cultural environmental factors such as students gender role stereotypes are partly responsible for differences in course and career choices, as well as in confidence beliefs. It therefore appears that the study points out how different cultural groups may have dissimilar perceptions of gender roles within their cultures which ultimately may impact on course or career choices. An example of this may be where two females may both be service orientated but one is an affluent White female and is therefore encouraged to study educational psychology, while the other being a Black female may be directed toward being a child minder or teaching.

Graham (1994) put an end to this vagueness by conducting a review of published research on African American students and their achievement motivation. In her study, the researcher found little evidence that these students have a lower perception of confidence than that of White students once socio economic status was ruled out. On the contrary, the study indicated that the Black students often maintained a sense of optimism even in the face of social and economical disadvantage. The study did however, point out that while Black students had a healthy sense of self efficacy, they often fell short on the performance side. According to Marrow, et al. (1989), while Black Americans have relatively high self esteem, they often suffer a lower sense of

self efficacy. According to the Marrow et al. (1989), a possible reason for this could be due to the fact that African Americans have less social experiences than that of White Americans.

2.6.11 CONCLUSION

In summation of this literature review, it becomes clear that evidence suggest that there are relationships between the constructs and that the three constructs also relate to other variables such as organisational variables, culture and gender. Some theorists also opposed the latter based on the empirical findings of their studies.



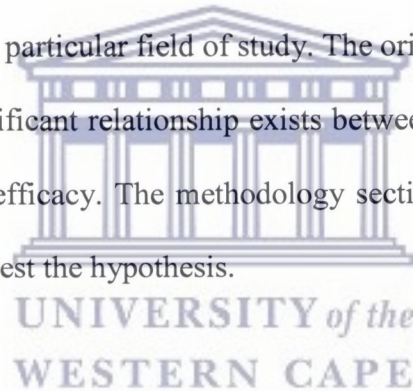
CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This section describes how the research project was conducted. Specifically, it describes the sample of the study, the measuring instrument used, and the procedure followed to gather the data.

The research methodology phase is an important part of the research. According to Welman and Kruger (1999, p. 2), research is “the process in which scientific methods are used to expand knowledge in a particular field of study. The origin of this research rests on the hypothesis that a significant relationship exists between locus of control, achievement motivation and self-efficacy. The methodology section set out will use the necessary tools to empirically test the hypothesis.



According to McCall (1994), research design is also an essential part of the research process. He defines it as “the methods and strategies scientists use to conduct experiments and produce empirical observations that help them determine the relationship between two or more things or that one event causes another” (McCall 1994, p. 280).

Another important step in the research stage is the identification of the variables, namely, the independent variable and the dependent variable. Research therefore requires the manipulation or measurement of variables, as these variables represent

the issues that the researcher is interested in, and wants to draw conclusions about. (Judd, Smith & Kiddler, 1991).

In essence, the nature of research can be regarded as being three fold (Welman & Kruger,1999):

- To define the nature of the study object,
- To explain why things are the way they are, in that one thing may have caused another to change and
- To predict phenomena such as, for example, employee performance in the work place with the aim of using this information, that is, retaining top performing candidates in organisations.

The research method followed for this study is a quantitative design, based on a cross sectional case study and using questionnaires to collect data.



3.2 Sample

According to Bless and Higson-Smith, (1995, p. 85), “sampling theory is the study of the relationship between a population and the samples drawn from it.” The ideal way of obtaining information would be to study the entire population. As this is not entirely possible, Bless and Higson-Smith postulate that drawing inferences from only a portion or sample of the population is still viable. According to Leedy (1997, p. 204), “The sample should be so carefully chosen so that, through it, the researcher is able to see all the characteristics of the total population in the same relationship that they would be seen, were the researcher in fact to inspect the total population.”

In this study, the researcher used a non probability sampling technique specifically, a convenience sampling approach. According to Leedy (1997), a convenient sample is not concerned with achieving a representative sample; it merely accepts the units as they arrive, or as they volunteer their willingness to partake on the researcher's request. A disadvantage of this sampling approach however, is that little attempt is made to control potential bias (Leedy, 1997).

A sample should be in proportionate to the size of the population from which the inferences are being made (Cooper & Schindler, 2001). However, according to Roscoe (1975) in Sekaran (2001, p. 295) a sample size larger than 30 and less than 500, is appropriate for most research studies. He further states that where sub samples exist, a minimum sample size of 30 for each category is necessary.

The study was conducted at a large financial institution within South Africa, specifically the Western Cape. The financial institution employs approximately 11000 workers in the Western Cape region. Branches were excluded from this study and only the employees at head office were included in the sample.

The researcher utilised a sample of 84 employees. In accessing the potential respondents for this study, the researcher had to rely on the co-operation of various line managers and human resource consultants within the different lines of business.

3.2.1 Ethical Considerations

Accepted ethical procedures were adopted throughout this study. The researcher requested in writing permission to conduct the study. This request was made to the

respondents, as well as to the human resource consultant of the department where the study was conducted. The human resource consultant granted verbal approval, after several meetings, to conduct the study. Firstly, the researcher informed the respondents that they reserved the right to refuse to participate or withdraw from the study. In this way the respondents were made aware that their participation was entirely on a voluntary basis. Respondents were then assured of their anonymity and confidentiality. In this instance, the researcher acknowledged the right to protect the identity of the respondents from being known.

3.2.2 Demographics of the entire sample

The final sample consisted of 84 employees of whom 56% (n=47) were Coloured, 19% (n=16) were White, 15% (n=13) were African and 9% (n=8) were Indian. Forty-four percent (44%) of the respondents ranged in the age group from 31-40 years, while thirty percent (30%), were in the age group 20-30 years, nineteen percent (19%) of the respondents fell into the age group 41-50 years, a further seven percent (7%), of the respondents being between 51 years and older. The majority of the respondents (58%, n=49) were female while males comprised 42% (n=35) of the respondents. In terms of educational qualification level, 32% (n=27) had a degree, 21 of the respondents (25%) had a diploma, while 19 of the respondents (23%) had a matric. A further 17% (n=14) had an honours degree with 4% (n=3) reporting to have a masters degree. Fifty-six percent of the respondents (n=47) were married, while 19 respondents were single. Those who were divorced, constituted 11% (n=9), with a further 7% (n=6) indicating that they were separated, and 4% (n=3) being widowed.

Black for the purposes of this study is a generic Black sample and will therefore include both African Black and Coloured. The study was also aimed at those employees ranging from junior/ entry level to supervisory level.

3.3 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

The researcher made use of questionnaires to quantitatively collect the necessary data. Firstly, a biographical questionnaire was administered. Three standardised questionnaires, namely, the General Self Efficacy Scale (GSE), Achievement Motivation Questionnaire (PMV) and a Work Locus of Control Scale (WLCS) were administered.

According to Leedy (1997), one of the standard ways in which to extract information that may be beyond the reach of the researcher, is through the use of questionnaires. Sekaran (1992), defines a questionnaire as a document with prepared questions to which respondents will provide answers. The researcher goes on to say that questionnaires are most useful when the researcher is aware of the precise information that is needed for the study or when the researcher needs to access a large number of respondents who are located in different geographical areas.

According to Sekaran (1992), one of the advantages of using a questionnaire, is that it is easier to make sense of information obtained. McCall (1994) also lists the advantages of using a questionnaire in that;

- It is more cost effective,
- It avoids potential biases, unlike interviews where bias may be minimised but not totally ruled out and

- It avoids placing undue pressure on the respondent and in turn allows him or her to think through the responses

Linked to the advantages of questionnaires, are also some potential disadvantages of using this particular measurement. According to McCall (1994),

- A low response rate can influence any conclusions based on the data and
- Questionnaires are less flexible than interviews per se. As a result, respondents may feel that they are not able to comment on all questions, as it may not be relevant to them.

Leedy (1997, p. 32), states that “validity and reliability are two words that you will encounter repeatedly in research methodology.” He further states that the success of a researcher’s study will depend on how well he or she understands and applies these two constructs. One can therefore deduce that whatever form of measuring tool that the researcher embarks on, it has to be both reliable, and valid.

Bless and Higson-Smith (1995, p. 52) defines reliability as, “concerned with the consistency of measures.” Hence, reliability refers to whether the measurements consistently generate similar results. According to Leedy (1997), there are a number of methods used to measure reliability. Two of these are:

- Test retest method where results of the same measuring instrument are compared over a time interval and
- Cronbach’s alpha coefficient which is a statistical formula that involves comparing every test item to each other. A score of 7.0 is acceptable while

anything higher is indicative that items in the instrument are measuring the same trait.

Leedy (1997, p. 36) states that validity can be defined as being "concerned with the soundness, the effectiveness, of the measuring instrument." Simply stated, validity looks at whether the test or questionnaire does in fact measure what it is supposed to measure, and only once this is achieved, can one be certain as to what the results actually means According to Sekaran (2003), validity can be grouped under three broad captions ;

- **Content validity**

This form of validity is often associated with face validity. Basically stated, if the researcher is interested in obtaining information using an instrument (for example, questionnaire), then content validity would be concerned with how accurately the questions asked tend to illicit the information sought (Leedy, 1997).

- **Criterion related validity**

Criterion related validity is established by relating performance on one measure to performance on another measure. This is merely a standard against which to measure the results of the instrument doing the measuring (Leedy, 1997).

- **Construct validity**

According to Bernstein, Garbin and Teng (1988, p. 379), construct validity refers to "how well a scale fulfils properties ascribed to by a relevant theory." Simply stated, construct validity is concerned with regards to how effectively the construct itself is being measured.

3.4. PSYCHOMETRIC PROPERTIES OF THE QUESTIONNAIRES

According to the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998, psychometric tests or measurements may not be conducted unless it is deemed to be both reliable and valid, each of which is addressed in the reliability and the validity discussion of the instruments. Schaap et al. (2003) maintains that the importance of this requirement as stated in the Employment Equity Act cannot be overemphasised so as to ensure proper design of psychometric instruments

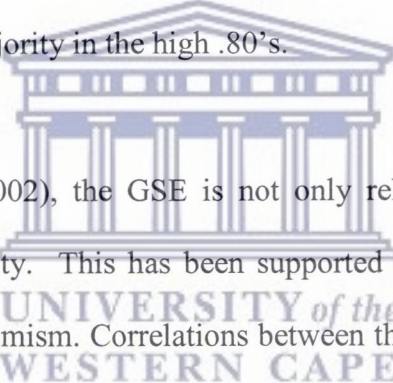
3.4.1. General Perceived Self Efficacy Scale (GSE)

Schwarzer, Scholz, Gutierrez-Dona and Sud (2002) reports that the construct consist of 10 items, designed to tap an individual's belief that they are able to accomplish new or difficult tasks. Each item touches on successful coping and entails an internal acknowledgment of success. Respondents are asked to rate each statement using a four point rating scale (1= not at all true, 2=hardly true, 3= moderately true, 4= very true) (See appendix C).

Schwarzer et al. (2002) also postulate that the GSE tool is a uni-dimensional measure, and the tool has therefore been used internationally with great success for two decades. The initial version of the GSE was developed in 1979 by Jerusalem and Schwarzer and consisted of 20 items. It was later revised in 1981 by the above mentioned researchers, and hence, was reduced to 10 items. The scale is designed mainly for the adult population, including adolescents. It is not recommended that individuals younger than 12 is assessed using this scale.

3.4.1.1 Reliability and validity

According to Jerusalem and Schwarzer (1992), the GSE scale has been used in research studies where the internal consistencies between alpha .75 and .90 have been provided. In a longitudinal study conducted, 246 cardiac patients were requested to complete the questionnaire before surgery and then again before surgery six months later. A re test reliability of $r = .67$ was yielded (Schroeder, et al., 1998). In a similar study conducted between 140 teachers, a stability coefficient of $r = .75$ was yielded after one year (Schwarzer et al., 1993). In a study conducted by Schwarzer et al (2002), where he looked at whether GSE is a universal construct, 19120 participants from 25 countries were assessed. In samples from 23 countries, Cronbach's alphas ranged from .76 to .90, with the majority in the high .80's.



According to Schwarzer et al. (2002), the GSE is not only reliable, but also has convergent and discriminant validity. This has been supported in that it positively correlates with self esteem and optimism. Correlations between the GSE and anxiety, depression and physical symptoms are negative. In study involving the 246 cardiac patients, their recovery over a half year time period could be predicted by pre-surgery self efficacy. In the study pertaining to teachers, high correlations were obtained with proactive coping (.55), self regulation (.58), and procrastination (-.56).

3.4.2 Achievement Motivation Questionnaire

The Achievement Motivation Questionnaire (PMV) was developed to measure levels of achievement in individuals. Seeing that the questionnaire measures the relative strength of the individual's motivation to achieve, it can be utilised to make selection and placement decisions in an organisational setting.

Forced choice items are used to determine the individual's motivation to achieve. In each item two persons A and B are described. One of them exhibits achievement-motivated behaviour, while the other presents the opposite tendency. The person needs to decide whether he or she represents persona A or B, in this way the individual's self perception is indirectly disclosed (PMV Manual, 1980). Cooper and Schindler (2001, p. 228) refers to scaling as a "procedure for the assignment of numbers (or other symbols) to a property or object in order to impart some of the characteristics of numbers to the properties in question." The questionnaire consists of 110 questions, and there is no time limit.

3.4.2.1. Description of the Achievement Motivation Construct

A factor analysis approach was followed in the development of the questionnaire. Sekaran (2003) states that factor analysis is a process that is used to reduce a large number of variables so that it can be interpreted in a more meaningful understandable manner. Two factors were extracted which can be subdivided into three and two sub factors respectively. The construct measured factors and sub-factors. According to Erwee and Pottas (1981), achievement motivation is seen as a multidimensional construct, where persistence, awareness of time; action orientation, aspirational level and personal causation were labelled as the five dimensions of this construct. The researchers go on to say that these dimensions were then grouped into two factors. The first factor consisted of three dimensions and was labelled as goal directedness. The second factor consisted of two dimensions and was labelled personal excellence. These factors and sub factors which are measured by the construct are as follows (PMV Manual, 1980):

Goal Directedness (AA)

- Persistence (A)
- Awareness of time (B)
- Action orientation (C)

Personal Excellence

- Aspirational level (D)
- Personal causation (E)

Achievement Motivation (PM)

Individuals who score high on this scale can be described as attempting to do their best in everything that they do. What underpins this motivation is the inclination to formulate high personal standards of excellence and the belief that reliance on own skills and abilities is core in achieving success (PMV Manual, 1980).



Goal Directedness (AA)

The phrase goal directedness in itself indicates that it refers to an individual's willingness set targets for themselves and works hard to achieve them. Individuals who score high on this factor, is characterised as “an intent on achieving personal goals,” and “to preserve despite adversity” (PMV Manual, 1980, p. 3). To these individuals, time management is important, especially in aiding them to achieve their goals.

- **Persistence (A)**

Persistence refers to persevering in the face of obstacles and pushing the boundaries to achieve set targets or goals. High scoring individuals on this sub factor are described as persistent in “seeking of solutions despite adverse circumstances” (PMV Manual, 1980, p. 3). These individuals link any success achieved to their own performance, and in addition to this, they are not inclined to procrastinate, but will rather take the bull by the horns, and face tasks head on.

- **Awareness of time (B)**

Awareness refers to effective time management. Individuals scoring high on this factor work according to a schedule and are likely to plan in advance for future events. They are likely to be more forward thinking, taking a long term perspective specifically relating to their career goals. They are likely to prefer working or functioning in structured environments (PMV Manual, 1980).

- **Action Orientated (C)**

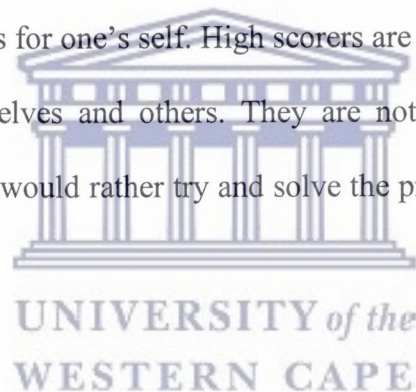
Action Orientation refers to the willingness to take action to accomplish tasks, maintains a high level of motivation and energy, sustaining long working hours when necessary, operating with vigour, effectiveness and determination. Individuals with high scores in this sub factor are likely to display high levels of energy. They display vigour, and cannot tolerate idleness (PMV Manual, 1980).

Personal Excellence (BB)

Personal Excellence refers to the quality of output that is rendered. Individuals scoring high on this factor rely on their own skill and do not perceive it as a matter of luck or chance. These individuals “revel in challenges, take calculated risks and believe that unfavourable circumstances can be overcome by taking the initiative” (PMV Manual, 1980, p. 4).

Aspirational Level (D)

This refers to setting stretch targets for one’s self. High scorers are inclined to set high performance standards for themselves and others. They are not inclined to easily accept assistance from others, but would rather try and solve the problem themselves. (PMV Manual, 1980).



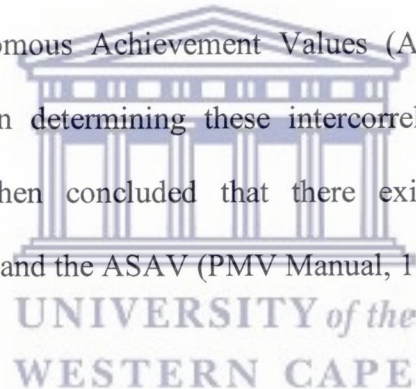
Personal Causation (E)

Personal Causation is a belief in one’s ability in that the outcome of any task or effort is a result of one’s own initiative. Individuals scoring high on this factor trust their own abilities and skill, and have great confidence in themselves. They are characterised by the tendency to achieve success rather than by the tendency to avoid failure (PMV Manual, 1980).

3.4.2.2. RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

In determining the reliability of this measurement, an item selection procedure was followed in which the Kuder-Richardson 20 reliability was taken on the basis for final selection of items. Items which were deemed as weak were eliminated, and only those items that were able to produce a subscale with an acceptably high reliability coefficient was retained. No test retest was available at the time (PMV Manual, (1980).

In the construction of the instrument, a factor analytic approach was adopted. This approach was used to ensure construct validity, and in so doing aimed to ensure that the construct was measured as accurately as possible. The scores of the PM was also compared to that of the Autonomous Achievement Values (ASAV) in order to determine an interrelationship. In determining these intercorrelations, 148 MBA students were tested. It was then concluded that there existed a significant intercorrelation between the PMV and the ASAV (PMV Manual, 1980).



3.4.3. SPECTOR'S WORK LOCUS OF CONTROL SCALE (WLCS)

The I-E scale was initially developed by Rotter (1966) with the aim to measure levels of control in adults. This scale was essentially to provide a measure of internal versus external control of the respondent. Phares (1976) noted the I-E scale was a general measure and that researchers should look at developing a domain specific measure. In essence this would provide a measure of control beliefs in work settings. Spector revised this questionnaire and produced the Work Locus of Control Scale (Spector, 1988). The WLCS is a 16 item measure of generalised control beliefs relating to the

work environment. Respondents are requested to rate their responses on a scale ranging from disagree very much to agree very much. Items are to be reversed scored.

3.4.3.1 Reliability and Validity

The internal consistencies (coefficient Alpha) ranged from .75 to .85, in six different samples according to Spector (1988). Sample 1 consisted of 151 business administration and industrial psychology undergraduate students, while in sample 2 forty one apartment store sales and support employees were administered the WLCS. Questionnaires were administered to 101 mental health agency employees in sample three, while sample four data was obtained from 292 national convenience store clerks. Questionnaires for sample five were distributed to 160 mental health facility employees, and finally, sample six comprised of 496 municipal managers. Hence, based on the reliability studies conducted among these six samples the correlation fluctuates between 0.75 to 0.85.

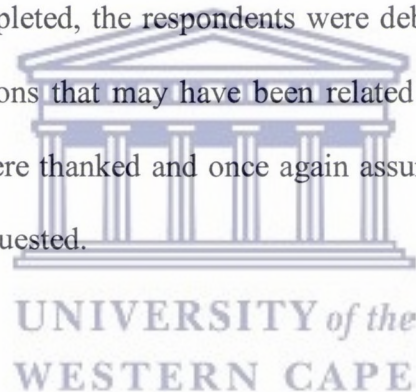
Criterion related validity is provided by correlations drawn between locus of control and organisational variables. The WLCS correlated significantly with job satisfaction, intention of quitting, perceived influence at work, role stress and perceptions of supervisory style. While the WLCS does correlate with the general locus of control measures many of the relationships described above are considerably stronger than those found with the more general locus of control scales. It therefore seems that the WLC Scale may predict work behaviour more precisely than the general LOC scale (Spector, 1988).

3.5 PROCEDURE

Administration of the questionnaires

One hundred and twenty questionnaires were administered. The subjects were informed of the aims and objectives of the study. In conducting the research, the following steps were followed: The purpose of the study was conveyed, the perceived benefit to the division was outlined, and a commitment was given to provide feedback of the results to both the respondents and the management team if requested. In all instances, the questionnaires were distributed manually, and upon their completion, all questionnaires were returned to the researcher by the respective respondents.

As soon as participation was completed, the respondents were debriefed, and in this way any concerns or misconceptions that may have been related to the study were addressed. Finally, respondents were thanked and once again assured of the fact that feedback would be provided, if requested.



3.6 STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

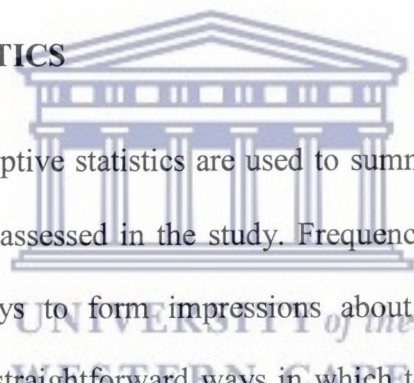
3.6.1 Data analysis

This section can be referred to as the preliminary analysis of data. According to Sekaran (2003), data analysis assists the researcher in the following ways;

- It looks at the quality of the data obtained,
- It tests the hypothesis that was outlined by the researcher in the beginning of the research and
- It generally helps the researcher to get a sense of the data.

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyse and compute the data. This assisted in sketching a picture of the data thus enabling the researcher to draw inferences about the characteristics of the sample. The data analysis involved primary descriptive statistics such as frequency distributions and graphical illustrations to provide more insight on the demographic variables in this study. This is followed with the presentation of inferential statistics. ANOVAs were also used to determine differences in achievement motivation, locus of control and self efficacy based on the biographical characteristics of the sample.

3.6.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS



According to Leary (2004), descriptive statistics are used to summarise and describe the behaviour of the respondents assessed in the study. Frequency distributions and histograms are some of the ways to form impressions about the shape of the distribution. These are relatively straightforward ways in which to illustrate data. In this study, frequency distributions, measures of central tendencies and dispersion will be used to describe the data.

3.6.2.1. Frequency Distribution

According to Schweigert (2003, p. 73), “the purpose of the frequency distribution is to assist the researcher with the organising and summarising of the data” Judd et al (1991) states that in order to effectively describe the entire set of scores obtained in the study, it is important that the researcher group the score value into sets. These sets, according to Judd et al. (1991), is referred to as class intervals.

3.6.2.2. Measures of Central Tendencies

Through the use of measures of central tendencies, raw data obtained becomes more meaningful to the reader and the reader is then able to get a better sense of the information (Sekaran, 2003). Central tendency can be measured in three of the following ways, the mean, the median and the mode (Sekaran, 2003).

The mean provides an arithmetic average for the distribution of scores (Neuman, 1997).

3.6.2.3 Measures of Dispersion

Another important set of descriptive statistics are measures of dispersion. This is often also referred to as variability and variation). According to Sekaran, (2003) examples of measures of dispersion are the range, variance and standard deviations. The range according to Schweigert (2003), one of the most basic measures of dispersion, is the range, and is determined by subtracting the largest score from the smallest score in the distribution.

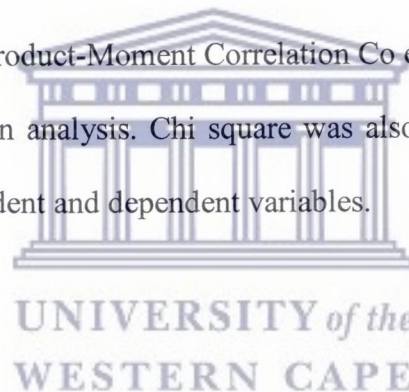
Variance is an index that reflects a degree of variability in a group of scores McCall, 1994). According to Sekaran (2003, p. 397), “variance is calculated by subtracting the mean from each of the observations in the data set, taking the square of this difference, and dividing the total of these by the number of observations.”

Standard deviation, according to Sekaran (2003), is a spread of the scores, and is a common measure of dispersion.

3.6.3 INFERENCE STATISTICS

According to Leary (2004), inferential statistics is used to draw conclusions about the generalisability and reliability of the findings. Thus, it is used to determine whether relationships exist between samples of data, and whether it is significant (for example, the relationship between n Ach, LOC and GSE). It also looks at whether differences in a variable among different sub groups (whether men or women are more internally or externally controlled). Lastly, inferential statistics also considers how different independent variables can impact on a dependent variable (how self efficacy can be affected by race, gender culture).

The researcher used the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient, analysis of variance (ANOVA) and regression analysis. Chi square was also used to determine the relationships between independent and dependent variables.



3.6.3.1. Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient

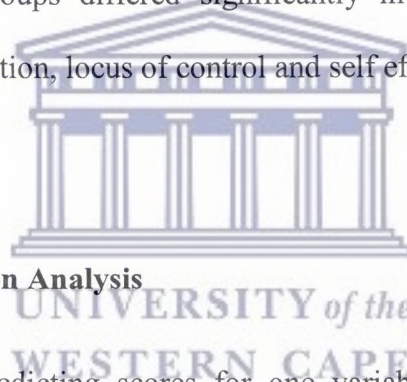
The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient is a measurement that indicates the degree to which two variables are related to one another. When a direct positive relationship exists between variables, it is referred to as a positive correlation. The opposite holds true in the event that there is a negative relationship between two variables (Leary, 2004).

In this study the researcher made use of the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient in order to determine the relationship between the different dimensions of the PMV, WLCS and the GSE scale, and also to determine the relationship between need for achievement, locus of control and self efficacy.

3.6.3.2. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

According to McCall (1994), the purpose of ANOVA, is to test the differences between sample means and scores by sampling error. Sekaran (2003, p. 404) states that analysis of variance also referred to as ANOVA, “helps to examine the different mean differences among more than two groups on an interval or ratio-scaled dependent variable

In this research, the ANOVA was used to determine whether employees in different age, gender, tenure and race groups differed significantly in terms of the sub dimensions of achievement motivation, locus of control and self efficacy.



3.6.3.3 Multiple Regression Analysis

According to McCall (1994), predicting scores for one variable from scores on another variable, is called the problem of regression. Multiple regression analysis is identified through three distinct types of multiple regression procedures, these are, standard, step wise and hierarchical multiple regression (Leary, 2004). While some researchers may define regression analysis as a descriptive tool, it may also in addition to this, be used as an inference tool in order to test hypotheses, and to estimate population values (Cooper & Schindler, 2001).

The researcher conducted multiple regression to determine if the sub-dimensions of the PMV account for variance in determining need for achievement. Multiple regressions were also computed for locus of control and self efficacy.

3.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter provided an overview of the sample, the measuring instruments used, the procedure followed in order to gather data, as well as the statistical techniques used to analyse the data, and to test the hypotheses. It can therefore be concluded that research methodology is a critical part of the research process. The following chapter will discuss the findings of the study.

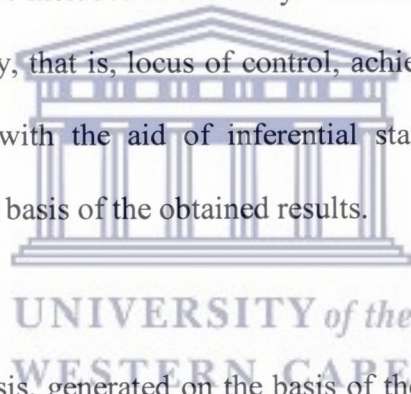


CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The current chapter outlines the results obtained in the study. The descriptive statistics computed for the study are presented first in an outline of the characteristics of the sample with regards to the variables included in the study. Thereafter, the analyses of the constructs relevant to the study, that is, locus of control, achievement motivation and self-efficacy, are presented with the aid of inferential statistical procedures. Conclusions are then drawn on the basis of the obtained results.



The results of the statistical analysis, generated on the basis of the use of descriptive and inferential statistics, are presented in the forms of tables and graphs and are subsequently discussed. The study analyses the career barriers experienced by the sample of employees to whom the questionnaires were administered, and analyses differences with respect to biographical variables. The level of statistical significance for null hypothesis testing was set at 5%, with all statistical test results being computed at the 2-tailed level of significance in accordance with the non-directional hypotheses presented (Sekaran, 2001).

4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The descriptive statistics calculated for the sample are provided in the sections that follow. That is, the data pertaining to the variables included in the study, as collected by the three measuring instruments employed, are summarised by means of graphic representation and the calculation of descriptive measures. In this manner, the properties of the observed data clearly emerge and an overall picture thereof is obtained.

4.2.1 RESULTS OF THE BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

This section outlines the descriptive statistics calculated on the basis of the variables included in the biographical questionnaire. The demographic variables that receive attention are as follows:

- Race of the respondents
- Age distribution of the respondents
- Gender distribution of the respondents
- Educational level of the respondents
- Marital status of the respondents

Descriptive statistics, in the form of frequencies and percentages, are subsequently presented graphically for each of the above-mentioned variables.

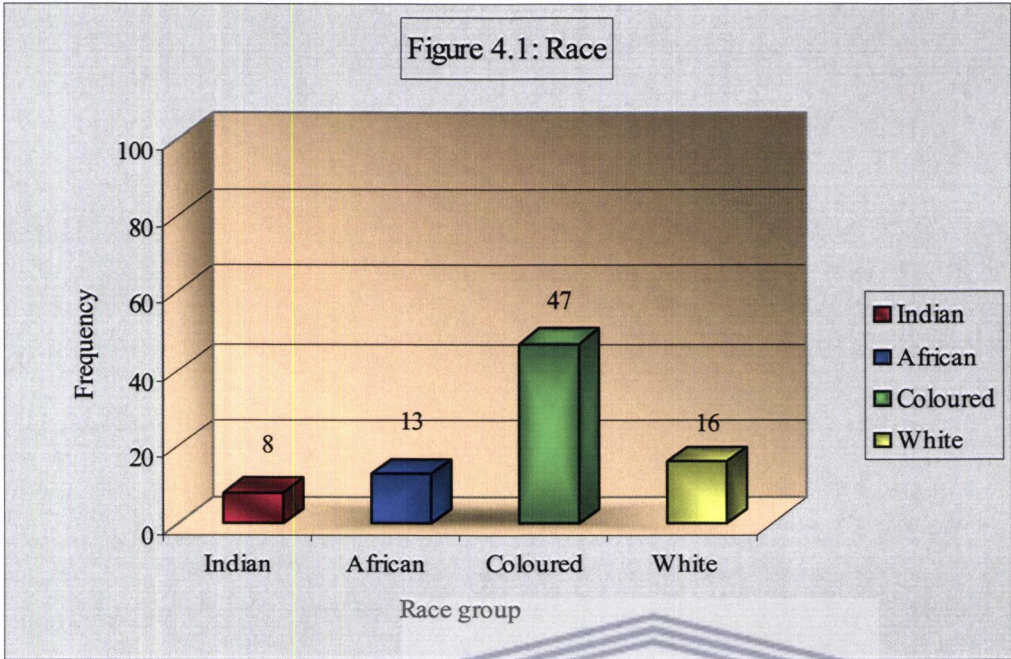
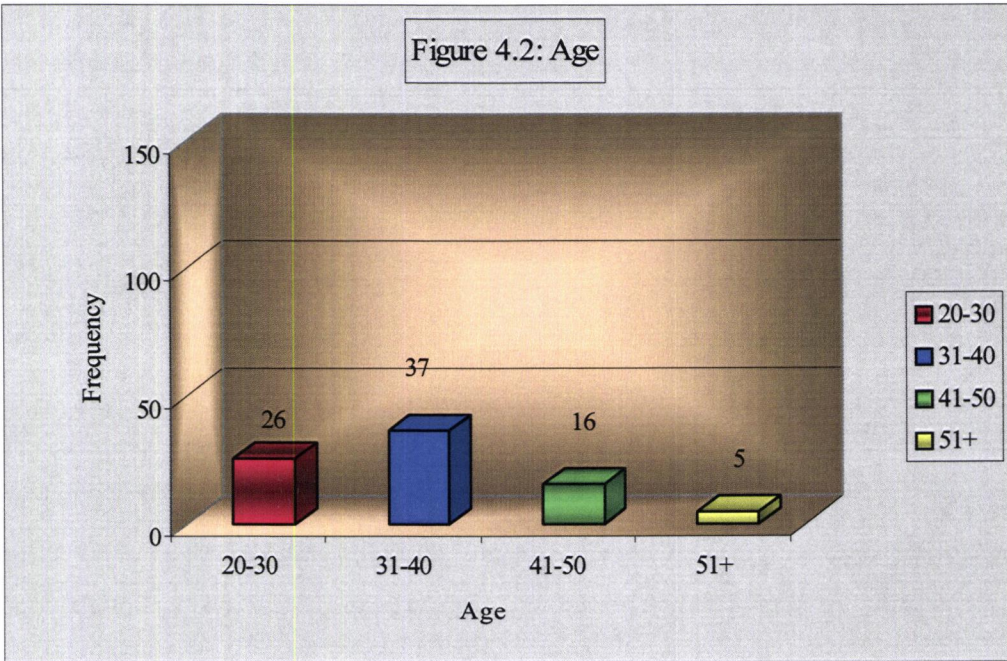
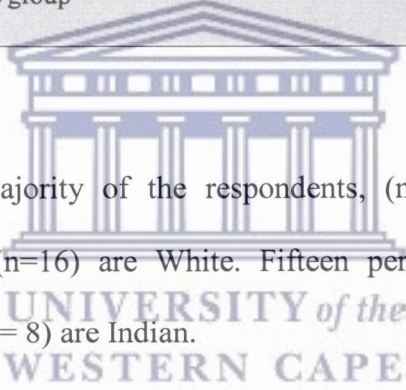


Figure 4.1 illustrates that the majority of the respondents, (n=47) or 56% are Coloured, while a further 19% (n=16) are White. Fifteen percent (15%) or 13 respondents are African and 9% (n = 8) are Indian.



In terms of Figure 4.2 it can be seen that the majority of the respondents ($n=37$), that is 44% are in the age group 31-40 years, while 26, that is 30% are in the age group 20-30 years. Sixteen (16) respondents (19%) fall in the age category 41-50 years, and a further 7% ($n=5$) of the respondents are in the age group 51 years and older.

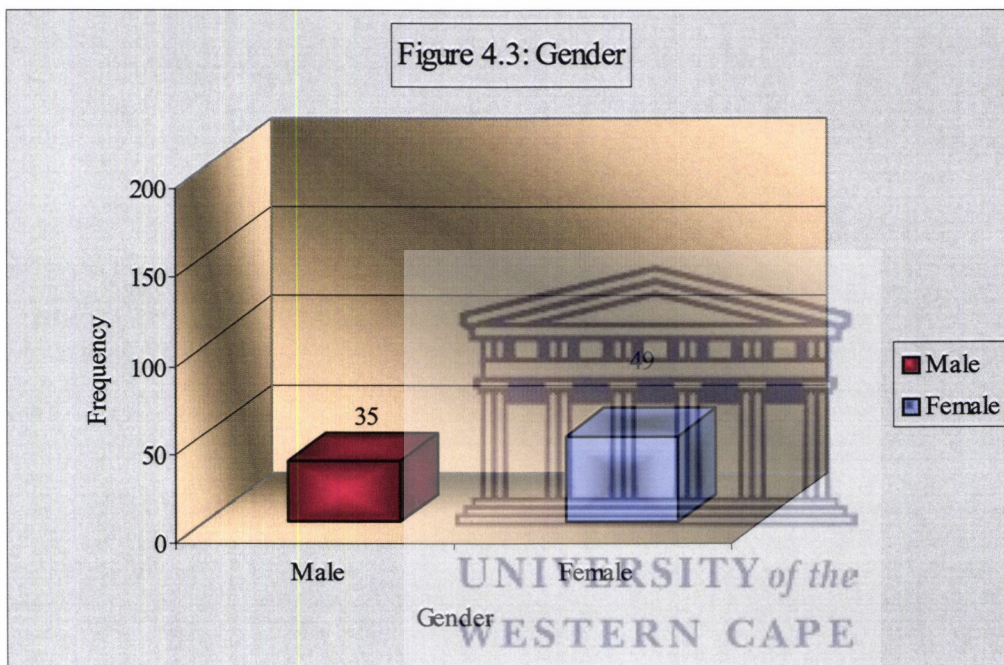


Figure 4.3 depicts the gender of respondents. The majority of the respondents (58%, $n = 49$) are female, while males comprised 42% of the respondents ($n = 35$).

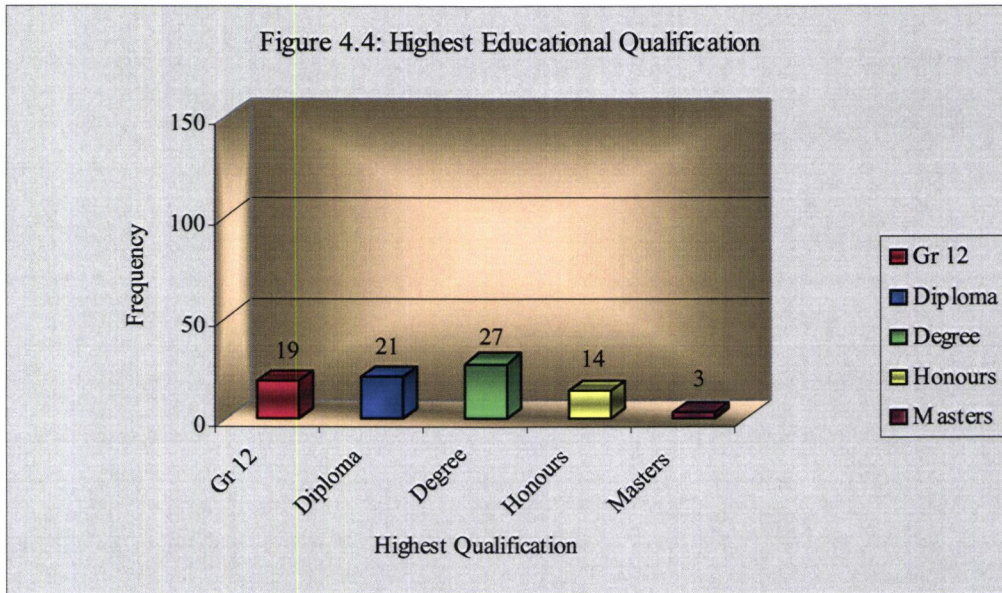
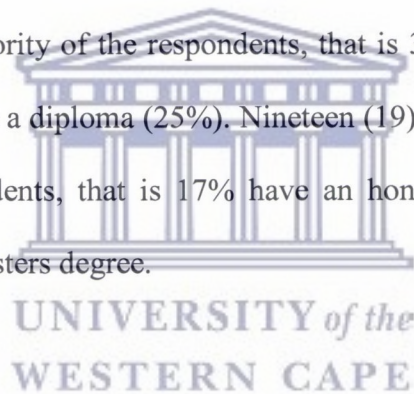


Figure 4.4 illustrates that the majority of the respondents, that is 32% (n=27) have a degree, while 21 respondents have a diploma (25%). Nineteen (19) of the respondents have a matric (23%), 14 respondents, that is 17% have an honours degree and 3 respondents, that is 4% have a Masters degree.



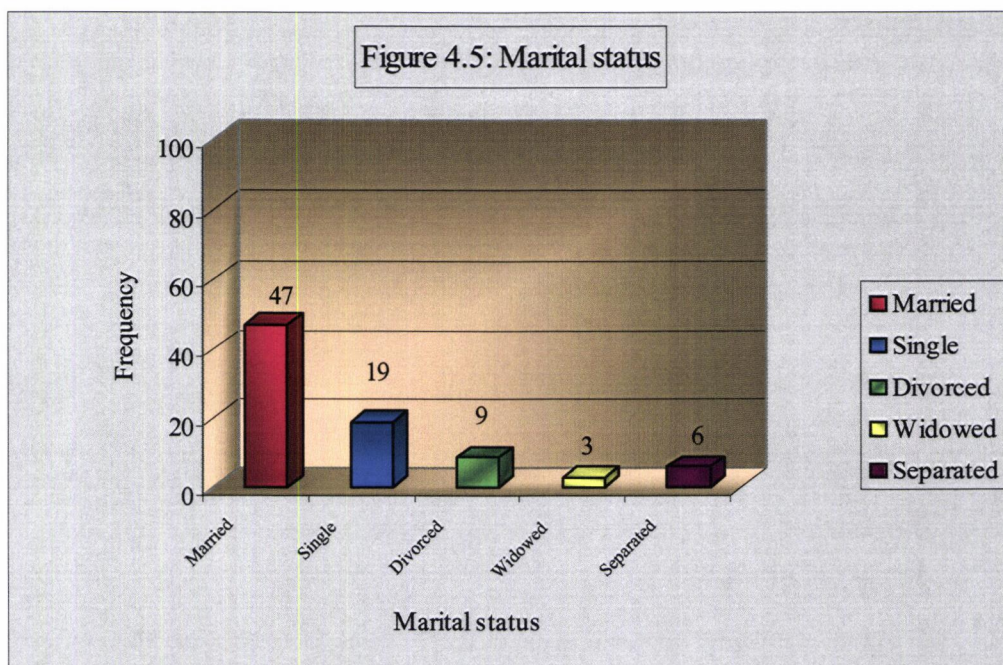
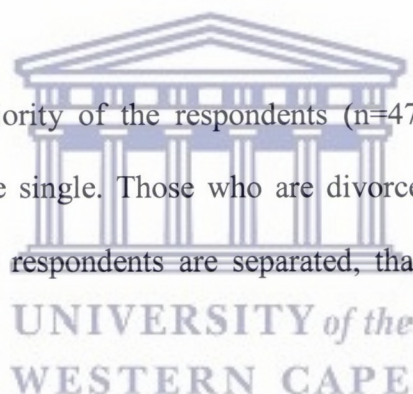


Figure 4.5 indicates that the majority of the respondents (n=47) that is 56% are married, while 19 respondents are single. Those who are divorced (n=9) constitute 11% of the respondents, while 6 respondents are separated, that is 7% and 3 are widowed, that is 4%.



4.2.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS:

TABLE 4.1: SUB-DIMENSIONS OF LOCUS OF CONTROL

	Frequency	Percentage
Internal	68	81%
External	16	19%

The results in table 4.1 indicate that the majority of the respondents (n=68, or 81%), are internally controlled. Furthermore, 19% (n=16) of the respondents are externally controlled.

4.2.3 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS:

TABLE 4.2: SUB-DIMENSIONS OF ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

	Maximum attainable score	Extent of Existence of dimension
Persistence	21	84%
Awareness of time	20	86%
Action orientation	9	68%
Aspirational level	21	77%
Personal causation	13	79%

Table 4.2 indicates that the achievement motivation of employees can be attributed in varying degrees to the sub-dimensions with awareness of time (86%) being the greatest determinant of achievement motivation, followed by persistence (84%), personal causation (79%), aspirational level (77%) and finally action orientation (68%).

4.2.4: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS:

TABLE 4.3: GENERALISED SELF EFFICACY

Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
10	40	32.63	4.62

Table 4.3 indicates that the self efficacy of employees of employees is very high, with a mean score of 32.63, sd = 4.62. This indicates that the respondents found the

statements to be moderately to exactly true of their opinions, thereby believing that they can mobilise the motivation, cognitive resources and courses of action needed to meet given situational demands.

4.3 INFERENCE STATISTICS

HYPOTHESIS 1

There is no statistically significant relationship between locus of control, self-efficacy and achievement motivation.

TABLE 4.4: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LOCUS OF CONTROL, SELF EFFICACY AND ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

	Locus of control	Self efficacy	Achievement motivation
Locus of control	1		
Self-efficacy	0.76**	1	
Achievement motivation	0.68**	0.55*	1

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.4 indicates that there is a statistically significant correlation between locus of control and achievement motivation ($r=0.68$, $p < 0.01$). Similarly, there is a statistically significant relationship between self-efficacy and locus of control ($r=0.76$, $p < 0.01$). There is also a statistically significant relationship between achievement

motivation and self-efficacy ($r=0.55$, $p < 0.05$). Accordingly the null hypothesis is rejected.

HYPOTHESIS 2

There is no statistically significant difference in Achievement Motivation based on Gender, Race, and Age

TABLE 4.5. ANOVA: ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION BASED ON RACE AGE AND GENDER

GENDER			
	T	Df	P
Persistence	0.342	82	0.072
Awareness of time	0.976	82	0.037*
Action orientation	0.691	82	0.084
Aspirational level	0.682	82	0.094
Personal causation	0.723	82	0.025*
Total achievement motivation score	0.453	82	0.045*
RACE			
	T	Df	P
Persistence	0.842	81	0.342
Awareness of time	0.576	81	0.862
Action orientation	0.620	81	0.143
Aspirational level	0.972	81	0.094
Personal causation	0.149	81	0.243
Total achievement motivation score	0.362	81	0.445
AGE			
	T	Df	P
Persistence	1.638	82	0.459
Awareness of time	0.709	82	0.105
Action orientation	Q.039	82	0.437
Aspirational level	1.922	82	0.232
Personal causation	0.367	82	0.303
Total achievement motivation score	0.746	82	0.060

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.4 indicates there is a statically significant difference in achievement motivation based on gender. There were significant gender differences in awareness of time and personal causation on the Achievement Motivation Questionnaire. However, there were no statistically significant differences in achievement motivation on the basis of race and age.

HYPOTHESIS 3

There is no statistically significant difference in self efficacy, internal and external locus of control based on race age and gender.

TABLE 4.6. ANOVA: INTERNAL-EXTERNAL LOCUS OF CONTROL AND SELF EFFICACY BASED ON GENDER, RACE, AND AGE.

GENDER			
	T	Df	P
Self-efficacy	5.443	82	0.000**
Internal Locus of control	6.245	82	0.000**
External Locus of control	4.342	82	0.004**
RACE			
	T	Df	P
Self-efficacy	9.231	81	0.000**
Internal Locus of control	5.236	82	0.000**
External Locus of control	4.014	82	0.008**
AGE			
	T	Df	P
Self-efficacy	3.612	81	0.016*
Internal Locus of control	3.175	81	0.000**
External Locus of control	8.973	81	0.006**

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.5 indicates there is a statically significant difference in self efficacy, internal locus of control and external locus of control based on gender. There were also statistically significant differences in self efficacy, internal locus of control and

external locus of control based on race and age, respectively .Accordingly, the null hypothesis is rejected.

4.4. RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

Cronbach’s Alpha is viewed as an index of reliability associated with the variation accounted for by the true score of the underlying construct (Cronbach, 2004). It is argued that Alpha coefficients range in value from 0 to 1 and may be used to describe the reliability of factors extracted from dichotomous and or multi-point formatted questionnaires or scales. However, there is no lower limit to the coefficient, however, the closer Cronbach’s coefficient alpha is to 1, the greater the internal consistency of the items of the scale (Cronbach, 2004).

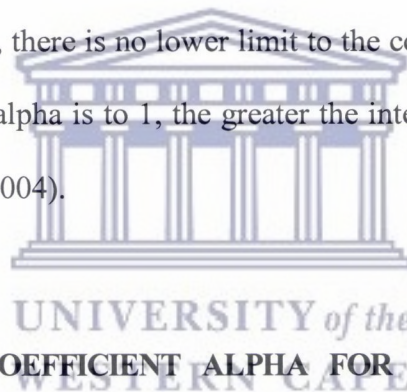


TABLE 4.7: CRONBACH’S COEFFICIENT ALPHA FOR THE LOCUS OF CONTROL INVENTORY, ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE AND THE SELF EFFICACY SCALE

Reliability Coefficient			
	No. of cases	Alpha	No. of items
Self Efficacy	84	0.81	10
Achievement Motivation	84	0.86	80
Locus of control	84	0.92	16

According to research, the scores obtained for all three of the instruments which were administered can be regarded as excellent in terms of the reliability of the instrument.

According to research, the scores obtained for all three of the instruments which were administered can be regarded as excellent in terms of the reliability of the instrument. George and Mallery (2003) argue that coefficients above 0.8 can be considered to be good indicators of the reliability of an instrument. Hence with the current study, this was exceeded, indicating a high degree or reliability.

4.5 CONCLUSION

The results in the study indicate that there is a statistically significant relationship between achievement motivation, self efficacy and locus of control. Moreover, the majority of the respondents reported being internally controlled and demonstrated high levels of self efficacy, in which they believe that they can mobilise the motivation, cognitive resources and courses of action needed to meet given situational demands. There were also significant differences in achievement motivation based on gender. However, this did not hold true for differences with respect to race. There were also significant differences in self-efficacy and internal and external locus of control based on race and gender.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Locus of control has been defined by Dailey et al. (1990) as an individual's belief that one's actions (whether internal or external) influence the outcomes and experiences in life. Mehrabian (1969, p. 494) classified high achievers as "individuals who have a stronger motive to achieve relative to their motive to avoid failure, as compared to low achievers who are more concerned with avoiding the possibility of failing, than concentrating on their willingness to achieve." According to Bandura (1994), self efficacy beliefs determine how individuals think, motivate themselves and behave. It is for this reason that, a strong sense of self efficacy is likely to enhance an individual's sense of achievement and general wellbeing.

The aim of this research was to investigate the relationship between locus of control, achievement motivation and self efficacy. In this section, the researcher attempts to measure the relationship between the above mentioned variables. Below is a discussion of the results which are based on the findings of these variables. Limitations of the study are also highlighted, and the chapter concludes with recommendations for future research.

5.2 LOCUS OF CONTROL

5.2.1 INTERNAL LOCUS OF CONTROL

Results of the study indicate that 81% of the subjects are internally controlled. These subjects believe that success or failure is a result of their own actions.

The above results are supported by Spector (1982), who states that, individuals who are internally orientated are more inclined to anticipate that their personal effort will lead to good performance, and ultimately good rewards. In addition to this, Lam and Schaubroeck (2000) support this notion, in that they postulate that people with an internal locus of control, are more inclined to have a stronger tendency to perceive that job related rewards they receive such as good performance appraisals, promotions, company awards, are a result of their own actions. Contrary to this, their external counterparts are more inclined to attribute any success or failure to chance or fate. In a study conducted by Blau (1993) it was found that bank tellers who were internals exhibited higher initiative performance (performing beyond basic job requirements) than their external counterparts.

Contrary to these findings, Furnham and Steele (1993) maintain that while internally controlled individuals take responsibility for their actions more readily than externally controlled individuals, they are more likely to experience a lowered self esteem in the event that they do encounter failure. Externals are also more likely to react more unfavourably to uncontrolled environments. In a study conducted by Bothma and Schepers (1997), no conclusive evidence was found that internal locus of control could be related to effective management performance.

5.2.2 EXTERNAL LOCUS OF CONTROL

The results of this study indicate that 19% of the sample reported as externally controlled. Unlike their internal counterparts, these individuals believe that success or failure is as a result of influence by others, social structure or fate.

Bothma and Schepers (1997) concur with these findings by stating that a person who is externally orientated, is inclined to attribute failure to some unchangeable personal attribute such as their inability to grasp a specific skill or their low intellectual ability findings. Their findings were supported in a study conducted by Heisler (1974). In this study the researcher hypothesised that there was a significant correlation between the I-E scale and the effectiveness index. Heisler (1974) based effectiveness on five variables, namely, number of promotions, salary increases rewards received, current salary and grade differential. The findings of his research supported his hypothesis in that employees who believed that organisational rewards, were a result of luck or chance, demonstrated a lower I-E effectiveness than those who related rewards to skills.

On the other hand, Furnham and Steele (1993) maintain that it can be argued that externality may be associated with unselfish and cooperative attitudes, while internals may be associated with selfish, and more individualistic attitudes. In addition, Cravens and Worschel (1977) reported that externals are inclined to better adjust their performance as a result of performance feedback than that of internally controlled individuals. In a study conducted by the above mentioned researchers findings indicated that internals less frequently complied with the leader or feedback

provider's demands, regardless of the power that was utilised, and complied less frequently under coercive power when feedback was provided.

5.3 ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

The results of this study indicate that in terms of the sub dimensions of achievement motivation, awareness of time (86%) shows the highest reflection towards achievement motivation. The second highest was persistence at (84%). Personal causation (79%) shows the third highest reflection of achievement motivation, while aspiration level (77%) shows the fourth highest, and finally action orientation (68%) was reported as the lowest reflection of achievement motivation. These findings are further discussed below:

5.3.1 Awareness of time

Individuals who report themselves as high on awareness of time are inclined to take action to practice effective time management, accomplish tasks within set timelines. They tend to plan in advance for future opportunities. The results of the study indicate that this dimension was most significant when related to achievement motivation. According to Latham and Locke (1975), tight deadlines are more likely to lead to maintaining vigour in the work place, as opposed to loose deadlines, among individuals with higher achievement orientation. In essence, awareness of time should therefore play a significant role in terms of achievement drive.

On the contrary, research conducted by LaPorte and Nath (1976) indicated that when participants were allowed to control the time that they spent on a task, difficult tasks took more time and effort. The above mentioned researchers also state that when an

individual is faced with a difficult task, it is possible to work faster and more intensely for a shorter period, or to work slower and less intensely for a longer period of time.

5.3.2. Persistence

This was the second highest reflection for achievement motivation. Individuals scoring high on this dimension link any success achieved to their own performance, and in addition to this, they are not inclined to procrastinate, but will rather take the bull by the horns, and face tasks head on. Grant, Battle, Murphy and Heggoy (1999) concur with this by stating that persistence was found to be an important factor in determining effectiveness among Black female students.

5.3.3. Personal Causation

The results of the study indicate that personal causation does significantly contribute to the individuals achievement motivation. People scoring high on this dimension are characterised by the tendency to achieve success rather than by the tendency to avoid failure. Atkinson and Feather (1996) are of the opinion that personal causation is likely to play a role within the achievement motive. According to these researchers, such individuals continue with difficult tasks more effectively and are more persistent in doing so.

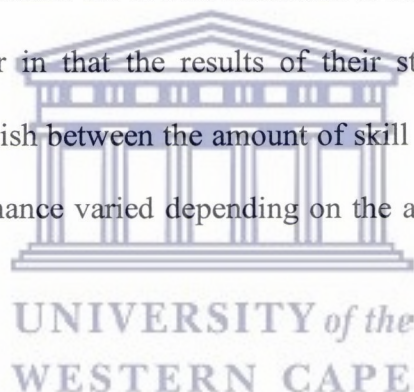
5.3.4 Aspirational Level

This dimension also had a moderate impact on achievement motivation. High scorers on this dimension are inclined to set high performance standards for themselves and others, and rarely accept assistance from others, but would rather try and solve the problem themselves. This is corroborated by Locke, Motowidlo and Bobko (1986)

who found that higher expectancies lead to higher goal levels associated with higher performance among individuals. On the other hand, Locke and Latham (2002) state that difficult goals are harder to attain than easier goals, thus, expectancy of goal success would presumably be negatively related to performance.

5.3.5. Action Orientation

This sub dimension is characterised by individuals who project the willingness to take action to accomplish tasks, maintains a high level of motivation and energy, sustaining long working hours when necessary, operating with vigour, effectiveness and determination. Employees indicated the lowest reflection towards this dimension. Weiner and Kukla (1970) concur in that the results of their study indicated that subjects did not explicitly distinguish between the amount of skill that possessed, nor did that believe they their performance varied depending on the amount of time that they spent on tasks.



5.4 SELF EFFICACY

5.4.1 STRONG SENSE OF SELF EFFICACY


The results of the study indicate that self efficacy of the subjects projected a high sense of self efficacy with a mean score of 32.63. An individual with a strong sense of self efficacy enhances accomplishment and personal wellbeing in many ways.

These results are consistent with the research conducted by Cornelius (2003), in that high level of self efficacy is more likely to yield perseverance in dealing with and managing occupational stress which is likely to ultimately impact on the individuals

work performance. Bandura (1994) states that people who believe in their capabilities are more inclined to approach tasks differently. They are more inclined to improve and sustain their efforts and recover much quicker in the event of setbacks. Support to the relationship between task performance, motivation and self-efficacy

5.4.2 LOW SENSE OF SELF EFFICACY

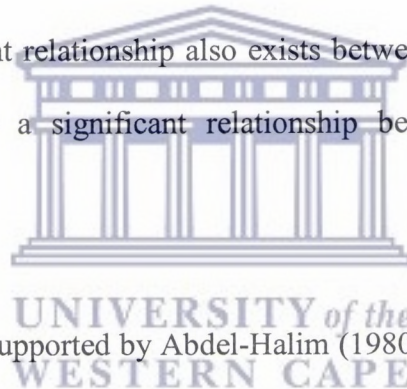
The results of the study indicate that a minority of the subjects projected a low sense of self efficacy. Individuals report themselves to have a low sense of self efficacy, are more inclined to dwell on their personal deficiencies when faced with a challenging task.



These results are supported by Bandura (1994) who states that people who doubt their capabilities, shy away from difficult tasks, have low aspirations and weak commitment to goals that they attempt to pursue, are characterised as having a low sense of self efficacy. A study was conducted amongst managers in a financial institution with the aim of proposing and testing a model that links multi source feedback to the employees' attitudes and reactions to improve (Williams & Lueke, 1999). According to these researchers, the results also indicated that individuals who had self ratings of performance, and which were inconsistent with others' ratings of performance, had lower self efficacy and lower intentions to improve performance.

5.5 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LOCUS OF CONTROL, ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION AND SELF EFFICACY

The researcher hypothesised that a relationship would exist between achievement motivation, locus of control and self efficacy. Specifically, employees who have a high need for achievement are likely to demonstrate an internal locus of control, and display high levels of self efficacy. Conversely, employees who have a low need for achievement are more inclined to project an external locus of control, and display lower levels of self efficacy. The results of this study indicate that there is a statistically significant correlation between locus of control and achievement motivation. Similarly, a significant relationship also exists between self efficacy and locus of control. There is also a significant relationship between achievement motivation and self efficacy.



The findings of this research are supported by Abdel-Halim (1980), who states that in line with theoretical consistency between need for achievement and internal LOC, some studies have indicated that a higher level of need for achievement correlates with internal beliefs. Erwee and Pottas (1981) support these findings in that they reviewed research conducted on LOC and nAch. The research confirmed that individuals with a high need for achievement have a strong belief in their own ability to determine the outcome of their own action.

Spector (1982) concurs in that, according to him, a high level of need for achievement presupposes a trust in one's own efforts, as well as a belief that good outcomes are caused by these efforts. As a result, according to Spector (1982), people with an

internal locus of control are thought to have a high level of achievement motivation. Norwicki and Stickland (1973) cited a few studies that indicated a relationship between internal locus of control and higher achievement in reading math, and self esteem.

Bandura (1994), also concurs with the findings of this study, in that he states that there is a strong association between self efficacy and need for achievement. He postulates that a strong sense of self efficacy enhances human accomplishment and personal well-being. People with a high degree of belief in their abilities approach difficult tasks. Research conducted by Gist (1987) indicated evidence of a relationship between internal locus of control and self-efficacy, and proposed in particular a three-way interaction between self-efficacy, locus of control and goal setting.

According to Schunk (1995), self-efficacy is enhanced when students perceive they are performing well in achieving their goals, or mastering a skill. According to this researcher, lack of success or slow progress is not likely to lower self-efficacy if learners believe they can perform better by trying harder or using more effective strategies to overcome the difficulties. Appelbaum (1996) cited a study where the responses of newcomers into an organisation were examined in relation to the organisations values and culture. The findings indicated that those with a low sense of self efficacy were associated with higher levels of conformity in adopting the organisations norms and goals.

Thus according to Appelbaum (1996), this is consistent with the notion of locus of control where a low sense of efficacy is linked with an external locus of control

specifically in a situation where environmental factors such as that found in an orientation programme will impact or control the externally controlled individual, or an individual with a low sense of self efficacy.

Contrary to this Bandura (1994) provides a persuasive argument that beliefs about whether one can produce certain actions (perceived self-efficacy) are not the same as beliefs about whether actions affect outcomes (i.e. locus of control). According to Bandura, individuals may show a strong internal locus of control in general, but believe that they have low skill levels in certain areas, thus resulting in low efficacy perceptions in relevant tasks. Research conducted by Gilbert (1980) has also pointed out that individuals who gravitate toward being externally controlled may be achievement orientated if variables in the environment permit progress.

Some studies, however, indicate that there is no correlation between the variables (Hollenbeck et al., 1989). Hartley (1976), found in his study that need for achievement and internal locus of control may together predict for instance job performance, but as separate variables only one may correlate with job performance thus indicating independence between the variables.

5.6.LOCUS OF CONTROL AND BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES

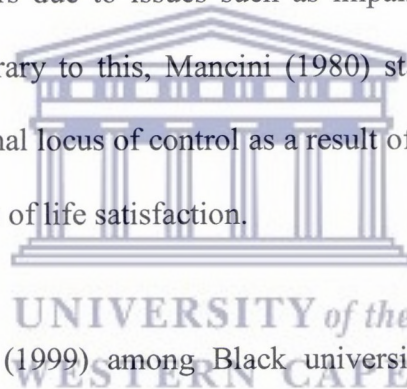
It was assumed that there would be a significant relationship between the biographical profile of the subjects based on their age, race, gender and the LOC. The results indicate that there is a statistically significant difference in internal and external locus of control based on gender. There were also statistically significant differences in

internal and external locus of control and race. As a result, the null hypothesis is rejected.

5.6.1 Locus of Control and Age

There has been quite a bit of research conducted on LOC and age over the past years.

Based on research conducted by Cornelius, Caspi, and Lachman (1991), it was found that older adults were more inclined to display an external orientation than younger adults. The researchers reasoned that this could be linked to the fact that older persons perceive greater reliance on others due to issues such as impaired physical health, decreased social wellbeing. Contrary to this, Mancini (1980) states that very often older adults often display an internal locus of control as a result of good coping skills, low defensiveness, and high levels of life satisfaction.



In a study conducted by Nene (1999) among Black university students, it was hypothesised that there would be no significant difference between internal-external locus of control and age. The findings however indicated that there are differences between internal locus of control, external locus of control and age. However, Lachman (1986) concluded in his study that there existed no age differences on the generalised locus of control measure.

5.6.2 Locus of Control and Gender

According to a study conducted by Al-Emadi (2003), it was found that girls attributed their success or failure to effort, while boys attributed their success or failure to luck. The study therefore argues that males have an external locus of control while females

are more internally controlled. Contrary to this, Dickens and Dickens (1982) state that women tend to react (emotionally) more easily to the external environment than that of males.

In support of the findings of this research, is a study conducted by Gastfriend and Wu (2005), who argued that based on Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control, and the perception of general education students, there are significant differences in males and females on their LOC scores.

On the other hand, Wishart (1997) reported that there was no significant relationship between locus of control and gender.

5.6.3 Locus of control and Race

Schaap, et al., (2003) conducted a study among White and Black students at a South African university. The findings indicated that while White students scored more consistently on the internal locus of control scale, Black students scored less consistently on this scale. This is supported by Riordan (1981) who found that there were significant differences between LOC and ethnic groups in South Africa. Gaa and Shores (1979) also found in their study that there were in fact significant differences in the internal or external sense of control between individuals from different cultural and race groups.

According to Singh and Verma (1990) there are alternative factors that have a far greater impact on locus of control than that of culture. This is supported by Wang et

al. (1999) who found no significant relationship between locus of control, gender or race.

5.7 ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION AND BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES

It was assumed that there would be a significant relationship between the biographical profile of the subjects based on their age, race and gender and achievement motivation. The results indicate that there is a statistically significant difference in achievement motivation based on gender. The findings indicated that there were significant gender differences in awareness of time and personal causation on the achievement motivation questionnaire. However, there were no race differences in achievement motivation

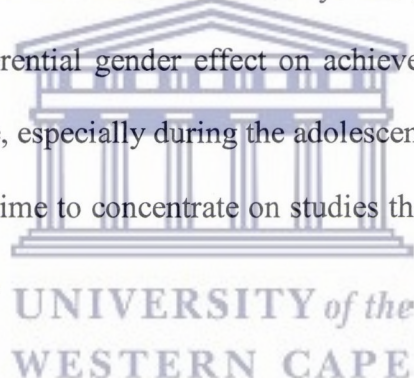
5.7.1. Achievement Motivation and Age

In a study conducted by Oosthuizen (2001), it was found that there are significant differences between age groups and motivation. Weiner (1974) supports the notion that age is a significant variable in achievement motivation. He therefore concludes that there are significant differences in the achievement motive that can be accredited to age. Abdel Hamied (1980) concurs in that he states that there is an association between motivation and age. The results of his study indicated that males of an older age were found to be more achievement orientated as opposed to younger males. There was no difference between the relationship of age and achievement motivation in females.

Contrary to this, Ray (1982) states based on the findings of his research among 305 people in Bombay, measuring authoritarianism and achievement motive, that achievement motivation do not correlate with age.

5.7.2. Achievement Motivation and Gender

Abu-Hilal (2001), states that girls have been found in several studies to be more motivated and higher achievers than boys. Both at school and college level, females have registered higher achievement scores than males (Hassan & Khalifah, 1999). According to these researchers several explanations exist why one could argue this, the most commonly being that the socialization of boys and girls are often very different thus explaining the differential gender effect on achievement. Females are usually more confined to the home, especially during the adolescence stage than boys. This seems to give females more time to concentrate on studies than males who have more freedom outside of the room.



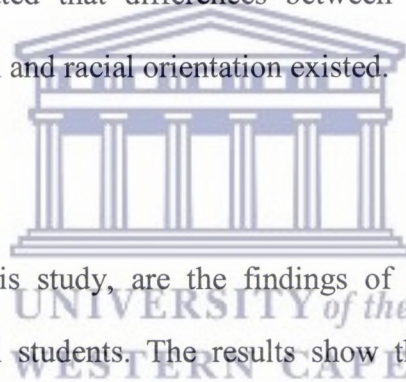
Dweck (1999) argues that girls and women may be more likely than boys to view difficulties as aversive and thus they suggest that an association between gender and achievement motivation.

Ablard and Lipschultz (1998) found that although females could master tasks more easily than males, there was no significant difference in how boys fared in work performance. In addition, Howard, (2005) states that males traditionally prevail in achievement levels. According to the researcher, this could be due to factors such as the glass ceiling or due to a lack of women role models both in society and in the workplace.

Riepe (2002) found no significant gender differences in achievement motivation.

5.7.3. Achievement Motivation and Race

Greenberg and Baron (1997) suggests that significant evidence indicates that differences in achievement motivation among individuals are also dependent on culture. Bernard (1959) concurs based on his research conducted on race, ethnicity and achievement. He postulates that achievement levels of some racial and ethical groups can differ based on the differences in their psychological and cultural orientations. The findings indicated that differences between groups specifically relating to achievement orientation and racial orientation existed.



In support of the findings of this study, are the findings of research conducted amongst multi racial high school students. The results show that the relationship between racial identity and or racist experience was not strongly correlated with achievement motivation (Herman, 2002).

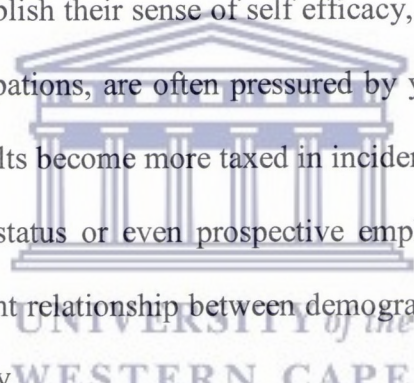
5.8 SELF EFFICACY AND BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES

It was assumed that there would be a significant relationship between the biographical profile of the subjects based on their age, race, gender and self efficacy. The results indicate that there is a statistically significant difference in self efficacy based on gender. There were also statistically significant differences in self efficacy and race. As a result, the null hypothesis is rejected.

5.8.1 Self Efficacy and Age

According to Bandura (1994), individuals who enter early adulthood with poorly developed skills or filled with self doubt may find aspects of their adult life, be it personal or work life, difficult. He further states that young adulthood unlike middle aged adulthood is a period when the individual has to learn to cope with many new demands such as trying to establish new career, and or relationships.

Contrary to this, Bandura (1994) also states that while it may seem that young adults have a tougher time trying to establish their sense of self efficacy, middle aged adults specifically relating to their occupations, are often pressured by younger challenges. Self efficacies of middle aged adults become more taxed in incidents where they have to compete for job promotions, status or even prospective employment. Felfe and Schyns (2002) found no significant relationship between demographic variables such as age, sex gender and self efficacy.



5.8.2 Self Efficacy and Gender

In a study conducted by Fennema and Sherman (1978) it was found that there were no significant differences with gender and mathematics learning, nor with gender and motivation for learning for 1300 middle school children. The results however, indicated that there were significant effects on mathematics confidence or self efficacy and on perceptions of mathematics as a male domain, with boys reportedly averaging higher on both variables.

In a study conducted by Phares and Valiante (1999), where both boys and girls were asked to rate their ability on writing skills, it was found that both genders rated equal writing self efficacy despite the fact that girls outperformed the boys. Felfe and Schyns (2002), in their study of self efficacy and perceived transformational leadership, found no significant correlation between self efficacy and gender in there study.

5.8.3 Self Efficacy and Race

In a study conducted by Gao and Harrison (2005), is was found that African-American participants demonstrated higher perceived self efficacy than European-American counterparts, however, there were no significant difference between their performances. Graham (1994) concurs in that she found little support that African American students have lower efficacy than that of White students.

Felfe and Schyns (2002) found no significant correlation between self efficacy and race in their study.

5.9 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

A sample size of 84 was used. It would be best that in future research a bigger sample size is used so as to enhance generalisability.

The researcher made use of convenience sampling. Since convenience sampling is characterised as not being concerned with achieving a representative sample, it was

difficult to control the number of males or females, Black or White respondents completing the questionnaire.

Lastly, as a result of the respondents being anonymous, there was no way to track and follow up with employees who had not returned questionnaires, or only partially completed questionnaires.

5.9.2 RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

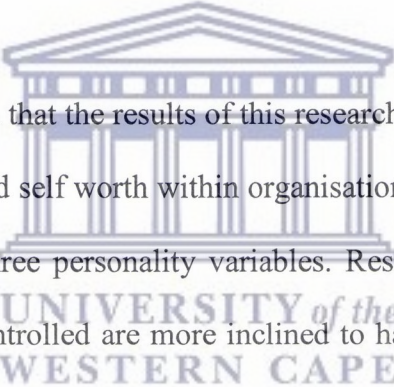
The current study was based on the analyses of the locus of control of employees, the need to achieve and the self efficacy of employees, and the relationship between these constructs as well as between the respective biographical variables.

The limitations discussed in the previous section highlighted a need for further related studies to compare over time the effects nAch, LOC and self efficacy. Ideally a larger, more representative sample should be used. It is also suggested that the study takes place within a broader geographical location so as to enhance generalisation. It is also recommended that a cross check of various researchers findings with different samples and populations from different regions or even countries should be conducted.

5.10.1 Locus of Control, Achievement Motivation and Self Efficacy

Based on the results of this study, the researcher recommends that the Work Locus of Control Inventory, the Achievement Motivation Questionnaire, and or the General Perceived Self Efficacy Scale can be used to assist in organisations realising the

psychological dimensions that can influence job performance and how it can assist employees in demonstrating their full potential and effectiveness on the job. It does not necessarily only have to be used as a selection tool but in the researcher's view, could also be beneficial as a development or career assessment tool so as to determine a low need for achievement and check for or clarify any confidence, self-esteem or self-efficacy issues, and or feelings of helplessness, thus raising awareness amongst employers and employees in understanding how self-efficacy impacts on an individuals self perceptions, self-judgement of skills, and responses to challenges and demands of their jobs.



It is therefore further recommended that the results of this research forms the basis for improving employee motivation and self worth within organisations by examining the correlation of the impact of the three personality variables. Research indicates that people who are more internally controlled are more inclined to have higher levels of achievement motivation (Spector, 1982). Also, Bandura (1994) explains that individuals with a high level of efficacy attribute failure to insufficient effort or a lack of knowledge that is readily attainable. Therefore, in identifying the relationship between these three constructs, it becomes valuable to the business environment as a means of improving employee performance.

5.11 Recommendations in utilising the Work Locus of Control Scale in an organisational context

5.11.1. Internal Locus of Control

An effective way to assess internal locus of control in employees would be through a psychological assessment. This will assist in determining a fit between the employee and the job. It will also make known to the manager that the employee's point of reference is his own ability and will not necessarily rely on others or the environment thus making it easier to be effectively managed.

Organisations will also be in a better position to develop and or reinforce the employee's locus of control and need for success with further training. It also makes it easier to identify appropriate training courses.



5.11.2. External Locus of Control

In the event that assessments should determine an external locus of control, organisations will be in a better position to identify appropriate measures to assist the individual. It is recommended that organisations may consider assigning a mentor to the employee. As previously discussed in the literature. Dickens and Dickens (1982) states that often a mentorship specifically in Black employees acts as a barrier rather than as an enabler in the development an internal locus of control, as the employee often cannot identify with the assigned mentor. It is therefore very important that an appropriate mentor is assigned, preferably one who is internally controlled. This is likely to reduce anxiety and build confidence, and also promote assimilation of the

role model's attitudes, as externals have a tendency to follow action, all of which the aim is to change (Dickens & Dickens, 1982).

5.12. Recommendations in utilising the Achievement Motivation Questionnaire within an organisational context

In considering the sub dimensions of the Questionnaire, it becomes clearer as to how organisations can make effective use of the tool in identifying high or low achievers within the organisation which ultimately has an impact on the overall performance of the organisations. The researcher therefore recommends the use of the Achievement Motivation Questionnaire in organisations in respect of the sub dimensions of this questionnaire (Le Roux et al., 1997).



5.12.1 Persistence

Persistence, which is defined as focusing on the end result and persisting until the task has been completed, is often identified as a core competency in most organisations. Organisations, relate persistence to increased performance, and thus it will be beneficial to assess for this during talent identification. It can also be used as a strong determinant of future or potential performance (Pottas et al., 1980).

5.12.2 Awareness of time

It is important for employees to be able to plan and organise their tasks, and plan for events in the work place. Through the identification of an employee's awareness of time, organisations can be in a better position to identify appropriate interventions, such as time management courses to further develop or improve the employees' ability to prioritise work so as to meet agreed upon deadlines (Pottas et al., 1980).

5.12.3. Action Orientation

It is important to appoint individuals who display the willingness to take action in order to accomplish tasks, maintains a high level of motivation and energy, and operate with vigour, effectiveness and determination. Through appropriate identification or development of an individual's determination to take action, organisations will be in a better position to meet their business objectives (Pottas et al., 1980).

5.12.4. Aspirational Level

It will be advantageous for business to identify those individuals who place importance on aspiring to do better, to achieve set goals, and who are willing to take and implement higher risks that will ultimately increase the organisation's competitive (Pottas et al., 1980).

5.12.5 Personal Causation

As this dimension refers to an individual's belief in their ability that the outcome of any task or effort is a result of his or her own initiative, it is recommended that organisations link competencies encompassing these personality dimensions into their performance management systems. In this way, feedback can be provided regarding an employee's performance in relation to the goals that they have set (Pottas et al., 1980).

5.13. Recommendations in utilising the General Perceived Self Efficacy Scale within an organisational context

According to Gist (1987), research on self efficacy generally has supported a high correlation between self efficacy and performance. Thus therefore indicating that there are implications for selection, training, and career counselling or assessment within organisations.

5.13.1 Implications of self efficacy in the Selection of employees in Organisations

A study conducted by Rademan (2004), in a South African financial services organisation among financial advisors, indicated that self efficacy, which included taking a stand, making commitments, and willingness to make decisions, correlated highly with actual performance. Gist (1987) states that self efficacy appears to be relevant to selection in many ways. Based on this study it becomes evident that assessing for General Perceived Self Efficacy, can benefit organisations in reaching

their objectives through individuals who believe in their ability to achieve. Therefore when selection instruments are used, some assessment of self efficacy will be useful, together with a battery of different measures. An interview process would also be ideal in which to assess a potential employee's self efficacy. However, faking will need to be controlled (Gist, 1987).

5.13.2. Implications of self efficacy in Career Assessment or Counselling within Organisations

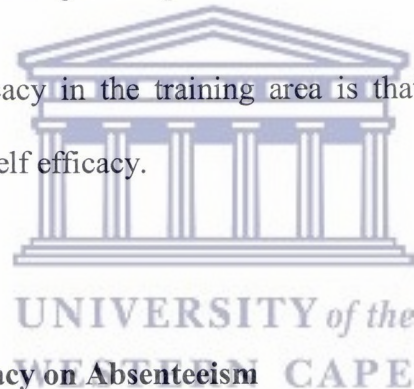
Gist (1987) states that implications of self efficacy for selection also extends to placement and career planning. The General Perceived Self Efficacy Scale will also assist psychologists to identify and work with individuals who report low on these scales. It is recommended that intermittent assessment of employees' self efficacy perceptions on a variety of tasks, are considered by psychologists operating as human resource consultants. This will assist managers to be in a better position to identify relevant career advancements for their staff. Similarly, a self efficacy approach to vocational counselling can assist individuals, specifically school leavers, who are unsure of new career directions, by assessing perceived competence in a variety of occupations. Hence, self efficacy can be of significant value in career assessments within organisations and schools (Gist, 1987).

5.13.3 Implications of self efficacy on Training within Organisations

According to Gist (1987), the implications of self efficacy for training are far reaching. In order for organisations to conduct a needs analysis they need to

understand how to pinpoint any behaviour or motivational sensitivities that may impact on performance, so as to determine the most useful training interventions. As pointed out in the previous chapters, self efficacy impacts on performance. It is for this reason that behaviour modelling can be used as an effective tool in organisational training. For instance, films may be developed and tested to model successful performance for training purposes. In higher level positions, organisations may find a mentoring program more efficient provided that the mentor holds the same value systems as that of the mentee. In this way, organisations will be doing more than just verbal persuasion. This provides the mentor with the opportunity to give feedback and reasons as to why feedback was either good or poor.

Another implication of self efficacy in the training area is that specific problems sometimes may be traced to low self efficacy.



5.13.4 Implications of Self efficacy on Absenteeism

Appelbaum (1996) cited a study conducted in a government organisation where absenteeism was rife. In an effort to reduce the high levels of absenteeism, a group of employees were given a self management training course where they were trained to set both short and long term attendance goals, monitor their performance and brainstorm possible absenteeism solutions. The result of this training intervention was that efficacy ratings increased as did absenteeism. It may well be that training in goal setting and self regulation holds promise, as the long-term impact of the training intervention was that job attendance remained close to the post training over a 9 month period.

5.13.5. Additional Implications of self efficacy in Organisations

A further implication of self efficacy in organisations is that human resource consultants who are not trained psychologists, need to be taught how to identify self efficacy issues so as to make better selection decisions, to assist in proper placement of current staff and to identify appropriate interventions.

5.14 SUMMATION OF THE CHAPTER

Organisations are recognising the need to improve their return on investment when it comes to their human capital. Attracting top performers or appropriately assessing and developing current talent in organisations is steadily becoming a crucial process within organisations.



The research has shown that personality plays an important role in a persons life, be it personal or work related. Understanding the relationships between the three personality constructs has brought to light that based on how internally or externally controlled one is, it is likely to impact on his/her belief about their ability and ultimately impact on their need to achieve set goals. It would therefore be safe to say that while it may not be advisable to use personality questionnaires in isolation as an assessment tool, it certainly stands to reason that it would be most beneficial for organisations to use it as a point of reference whereby psychologists can check for, or clarify any suspicions regarding performance of employees.

In this chapter the researcher discussed the dimensions of locus of control, achievement motivation, and self efficacy, as well as the research findings that either supported or refuted the findings of this study. Attention was also paid to the limitations of this study and possible recommendations for improvement in future studies, as well as recommendations as to how the findings of this study could be used and valued in organisations.



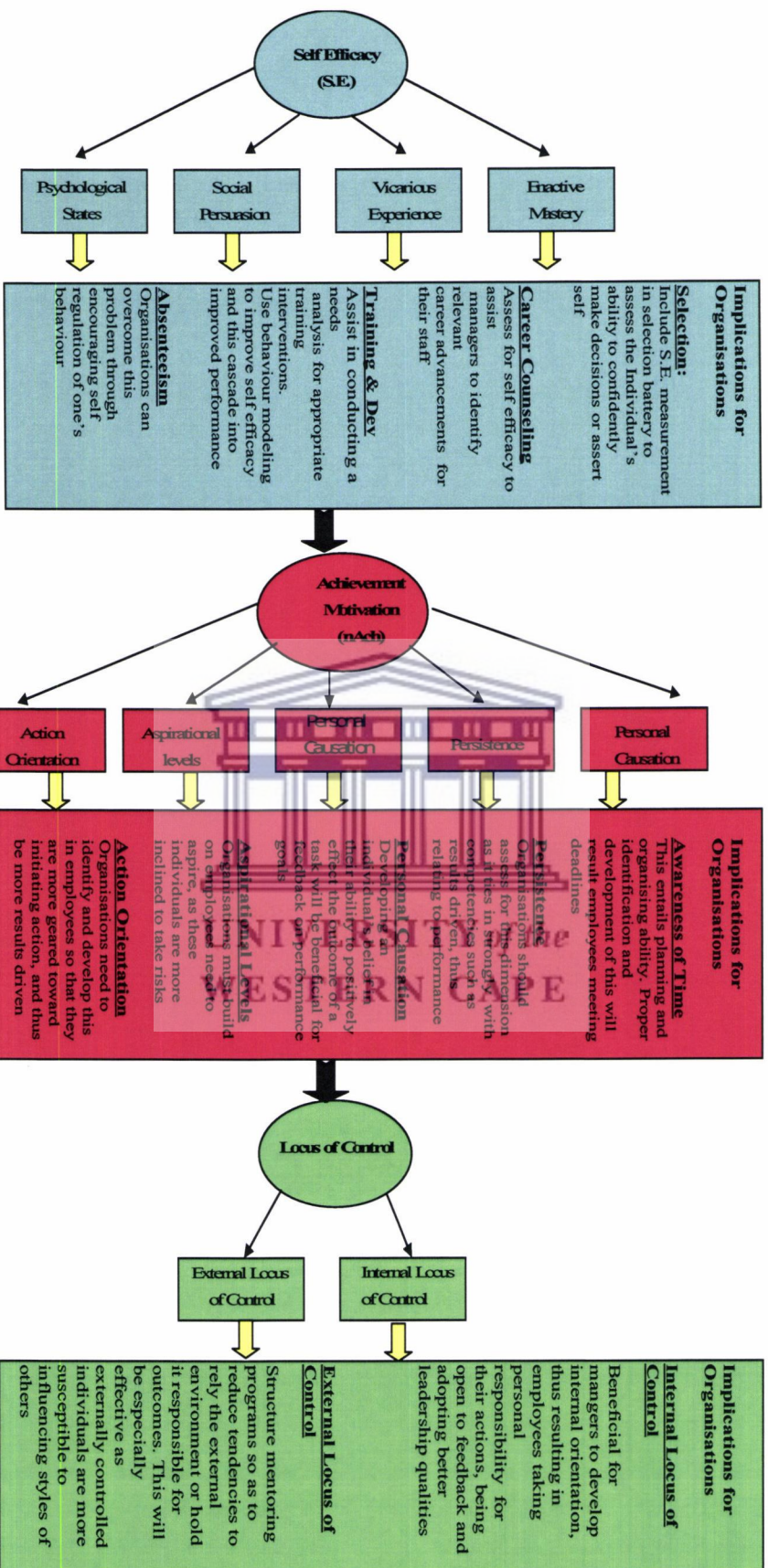


Fig 5.1 Integrated Model of Relationship between LOC, Need for Achievement, Self Efficacy and implications for Organisations

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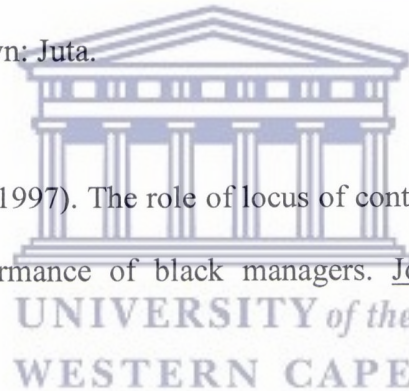
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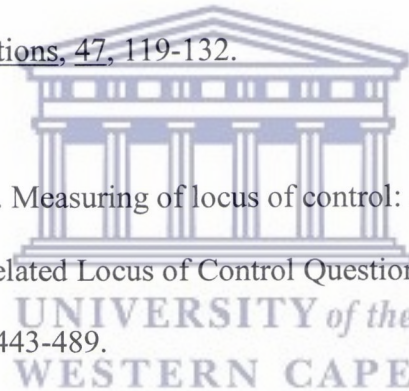
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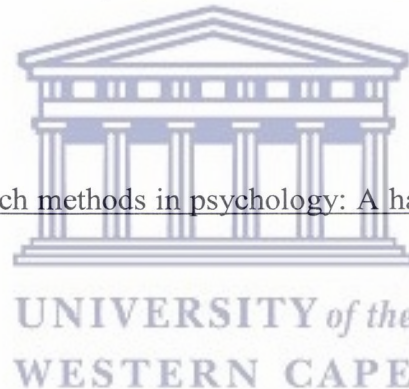
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