

**THE DEVELOPMENT AND EVALUATION OF A SELF-
MANAGEMENT TRAINING PROGRAMME FOR PUBLIC
SERVANTS IN THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION IN NAMIBIA**

**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE
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ABSTRACT

Changes that impact organisations require employees to understand the responsibilities of self-management in order to contribute to the productivity of those organisations. The aim of this study was to develop and evaluate a self-management training programme for public servants in the Ministry of Education headquarters in Namibia.

A two-group design was used, comprising an experimental group and a control group. A pre-test, a post-test and a post-post-test were administered to both groups, with the aim of comparing the groups and measuring outcomes resulting from the experimental treatments. The experimental group went through an intervention, and was then compared with the control group which did not go through the intervention. The post-post-test was aimed at determining the long-term intervention outcomes after participants had demonstrated achievement of the learning outcomes in their work environment. The participants of the experimental group were assessed by their supervisors to determine whether there was any improvement in work efficacy as a result of the self-management training programme. The following measuring instruments were used: A biographical questionnaire, the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS), the Psychological Well-being Scale (PWBS), the Psychological Empowerment Questionnaire (PEQ), the Time Management Questionnaire, a Knowledge and Reaction Evaluation questionnaire and a questionnaire that was completed by the supervisors of the experimental group to assess the behavioural changes which could be attributed to the self-management programme. Descriptive and inferential statistics were utilised to analyse the results.

The results indicated that with regard to psychological wellbeing, participants showed increased achievement in the areas of environment mastery, positive relations with others, and purpose in life, while in the sphere of time management, improvement was found in participants' ability to get work done at a specific time without interruption, their ability to establish a system or process to automate, as much as possible, tasks such as writing engagement letters and proposals, responses to requests for proposals, billing and review, and their capacity to fully empower subordinates and not attend to assignments for which others were responsible. The results also showed that, as a result of the self-management training programme, the participants of the experimental group improved in the following areas, as measured by their supervisors: time-management, creativity, self-monitoring, stress-management, emotional intelligence, self-esteem, self-efficacy, socialisation, work engagement, interpersonal communication. Additionally, the results showed that the participants of the self-management training programme were very satisfied with the way the training was organized and conducted.

Keywords: self-management, time management, emotional intelligence, self-esteem, self-efficacy, stress management and self-monitoring.

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DECLARATION

I, Helena-Negonya Kangunga, declare hereby that this study is a true reflection of my own research, and that this work, or part thereof has not been submitted for a degree in any other institution of higher education.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This thesis focuses on the development and evaluation of a self-management training programme for public servants in the Ministry of Education in Namibia. Chapter 1 focuses on the orientation of the study, the problem statement, objective of the study and the chapter summary.

1.2 ORIENTATION OF STUDY

Organisations throughout the world are changing swiftly as a result of technological, economic and political developments (Schreuder & Theron, 2004). Pienaar, Rothmann, and Rothmann (2003) add that some changes are as result of the political, social and economic environments that make organisations recognise the need for ongoing development and investment in employees. Among these developments are the increased utilisation of information and communication technology, the rapid expansion of the service sector, the globalisation of the economy, the changing structure of the workforce, and increasing use of flexible work schedules in which employees can work without close supervision. However, according to Rothmann (2003), the nature of work has also changed from making manual demands to making mental and emotional demands requiring individuals to manage their work without close supervision.

The above-mentioned changes require a new mind-set on the part of individuals in the work

context (Hitt, 2000). Learning concepts can be utilised to train employees to manage their own behaviours, which will minimise the need for managerial control as part of self-management (Robbins, Odendaal, & Roodt, 2003). Stewart, Carson, and Cardy (1996) state that training programmes can be developed to teach self-management skills with the aim of paying attention to the need for self-direction. They define self-management as a process in which individuals control their own behaviours. Dupre and Barling (2006) point out that although a supervisor's control might be appropriate, if it is exercised excessively, it may have a negative impact on an individual's work performance.

Self-management training is a sub-area of applied behavioural analysis (Godat & Brigham, 1999). The theory of self-management holds that by arranging environmental contingencies, establishing clear and specific goals, and producing consequences for their actions, individuals can be taught to exercise more control over their lives. The individual identifies target behaviour for change, monitors the target behaviour, develops a plan for change, applies behavioural principles, readjusts the plan if necessary, and plans for maintenance (Watson & Tharp, 1993). Manz and Sims (1980) state that effective self-management provides benefits to both employees and organisations. Manz and Sims (1980) cite Bandura's proposal that employees who effectively apply self-management procedures could serve as role models for others to learn self-management. Self-management can minimise the need for close supervision and can be regarded as a substitute for leadership.

Training employees in self-management might also contribute to more happiness and better stress management on their part. Through effective self-management training, individuals learn how to manage their mental and emotional reactions (Bandura, 2000), which might

reduce their stress experiences and increase their subjective well-being and engagement (Barrios-Choplin, McCraty, Sundram, & Atkinson, 1999; Lyubomirsky, 2008). Barrios-Choplin et al. (1999) emphasise that self-management techniques are cost- and time-saving measures because they contribute to workers' psychological well-being.

Ivancevich, Konopaske and Matteson (2005, p. 94) focus on self-efficacy, stating that "it refers to one's belief in one's ability to successfully complete a task." Bandura (2000) supports the view of Ivancevich et al. (2005) on self-efficacy, namely that employees are usually confident to do the work that they believe they can perform well. Highly self-efficacious employees tend to perform better at work than low self-efficacious employees. Employees with low efficacy prefer interventions in which they are trained how to perform traditionally structured roles, whilst those with perceived high efficacy prefer interventions in which they are trained how to restructure their roles creatively (Ivancevich et al., (2005). Huitt (2009) emphasises that self-concept relates to self-esteem that contributes positively to employees' well-being. Huitt (2009) further states that self-concept refers to the generic idea that people have of themselves. In addition, he indicates that self-esteem refers to measures regarding parts of self-concept. Bandura (1997) adds that an individual's perceptions comprise the emotions and beliefs that indicate the individual's behaviours.

Bandura (2000) further states that self-management interventions assist employees to acquire skills in cognitive self-guidance and self-motivation, as well as strategies to overcome stress. Indeed, self-management involves an individual's responsibility for consistency, fidelity and self-monitoring. Through self-management interventions, employees would be trained to manage their behaviours more effectively (Bandura, 2000). Effective self-management contributes to minimising hospitalisation, improving services and maintaining good health

among employees (Goleman, 2005). Gerhardt (2006) points out that a research study which was conducted on occupational realms found that self-management training leads to increases in job performance and decreases in counterproductive work behaviour, i.e. absenteeism.

Namibia's public service institutions fail to perform due to lack of management for performance (Mwange, 2009). Mwange (2009) further states that employees should be motivated and stimulated to deliver productive services by providing them with autonomy. Most managers in the public service lack management skills and skills to manage performance. The other dilemma regarding performance in the public service is that it is not managed like a business enterprise. Hence, there is no competition in public service institutions, and this contributes to the fact that there is no cost control such as those that exist in the private sector. An institution that is performing well is characterised by productivity improvement in its employees (Mwange, 2009). According to Mongudhi (2010), the new Minister of Education in Namibia sees the Ministry of Education as being in need of such improvement, and has promised to clean up the Ministry and to bring in changes in the education sector. Mongudhi (2010) further states that the Minister had already spoken to some employees and had given deadlines for improvements with regard to service delivery in the Ministry of Education.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Eran and Shlomo (2008) state that over the previous few decades, performance indicators have become a central concern of administrative systems for renewal, reform and change in the public sector worldwide. This is a common view nowadays that it is important to understand factors contributing to better public sector performance. Eran and Shlomo (2008) further state that traditionally, public sector organisations are regarded as uncreative and

stagnant bodies. Therefore, managerial innovation and creativity are needed to transform organisations in the public sector so that they will perform better and compete successfully with other organisations from the private sector.

In order to boost performance in the Namibian public service, one has to consider the aspect of self-management, which is a cornerstone for bridging the gap between low performance and productive service delivery. Self-management programmes need to be implemented at all levels in order to equip all employees with technical and behavioural monitoring and management skills. Rothmann and Cilliers (2007) point out that research is needed on different talents, knowledge and skills that will contribute to individuals' happiness, and also to organisational performance.

The research areas can be summarised as follows: Firstly, while it is important for employees to develop self-management competence, it is not clear what specific competences are needed by public servants, and why they are important. Secondly, there is a lack of information regarding the effects of self-management on individuals in the Namibian public service work context. Thirdly, no scientific or empirical studies have been undertaken regarding the effects of a self-management training programme on individuals in the Namibian public service context. Therefore, it is necessary to develop and evaluate a self-management programme in the public service of Namibia.

The following research questions are formulated based on the above-mentioned description of the research problem:

- How is self-management conceptualised in the literature?

- What are the aims, content and methodology of a self-management training programme?
- If a self-management training programme is conducted, will it improve the behaviours of the individuals who participated in the training, as well as the organisation as a whole?
- Which recommendations regarding self-management training programme for public servants in the Ministry of Education can be?

1.4 OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

The aim of the study was to develop and evaluate a self-management training programme for public servants in the Department of Education in Namibia. A training manual was developed, according to which the training programme was then implemented in the Ministry of Education's headquarter in the form of training intervention.

Subsequent to the training programme intervention, the following areas were assessed: The conceptualisation of self-management and reasons why self-management programmes for employees were necessary, the conceptualisation of the effects of self-management on employees, the determination of the most effective content and methodology for a self-management training programme for employees in the Namibian public service, and the immediate and long-term effects of a self-management training programme in the Namibian public service on the knowledge and behaviour of participants.

1.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter started with the introduction to the thesis. It then, focused on the orientation of study, problem statement and highlighted the objective of the study. The research questions are also formulated. Chapter two will emphasis on the literature review pertaining to self-management and related concepts.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, self-management will be defined. The importance and impact of self-management training will be highlighted. Employee engagement and disengagement will also be clarified. The components of self-management training, such as self-efficacy, self-esteem, self-monitoring, stress-management, time-management and emotional intelligence, will be outlined.

2.2 DEFINITIONS OF SELF-MANAGEMENT

Alderson, Starr, Gow, and Moreland (1999) state that currently, there is no standard definition of the concept 'self-management', but several terms are used depending on the context and focus of the discussion. Alderson et al. (1999) further state that self-management can take place when the individual participates in a certain type of education or case management theory. According to Lorig, Halsted, and Holman (2003), self-management involves learning and practicing skills that are needed by individuals to carry on an active and emotionally satisfying life. Although self-management cannot replace medical care, it is aimed at assisting participants to maintain good health through minimizing stress and other negative influences by becoming active in managing themselves.

According to Gerhardt (2006), self-management is defined as efforts by employees or individuals to control their own behaviours. Self-management includes assessing problems, establishing goals, and monitoring time and environmental aspects that may negatively affect the accomplishment of those goals.

Self-management refers to maintaining aspects of one's everyday life, such as employment and family. It also refers to dealing with the future, for instance; changing life plans, or dealing with frustrations, anger and depression (Redman, 2004). Another view of self-management is that it encompasses ways of social organisation whereby people have a great deal of control over the things that affect their lives (Martin, 1990). Nalagawa-Kogan, Garber, Jarret, Egan, and Hendershot (1998) define self-management as a treatment aimed at bringing about specific outcomes, for example, a treatment that contains biological, psychological and social intervention techniques.

The term self-management also refers to a formalized education programme aimed at providing information and skills to people in order to enable them to manage themselves (National Health Service, 2001). Furthermore, self-management is regarded as including day-to-day tasks that individuals must undertake to control or minimise the impact of disease on their physical health status (Clark et al., 1991).

Barlow, Wright, Sheasby, Turner, and Hainsworth (2002) state that self-management refers to the individual's ability to manage the negative events that might affect them in life, such as stress. Adams, Greiner, and Corrigan (2004) point out that the goal of self-management training is to educate people to have confidence in dealing with negative life events, role management and the emotional management of their lives. In order to attain this goal,

training should focus on how to access information, ways to ensure a level of confidence, and proficiency in problem-solving.

Self-management training is important because if employees or individuals are trained to evaluate, monitor or regulate themselves, they become responsible and accountable for their own progress and performance, and basically become self-managers (Gerhardt, 2006).

Bandura (2000) points out that self-management training restructures the model of a supervisory system from continuous control to facilitative guidance that provides essential tools and assistance to employees to help them become work effective. Employees tend to fail to demonstrate what they have learned or leave a task uncompleted as a result of lack of trust in their abilities to perform the task successfully. Thus, modelling influences must be developed to create a sense of personal efficacy, and also to transfer knowledge in the work environment.

2.3 THE IMPORTANCE AND IMPACT OF SELF-MANAGEMENT TRAINING PROGRAMME

Cascio and Aguinis (2005) point out that self-management was originally developed in the context of addictive behaviours, and is currently regarded as a novel approach to improving the performance of newly trained employees. Training programmes normally focus on positive outcomes for participants. Employees can be trained to be self-monitors of factors such as their attendance at work or reasons for being absent from work. Ivancevich, Konopaske and Matteson (2005) argue that individuals have to learn how to manage themselves and to learn from their weaknesses.

Schreuder and Theron (2004) indicate that in general, employees must take responsibility for their own careers, but that organisations usually do not provide their employees with the information and tools they need to do this. Schreuder and Theron (2004) further state that employees often lack the competencies and initiative necessary for managing their own careers. This leads to frustration, and as reported by Shigwedha (2010), the frustration of public servants might affect the Namibian people if it means that they are not provided with good service. Seijts and Crim (2006) suggest that employees or individuals should be provided with challenging and meaningful work with different opportunities for career advancement that would enable them to manage their work.

Seijts and Crim (2006) further suggest that if employees are not provided with knowledge and tools to enable them to be successful in their work, this is unethical and de-motivating, and is likely to lead to stress, frustration and even lack of work engagement.

‘Engagement’ refers to an employee fully participating and being enthusiastic about his or her work (Attridge, 2009; Seijts & Crim, 2006). Engaged employees work hard (i.e. show vigour), are involved in their work (i.e. show dedication) and feel happy about their work (i.e. are absorbed) (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008). Crabtree (2004) points out that engaged employee work with passion and feel that they are connected to their organisations. Disengaged employees concentrate more on time rather than putting energy or passion into their work. Robbins (2003) indicates that employees with a high level of job satisfaction have a positive attitude towards their work, whilst employees who are dissatisfied have negative attitudes towards their work.

Employee engagement can be regarded as being cognitive, emotional and behavioural. Cognitive engagement includes the beliefs of employees concerning the organisation, its managements and the culture of the workplace. The emotional aspect relates to how employees feel about the organisation, the management and their co-workers. The behavioural aspect concerns the value-added component reflecting the amount of energy or effort employees put into their work (Lockwood, 2007).

According to Lockwood (2007), the challenge which organisations face today is not merely that of retaining talented employees, but also of fully engaging them. Thus, capturing the minds and hearts of these employees at each stage of their work is crucial (Lockwood, 2007). Bakker et al. (2008) argue that job resources such as social support from co-workers and supervisors, performance feedback, skills variety, autonomy and learning opportunities are positively connected to work engagement. Employee engagement contributes to psychological well-being which allows employees to demonstrate open communication, respect, trust, teamwork and positive work relationships. It is believed that physical health and psychological well-being can have an impact on the quality and quantity of work (Lockwood, 2007).

Attridge (2009) refers to recent studies conducted by the Gallup Organisation which established that about 20% of U.S employees are disengaged, 54% are neutral regarding their work, and 26% are actively engaged in their work. Attridge (2009) further refers to research by Towers & Perrin who found a similar engagement profile during their 2003 study which indicated that 19% of U.S. employees could be classified as disengaged, 54% as moderately engaged, and a mere 17% as highly engaged.

Lack of work engagement is not limited to employees in the United States alone; it is considered to be a worldwide problem. The Corporate Leadership Council (2002, as cited in Attridge, 2009) conducted a study of the engagement levels of more than 50 000 employees at 59 global organisations. This study established that approximately 10% of employees globally were fully disengaged, meaning that they were not committed to the goals of their organisations. Attridge (2009) similarly found that 24% of employees worldwide were disengaged, whilst 62% of employees were moderately engaged in their work. In addition fourteen percent (14%) of employees were considered to be highly engaged (Towers Perrin, 2006, as cited in Attridge, 2009). Other findings from the Towers Perrin study indicated a wide range between geographic regions in the extent to which their workforce scored with regard to high work engagement; scores ranged, for example, from Mexico (40%) and Brazil (31%) at the high end, to the United States (21%) and Canada (17%) in the middle, with Europe (11%) and Asia (7%) at the low end (Attridge, 2009).

Rath and Cronchie (2009) refer to the Gallup estimation that disengaged employees cost U.S. companies about \$ 250 to \$350 billion a year. Attridge (2009) affirms that organisations with a higher quality work environment (e.g. opportunities for career growth, a culture of support and openness) achieve higher profits and business success, unlike companies with a lower quality work environment.

Several authors have investigated the link between personal resources and work engagement. For example, Rothmann and Storm (2003), in a cross-sectional study conducted among 1910 South African police officers, found that engaged police officers had an active coping style that assisted them to perform well at work. In a study of highly skilled Dutch technicians, Xanthopolou, Bakker, Demerouti, and Schaufeli (2007, as cited by Attridge, 2009) found that

three personal resources, namely self-efficacy, organisational-based self-esteem and optimism, were used to predict work engagement. Results indicated that engaged employees are highly self-efficacious and believe that they are able to meet the demands they might face in the work context. These employees also believe that they will experience positive results in life and can satisfy their needs through the role they play within their organisation i.e. organisational-based self-esteem. However, according to Attridge, Bennett, Frame, and Quick (2009), organisations respond to disengagement in different ways, and conceptual models propose that efforts to promote engagement should be undertaken at both individual and organisational level.

The above background indicates that interest in conducting research into self-management has increased tremendously as a result of its practical usefulness in attaining organisational competitiveness. Self-management is therefore identified as an effective method for critical competition in contemporary markets because it focuses on employee commitment instead of control-oriented approaches to individual management (Uhl-Bien & Graen, 1998). Lockwood (2007) supplements this with the view that employee engagement is a critical driver in the success of an organisation in today's competitive marketplace. Robbins et al. (2003) add that in order for an organisation to effectively adapt to change, it needs to gain competitive advantage, and its employee's skills and knowledge may contribute as much as 40% towards this goal. Based on that, the organisational application of learning concepts is not limited to managing the behaviours of its employees; this concept can be used to allow employees to manage their own behaviours, which would minimise the need for managerial control. This is what is called self-management.

According to Newman, Mulligan, and Steed (2001), the aim of self-management intervention is to teach skills that can be integrated into the participants' daily lives.

Although it might be necessary to ask whether self-management interventions are effective, it is also essential to ask participants to indicate the components of self-management interventions that they regard as effective and important.

The basic skills for self-management include self-problem assessment, self-goal setting, self-rehearsal, self-observation and personal plans for work behaviours (Manz & Sims, 1980; Uhl-Bien & Graen, 1998). The content of self-management programmes includes discussions, problem-solving skills, social skills and social support (Newman et al., 2001). Gerhardt (2006) affirms that self-management training is a way of controlling and managing individuals or employees' behaviours, both in their daily lives and in work spheres.

However, Pienaar et al. (2003) suggest that self-development programmes should focus on stimulating the self-awareness, self-regard, self-acceptance, flexibility and interpersonal effectiveness that individuals need for coping with situational demands such as interpersonal difficulties and inability to control impulses. Rothmann and Sieberhagen (1997) define self-development as referring to self-actualisation or psychologically optimal functioning. Self-actualisation is a continuous process in which individuals grow in their capabilities, potential and talents. It is a process in which all needs have been attained, and through which individuals are free to develop their talents and capabilities to their fullest (Ford & Blanchard, 1985). Shreuder and Theron (2004) define self-actualisation as an inner-directed process in which individuals give expression to their intrinsic nature. It entails a self-enriched psychological growth tendency and seeing meaning in life. It is associated with autonomy in

the sense of relative independence from the physical and social environment, and a feeling of connectedness with others.

Spreitzer (1995) focuses on psychological empowerment, suggesting that it exists when employees perceive that they can exercise some control over their work life. Spreitzer (1995, p. 1441) defines psychological empowerment as follows: "... a motivational construct manifested in four cognitions: meaning, competence, self-determination and impact. Together these four cognitions reflect an active, rather than a passive orientation to a work role. By active orientation is meant an orientation in which an individual wishes and feels able to shape his or her work role or context". According to Spreitzer (1996), *meaning* implies a link between the requirements of a work role and a person's beliefs, values and behaviours, *competence* is a cognition that refers to self-efficacy in specific work, or one's capability to do activities related to such work. *Self-determination* is an aspect of choice in creating and regulating actions. *Impact* refers to the degree to which an individual can influence the strategic and administrative outcomes of work.

May, Gilson, and Harter (2004) affirm that meaning and engagement lead to happiness at individual level. According to Meyer, Moore, and Viljoen (1997) 'happiness' refers to a feeling which an individual can experience when accomplishing meaning in life, and an individual can experience happiness, joy or pleasure upon completion of particular tasks. However, happiness is not, in itself, a goal that an individual should achieve, but it is the end-product that the individual would feel proud of. Rothmann (2009, p. 1) states that happiness "refers to the experience of a sense of joy, satisfaction, and positive well-being, combined with a sense that one's life is good, meaningful, and worthwhile".

Happiness involves an individual being free from psychological conflicts, impossible uncertainties and insecurities. It also implies the attainment of values such as self-esteem that involve the development of self and an acceptance of reality. Once an individual attains more values, it would increase his or her state of happiness (Bertrand, 2000). According to Margaret Lee Runbeck, as cited by Melgosa (2008, p.5) “Happiness is not a station you arrive at, but a manner of travelling”.

Rothmann (2009) affirms that the following formula (Figure 1) can be used to understand happiness (wellbeing):

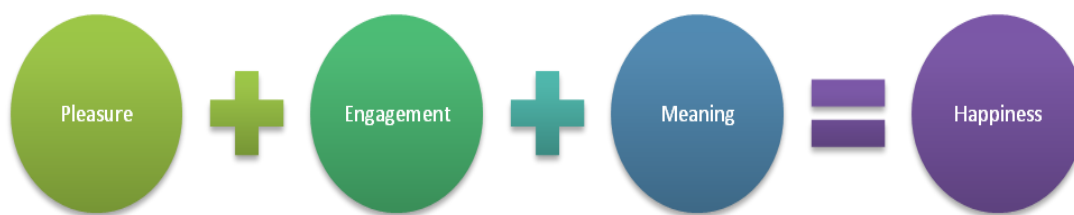


Figure 1. A formula for understanding happiness (wellbeing)

It can be argued that effective self-management programmes would contribute to the intrinsic motivation of employees because such programmes satisfy individual needs for autonomy and competence. Autonomy (i.e. self-determination) and competence (i.e. self-efficacy) form part of psychological empowerment theory. Psychological empowerment comes in when global completion and change require creative and innovative employees (Spreitzer, 1995).

Blunt and Jones (1992) indicate that if individuals have considerable autonomy in their work it increases the degree to which they feel personally responsible for their inputs and the success of their work. Jobs that are highly controlled allow employees to lay the blame for failure elsewhere, for instance by indicating that the verbal instructions from their supervisor

were very poor. Cotter (1995) states that creative organizations have been changing from a traditional learning model, for example, a teacher led model, to a more learner-centred, self-directed or self-managed model in which employees can manage themselves. According to Uhl-Bien and Graen (1998), self-management models promote the training and development of employees who can work on their own without close supervision, and can solve their own problems.

There is a difference between individual self-management and team self-management. With team self-management, all employees have a greater responsibility to participate, while on the other hand, it has been indicated that individual self-management has little participation in team self-management.

Uhl-Bien and Graen (1998) further state that individual self-management is very beneficial at the individual level where the individual has greater participation in work. It is also documented that individual self-management has a positive impact or outcome with regard to job satisfaction and self-control. Theoretically, self-managing activities minimise the need for bureaucratic systems because individuals would be empowered with a high degree of decision-making authority. Organisations that cultivate a culture of individual self-management would likely be able to reduce managerial support and problems among its workforce.

2.4 COMPONENTS OF SELF-MANAGEMENT TRAINING

It is crucial for employees to develop skills and attitudes conducive to self-management (Martin, 1990). Self-management programmes involve a combination of components to

teach employees how to manage their own social behaviour, such as self-monitoring and positive reinforcement (Young, West, Smith & Morgan, 1991).

The following are the components of self-management that can be used in facilitating self-management training:

2.4.1 Self-efficacy

Ivancevich et al. (2005) state that self-efficacy relates to personal beliefs regarding competencies and abilities. Ivancevich et al. (2005) and Schreuder and Theron (2004) define self-efficacy as referring to an individual's belief in his/her ability to successfully complete a task. Bandura (1994, p. 1) defines self-efficacy as "people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives". Stajkovic and Luthans (1998) define self-efficacy as an individual judgement of how well one can carry out courses of action needed to deal with prospective situations.

2.4.1.1 The role of self-efficacy

Ivancevich et al. (2005) attest that self-efficacy beliefs can be learned and developed through past experiences. For instance, if people tried a task for a long time, they would successfully increase their performance and develop self-confidence. They would therefore perform the task successfully.

Ivancevich et al. (2005) further quotes the work of Gist and Mitchell who analysed self-efficacy. His research findings on self-efficacy indicate that self-efficacy is associated with

the performance of work, choice of career, learning and attainment, and adaptability to new technology that would enhance self-efficacy in an individual's training.

Employees can identify goals they want to attain and things they would like to refine or change, but they should also realise that putting these plans into action is not easy. Self-efficacy, therefore, plays a major role in how goals and tasks should be accomplished (Bandura, 1994). Individuals with high self-efficacy approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered instead of threats to be avoided. They set themselves challenging goals and keep strong commitments. They approach difficult or threatening situations with a belief that they can exercise control over them (Bandura, 1994). Cherry (n.d) supports the views of Bandura (1994), adding that individuals with strong self-efficacy develop a deeper interest in the activities in which they participate. They form a stronger sense of commitment in respect of their interest and activities, and recover quickly from disappointments.

Bandura (1994) further indicates that low self-efficacious individuals doubt their capabilities because they are usually afraid to get involved in difficult tasks, and view them as personal threats. They have low aspirations and weak commitment to the goals they choose to pursue. They easily become victims of stress and depression.

2.4.1.2 Implications of self-efficacy at organizational level

Luthans and Peterson (2002) point out that self-efficacy is dynamic, and can change from time to time with new information, experience and learning. Furthermore, self-efficacy is adaptable to human resource development and management for improving performance. It has been found that there is a positive relation between self-efficacy and performance.

Studies carried out by Bandura (1986; 1997) and Stajkovic and Luthans (1998a,b) indicate that the higher an individual's self-efficacy, the more likely he or she will be to innovate or create tasks, sustain efforts toward task achievement, and persist when problems are faced

Ivancevich et al. (2005) suggest that organisations should choose people who have a strong sense of self-efficacy. These people will be motivated to participate in the behaviours that will assist them to perform well. A measuring instrument can be administered during the recruitment or promotion process to attract suitable people (Ivancevich et al., 2005).

Gist and Mitchell (1992) indicate that some training in the area of self-management can improve self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is regarded as a being related to self-esteem. However, while self-esteem is normally regarded as a trait that reflects an individual's characteristics, focusing on self-evaluation such as feelings of self-worth and self-liking, self-efficacy is considered as not inherently evaluative as a judgement regarding task capability. For example, a girl who is a gymnast may have very low self-efficacy pertaining to singing, but may still decide, on reflection, that this is not important, and it would thus not diminish her overall evaluation and feelings about self.

The level of self-efficacy of individuals should be considered by organisations when selecting candidates for training programmes. If the training budget is limited, it is crucial to consider employees whose self-efficacy levels are high. This is because the organisation would invest in these candidates who will ultimately enhance their learning skills into job performance (Ivancevich et al., 2005).

Gist and Mitchell (1992) reiterate that there is a difference between self-efficacy and self-esteem; self-efficacy usually refers to task-specific capability, while self-esteem, in contrast, refers to a global construct that focus on individuals' self-evaluations. Schwarzer (1992) adds that self-efficacy addresses a basic need in self-development. Furthermore, Gist and Mitchell (1992) state that several consistent findings have shown that self-efficacy influences goal level and commitment, as well as the individual's initial selection of activities, tasks, emotional reactions, coping and persistence. It changes individuals through learning, experience and feedback.

2.4.2 Self-esteem

Self-esteem refers to an emotional aspect of self that generally refers to how people feel about themselves or how they value themselves in terms of self-worth. Self-esteem is related to self-concept, which is the cognitive or thinking aspect of self, or one's self-image (Huitt, 2009). Robbins et al. (2003) suggest that self-concept refers to people's feelings of self-esteem, which is also related to their self-efficacy beliefs.

Huitt (2009, p.1) cites Purkey's view that self-concept refers to "the totality of a complex, organized and dynamic system of learned beliefs, attitudes and opinions that each person holds to be true about his or her personal existence". Huitt (2009) further cites Franken's view that self-concept is related to self-esteem in that people who have good self-esteem could have a clearly differentiated self-concept. They can also minimize outcomes if they know themselves, because they know what they can do and what they cannot do.

2.4.2.1 Development of self-esteem

The Counseling and Mental Health Centre of the University of Texas (1999) points out that self-esteem develops and evolves throughout people’s lives as they build images of themselves through their experiences with different people and activities. Experiences during childhood play a major role in the shaping of people’s basic self-esteem, which is largely developed during childhood. The Counseling and Mental Health Centre of the The University of Texas (1999) further highlights two types of self-esteem, namely, healthy self-esteem and low self-esteem.

Table 2.1

Healthy Self-Esteem and Low Self-Esteem

Childhood experiences that contribute to healthy self-esteem	Childhood experiences that contribute to low self-esteem
being praised	being harshly criticized
being listened to	being yelled at or beaten
being spoken to respectfully	being ignored, ridiculed or teased
getting attention and hugs	being expected to be “perfect” all the time
experiencing success in sports or school	experiencing failures in sports or school
having trustworthy friends	

2.4.2.2 The effect of self-esteem on behaviour

Melgosa (2008) points out that adequate self-esteem brings psychological well-being, giving the individual feelings of personal worth, safety, self-respect and strength in order to face challenges. Individuals with high self-esteem achieve the highest attainment at work, in the family, with friends, and also in their communities. Robbins et al. (2003) add that these individuals believe that they have the ability they need to succeed at work, and they are more satisfied with their work than those with low self-esteem. On the other hand, individuals with low self-esteem feel inadequate to face problems and are likely to fail, and they tend to try to please others, especially people in managerial positions (Melgosa, 2008; Robbins et al., 2003).

Low self-esteem can affect people adversely in various ways such as by causing depression, negatively affecting job performance, causing deterioration in interpersonal relationships, or leading to stress, anorexia and bulimia. Low self-esteem can also lead to the abuse of alcohol and drugs (Counseling and Mental Health Centre, University of Texas, 1999; Melgosa, 2008).

2.4.2.3 How to achieve healthy self-esteem

It is crucial for an individual to know how to develop self-esteem, because it would improve that individual's ability to be happy. Development of self-esteem comes from three main sources, namely, persons we interact with and ourselves, information from people close to us. Non-verbal indicators also constantly shape individuals' self-esteem (Melgosa, 2008). However, before individuals begin to improve their self-esteem, they should first believe that

they are able to change. Change does not necessarily happen quickly or easily, but it should happen if individuals want to change. It is crucial for individuals to start challenging the negative messages of the critical inner voice (Counseling and Mental Health Centre, University of Texas, 1999).

Some examples of the inner critic’s voice and how individuals can rebut those voices, as identified by the Counseling and Mental Health Centre of the University of Texas (1999, pp. 3-4), are indicated in Table 2.

Table 2.2
The Inner Critic’s Voice and Individual’s Rebuttals

The Inner Critic’s voice	Individual’s Rebuttals
<p>“People said they liked my presentation, but it was nowhere near as good as it should have been. I can’t believe no-one noticed all the places I messed up. I’m such an impostor.”</p>	<p>“Wow, they really liked it! Maybe it wasn’t perfect, but I worked hard on that presentation and did a good job. I’m proud of myself. This was a great success.”</p>
<p>“I got an F on the test. I don’t understand anything in this class. I’m such an idiot. Who am I fooling? I shouldn’t be taking this class. I’m stupid and don’t belong in college.”</p>	<p>“I did poorly on this one test, but I’ve done O.K. on all the homework. There are some things here that I don’t understand as well as I thought I did, but I can do the material. I’ve done fine in other classes that were just as tough.</p>
<p>“He is frowning. He didn’t say anything, but I know it means that he doesn’t like me!”</p>	<p>“O.K., he’s frowning, but I don’t know why. It could have nothing to do with me. May be I should ask.”</p>

Melgosa (2008) and the Counseling and Mental Health Centre of the University of Texas (1999) give the following advice on how employees can develop self-esteem:

Keep fit and healthy – participate in sports, get enough sleep, eat in a healthy fashion.

Look at strong and positive features – employees should not forget their personal achievement, but should also be aware of the areas where they need improvement.

Be in control of your thoughts – employees should reject self-defeating mental messages.

Forgive yourself – employees should not continuously blame themselves for past mistakes or problems that they may have caused for others, especially if they have already taken steps to resolve them.

Revive your success – employees should list their past achievements and reflect on them.

Get assistance from others – employees should get assistance from friends, colleagues or someone whom they trust.

2.4.3 Self-monitoring

Self-monitoring is the process in which individuals observe their own behaviours, thoughts or emotions, and make evaluations (Ylvisaker, Hibbard, & Feeney, 2006; Nevid, Rathus, & Greene, 2006). McKinney (2005) defines self-monitoring as a process that keeps track of people's process and progress. Robbins et al. (2003) indicate that self-monitoring is people's ability to adjust their behaviours to external or situational factors. Gerhardt (2006) adds that self-monitoring refers to an active monitoring in which an individual monitors his or her own time and environment. Gerhard (2006) further adds that self-monitoring involves individuals identifying issues or situations that may prevent them from attaining their goals.

Nevid et al. (2006) point out that self-monitoring assists employees to record or monitor their behavioural problems daily. By recording undesirable behaviours, employees may become more aware of their need to change. Gerhardt (2006) point out that if individuals do not set

and commit to their goals, it might hamper those individuals' behaviour. McKinney (2005) suggests that work plans and project outlines, time management diaries, a monthly, weekly or daily calendar or day planner, day charts of time spent or work produced, and a list of activities to be done are some types of self-monitoring.

Successful individuals in life tend to know what they need and what the goals are that they set for themselves, and they achieve their goals (Ylvisaker et al., 2006). Self-monitoring is an effective tool for successful behaviour change (Dewey, 2007). Individuals high in self-monitoring show positive adaptive behaviours to external situational factors. High self-monitors are more successful in managerial positions, and they tend to focus more on the behaviour of others than low self-monitors (Robbins et al., 2003).

2.4.4 Stress management

Stress management will be discussed. Firstly, the definition of stress will be provided, followed by work stress, non-work stressors, causes of stress and work-related stress. The effects of work stress at individual's level will also be discussed as well as the effects of work stress in organisations. The stress prevention and management will be elaborated.

2.4.4.1 Definition of stress

Stress means different things to different people. From a layperson's perspective, stress can be defined as feeling tense, anxious or worried (Ivancevich et al., 2005).

Ivancevich et al. (2005, pp. 16 & 281) further define stress as:

a state of imbalance within an individual that often manifests itself in symptoms such as insomnia, excessive perspiration, nervousness and irritability. Stress is an adaptive response, moderated by individual differences, that is a consequence of any action, situation, or event that places special demands on a person.

Blackledge (2001) defines stress as a process of behavioural, emotional, mental and physical reactions that result in prolonged or new pressures that are significantly higher than the availability of coping strategies. Nevid et al. (2006) state that stress is a pressure or demand that is put on an organism to adapt and adjust. Ramesar, Koortzen, and Oosthuizen (2009) add that stress is any situation that places a demand on the body, either mentally or physically. Furthermore, Kanner, Feldman, Weinberger and Ford (1987) argue that stress is a stimulus that results in sadness and low self-confidence, and that it minimises the health condition of individuals. With regard to coping with stress, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) suggest that ‘coping’ refers to one’s effort in managing or controlling a situation that is regarded as stressful to one’s personal resources.

2.4.4.2 Work stress

According to Leka, Griffiths, and Cox (2003, p. 3) “work-related stress is the response people may have when presented with work demands and pressures that are not matched to their knowledge and abilities and which challenge their ability to cope”. Blackledge (2001) adds

that stress in a British study has been indicated to be associated with job dissatisfaction, increased smoking, escapist drinking, physical ill-health and poor psychological well-being.

Stress has a negative impact on work performance, absenteeism, occupational accidents and turnover (Blackledge, 2001). Many organisations provide stress interventions to their employees to educate them about stress and how best they can manage it (Kinman & Jones, 2005).

2.4.4.3 Non-work stressors

Non-work stressors are caused by outside factors and should not be ignored. These includes factors such as raising children and caring for elders, and balancing family and work can also create stressful situations for some people (Ivancevich et al., 2005). Lazarus and Cohen (1977) affirm that situations that are out of an individual's control, such as natural disasters, divorce or life-threatening illness, can result in non-work stressors among employees. The stress occurring outside of work is also likely to have a negative impact on employee's work, behaviour and performance (Ivancevich et al., 2005).

2.4.4.4 Causes of stress and work-related stress

Stress occurs in a wide range of work circumstances, but it is usually made worse when employees feel that they have little support from supervisors and colleagues (Leka et al., 2003). Leka et al. (2003) further add that stress may also become worse if employees have little control over their work and how they cope with work demands and pressures.

Blackledge (2001) states that excessive or high levels of work stress are associated with job dissatisfaction if employees are not happy with their work. Leka et al. (2003) point out that work stress is caused by poor work organisation, the way the job is designed, the work system and the way the work can be managed. Poor work design, management and unsatisfactory working conditions can cause unmanageable demands and pressures.

Leka et al. (2003) further state that if more demands and pressures of work were matched to the knowledge and abilities of employees, they would be less likely to experience work stress. If employees received more support from others at work or in connection with work, they would be less likely to experience work stress. When employees have more control over their work, and if they participate more in decisions that concern their work, they will be less likely to experience work stress.

2.4.4.5 The effects of work stress at individual's level

According to Leka et al. (2003), employees affected by work stress may become increasingly distressed and irritable, unable to relax and concentrate and they may feel tired and anxious. They may have difficulty in thinking logically and making decisions. They may enjoy their work less and feel less committed to their work.

They may have difficulty in sleeping, and may experience serious physical problems such as heart disease, disorders of the digestive system, an increase in blood pressure, headaches, and muscular-skeletal disorders such as lower back pain and upper limb disorders. Employees may become involved in undesirable activities such as smoking and the abuse of drugs.

Stress can also affect the immune system, impairing an employee's ability to fight infections (Leka et al., 2003).

2.4.4.6 The effects of work stress in organisations

Leka et al. (2003) indicate that if key employees or a large number of workers are affected, work stress may challenge the health and performance of the organisation. As a result, an unhealthy organisation would not get the best from its workers. Stressed employees may thus affect the performance as well as the survival of the organisation. Several researchers have concluded that work stress has a negative impact on the health of workers. Robbins et al. (2003) state that employees who experience high levels of stress may develop high blood pressure, ulcers, irritability, difficulty in making decisions, and loss of appetite. According to Leka et al. (2003), this can affect organisations with regard to increasing absenteeism, decreasing commitment toward work, increasing staff turnover, hampering performance and productivity, and increasing unsafe working practices and accident rates. Work stress also increases complaints from clients.

Furthermore, work stress has an adverse effect on staff recruitment because the organisation would spend money on filling the vacant positions. Barrious-Choplin, McCraty, Sundram, and Atkinson (1999) refer to a study conducted by the Northwestern National Life Insurance which found that in 1990, one in three employees considered quitting work and 14% actually quit or changed jobs during the year as a result of stress. Moreover, seven out of ten employees indicated that work stress lowered their productivity.

Barrious-Choplin et al. (1999) further argue that work stress also has a negative economic impact. It is estimated that work stress costs employers approximately US\$ 200 billion annually due to absenteeism, tardiness, burnout, lower productivity, high turnover, workers' compensation and health insurance costs.

The impact of turnover is strongly considered to have a direct and indirect impact on organisations in terms of administration of resignations, costs of recruitment, costs of the selection process, costs of covering work during the period of vacancy, administration of the recruitment and selection process, and the induction training of newly appointed employees (Loquercio, 2006).

Loquercio (2006) further indicates that the direct costs involve advertisements, interviewing panels or assessment centres that are used in the recruitment process, the time related to the recruitment, and the selection and training of new employee. Indirect costs involve the loss of knowledge related to informally captured knowledge, and the negative effect on the continuity of programmes. Mostert, Rothmann, Mostert, and Nell (2008) argue that work stress should not be considered solely as an individual's problem, but also as an organisational issue.

2.4.4.7 Stress prevention and management

It is crucial to make a distinction between stress prevention and stress management. Stress prevention focuses on controlling and minimizing stressors that would provoke the stress response, while stress management refers to the procedures that assist employees to cope effectively with or minimize stress that is already being experienced (Ivancevich et al., 2005).

Barrios-Choplin et al. (1999) add that not all stress responses are harmful, but eventually, one needs to fight or find a way to be free from stress by using techniques that helps him or her to cope with stress. In order to improve workplace well-being and productivity, it is, therefore, necessary that self-management techniques for reducing stress should be encouraged among employees. Self-management techniques are cost and time effective, and are aimed at enhancing employees' psychological well-being.

A programme is, therefore, needed that would identify and modify work stressors, train employees to modify and understand stress and its impact, and provide employees with support to handle the negative impact of stress. The programme should also include more support and coaching to assist employees in achieving their goals and developing better communication and team-building practices (Ivancevich et al., 2005). Self-management training assists employees to change their interpretive styles and manage their mental and emotional responses to stress. Additionally, self-management interventions have the potential to produce long-term changes in employees' health, performance and productivity (Barrios-Choplin et al., 1999).

The following strategies, as highlighted by Melgosa (2008), can be used as stress preventers:

Be realistic: Employees should establish realistic goals within the available time.

Establish priorities: Employees should focus on the most important tasks and know their priorities.

Seek variety: Employees should not find happiness through one single activity, as it will become obsessive and tedious.

Organise self: Employees should develop a list with all the items or things they plan to finish each day and week. If they experience too much pressure, they can postpone some of the activities. If the task is too small, they can try to add to it to make it more challenging.

Live a simple life: Employees should try to participate in simple activities, for instance, taking a walk or reading a good book. Employees can learn to find delight in simplicity that would lead to authentic happiness.

2.4.5 Time-management

The following section will focus on time-management. The definition of time-management will be provided as well as the effects of time-management and how it can be managed.

2.4.5.1 Definition of time management

Time-management refers to how employees' manage their time effectively; such as meeting deadlines or setting priorities (Time Management Basics, n.d).

2.4.5.2 The effects of time-management and how it can be managed

Declan (1998, p. 16) states that there are ten common time wasters in the workplace, such as; losing things, meetings, telephones, interruptions, procrastination, junk paperwork, crises, reverse delegation, perfectionism and distractions. Time management involves the prioritisation of tasks and the efficient use of time. In order to do this efficiently, it is necessary to recognise the difference between urgent and important tasks (Time-Management Basics, n.d).

Urgent refers to deadline-based tasks, and it has no relation to importance. It is very simple to rank any job in terms of deadlines (Time-Management Basics, n.d) **Important** refers to how much time an employee wants to spend on a job. It is, therefore, necessary for the employee to rank tasks according to their importance, such as ‘high’ ‘medium’ and ‘low’, or to give them a simple numerical ranking such as 1, 2, 3 (Time Management Basics, n.d).

The Teal Trust (n.d) suggests that there are four quadrants that can be used for time management. These are indicated in *Figure 2*.

Quadrant 1 Urgent and Important “Firefighting”	Quadrant 2 Important but Not Urgent “Quality Time”
Quadrant 3 Urgent but Not important “Distraction”	Quadrant 4 Neither Urgent nor important “Time wasting”

Figure 2.Time Management Grid

The Teal Trust (n.d) clarifies the quadrants as follows:

Quadrant 1 represents things that are both urgent and important. They are called “firefighting”. This quadrant represents activities that are important and need to be dealt with immediately.

Quadrant 2 represents things that are important, but not urgent. This quadrant refers to “quality time”, meaning that although the activities in this quadrant are important and contribute to attaining the goals and priorities, they do not have to be done immediately. As a result they can be scheduled to be attended to at a later stage.

Quadrant 3 encompasses distractions. These entail activities that need to be dealt with immediately, although they are not important. For instance in attending to clients who enter your office, you must interrupt whatever you were doing.

Quadrant 4 represents activities that are neither urgent nor important. Some meetings could fall into this quadrant, because they have been scheduled well in advance, but if they attain nothing, or an individual does not contribute to them, then the time has been simply wasted (The Teal Trust, n.d).

If employees work continuously under pressure to complete tasks within a limited time, it can be particularly stressful for some employees. If a number of employees or key employees are stressed due to lack of time-management, the overall health and performance of the organisation is likely to suffer (Giga, Cooper & Faragher, 2003). Therefore, according to the Teal Trust (n.d) it is good for an individual to know what is urgent and important. Individuals need to review their time effectively according to the quadrant map and their goals.

Giga et al. (2003) further state that training is needed which educates employees in making better use of their limited time in order to reduce some of the pressures. Therefore, implementing a workplace stress prevention programme is essential, and would create a culture in which both employers and employees are involved in the intervention process and are willing to continually communicate, analyse, revise their plans, and also learn from interventions that might produce desired results.

Employees should be aware of taking personal responsibility for minimising their stress level by implementing time-management techniques, increasing physical exercise and expanding the social support network (Robbins et al., 2003). Good time management enables individuals to attain better results, improve the quality of work, complete the work fast, reduce stress levels, make fewer mistakes, reduce the number of crises faced, and improve work satisfaction and the quality of non-working life (Declan, 1998).

2.4.6 Emotional intelligence

Emotional Intelligence will be defined. The discussion will also focus on how emotional intelligence can be nourished. The positive impact of emotional intelligence in an organisation will be highlighted.

2.4.6.1 Definition of emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence (EI) refers to one's ability to recognise one's own feelings, manage one's emotions, motivate oneself, express empathy and handle relations with others (Ivancevich et al., 2005). Ramesar et al. (2009) define emotional intelligence as an aspect of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one's ability to adapt to environmental demands and pressures. Ivancevich et al. (2005) quote the words of the Greek philosopher, Aristotle, who believed he knew how to manage relationships effectively. He suggested that a person had to get angry with the right person, to the right degree, at the right time, for the right purpose and in the right way. Salovey and Mayer (1990) identify this formula for managing relationships with others as emotional intelligence.

2.4.6.2 How to nourish emotional intelligence

The concept of emotional intelligence was originally proposed by Salovey and Mayer (1990). Melgosa (2008) affirms that an employee's emotional intelligence could be susceptible to great changes and improvements. Ramesar et al. (2009) point out that the developers of management programmes should be encouraged to incorporate emotional intelligence and stress management in their course material in order to alleviate stress in organisations. Muchinsky, Kriek, and Schreuder (2003) indicate that individuals differ in how they handle their emotions, and those who positively manage their emotions are likely to be 'emotionally intelligent'.

Melgosa (2008), Goleman (2005) and Robbins et al. (2003) suggest that the following dimensions encompass different aspects of the development of emotional intelligence and can bring changes in the lives of employees:

Know your emotions or self-awareness: Employees should start observing their emotions, such as how they feel, the type of thoughts that go through their minds and how various events affect them. It is essential for individuals to write down in a notebook their feelings and the emotions they experience, such as being upset, nervous, mistrusting or self-assured.

Learn to control your emotions or self-management: Employees should learn to free themselves from sorrow and make the decision to improve their moods. If individuals are anxious about the future, they should learn how to change their thinking. If employees tend to lose their temper, then they should practice ways to speak in a calm manner, breathe deeply and think of something funny.

Practice self-motivation: It is a known fact that lack of motivation freezes situations, which has a negative impact on goals and achievements. Thus, employees need to reject discouraging and depressive thoughts. It is important to practice self-confidence and perseverance.

Identify other people's emotions or empathy: It is very important to practice these skills by identify other people's emotions or feelings. Employees should observe non-verbal messages in others, such as their tone of voice, facial expressions and appearance.

Nourish your relationships or social skills: It is essential for employees to know how to handle the emotions of others. They should make an effort to live in peace and harmony with other people, as that will contribute to happiness. Employees should use words of approval and be willing to assist others (Melgosa, 2008; Robbins et al., 2003).

2.4.6.3 The positive impact of emotional intelligence in an organisation

Robbins et al. (2003) indicate that employees who are aware of their own emotions and are good at identifying others' emotions are usually more effective in their jobs. This statement supports the idea of emotional intelligence in that it refers to "an assortment of non-cognitive skills, capabilities and competencies that influence a person's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures" (Robbins et al., 2003, p.96).

Furthermore, Goleman (2005) states that employees who have high emotional intelligence are willing to accept challenging tasks and reward themselves for their achievements. Robbins et al. (2003) affirm that emotional intelligence may play a major role in job performance. Like

self-efficacy, emotional intelligence should thus be considered as a factor in selection, especially in jobs that require a high degree of social interaction.

2.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter addressed the concept of 'self-management'. The importance and impact of self-management training was also highlighted, as were employee engagement and disengagement, and the components of self-management training were elaborated on. The discussion also focused on the role and implications of self-efficacy at organizational level. Self-esteem, including its origin and how it affects behaviour and how individual can achieve healthy self-esteem, was addressed. Self-monitoring and stress-management were emphasised, and work stress and non-work stress were defined. Stress and its causes at individual level were highlighted, and the effect of work stress on an organization was discussed. The discussion also included stress prevention and management. Time-management was defined, the effects of time-management were outlined, and views on how it can be managed were provided. Emotional intelligence and its definition were also outlined. Finally, the impact of emotional intelligence in organization was discussed.

This chapter aimed at identifying the components that have to be addressed in a self-management training programme. Therefore, the first research question and the first specific objective were addressed (i.e. to conceptualise self-management and investigate why a self-management programme for employees was necessary; the conceptualisation of the effects of self-management on employees and the determination of the most effective content and methodology of a self-management training programme for employees in the Namibian

public service). Chapter 3 will focus on the development and implementation of a self-management training programme.

CHAPTER 3

SELF-MANAGEMENT TRAINING PROGRAMME

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will focus on how the self-management training programme was developed, implemented and evaluated. It will mainly indicate the aim, content and duration of the self-management training programme. It will also describe the groups that were targeted for the training, and how the selection of participants was done.

3.2 AIM OF SELF-MANAGEMENT TRAINING PROGRAMME

Based on the definition of self-management as stated in the literature review, the aim of a self-management training programme is to change the behaviours of participants by using mental and emotional techniques rather than manual supervision.

The purpose of this research was to conduct a self-management training programme in order to determine whether the intervention outcomes indicated behavioural changes among the experimental group that went through the intervention. The training manual used in this study was developed by the researcher, Mrs. H.N. Kangunga, as a component of a self-management training programme for the Ministry of Education (Please see the literature review in Chapter 2).

A further aim of this research was to determine whether changes had occurred in participants in the experimental group following the self-management training programme by comparing this group's results in a pre-test measurement, a post-test measurement and a post-post-test measurement with those of a control group. The course evaluation was also aimed at establishing the importance and effectiveness of the self-management training programme. The training would impact on the productivity of the organisation as it would highlight the need for a self-management training programme.

Although the self-management training programme was administered to the experimental group with the aim of assessing their behaviour changes after the intervention, the participants of the control group also benefited from the training. The intention was for the control group to gain skills that was acquired by the experimental group and to treat both groups fairly. Lastly, the purpose of the self-management training programme was to sensitize participants about the positive side of managing themselves. According to Muchinsky et al. (2003), organisations do not train and develop their employees merely for the sake of doing so, but because employees represent a competitive positive aspect that enhances organisational performance if managed well.

3.3 THE CONTENT OF SELF-MANAGEMENT TRAINING PROGRAMME

The knowledge, skills and attitudes related to self-management were explored in the literature review. Based on this review and on the researcher's personal observations, the content and methodology of the self-management training programme were designed. The complete self-management training manual is included in *Appendix A*.

The content of the self-management training programme are discussed in the following sections.

3.3.1 Self-management

Self-management was conceptualised for participants, and a formula consisting of pleasure, engagement, meaning and happiness was explained. This formula was used to help participants understand the notion of happiness (wellbeing).

3.3.2 Time-management

A definition of self-management was provided. The factors that contribute to poor time management such as meetings, telephones, interruptions, procrastination, junk paper work, crises, reverse delegation, perfectionism, distractions and losing things were elaborated on. The self-management training programme also focused on the importance of differentiating between urgent and important aspects. It was also stated that good time management enables individuals to achieve better results, improve the quality of work, work faster, and improve work satisfaction, and so forth.

Participants engaged in the following activity based on how to value other people's time. This activity consisted of ten items in which participants were requested to indicate "yes" or "no" to the item/s they are agreed or disagreed with. The activity was adapted from Adair & Allen (1999: pp. 13 – 14).

ACTIVITY 1

Value other people's time

Do you value the time of other people as much as you expect them to value your time? Look at the list of statements below and answer them honestly. Please indicate YES or NO to the item you agree with.

- (i) I look upon the time of those who work for me as an extension of my own, to do with as I please.
- (ii) I frequently interrupt meetings in their offices, as I have first priority on their time.
- (iii) I regard job descriptions as bureaucratic nonsense.
- (iv) When telephoning anyone, I never check to see if my call is an unwanted interruption at that particular moment.
- (v) I enjoy the sound of my own voice and I know that I am rather longwinded at meetings.
- (vi) I can think of at least one occasion during the last month when I have kept someone waiting endlessly without telling them why.
- (vii) I am aware of the amount of time that my people put into their work, but not the quality of the time they give.
- (viii) I have never reflected on the fact that other people's time is as precious to them – or ought to be – as my time is to me.
- (ix) I do not know potential or actual customers whose time I value. It's their money I am after!
- (x) I frequently miss agreed deadlines. I say that I will do things and then don't do them, and I have to be chased by others accordingly.

Follow the scale below to interpret your present level of personal awareness of other people's time in relation to your current attitude or behavior:

Number of 'No' answers:

8-10: You are sensitive and thoughtful. Keep it up!

5-7: You are very good, but in some respects could be better.

2-4: Get some feedback and advice from friends and colleagues.

0-1: Beyond redemption! A radical self-review of your attitude is needed.

(Adapted from: Adair & Allen, 1999, p. 14)

3.3.3 Emotional intelligence

The definition of emotional intelligence was stated. The aspects of emotional intelligence, such as how to nourish emotional intelligence, were also provided.

Participants then engaged in the following activity in which they were requested to test themselves.

ACTIVITY 2

Test yourself by answering the following questions with ‘YES, in general’ or ‘NO, in general’

What is my emotional intelligence level?	Yes, in general	No, in general
1. Do you stay calm during times of irritation?		
2. Do you feel guilty or excessively uncomfortable for past mistakes?		
3. Can you love and respect anyone if you decide to?		
4. Do you worry excessively about the future?		
5. Are you patient and tolerant with others?		
6. Are you jealous?		
7. Are you pleased with the way you are?		
8. Do you tend to become angry and irritated?		
9. Do you attain success in your relationships with other people?		
10. Do you criticize yourself too much?		
11. Do you come up with good solutions to interpersonal problems?		
12. Do you tend to be sad and discouraged?		
13. Do you easily identify the true intentions in others?		
14. Do you often experience shame in yourself		
15. When you are affected or discouraged, can you pinpoint the reasons?		

ACTIVITY 2 (continued)		
16.	Is it quite difficult for you to talk about your feelings and emotions?	
17.	When you are affected or discouraged, do you know how to overcome this state?	
18.	Do you have the impression that stress never ends?	
19.	Do you use words of approval and praise towards those deserving them?	
20.	When something goes wrong, do you blame yourself harshly?	
<p>Scoring: Odd questions: Add 2 points for each YES and 0 points for each NO. Even questions: Add 2 points for each NO and 0 points for each YES.</p>		
<p>Interpretation:</p> <p><u>0-15 POINTS</u> You have a weak emotional intelligence and should take steps to improve it. You may also find help in others who can guide you and advise you to improve your emotional intelligence.</p>	<p><u>16-30 POINTS</u> You are in the average zone of emotional intelligence. Of course, you can improve yourself, especially if your score is in the lower area of the range. Study the questions of this test and identify the behavioural areas that would give you extra points. Organise your life towards better relations and a greater knowledge of your emotions.</p>	<p><u>Higher than 30 points</u> You are endowed with a very good emotional intelligence and with a great opportunity to attain a balanced emotional life.</p>

(Adapted with permission from: Melgosa, 2008:62)

3.3.4 Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy was defined for participants. The training focused on the fact that self-efficacious individuals approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered instead of threats to be avoided. It was also pointed out that low self-efficacious individuals doubt their capabilities because they are usually afraid to get involved in difficult tasks. It was also stated

that self-efficacy can be learned and developed through past experiences. Participants also engaged in group discussion as follows:

ACTIVITY 3 – Group work on self-efficacy

Discuss in your groups the implications of high self-efficacy and low self-efficacy at individual and organizational level.

3.3.5 Self-esteem

The definition of self-esteem was highlighted, as well as its origin. The indication of healthy self-esteem and low self-esteem, how self-esteem affects behaviour and how individuals can achieve healthy self-esteem was emphasised. Advice was also provided on how individuals can develop self-esteem. Participants were involved in group discussion as follows:

ACTIVITY 4 - Group work on self-esteem

Discuss in your group how self-esteem impacts on work productivity



Photo taken by Kangunga H.N.2012

3.3.6 Stress-management

The definition of stress-management was stated. Work stress, how stress occurs, and its causes were elaborated on. Stress-related hazards, such as unpleasant tasks, lack of participation in decision making and poor communication, were focused on. The effect of work stress in organisations was also indicated. The prevention of work stress was emphasized.

Participants participated in Activity 5 in which they tested their stress levels by ticking “yes” or “no” next to the items to indicate whether they agreed or disagreed.

ACTIVITY 5

Test yourself to see if your stress is high, answer YES OR NO to the following questions:

Am I a victim of stress?	Yes	No
1. Do you seek nature in your free time?		
2. Do you use alcoholic drinks?		
3. Do you eat fruits and vegetables abundantly?		
4. Do you smoke?		
5. Do you exercise regularly?		
6. Do you take tranquillizers regularly?		
7. Do you live in a clean and orderly home?		
8. Do you live in a noisy neighbourhood?		
9. Do you enjoy a homey environment?		
10. Are there too many people around you?		
11. Have you a good appetite?		
12. Have you started to be forgetful?		
13. Do you have good digestions?		
14. Do you feel fatigued without apparent reason?		
15. Do you sleep well?		
16. Do you get easily irritated?		
17. Do you have a good relationship with your superiors?		
18. Do you use a car as a means of work?		

ACTIVITY 5 (continued)					
19.	Is your employment stable?				
20.	Do you need to take work home?				
21.	Do you get along well with peers and friends?				
22.	Do you become very impatient when someone delays you?				
23.	Do you know how to listen patiently?				
24.	Do you speak too much?				
25.	Do you feel comfortable with your sexual life?				
26.	Do you try to do things better than others?				
27.	Do you like the way you are?				
28.	Are you a perfectionist?				
29.	Do you have a good sense of humour?				
30.	Does standing in a queue irritate you?				
<p>Scoring</p> <p>Look at odd questions and add 1 point for each NO:..... _____</p> <p>Look at even questions and add 1 point for each YES: _____</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Total: _____</p>					
<p>Interpretation</p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 33%; vertical-align: top;"> <p>0-7 points</p> <p>You are well protected against stress and may even need a small alteration to bring excitement to your life</p> </td> <td style="width: 33%; vertical-align: top;"> <p>8-13 points</p> <p>You are in a middle range of stress. Things can go in one direction or the other and you would do well to take preventive measures</p> </td> <td style="width: 33%; vertical-align: top;"> <p>More than 14 points</p> <p>This is a warning so that you examine your habits of life, your environment, your mental attitude and your relationships, and make plans to improve them.</p> </td> </tr> </table>			<p>0-7 points</p> <p>You are well protected against stress and may even need a small alteration to bring excitement to your life</p>	<p>8-13 points</p> <p>You are in a middle range of stress. Things can go in one direction or the other and you would do well to take preventive measures</p>	<p>More than 14 points</p> <p>This is a warning so that you examine your habits of life, your environment, your mental attitude and your relationships, and make plans to improve them.</p>
<p>0-7 points</p> <p>You are well protected against stress and may even need a small alteration to bring excitement to your life</p>	<p>8-13 points</p> <p>You are in a middle range of stress. Things can go in one direction or the other and you would do well to take preventive measures</p>	<p>More than 14 points</p> <p>This is a warning so that you examine your habits of life, your environment, your mental attitude and your relationships, and make plans to improve them.</p>			

(Adapted with permission from: Melgosa, 2008:117)

3.3.7 Self-monitoring

Self-monitoring as elaborated in the literature review was defined, and the aspects that contribute to self-monitoring, such as weekly or daily calendar were highlighted.

3.3.8 Role-play, problem solving, group discussion and collage exercise

Participants also participated in role-playing. Anderson (1982, p. 82) states that it is essential that participants practice interpersonal skills. Role-playing creates opportunities for reinforcement of behaviour. The role play was explained beforehand to the participants, and focused on cultural diversity in which two different cultures played a role (see *Appendix B*). This type of role play is also a method of problem solving, as it allows participants to share ideas with other colleagues, and thus also contributes to learning outcomes. Communication was the major focus in the role-play in this study. Participants also participated in group discussion that enabled them to equip themselves with different knowledge and experiences.

In addition, participants took part in collage exercises in which they wrote the expectations which they had had at the beginning of the self-management training programme. At the end of the self-management training programme, the participants were provided with the papers on which they had written their expectations, and were requested to indicate whether the training programme had met their expectations or not. The aim of this activity was to assist the researcher during the evaluation phase to see if the programme had contributed positively towards fulfilling the participants' expectations.

3.4 TARGET GROUP AND SELECTION OF PARTICIPANTS FOR THE SELF-MANAGEMENT PROGRAMME

The self-management training programme was administered to a sample drawn from employees of the headquarters of the Ministry of Education in Namibia. The initial target sample size was forty (40). Due to constraints encountered during the process, some participants voluntarily withdrew from the self-management training programme before the

training started. The final sample, therefore, consisted of thirty four (34) participants. Half of the participants (17) were assigned to the experimental group and the other 17 to the control group. The selection of participants was not limited to specific age groups/gender/income/years of employment/job level or marital status. Participants were selected randomly. Their names were written in a piece of papers and placed in a box. The first name picked was placed under experimental group, and then the second name picked was placed under control group until the process is completed.

3.5 IMPLEMENTATION OF THE SELF-MANAGEMENT PROGRAMME

The self-management programme was implemented and conducted by the researcher. Meyer (2004) states that a good facilitator requires skills such as being able to stand up and talk in front of people, knowing the subject matter, being a good communicator, and being able to respond to questions posed by participants in the programme. Meyer (2004) further quotes Sue Browell who states that:

Facilitation is part of the modern employee's tool kit whether they be a manager, team leader or anyone else needed to use facilitation. Anyone working with groups to achieve change and improve effectiveness needs to be able to facilitate. (p. 1)

Facilitation involves not only having prepared in terms of content, but also having to deal with the particular needs of the group and takes care of the logistical arrangements (Meyer, 2004). Based on Meyer's advises, the researcher prepared herself for the facilitation of the self-management programme to ensure the effectiveness of the programme. The logistical arrangements were also made by the researcher. The Ministry of Education was requested to allow the researcher to conduct this programme in the Ministry, and was also asked to make

provision for the training venue and the overhead projector (see *Appendix C*). Permission was granted by the Ministry of Education (see *Appendix D*). The researcher, as facilitator, made provision for a laptop and for training materials such as training manuals, papers for writing notes, pens and pencils, eraser, name-tags and refreshments.

The self-management training programme was at the headquarters of the Ministry of Education located in Luther Street, Windhoek. The programme for the experimental group was conducted over two days, on 14 and 15 September, 2010 (see *Table 3*), while a programme for the control group was conducted on 19 October 2010 in order to treat both groups fairly. The training materials and refreshments were provided to both groups. A PowerPoint Presentation and a Flip Chart were used as tools for training.

A course manual was handed out to all study participants on the first day of training, after they had completed the pre-test questionnaire. Information was provided as to why the training programme was being conducted and its contribution to the Public Service of Namibia, in particular to the Ministry of Education. The programme for the training, as provided to participants, is shown in *Table 3.1*.

Table 3.1

Schedule of the Self-Management Training Programme

DATE	14 SEPTEMBER 2010
TIME	ACTIVITY
9:00	Welcoming remarks by Mrs. H.N Kangunga
9:10	Participants are requested to complete the pre-test-questionnaire
9:40	Participants are requested to introduce themselves (round-table), then afterwards they are requested to state their expectations from the training through a collage exercise.
10:15	Tea/Coffee break
10:25	Introduction to self-management
10:40	Time Management
11:00	Time Management Activity
11:10	Emotional Intelligence
11:20	Role-play 1
12:00	Emotional Intelligence Activity
12:10	Self-efficacy
12: 30	Group discussion on self-efficacy
13:00	Lunch
14:00	Self-esteem
15:15	Tea/Coffee break
15:20	Group discussion on self-esteem
15:40	Role-play 2
16:00	Closure

Table 3.1

Schedule of the Self-Management Training Programme (continued)

DATE	15 SEPTEMBER 2010
TIME	ACTIVITY
9:00	Recap of previous day's work by participants
9:30	Stress management
10:00	Tea/Coffee break
10:15	Stress management continuing
12:00	Stress management activity
13:00	Lunch
14:00	Self-monitoring
14:40	Closing remarks by Mrs. H.N. Kangunga (to be made) before the completion of the post-test questionnaire. Participants will also have a chance to share their learning outcomes at this point.
15:00	Participants are requested to complete the post-test questionnaire, as well as the training programme evaluation questionnaires. After completing the questionnaire, participants are free to go.

As a guide to assist her to facilitate effectively, the researcher/facilitator used the following facilitation values which, according to Meyer (2004), help a facilitator to conduct a training/session in an effective way:

Objectivity – being an objective, impartial, neutral and independent role-player.

Fairness – treating all people in a fair and transparent manner.

Openness – being open to ideas from all people.

Inclusiveness – including all participants in the training.

Learning - acknowledging being in a learning process. A facilitator should realise that he or she does not know everything, and should always open to learning.

Sensitivity – being sensitive towards the needs of all participants in the training.

Respect - respecting all participants irrespective of their positions.

Empathy – being able to feel with the individual and the group to show empathy concerning their problems.

Self-awareness – being aware of one’s personal strengths and weaknesses. Self-awareness assists the facilitator to enhance his or her strengths and to deal effectively with his or her weaknesses. The weaknesses can be transformed into areas of improvements.

Awareness of others – being aware of the participants at all times.

Co-operation – promoting the value of co-operation, because the success of facilitation depends on the level of co-operation among all participants.

Critical thinking – being able to demonstrate critical thinking during the facilitation process.

Integrity – displaying integrity and honesty.

Flexibility – being able to approach problems from different angles or to change the facilitation style to adapt to the situation of such training.

3.6 EVALUATION OF THE PROGRAMME

According to Meyer (2004), the evaluation of the programme is the last phase of the training process. The trainer must evaluate the programme to assess whether it has had an impact on the organisation. Gusky (2000) attests that evaluation of the programme is a systematic process used to establish the quality or worth of a particular programme in a specific context. Kirkpatrick (1976) as cited by Muchinsky et al. (2003) identified four criteria used to evaluate training programmes, namely reaction criteria, learning criteria, behavioural criteria and results criteria.

Kirkpatrick (1976) elaborate on these four criteria as follows:

Reaction criteria refer to the reaction of participants about the programme. They measure impressions and feelings about the training, i.e. to assess if the training was useful or add value to participants' knowledge. *Learning criteria* assess the learning outcomes of the training programme, like a final examination provided at the end of the training programme. *Behavioural criteria* assess the actual changes in performance when employees went back to their work environment. The assessment is usually focused on the desired behavioural changes that the employees would implement in their organisation as a result of training. *Results criteria* refer to the economic impact that the training programme would have on the organisation. The training programme should also be evaluated by assessing the expenditures against the results of training (Ivancevich et al., 2005).

The self-management training programme administered in this study was evaluated to assess the reactions, learning, behaviour and results of the training among the participants. Although no written test was used to assess the learning outcomes of the experimental group, a scale was developed and used by the supervisors' of this group to assess the behavioural changes that could be attributed to the self-management training programme (see *Appendix E*).

3.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter elaborated on how the self-management training programme was developed, implemented and evaluated. It also described the aim of the self-management training programme, the groups that were targeted for training, and how the selection of participants

was done. The content of the self-management training programme and duration was also described. This chapter, thus, successfully answered the research question. Chapter 4 will focus on the research methodology used during the study.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will outline the research methods and instruments used in this study. The reliability and validity of the research instruments will be outlined, and information on how pre-test, post-test and post-post measurements were conducted will be provided. The statistical analysis will be elaborated on.

4.2 RESEARCH METHODS AND INSTRUMENTS

4.2.1 Research design

A two-group design (experimental and control group) was used, with a pre-, post- and post-post-test approach (see *Figure 3*). Newman et al. (2001) states that few researchers conduct follow up on their participants after interventions. In the research design used in this study, a pre-test was done before the self-management training programme, a post-test was carried out immediately following the programme, and a post-post-test was conducted one month after the completion of the programme.

According to Dimitrov and Rumrill (2003), pre-test-post-test designs are usually used in behavioural research with the aim of comparing groups and measuring outcomes as a result of experimental treatments. In the current study, an experimental group went through the

self-management training programme and was compared with a control group that did not go through the programme. Both groups were pre-tested, post-tested (immediately after the intervention), and then post-post-tested (one month after the intervention) to determine the intervention outcomes after the participants had demonstrated the learning outcomes in their work environment. Experimental and Control Group is shown in *Figure 3* below:

Group	Pre-test	Intervention	Post-test (immediately after intervention)	Post-post-test (one month after intervention)
Experimental Group	Y1	Xa	Y2	Y3
Control Group	Y1	Xb	Y2	Y3

Figure 3. The Research Design

- Notes:* Xa: Self-management training programme
 Xb: No self-management training programme
 Y1: Pre-test of experimental and control group before the self-management
 Y2: Post-test of experimental and control group soon after the self-management training programme
 Y3: Post-post-test of experimental and control group after one month when self-management training programme was conducted.

4.2.2 Sample

The sample consisted of 34 participants selected from employees at the headquarters of the Ministry of Education. The selection of participants was done by their supervisors. The participants were then randomly assigned to an experimental group ($n = 17$) and a control group ($n = 17$).

4.2.3 Research Instruments

In order to evaluate the effectiveness of the self-management training programme, several research instruments were utilized. An example of each research instrument is provided in *Appendix F*. Both the experimental and control groups were assessed during the different measurement processes.

4.2.3.1 The Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS)

The rationale and description of the Satisfaction with Life Scale would be provided, followed by its administration, scoring and interpretation. The motivation for inclusion as well as reliability and validity would also be provided.

4.2.3.1.1 Rationale and description

The Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) (Diener, 1994) was used to measure the subjective well-being of participants. The SWLS consists of five short items which measure the individual's evaluation of his or her satisfaction with life in general. The SWLS was scored on a 7-point Likert Scale ranging from 0 "strongly disagree" to 6 "strongly agree". Examples of items were: "I am satisfied with my life" and "If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing". Research has established acceptable psychometric properties for the SWLS (Diener, 1994). Diener (1994) further state that the minimum obtainable score on the SWLS is 0, while the maximum score is 30.

4.2.3.1.2 Administration, scoring and interpretation

The SWLS is suitable for use with different age groups. It normally requires only one minute for completion (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985). Scores on the SWLS can be interpreted as follows:

- Scores from 5 to 9 indicate being extremely dissatisfied with life.
- Scores of 10 to 14 indicate being dissatisfied with life either in some domains or in all domains.
- Scores between 15 and 19 represent being slightly dissatisfied with life.
- A score of 20 represents the neutral point at which the respondent is about equally satisfied and dissatisfied.
- Scores between 21 and 25 represent being slightly satisfied.
- Scores between 26 and 30 represent being satisfied with life (Pavot & Diener, 1993).

The SWLS provides a subjective overall assessment of the extent to which the participants perceive their life in general as satisfactory with regard to personal development (Diener, 2006).

4.2.3.1.3 Reliability and validity

The SWLS has been used in the South African context, and an alpha reliability coefficient of 0.60 was reported (Wissing & Van Eeden, 2002). Diener et al. (1985) reported an alpha coefficient of 0.87 and a two-month test-retest stability with an alpha coefficient of 0.82.

4.2.3.1.4 Motivation for inclusion

SWLS has been recommended as a supplementary scale for assessing emotional well-being (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Although the SWLS is a short measuring instrument, it provides a clear indication of how individuals in organisations measure their lives as satisfactory with regard to personal development (Pavot & Diener, 1993).

4.2.3.2 Psychological Well-Being Scales (PWBS)

The rationale and description of Psychological Well-being, its administration, scoring and interpretation would be provided. The motivation for inclusion as well as reliability and validity would be indicated.

4.2.3.2.1 Rationale and description

The Psychological Well-Being Scale (PWBS) (Ryff, 1989) was used to measure the psychological well-being of participants. The PWBS consists of 42 items that measure six sub-scales of psychological well-being, namely, autonomy (e.g. “I often change my mind about decisions if my friends and family disagree”), environmental mastery (e.g. “I am good at juggling my time so that I can fit in everything that needs to be done”), personal growth (e.g. “I have the sense that I have developed a lot as a person over time”), positive relations with others (e.g. “It seems to me that most other people have more friends than I do”), purpose in life (e.g. “I sometime feel I have done all there is to do in life”) and self-acceptance (e.g. “In general, I feel confident and positive about myself”). Individuals are

asked to respond on a 6-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 “strongly disagree” to 6 “strongly agree”.

Questions are randomly distributed within the sub-scales in the form of positive and negative affect questions. Each sub-scale consists of seven items. The minimum score is 42, while the maximum score is 252 (Ryff, 1989). The original scale included 120 items, in which the inter-correlations among factor scores for the six dimensions ranged from 0.32 to 0.76. It was later shortened to a 42-item scale, comprising negative items and positive effect items in each of the six dimensions (Abbott, Ploubidis, Huppert, Kuh, Wadsworth, & Croudance, 2006).

All six sub-scales of the PWBS were used in this study to measure the following: The autonomy sub-scale measured self-determination, independence and an internal locus of control; the environmental mastery sub-scale assessed the capacity to manipulate and control difficult environments; the personal growth sub-scale assessed the need to actualize and realize one’s potentials, the positive relationships with others sub-scale measured the capacity to live, trust and establish deep relations with others; the purpose in life sub-scale assessed the sense of directedness and achievements; and lastly, the self-acceptance sub-scale measured positive attitudes toward self (Akin, 2008).

4.2.3.2.2 Administration, scoring and interpretation

The PWBS measures six sub-scales in positive or negative aspects of the individual’s subjective which indicate a condition of emotional well-being (Ryff & Singer, 2008). High and low scores can be identified in each sub-scale, with high scores indicating a positive

aspect, while negative scores indicate a negative aspect (Ryff & Singer, 2008). For each sub-scale, a high score indicates that the respondent has mastered that area in his or her life. In contrast, a low score indicates that the respondent feels uncomfortable with that particular aspect (Ryff, 1989).

4.2.3.2.3 Reliability and validity

The reliability with regard to internal consistency of the PWBS was reported in a study by (Ryff, 1989) in which the following alpha coefficients were found: 0.93 for self-acceptance, 0.91 for positive relations with other, 0.86 for autonomy, 0.90 for environmental mastery, 0.90 for purpose in life, and 0.87 for personal growth. The test-retest coefficients for these sub-scales were repeated over a period of six week. The results showed the following: 0.85 for self-acceptance, 0.83 for positive relations with others, 0.88 for autonomy, 0.81 for environmental mastery, 0.82 for purpose in life, and 0.81 for personal growth. The coefficients ranged from 0.32 to 0.76 (Ryff, 1989).

4.2.3.2.4 Motivation for inclusion

The PWBS (Ryff, 1989) is a self-report scale designed that measure psychological well-being. The PWBS is used in this study to measure the emotional well-being of the employees in all six dimensions. PWBS requires individuals to assess their own thoughts, evaluate themselves by their own standards, affirm their own values and make suitable choices to symbolize those values and work towards goals they have set for themselves.

4.2.3.3 Psychological Empowerment Questionnaire (PEQ)

The rationale and description of Psychological Empowerment Questionnaire would be indicated. The administration, scoring and interpretation of PEQ would also be provided. The motivation for inclusion as well as its reliability and validity would be highlighted.

4.2.3.3.1 Rationale and description

The Psychological Empowerment Questionnaire (PEQ) (Spreitzer, 1995) is designed to measure participants' psychological empowerment. The PEQ consists of 20 items divided into four sub-scales of psychological empowerment. These sub-scales are: meaning (e.g. "The work I do is meaningful to me"), competence (e.g. "I have mastered the skills necessary for my job"), self-determination (e.g. "I have significant autonomy in determining how to do my job"), and impact (e.g. "I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department").

Respondents are asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed with each statement on a 7-point scale, ranging from 1 "strongly disagree" to 7 "strongly agree". The minimum score is 20, while the maximum score is 140 (Spreitzer, 1995).

4.2.3.3.2 Administration, scoring and interpretation

The Psychological Empowerment Questionnaire was used in this study. The results can be interpreted as follows: a higher score reflects a high degree of psychological empowerment, and a low score reflects a lack of psychological empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995).

4.2.3.3.3 Reliability and validity

Stander and Rothmann (2009) affirm the construct validity of the PEQ. They found strong evidence for a four-factor model (including meaning, competence, self-determination and impact) of psychological empowerment in South Africa. The four subscales of the PEQ and the total scale showed highly acceptable internal consistencies. Stander and Rothmann (2009) further found that the Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the PEQ ranged from 0.81 (competence) to 0.89 (meaning).

4.2.3.3.4 Motivation for inclusion

The PEQ was used in this study to measure the psychological empowerment of the employees in all four sub-items (meaning, competence, self-determination and impact). Spreitzer (1995) found that satisfaction, managerial success, innovation behaviour and decreased stress were reasonably associated with empowerment.

4.2.3.4 Work Engagement Scale (WES)

The rationale and description of Work Engagement Scale would be provided. Its administration, scoring and interpretation would also be focused on. The motivation for inclusion as well as its reliability and validity would be highlighted.

4.2.3.4.1 Rationale and description

The Work Engagement Scale (WES) (May, Gilson and Harter, 2004) was developed and used to measure work engagement. The WES consists of a 5-point agreement-disagreement Likert format varying from 1 “never” to 5 “always”. The WES consists of 13 items. The minimum score is 13, while the maximum score is 65. Examples of items are: “I get so into my job that I lost track of time” and “I am enthusiastic about my work”. The WES items consist of the three sub-scales of Kahn’s (1990) conceptualisation of work engagement, namely, cognitive, emotional and physical engagement.

4.2.3.4.2 Administration, scoring and interpretation

WES measures employee work engagement. A high score indicates that participants are engaged in their work (May et al., 2004).

4.2.3.4.3 Reliability and validity

Olivier and Rothmann (2007) found a one-factor engagement model in a petrochemical company in South Africa of cognitive, emotional and physical engagement. It shows a Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of 0.72, which is consistent with the findings of May et al. (2004) in a study that was conducted in a large insurance firm.

4.2.3.4.4 Motivation for inclusion

WES was used in this study to measure the work engagement of employees. It is argued that psychological meaningfulness, psychological safety and psychological availability predict employee engagement (May et al., 2004). In a South African study, Olivier and Rothmann (2007) found that two psychological conditions (namely, psychological meaningfulness and psychological availability) predict employee engagement.

4.2.3.5 Time-Management Questionnaire (TMQ)

The rationale and description of Time-Management Questionnaire as well as its administration, scoring and interpretation would be provided. The motivation for inclusion, reliability and validity would be stated.

4.2.3.5.1 Rationale and description

The Time-Management Questionnaire (TMQ) (Olmstead, 2005) was used to determine participants' current time management skills and practices, and how well they managed their time in the work environment. TMQ comprises 53 items in which individuals rate themselves by assigning a numerical rating. The TMQ consists of a 5-point agreement-disagreement Likert format varying from 1 "never" to 5 "always". The minimum score for the TMQ is 53, while the maximum score is 265. Samples of the items are: "I am continually conscious that time is my most critical resource", "I prefer to teach others how to do the job rather than do the job myself".

4.2.3.5.2. Administration, scoring and interpretation

The TMQ was used in this study to measure how individuals managed their time. A higher TMQ score corresponds to good time management practices, while a lower score indicates poor time management practices (Olmstead, 2005).

4.2.3.5.3 Reliability and validity

Alay and Kocak (2002) conducted a research study on TMQ for Turkish University students. They found that this questionnaire provided an opportunity for meaningful interpretations on time management. The results showed that the time planning was found to be acceptable, with a Cronbach alpha of 0.88. In terms of reliability of internal consistency, the Cronbach alpha was used for TMQ in which the coefficient of 0.87 was found (Alay & Kocak, 2002).

4.2.3.5.4 Motivation for inclusion

In today's world the use of time, or managing time, is a critical issue for both individuals and organizations. However, the value of time management is focusing not on controlling time, but rather on the ways people can utilize time to advance their life. Time management leads to success through minimizing stress, maintaining balance, increasing productivity and also setting and attaining goals. Time management thus enhances the lives of employees. For instance, what employees gain from time management is not merely time, but rather a better life (Alay & Kocak, 2002).

4.2.3.6 Knowledge and Reaction Evaluation Questionnaire

The rationale and description of Knowledge and Reaction Evaluation Questionnaire would be provided. The administration, scoring and interpretation, reliability and validity as well as motivation for inclusion would be elaborated.

4.2.3.6.1 Rationale and description

The Knowledge and Reaction Evaluation Questionnaire was compiled and developed by the researcher (see *Section G and H of Appendix F*). It was developed to measure participants' specific knowledge of the concepts addressed in the self-management training programme, and ideas as discussed in the manual. This questionnaire was only administered to the experimental group who participated in the self-management training programme.

This questionnaire consisted of two components. The first component comprised 30 items in a 4-point agreement-disagreement Likert format varying from 1 "poor" to 4 "very good". The minimum score was 30, while the maximum score was 120. Samples of the items are: "The relevance of material presented", "The self-management training is useful for organisation", and "The facilitator's knowledge of the subject-matter". These scores were added together and participants received a combined percentage.

The second component of this questionnaire consisted of ten written questions that had to be answered by the participants. These questions were related to the content of the self-management training. Examples of these questions are: "How effective was the self-management training programme?", "Which components of the self-management training

programme were effective and important and why?” and “Why do you think self-management training programmes are needed in the Public Service of Namibia?”

This component was designed to assess participants’ views on the effectiveness of the self-management training programme. The other purpose was to obtain additional information to indicate possible improvements.

4.2.3.6.2 Administration, scoring and interpretation

With regard to the results of the first part of the Knowledge and Reaction Evaluation Questionnaire, a high score indicated that the self-management training programme was effective. The second part of the *Knowledge and Reaction Evaluation Questionnaire* focused on the written questions which only the participants in the experimental group had to answer. The information provided in this part would provide ideas to add value to the effectiveness of the self-management training programme.

4.2.3.6.3 Reliability and validity

The reliability and validity of the Knowledge and Reaction Evaluation Questionnaire had not previously been investigated. It is included in this study to see whether the reliability and validity can be found.

4.2.3.6.4 Motivation for inclusion

The Knowledge and Reaction Evaluation Questionnaire was included in this study to assess the self-management training programme. The other purpose was to gather information that would improve the self-management training programme in the future.

4.2.3.7 Questionnaire for Supervisors of the Experimental Group

The rationale and description of Questionnaire for Supervisors of the Experimental Group would be provided. The administration, scoring and interpretation, reliability and validity as well as motivation for inclusion would be provided.

4.2.3.7.1 Rationale and description

The Questionnaire for Supervisors of the Experimental Group (QSEG) was developed by the researcher (see *Appendix E*). This questionnaire was developed and administered to the supervisors of the experimental group to assess the behavioural changes of the participants that could be attributed to the self-management training programme. This questionnaire consisted of 10 items formatted according to a 4-point agreement-disagreement Likert Scale varying from 1 “no improvement” to 4 “very good improvement”. Examples of items explored in the questionnaire are time-management, creativity, self-monitoring, stress-management, emotional intelligence, self-esteem, self-efficacy, socialisation, work engagement and interpersonal communication. The minimum score was 10 while the maximum score was 40.

4.2.3.7.2 Administration, scoring and interpretation

A high score indicated that the self-management training programme had changed the behaviour of the participants. Since this questionnaire was only administered to the supervisors of the experimental group, there was no comparative made between the supervisors of both groups.

4.2.3.7.3 Reliability and validity

Since the Questionnaire for Supervisors of the Experimental Group (QSEG) was only developed for this study, the reliability and validity had not been investigated previously. Therefore, this study can determine the reliability and validity of QSEG.

4.2.3.7.4 Motivation for inclusion

The Questionnaire for Supervisors of the Experimental Group was developed for this study and administered to the supervisors of the experimental group. The purpose was to engage the supervisors of the experimental group in assessing their subordinates with regard to behavioural changes that could be attributed to the self-management training programme.

4.3 PROCEDURES

This section will indicate how the empirical study was conducted. It is presented in the following format:

- Recruitment of participants
- Pre-testing
- Self-management training programme for the experimental group
- Post-testing
- Post-post-testing
- Supervisors' evaluation of the control group
- Self-management training programme for the control group

4.3.1 Recruitment of participants

Permission to conduct this study in the Ministry of Education headquarters was requested by the researcher (see *Appendix C*), and permission was granted (see *Appendix D*). Subsequently, a letter was written by the researcher to the Training Division in the Ministry of Education to request the Directorates to nominate staff-members to participate in the study (see *Appendix G*). When the nomination of participants was completed, the selected participants were randomly assigned into an experimental group ($n = 17$) and a control group ($n = 17$). The experimental and control groups were assessed differently during all measurements.

According to the guidelines set out by Huysamen (1993), the following information was given to participants:

- The aim of the research,
- The qualification and experience of the researcher concerning self- management and the process of research,

- The schedule of participants, such as the dates on which the experimental and control groups would be involved, the demands that would be made on them, their freedom to participate in the research, and the implications of not participating in the research. In addition, a request was made to the experimental group that they should not discuss the content of the course with the control group, nor provide the control group with the manual provided to them, and
- The control group was informed that they would be trained on self-management soon after the research had been completed.

4.3.2 Pre-testing

The researcher did not gather participants of both groups (i.e. experimental and control groups) in the same venue. The purpose was to distance the participants of the experimental group from those of the control group to avoid the possibility that they might create relationships that could impact the results. The experimental group was assessed in the venue where the training took place, and was provided on the date of training with questionnaires for completion before the training started. The control group was provided with the questionnaires to complete on their own. This was done early, before the training for experimental group started.

The control group was asked to complete the questionnaires in their offices. They were also told that the questionnaire would be collected by the researcher before 17h00 on that particular day.

Instructions for completing the questionnaire were provided to both groups. The research instruments were presented in the following order:

- The Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS)
- Psychological Well-being Scale (PWS)
- Psychological Empowerment (PE)
- The Work Engagement Scale (WES)
- Time-management Questionnaire (TMQ)
- Knowledge and Reaction Evaluation Questionnaire
- Questionnaire for Supervisors of the Experimental Group (QSEG)

Participants were requested to complete all questionnaires as honestly as possible. They were given a guarantee by the researcher that all information would be treated as confidential. The researcher then made clarifications with regard to the questionnaires. The experimental group received their manuals soon after completion of the pre-test, and was also involved in collage exercises in which they were provided with papers on which to write their expectations of the programme.

4.3.3 Self-management training programme for the experimental group

The self-management training programme was conducted for the experimental group as scheduled on 14 – 15 September, 2010. Participants were provided with pieces of paper to write one sentence indicating their expectations from the self-management training programme. After the self-management training programme, participants were requested to review their papers on which they had written their training expectations, and state whether

or not their expectations were met. The purpose of this collage exercise was not only to assess whether the training had met the expectations of the participants, but also to see if there were any changes to be made to the content of such training.

During the self-management training programme, participants took part in group discussions. The purpose was to engage all participants in the self-management training programme. Furthermore, this would allow participants to share information with others that would add value to the programme. Through group discussions, participants pin-pointed factors that could contribute to the following: time-wasting, poor self-management as well as a lack of self-efficacy. This information contributed effectively to the self-management training programme, and will be reported as qualitative impressions. Participants also took part in role-play in which they were divided into two groups, playing the roles of two tribes, namely illiterate and literate. This role-play focused on cultural diversity and demonstrated the importance of knowing other people's cultures. Participants further engaged in different exercises as indicated in the manual. Refreshments and training materials were provided to all participants.

4.3.4 Post-testing

On 15 September, 2010, soon after the completion of the self-management training programme, the experimental group was provided with questionnaires for completion. During this process, the experimental group was provided with an additional *Knowledge and Reaction Questionnaire* to assess their knowledge and elicit their subsequent evaluation of the training programme. The experimental group was also provided with the papers on which

they had written their programme expectations and asked to indicate whether their expectations had been met or not.

The control group was provided with the questionnaire for completion on the morning of 15 September, 2010, before the start of training. They were not grouped together, but remained in their offices. They were requested to find time for completion of those questionnaires before the end of the day. They were also informed that the researcher would collect the questionnaires.

4.3.5 Post-post-testing

On 15 October, 2010, one month after the post-testing, the post-post-testing took place. The administration of the questionnaire was done in the same way as for the pre-test and post-test. All questionnaires were collected before the training of the control group that was conducted on 19 October, 2010. The purpose of the post-post-testing was to determine the long-term effects of the self-management training programme.

4.3.6 Supervisors' evaluation of the experimental group

The supervisors of the experimental group were provided with questionnaires to assess the behavioural changes of their subordinates who had participated in this research. The supervisors of the experimental group were informed that they were not required to provide their subordinate's names or their own names since the questionnaires were anonymous (see *Appendix H*) The supervisors' names were gathered from the nominations forms of participants.

4.3.7 Self-management training programme for the control group

Self-management training programme for the 899 control group was conducted on 19 October, 2010. The control group was not assessed after the training. The main purpose of conducting the self-management training programme for the control group was to treat both groups fairly. Refreshments and training materials were provided to all participants.

4.4 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The analysis was carried out using the SPSS 17.0 programme (SPSS, 2008). Cronbach alpha coefficients were used to assess the reliability of the research instruments used in the study (Clark & Watson, 1995). Means and standard deviations were used to describe the data.

T-tests were utilized to determine the significance of the differences between the two groups during the pre-test, post-test and post-post-testing.

According to Christensen and Stoup (1991), the results are regarded as significant if the p-values are smaller than 0.05 because this is the cut-off significance level for most behavioural science research. The final p-values are statistically significant (< 0.05), and the practical significance (d-values) for the results were calculated. The following cut-offs are relevant for practical significance (Cohen, 1988):

- $d \geq 0.2$ small effect
- $d \geq 0.5$ medium effect
- $d \geq 0.8$ large effect

The practical significance (d) for comparing the experimental and control groups is provided as follows:

d = the mean of the differences for the measurements of the experimental group, subtracted the mean of the difference between measurements of the control group. This number is divided by the maximum standard deviation between both groups.

Qualitative data was obtained from the knowledge and evaluation questionnaire, collage exercise and through group discussions during the self-management training programme. These results will be reported as qualitative impressions.

4.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter focused on methods used in this study. It included the research design, and sample, as well as a description of the research instruments and a discussion of their reliability and validity. The procedures used during the recruitment of research participants and how the pre-test, post-test and post-post-test were administered were elaborated on. The discussion included how the data was analysed and obtained. Chapter 5 deals with the results and discussion of the study as well as conclusions, limitations and recommendation for future studies.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter consists of the results and discussion of the empirical study. The reliability of each of the measurement scale was computed for the experimental and control groups. According to Du Plooy (2002), the reliability of a measurement refers to the extent to which the measurement is stable and consistently produces the same results over a period of time. De Vos (2002) similarly argues that the reliability of a measurement refers to the extent that similar results could be obtained in a similar context by using the same tool.

A direct comparison of the experimental and control group scores was made after the pre-test to determine whether significant differences existed between the two groups at the start of the study. The mean of the experimental group and control group, and also their standard deviations, were computed. The differences between the experimental group and control group scores between the pre-test and the post-test, between the pre-test and post-post-tests and also the post and post-post-tests were computed. T-tests were carried out to see whether changes existed between the experimental and control groups. The mean, standard deviation (SD) and alpha coefficient for the experimental and control groups are reported in this chapter, and the statistical significance (p) and practical significance (d) will also be reported where necessary.

The results of the *Knowledge and Reaction Evaluation Questionnaire* completed by the experimental group will be presented in percentages. The participants of the experimental group participated in the collage exercise, and the findings will be reported as qualitative results. Qualitative results were also obtained through group discussions and the evaluation forms completed by the experimental group after the self-management training programme.

This chapter will also indicate the results obtained from the supervisors of the experimental group. These supervisors evaluated their subordinates with regard to behavioural changes to see whether the self-management training programme had led to improvements in the participants' behaviours. These results will be presented in the form of mean, standard deviation and percentages. The conclusions, limitations and recommendations for future research will also be addressed.

5.2 CHARACTERISTICS OF THE STUDY SAMPLE

The characteristics of the study sample are given in *Table 5.1*.

According to *Table 5.1*, the mean age for the experimental group was 37.25 ($SD = 6.70$), while for the control group it was 36.50 ($SD = 6.70$). The mean for work experience for the experimental group was 10.77 ($SD = 8.24$), while for the control group it was 10.98 ($SD = 6.16$). The majority of the control group participants were married (70.6%). In the experimental group, most participants were female (70.6%). The most widely spoken home languages for both groups were Oshiwambo, (58.8%), Afrikaans, (41.1%) and Otjiherero, (29.4%).

Table 5.1

Characteristics of the Study Population

Item	Category	Experimental Group		Control Group	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	5	29.4	9	52.9
	Female	12	70.6	8	47.1
	Number of participants	17	100	17	100
Age	Mean age	37.25 (<i>SD</i> = 6.70)	-	36.50(<i>SD</i> = 6.70)	-
Marital status	Single	9	52.9	5	29.4
	Married	5	29.4	12	70.6
	Divorced	1	5.9	-	-
	Engaged	1	5.9	-	-
	Annulled	1	5.9	-	-
	Total	17	100	17	100
Number of years experience in organization	Mean work experience	10.77 (<i>SD</i> = 8.24)	-	10.98 (<i>SD</i> = 6.16)	-
Home Language	Otjiherero	4	23.5	1	5.9
	Oshiwambo	2	11.8	8	47.0
	Afrikaans	4	23.5	3	17.6
	Nama/Damara	2	11.8	1	5.9
	Rukwangali	3	17.6	-	-
	Silozi	-	-	2	11.8
	Mbalangwe	-	-	1	5.9
	Multi-Language :English, Afrikaans, Otjijhero	1	5.9	-	-
	Multi-Language :English, Oshiwambo, Sambyu	1	5.9	1	5.9
		Total	17	100	17

5.3 DIRECT COMPARISONS OF THE PRE-TESTS FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

A direct comparison of the pre-test scores for the experimental and control groups was made to determine whether significant differences existed between the two groups at the start of the experiment. The direct comparisons of the pre-test scores for the experimental and control groups are given in *Table 5.1 to Table 5.6*.

Table 5.2

Direct Comparison of the Pre-test for the Experimental and Control Groups at the Beginning of the Measurement on the Satisfaction with Life Scale

Experimental Group (n = 17)			Control Group (n = 17)			p	d
Mean	SD	α	Mean	SD	α		
3.36	1.06	0.67	3.71	0.99	0.55	0.26	-

Table 5.2 indicates that during the pre-test, no statistically significant difference was found between the experimental and control group with regard to the Satisfaction with Life Scale. The mean for the experimental group was 3.36 ($SD = 1.06$) and for the control group the mean was 3.71 ($SD = 0.99$). It can thus be stated that the random sampling was successful, because the two groups obtained comparable scores according to this scale.

In terms of reliability, Table 5.2 shows that the Satisfaction with Life Scale had acceptable internal consistencies of $\alpha = 0.67$ for the experimental group and $\alpha = 0.55$ for the control group. Nunnally (1978) points out that the reliabilities of 0.50 to 0.60 are appropriate for early phases of basic research. The results show that the experimental group scored higher than the control group with regard to reliability.

Table 5.3

Direct Comparison of the Pre-test for the Experimental and Control Groups at the Beginning of the Measurement on the Psychological Wellbeing

Subscales	Experimental Group ($n = 17$)			Control Group ($n = 17$)			p	d
	Mean	SD	α	Mean	SD	α		
Autonomy	29.50	40.56	0.31	29.50	4.56	0.50	0.28	-
Environmental Mastery	27.50	40.94	0.56	32.33	5.42	0.75	0.03*	0.89***
Personal Growth	31.38	60.16	0.65	32.19	5.09	0.63	0.16	-
Positive Relations	30.65	60.25	0.69	31.75	5.03	0.58	0.44	-
Purpose in Life	32.53	50.14	0.54	32.00	6.34	0.82	0.30	-
Self-acceptance	28.82	40.59	0.33	31.76	3.35	-0.20	0.04*	0.64**

* Statistically significant: $p < 0.05$

** Practically significant $d \geq 0.50$ (medium effect)

*** Practically significant: $d \geq 0.80$ (large effect)

Table 5.3 indicates that during the pre-test on the sub-item Environment Mastery, statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$; $d > 0.80$, large effect) was found between the experimental and control groups. The result also show that during the pre-test, statistically significant differences were found between the experimental and control group with regard to sub-item Self-acceptance ($p < 0.05$; $d > 0.50$, medium effect). The experimental group showed higher scores on Environmental Mastery and Self-acceptance.

In terms of reliability, Table 5.3 shows internal consistencies for the experimental group for the following sub-scales: Positive Relations with Others ($\alpha = 0.69$), Personal Growth ($\alpha = 0.65$), Environmental Mastery ($\alpha = 0.56$). The result also show the following reliability of the internal consistencies for the control group for Purpose in Life ($\alpha = 0.82$), Environmental Mastery ($\alpha = 0.75$), Personal Growth ($\alpha = 0.63$), Positive Relations with Others ($\alpha = 0.58$) and

Autonomy ($\alpha = 0.50$). The results show that for the control group, Purpose in Life ($\alpha = 0.82$) scored higher with regard to reliability, followed by Environmental Mastery ($\alpha = 0.75$).

Table 5.4

Direct Comparison of the Pre-test for the Experimental and Control Groups at the Beginning of the Measurement on the Psychological Empowerment

Subscales	Experimental Group ($n = 17$)			Control Group ($n = 17$)			p	d
	Mean	SD	α	Mean	SD	α		
Meaning	33.00	8.04	0.45	30.94	8.86	0.45	0.93	-
Competence	44.65	5.24	0.40	47.71	4.69	0.40	0.18	-
Self-determination	-1.13	5.15	0.53	1.00	4.70	0.41	0.23	-
Impact	12.94	3.96	0.41	13.35	3.53	0.41	1.00	-

Table 5.4 indicates that during the pre-test, no statistical significance was found between the experimental and control groups with regard to the Psychological Empowerment Scale on all sub-scales.

In terms of reliability, *Table 5.4* shows that Self-determination had internal consistencies for the experimental group of $\alpha = 0.53$.

Table 5.5

Direct Comparison of the Pre-test for the Experimental and Control Groups at the Beginning of the Measurement on the Work Engagement

Experimental Group (<i>n</i> = 17)			Control Group (<i>n</i> = 17)			<i>p</i>	<i>d</i>
Mean	<i>SD</i>	α	Mean	<i>SD</i>	α		
47.14	9.68	0.90	47.35	8.94	0.85	0.40	-

Table 5.5 indicates that during the pre-test, no statistical significance was found between the experimental and control groups with regard to the Work Engagement Scale. The results indicate the following means: Mean = 47.14 (*SD* = 9.68) for the experimental group and mean = 47.35 (*SD* = 8.94) for the control group.

With regard to reliability, *Table 5.5* shows that Work Engagement had acceptable internal consistencies for Cronbach's alpha (α = 0.90 for the experimental group and α = 0.85 for the control group).

The *Table 5.6* will indicate the statistically significant differences in the Time Management Scale between the experimental and control group during the pre-test.

Table 5.6

Direct Comparison of the Pre-test for the Experimental and Control Groups at the Beginning of the Measurement on the Time Management Questionnaire

	Experimental Group (<i>n</i> = 17)		Control Group (<i>n</i> = 17)		<i>p</i>	<i>d</i>
	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>		
Time 1	3.76	0.75	4.06	0.76	0.70	-
Time 2	3.18	1.02	3.35	0.70	0.49	-
Time 3	2.75	1.24	2.94	1.29	1.00	-
Time 4	2.47	1.13	3.65	1.12	0.53	-
Time 5	2.47	1.13	2.65	1.46	0.30	-
Time 6	2.25	1.00	3.12	1.45	0.29	-
Time 7	2.82	1.47	3.60	1.06	0.62	-
Time 8	2.75	1.00	2.94	0.99	0.19	-
Time 9	3.35	1.06	3.20	0.94	1.00	-
Time 10	3.35	1.06	2.81	1.38	0.64	-
Time 11	3.44	1.15	3.29	1.21	1.00	-
Time 12	3.29	0.99	3.59	1.00	0.90	-
Time 13	3.60	1.40	4.18	0.88	0.23	-
Time 14	3.06	1.39	3.94	0.57	0.58	-
Time 15	3.59	1.12	3.47	1.23	0.87	-
Time 16	3.63	0.96	4.00	0.87	0.11	-
Time 17	2.82	1.07	3.25	1.00	0.84	-
Time 18	3.53	1.07	4.00	0.97	0.59	-
Time 19	2.76	0.90	3.94	0.83	0.23	-
Time 20	4.00	1.16	4.35	0.99	0.82	-
Time 21	3.31	1.01	3.47	1.23	0.71	-
Time 22	3.94	0.77	3.88	1.27	0.33	-
Time 23	3.88	1.09	4.27	0.80	0.68	-
Time 24	3.65	1.06	3.94	0.83	0.82	-
Time 25	4.00	0.87	4.53	0.72	0.12	-
Time 26	3.59	0.94	3.88	0.93	0.82	-
Time 27	3.18	1.13	3.93	1.10	0.33	-
Time 28	3.00	1.3	3.29	1.45	0.82	-
Time 29	3.41	0.87	3.31	0.87	0.09	-
Time 30	4.06	1.09	3.94	0.66	0.49	-
Time 31	3.19	1.28	2.71	1.40	0.16	-
Time 32	2.65	1.37	2.47	1.07	0.25	-

Table 5.6

Direct Comparison of the Pre-test for the Experimental and Control Groups at the Beginning of the Measurement on the Time Management Questionnaire (continued)

	Experimental Group ($n = 17$)		Control Group ($n = 17$)		p	d
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Time 33	2.44	1.37	2.41	1.18	0.30	-
Time 34	2.44	1.09	2.35	1.17	0.49	-
Time 35	3.63	0.96	4.12	0.86	0.43	-
Time 36	3.12	1.05	4.00	1.03	0.03*	0.83***
Time 37	2.75	1.07	3.24	1.48	0.60	-
Time 38	2.73	1.39	2.35	1.27	0.03*	0.27**
Time 39	1.94	1.25	2.41	1.37	0.86	-
Time 40	1.88	1.15	2.41	1.37	0.92	-
Time 41	1.71	0.96	2.24	1.39	0.63	-
Time 42	1.76	0.97	2.13	1.40	0.36	-
Time 43	2.29	1.40	2.24	1.09	0.95	-
Time 44	3.59	1.28	3.65	1.06	0.06	-
Time 45	3.12	1.32	3.53	0.94	0.58	-
Time 46	2.53	1.28	2.35	1.22	0.63	-
Time 47	2.06	1.24	2.47	1.13	0.22	-
Time 48	2.82	1.38	3.24	1.25	0.09	-
Time 49	2.24	1.44	3.13	1.26	0.30	-
Time 50	2.88	1.54	3.00	1.41	0.87	-
Time 51	3.65	1.37	3.87	1.13	0.16	-
Time 52	2.12	1.32	2.69	1.54	0.84	-
Time 53	2.47	1.33	3.31	1.30	0.77	-

* Statistically significant: $p < 0, 05$

** Practically significant: $d \geq 0.20$ (small effect)

*** Practically significant: $d \geq 0.80$ (large effect)

Table 5.6 indicates that during the pre-test, a statistically significant difference was found between the experimental and control groups with regard to the Time Management Scale on sub-item 36 (“I make appointments with the file in order to get the work done at a specific time without interruption”) ($p < 0.05$; $d > 0.80$, large effect) and sub-item 38 (“I have a

system or process in place to automate, as much as possible, tasks such as engagement letters, proposals, responses to requests for proposals, billing, review,.”) ($p < 0.05$; $d > 0.20$, small effect).

5.4 MEAN DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE PRE-TEST, POST-TEST AND POST-POST-TEST FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

Tables 5.7 to 5.11 indicate mean differences between the pre-test, post-test and post-post-test of the experimental and control groups.

Table 5.7

Mean Differences between the Pre-test, Post-test and Post-post-test of the Experimental and Control Groups on the Satisfaction with Life Scale

	Experimental Group ($n = 17$)		Control Group ($n = 17$)		p	d
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Pre-test/Post-test	-3.36	4.20	-1.20	4.28	0.26	-
Pre-test/Post-post-test	-1.08	6.36	-0.21	5.04	0.52	-
Post/Post-post-test	2.38	4.41	1.14	5.26	0.50	-

Table 5.7 indicates that during the pre-and post-test, pre- and post-post-test as well as during the post- and post-post-test, no statistically significant difference was found between the experimental and control group with regard to the Satisfaction with Life Scale.

The results indicated the following mean for the experimental group during the pre- and post-test: mean = -3.36 ($SD = 4.20$), mean = -1.08 ($SD = 6.36$) during the pre-and post-post-test, as well as mean = 2.38 ($SD = 4.41$) during the post and post-post –test. Additionally, the

results indicated the following mean for the control group during the pre- and post-test: mean = -1.20 ($SD = 4.28$), mean = -0.21 ($SD = 5.04$) during the pre and post-post-test, as well as the mean for control group during the post and post-post-test: mean = 1.14 ($SD = 5.26$).

Table 5.8

Mean Differences between the Pre-test, Post-test and Post-post-tests of the Experimental and Control Groups on the Psychological Wellbeing

		Experimental Group ($n = 17$)		Control Group ($n = 17$)			
Subscales		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	p	d
Autonomy	Pre-test/Post-test	-1.13	5.15	1.00	4.69	0.22	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.14	6.50	0.17	3.64	0.74	-
	Post/Post-post-test	0.80	4.54	-0.36	3.86	0.95	-
Environmental	Pre-test/Post-test	-2.14	4.40	2.47	5.15	0.03*	0.89***
Mastery	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.91	5.24	2.23	4.73	0.10	-
	Post/Post-post-test	0.73	4.17	0.00	3.02	0.72	-
Personal Growth	Pre-test/Post-test	-1.00	5.84	1.20	3.61	0.16	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-2.21	6.52	1.79	6.60	0.21	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.93	4.37	0.29	7.33	0.98	-
Positive relations with others	Pre-test/Post-test	-1.88	5.98	0.38	4.95	0.44	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-3.47	7.23	0.64	3.37	0.50	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-1.33	3.94	1.40	3.29	0.04*	0.69**
Purpose in Life	Pre-test/Post-test	1.86	3.51	1.31	6.39	0.30	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	1.69	3.95	-1.23	4.66	0.08	-
	Post/Post-post-test	0.67	5.52	-2.69	7.24	0.75	-
Self-acceptance	Pre-test/Post-test	-1.93	4.27	1.62	3.93	0.04*	0.83***
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-1.47	3.54	1.75	3.89	0.04*	0.83***
	Post/Post-post-test	0.47	2.13	0.13	1.75	0.69	-

* Statistically significant: $p < 0.05$

** Practically significant: $d \geq 0.50$ (medium effect)

*** Practically significant: $d \geq 0.80$ (large effect)

Based on the results in *Table 5.8*, a statistically significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$) was found between the experimental and control groups concerning the pre- and post-test of

Environmental Mastery. *Table 5.8* shows a statistically significant ($p \leq 0.05$) difference with a large effect ($d \geq 0.80$) regarding Environmental Mastery between the experimental and control groups concerning the pre- and post-test. The results indicated that a statistically significant difference was found between the experimental and control groups during the post- and post-post-test regarding Positive Relations with Others. The difference was statistically significant ($p \leq 0.05$) as well as practically significant ($d \geq 0.50$). The statistically significant ($p \leq 0.05$), difference with a large effect ($d \geq 0.80$) was found during the experimental group and control group regarding the pre- and post-test as well as pre- and post-post-test of Self-acceptance.

The results indicated high scores in the mean for the experimental group in the following sub-scales: Mean = -2.14 ($SD = 4.40$) for the Environmental Mastery during the pre- and post-test, mean = -2.21 ($SD = 6.52$) for Personal Growth during the pre- and post-test, as well as mean = -3.47 ($SD = 7.23$) for Positive Relations with Others during the pre- and post-post-test. The results also showed the high scores in the mean for the control group in the following sub-scales: Mean = 2.47 ($SD = 5.15$) for Environmental Mastery during the pre-and post-test, mean = 2.23 ($SD = 4.73$) for Environmental Mastery during the pre and post-post-test and mean = -2.69 ($SD = 7.24$) for Purpose in Life during the post- and post-post-test.

Table 5.9

Mean Differences between the Pre-test, Post-test and Post-post-test of the Experimental and Control Groups on the Psychological Empowerment

Subscales		Experimental Group (<i>n</i> = 17)		Control Group (<i>n</i> = 17)		<i>p</i>	<i>d</i>
		Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>		
Meaning	Pre-test/Post-test	0.46	4.70	0.00	4.23	0.93	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.08	8.38	-0.67	4.13	0.37	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.08	8.23	-0.80	4.60	0.14	-
Competence	Pre-test/Post-test	-0.07	6.75	2.71	6.45	0.18	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.93	4.67	3.00	5.14	0.07	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-1.39	6.83	0.60	8.23	0.65	-
Self-determination	Pre-test/Post-test	-1.13	5.15	1.00	4.70	0.22	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.14	6.50	0.17	3.63	0.74	-
	Post/Post-post-test	0.80	4.53	-0.36	3.86	0.95	-
Impact	Pre-test/Post-test	0.29	5.04	0.35	4.05	1.00	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-1.57	4.01	-1.69	3.46	0.95	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-2.14	5.53	-1.81	3.15	0.92	-

The results in *Table 5.9* indicate that no statistically significant difference was found between the experimental and control groups during the pre-and post-test, pre- and post- post-test as well as during the post- and post-post-test with regard to the Psychological Empowerment Scale for Meaning, Competence, Self-determination and Impact. With regard to the mean, the results showed a high score in the following for the experimental group: for Meaning during the pre- and post-post-test, mean = -0.08 (*SD* = 8.38) as well as during the post- and post-post-test, mean = -0.08 (*SD* = 8.23). The results also showed a high score for the following means for the control group: for Competence during the pre- and post-test, mean = 2.71 (*SD* = 6.45), during the pre- and post-post-test, mean = 3.00 (*SD* = 5.14) as well as during the post and post-post-test, mean = 0.60 (*SD* = 8.23). For Self-Determination during the pre- and post-test, mean = 1.00, (*SD* = 4.70), during the pre- and post-post-test, mean = 0.17 (*SD* = 3.63) as well as during the post and post-post- test, mean = -0.36 (*SD* = 3.86). For Impact

during the pre- and post-test, mean = 0.35 ($SD = 4.05$), during the pre-and post-test, mean = -1.69 ($SD = 3.46$) as well as during the post-and post-post-test the mean = -1.81 ($SD = 3.15$).

Table 5.10

Mean Differences between the Pre-test, Post-test and Post-post-test of the Experimental and Control Groups on the Work Engagement

	Experimental Group ($n = 17$)		Control Group ($n = 17$)		p	d
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Pre-test/Post-test	-0.17	4.80	-1.33	5.16	0.40	-
Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.25	6.96	0.62	7.14	0.80	-
Post/Post-post-test	-1.40	6.70	1.58	8.10	0.46	-

As shown in *Table 5.10*, the results indicated that no statistically significant difference was found with regard to the Work Engagement Scale between the experimental and control group during the pre- and post-test, pre- and post-post-test as well as post and post-post-test.

The results indicated the following mean for the experimental group for Work Engagement; during the pre- and post-test: mean = -0.17 ($SD = 4.80$), during the pre- and post-post-test, mean = -0.25 ($SD = 6.96$), as well as during the post and post-post-test, mean = -1.40 ($SD = 6.70$). The results also showed the following means for the control group for Work Engagement; during the pre-and post-test, mean = -1.33, $SD = 5.16$), during the pre- and post-post-test, mean = 0.62 ($SD = 5.16$), as well as during the post- and post-post-test, mean = 1.58 ($SD = 8.10$).

Table 5.11

Mean Differences between the Pre-test, Post-test and Post-post-test of the Experimental and Control Groups on the Time Management Questionnaire

Items		Experimental Group (<i>n</i> =17)		Control Group (<i>n</i> =17)		<i>p</i>	<i>d</i>
		Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>		
Time 1	Pre-test/Post-test	-0.13	0.89	0.00	0.97	0.70	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.27	0.70	0.00	0.89	0.36	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.13	1.51	-0.13	1.06	0.97	-
Time 2	Pre-test/Post-test	-0.25	1.06	-0.47	1.01	0.49	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.47	1.51	0.13	1.19	0.14	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.47	1.51	0.13	1.19	0.14	-
Time 3	Pre-test/Post-test	-0.20	0.94	-0.19	1.72	1.00	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	0.00	1.04	-0.07	1.49	0.80	-
	Post/Post-post-test	0.00	1.04	-0.07	1.49	0.80	-
Time 4	Pre-test/Post-test	-0.31	1.20	0.53	1.07	0.53	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.13	1.19	-0.50	1.46	0.34	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.13	1.19	-0.50	1.46	0.34	-
Time 5	Pre-test/Post-test	0.06	0.93	-0.29	1.05	0.29	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.80	1.08	-0.31	0.95	0.34	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.80	1.08	-0.31	0.95	0.34	-
Time 6	Pre-test/Post-test	-0.47	0.99	-0.06	1.56	0.28	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.60	1.30	-0.13	0.99	0.39	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.60	1.30	-0.13	0.99	0.39	-
Time 7	Pre-test/Post-test	0.38	1.31	-0.13	0.83	0.52	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.80	1.37	0.00	1.55	0.11	-
	Post/Post-post-test	0.-80	1.37	0.00	1.55	0.11	-
Time 8	Pre-test/Post-test	0.14	0.95	-0.56	1.55	0.19	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.14	0.86	0.25	1.24	0.40	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.14	0.86	0.25	1.24	0.40	-
Time 9	Pre-test/Post-test	0.19	1.17	0.07	1.62	1.00	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	0.07	1.38	0.07	0.96	1.00	-
	Post/Post-post-test	0.07	1.38	0.07	0.96	1.00	-
Time 10	Pre-test/Post-test	0.00	1.55	-0.31	1.35	0.64	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	0.80	1.70	-0.27	1.10	0.09	-
	Post/Post-post-test	0.80	1.70	-0.27	1.10	0.09	-
Time 11	Pre-test/Post-test	0.13	1.60	0.18	1.24	1.00	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	0.21	0.58	-0.50	1.15	0.52	-
	Post/Post-post-test	0.21	0.58	-0.50	1.15	0.52	-
Time 12	Pre-test/Post-test	-0.06	1.18	-0.06	1.34	0.90	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	0.07	1.28	0.06	0.85	0.89	-
	Post/Post-post-test	0.07	1.28	0.06	0.85	0.89	-
Time 13	Pre-test/Post-test	-0.29	1.20	0.24	0.75	0.23	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	0.00	1.11	-0.31	0.87	0.61	-
	Post/Post-post-test	0.00	1.11	-0.31	0.87	0.61	-
Time 14	Pre-test/Post-test	-0.56	1.26	-0.18	0.53	0.56	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	0.07	1.03	0.31	0.87	0.42	-
	Post/Post-post-test	0.07	1.03	0.31	0.87	0.42	-
Time 15	Pre-test/Post-test	0.31	1.79	0.47	1.18	0.87	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.13	1.46	-0.75	1.29	0.38	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.13	1.46	-0.75	1.29	0.38	-
Time 16	Pre-test/Post-test	0.60	0.91	0.06	0.77	0.11	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.33	1.59	0.20	1.01	0.41	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.33	1.59	0.20	1.01	0.41	-
Time 17	Pre-test/Post-test	-0.06	0.85	-0.13	0.81	0.84	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	0.47	1.61	-0.20	0.94	0.54	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.47	1.61	-0.20	0.94	0.54	-

Table 5.11

Mean Differences between the Pre-test, Post-test and Post-post-test of the Experimental and Control Groups on the Time Management (continued)

		Experimental Group (<i>n</i> =17)		Control Group (<i>n</i> =17)		<i>p</i>	<i>d</i>
		Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>		
Time 18	Pre-test/Post-test	0.19	0.75	0.00	0.82	0.59	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	0.20	0.77	0.50	1.03	0.08	-
	Post/Post-post-test	0.20	0.77	0.50	1.03	0.08	-
Time 19	Pre-test/Post-test	0.00	0.93	0.41	0.87	0.22	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.86	1.41	-0.44	1.09	0.40	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.86	1.41	-0.44	1.09	0.40	-
Time 20	Pre-test/Post-test	0.60	0.91	0.53	1.23	0.82	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.40	1.06	0.00	1.51	0.10	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.40	1.06	0.00	1.51	0.10	-
Time 21	Pre-test/Post-test	-0.27	1.44	0.07	0.80	0.71	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	0.00	1.13	-0.29	1.27	0.59	-
	Post/Post-post-test	0.00	1.13	-0.29	1.27	0.59	-
Time 22	Pre-test/Post-test	3.94	0.77	3.88	1.27	0.33	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	0.00	1.56	-0.13	0.81	0.63	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.13	1.72	-0.06	1.60	0.63	-
Time 23	Pre-test/Post-test	0.27	1.28	0.60	1.40	0.68	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.47	1.46	-0.44	1.03	0.74	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.47	1.46	-0.44	1.03	0.74	-
Time 24	Pre-test/Post-test	0.06	0.68	-0.12	1.05	0.82	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.14	1.51	0.07	0.60	0.72	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.14	1.51	0.07	0.60	0.72	-
Time 25	Pre-test/Post-test	0.00	0.90	0.47	1.01	0.12	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	0.00	1.61	-0.13	0.81	0.65	-
	Post/Post-post-test	0.00	1.56	-0.13	0.81	0.65	-
Time 26	Pre-test/Post-test	-0.13	1.72	-0.06	1.60	0.82	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	0.13	1.60	0.60	1.06	0.57	-
	Post/Post-post-test	0.13	1.60	0.60	1.11	0.57	-
Time 27	Pre-test/Post-test	-0.40	0.83	0.00	1.00	0.32	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.36	1.28	0.27	0.96	0.35	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.36	1.28	0.27	0.96	0.35	-
Time 28	Pre-test/Post-test	-0.19	1.33	-0.35	1.22	0.82	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	0.20	1.27	0.33	1.11	0.74	-
	Post/Post-post-test	0.20	1.26	0.33	1.11	0.74	-
Time 29	Pre-test/Post-test	0.44	1.30	-0.33	1.30	0.09	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.90	1.51	0.07	1.54	0.19	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.90	1.51	0.07	1.54	0.19	-
Time 30	Pre-test/Post-test	0.50	1.21	0.00	0.90	0.49	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.53	1.36	0.00	0.97	0.52	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.54	1.36	0.00	0.97	0.52	-
Time 31	Pre-test/Post-test	0.20	1.26	-0.75	1.34	0.16	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	0.40	0.83	-0.93	5.76	0.56	-
	Post/Post-post-test	0.40	0.83	-0.93	5.76	0.56	-
Time 32	Pre-test/Post-test	0.40	1.12	-0.12	1.02	0.25	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.10	1.00	0.00	1.61	0.70	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.07	1.00	0.00	1.61	0.70	-
Time 33	Pre-test/Post-test	0.33	1.50	-0.56	1.70	0.30	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.31	1.30	0.64	1.22	0.11	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.31	1.25	0.64	1.22	0.11	-

Table 5.11

Mean Differences between the Pre-test, Post-test and Post-post-test of the Experimental and Control Groups on the Time Management Questionnaire (continued)

		Experimental Group (<i>n</i> =17)		Control Group (<i>n</i> =17)			
		Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>d</i>
Time 34	Pre-test/Post-test	0.33	1.40	-0.30	1.70	0.49	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.36	1.00	-0.23	1.53	0.69	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.36	1.00	-0.23	1.54	0.69	-
Time 35	Pre-test/Post-test	0.20	0.68	0.82	1.63	0.43	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.13	1.30	-2.81	10.31	0.38	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.13	1.30	-2.81	10.31	0.38	-
Time 36	Pre-test/Post-test	-0.44	1.26	0.60	1.71	0.03*	0.26**
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	0.17	1.44	-0.20	1.33	0.38	-
	Post/Post-post-test	0.07	1.44	-0.20	1.33	0.38	-
Time 37	Pre-test/Post-test	0.33	1.30	0.73	1.60	0.60	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.60	1.22	-0.93	0.92	0.29	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.60	1.22	-0.93	0.92	0.29	-
Time 38	Pre-test/Post-test	0.40	1.60	-0.63	1.30	0.03*	0.40**
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.33	1.23	-0.20	1.80	0.93	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.33	1.23	1.20	1.80	0.93	-
Time 39	Pre-test/Post-test	-0.33	2.00	-0.30	1.34	0.86	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.10	1.00	-0.07	1.53	0.95	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.07	1.00	-0.10	1.53	0.95	-
Time 40	Pre-test/Post-test	-0.20	1.32	-0.25	1.50	0.92	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.43	1.28	-0.40	1.30	0.81	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.43	1.28	-0.40	1.30	0.81	-
Time 41	Pre-test/Post-test	-0.47	0.92	-0.13	1.36	0.63	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.21	1.48	-0.53	1.64	0.38	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.21	1.48	-0.53	1.64	0.38	-
Time 42	Pre-test/Post-test	-0.53	1.25	-0.13	1.20	0.36	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.07	1.59	-0.19	1.33	0.79	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.07	1.59	-0.19	1.33	0.79	-
Time 43	Pre-test/Post-test	-0.33	1.63	-0.44	1.21	0.95	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.14	0.95	-0.13	1.50	0.85	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.14	0.95	-0.13	1.50	0.85	-
Time 44	Pre-test/Post-test	0.20	1.52	-0.50	0.90	0.06	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.31	1.70	0.30	0.90	0.75	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.31	1.70	0.30	0.90	0.75	-
Time 45	Pre-test/Post-test	-0.44	0.90	-0.12	1.20	0.58	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	0.30	0.90	0.00	1.10	0.50	-
	Post/Post-post-test	0.30	0.90	0.00	1.10	0.50	-
Time 46	Pre-test/Post-test	-0.20	0.94	-0.60	1.41	0.63	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	0.10	0.90	0.30	1.30	0.40	-
	Post/Post-post-test	0.10	0.83	0.30	1.30	0.40	-
Time 47	Pre-test/Post-test	-0.13	1.20	-0.80	1.15	0.28	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	0.00	1.90	0.50	1.10	0.65	-
	Post/Post-post-test	0.00	1.90	0.50	1.10	0.65	-
Time 48	Pre-test/Post-test	0.13	0.90	-0.40	1.02	0.09	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.13	1.70	0.13	1.30	0.84	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.13	1.70	0.13	1.30	0.84	-
Time 49	Pre-test/Post-test	-0.20	1.83	-0.53	1.10	0.30	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.30	1.16	0.80	1.30	0.03*	0.24**
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.30	1.20	0.80	1.30	0.03*	0.24**

Table 5.11

Mean Differences between the Pre-test, Post-test and Post-post-test of the Experimental and Control Groups on the Time Management Questionnaire (continued)

		Experimental Group (<i>n</i> =17)		Control Group (<i>n</i> =17)		<i>P</i>	<i>d</i>
		Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>		
Time 50	Pre-test/Post-test	-0.10	1.70	-0.20	2.10	0.87	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	-0.10	1.80	0.43	1.50	0.43	-
	Post/Post-post-test	-0.10	1.80	0.43	1.50	0.43	-
Time 51	Pre-test/Post-test	0.40	1.80	-0.33	1.23	0.16	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	0.10	1.20	0.43	1.22	0.58	-
	Post/Post-post-test	0.10	1.20	0.43	1.22	0.58	-
Time 52	Pre-test/Post-test	-0.10	2.30	0.13	1.20	0.84	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	0.20	1.52	-0.20	1.52	0.94	-
	Post/Post-post-test	0.20	1.52	-0.20	1.52	0.94	-
Time 53	Pre-test/Post-test	0.10	1.73	0.20	1.90	0.77	-
	Pre-test/Post-post-test	0.30	1.30	-0.10	1.62	0.62	-
	Post/Post-post-test	0.30	1.30	-0.10	1.62	0.62	-

* Statistically significant: $p < 0, 05$

** Practically significant: $p \geq 0.20$ (small effect)

Table 5.11 indicates that during the pre-and post-test regarding the Time Management Questionnaire, statistically significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$) was found between the experimental and control groups on sub-item 36 (“I make appointments with the file in order to get the work done at a specific time without interruption”) and sub-item 38 (“I have a system or process in place to automate, as much as possible, tasks such as engagement letters, proposals, responses to requests for proposals, billing, review, etc.”). The practical significance for item 36 is 0.26, while for item 38 it is 0.40. No statistically significant difference was found on sub-items 1 – 35 and sub-items 37, 39, 50 to 53 during the pre- and post-test, pre- and post-post-test as well as during the post- and post-post-test. A statistically significant difference was also not found on items 36 and 38 during the pre- and post-test as well as during the post and post-post-test.

As shown in *Table 5.11*, the results also indicated that a statistically significant difference was found between the experimental and control group during the pre- and post-test as well as during the post- and post-post-test on sub-item 49 (“I fully empower subordinates and I do not attend to assignments that others are supposed to do”). The statistical significance ($p \leq 0.05$) was found, with a practical significance of 0.24. No statistical significance was found in sub-item 49 during the pre- and post-test.

This indicates that the individuals who participated in the self-management training programme, compared with those who were not involved, had a greater understanding of empowering subordinates and letting others to do the work that they were supposed to do.

With regard to mean, the results indicated high scores in the following sub-items for the experimental group: sub-item 22 (mean = 3.94, $SD = 0.77$) for the pre- and post-test. During the control group, the higher scores are shown in the following sub-items: Item 22 (mean = 3.88, $SD = 1.27$ during the pre- and post-test, item 35 (mean = -2.81, $SD = 10.31$ for the pre- and post-test. During the same sub-item the result indicates (mean = -2.81, $SD = 10.31$) for the post and post-post-test.

5.5 KNOWLEDGE AND REACTION EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Results of the Knowledge and Reaction Evaluation Questionnaire are given in *Table 5.12*.

The scores are presented in percentage format.

Table 5.12

Knowledge and Reaction Evaluation Questionnaire (in percentages %)

Item	1 = Poor	2 = Average	3 = Good	4 = Very Good
The length of the training	6.3	18.8	56.3	18.8
The appropriateness of the training objective	6.3	6.3	75.0	12.5
The relevance of material presented		6.3	37.5	56.3
Quality of material		12.5	62.5	25.0
The appropriateness of the learning environment	6.3	6.3	56.3	31.3
The overall performance of the training		12.5	56.3	31.3
Achievement of the training objectives		12.5	56.3	31.3
Relevance of the training to the Public Service of Namibia			53.3	46.7
The quality of the facilitator		6.3	56.3	37.5
The quality of the exercises		12.5	68.8	18.8
The quality of the role-player (s)		31.3	50.0	18.8
Learning outcome from the training			66.7	33.3
The facilitator's explanations		6.3	62.5	31.3
The facilitator's use of teaching technology		18.8	56.3	25.0
Expectations for learning in this training were communicated		12.5	56.3	31.3
Learning activities were integrated into the training program		12.5	50.0	37.5
Behavioural skills were acquired		6.3	62.5	31.3
Facilitation of group discussions		18.8	68.8	12.5
Personal learning objectives have been achieved			75.0	25.0
Training location –ease of travel		25.0	50.0	25.0
The training is useful for organization		6.3	56.3	37.5
Use of time during the training		13.3	60.0	26.7
Number of participants	6.3	25.0	50.0	18.8
Facilitator's knowledge of the subject-matter		6.7	53.3	40.0
Facilitator's style and delivery		6.3	75.0	18.8
Logically sequenced of the training program		12.5	68.8	18.8
Facilitator's quality of voice		12.5	62.5	25.0
Creativity		12.5	68.8	18.8
New knowledge be transferred in the work place		12.5	50.0	37.5
Type of questionnaires			81.3	18.8

As shown by the results in *Table 5.12*, the sub-item ‘The relevance of material presented during the self-management training programme’ was rated by 56.3% of participants as ‘very good’. A majority of participants (81.3%) indicated that the sub-item ‘Type of questionnaire used during the study’ was ‘good’, while 75% of participants also indicated a rating of ‘good’ for each of the following sub-items: ‘Appropriateness of the course objectives’, ‘Personal learning objectives have been achieved’ and ‘Facilitator’s style and delivery’. The sub-items ‘The quality of exercises’, ‘Group discussions’, ‘Logical sequence of the programme’ and ‘Creativity’ were rated as ‘good’ by 68.8% of participants, while a ‘good’ rating was given to

the sub-items 'Learning outcome from the self-management training programme' by 66.3%, 'The facilitator's quality of voice', 'The instructor's explanations' and 'The quality of material used during the self-management training programme' by 62.5%, and 'Use of time during the self-management training programme' by 60.0%. The length of the training, the appropriateness of the learning environment, the overall performance of the training, achievement of the self-management training programme objectives, the instructor's use of teaching technology, and communication of expectations for learning in the training were ranked in the 'good' category by 56.3% of participants. The relevance of the training to the Public Service of Namibia also fell into the 'good' category, as rated by 53.3% of participants, who also indicated that the quality of the role-player (s), the integration of learning activities into the programme, training location, ease of travel, number of participants and probability of transfer of new knowledge in the work place were good (50.0 %).

Based on the above results, it can be indicated that the participants of the self-management training programme were very satisfied with the way the training was organized and conducted.

5.6 SUPERVISORS' EVALUATION OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Table 5.13 indicates how the supervisors of the experimental group evaluated their subordinates one month after they had completed the self-management training programme.

Table 5.13

Supervisors' Evaluation of the Experimental Group (n = 14) [in percentages %]

Item	Mean	SD	1= No improvement	2 = Slight improvement	3 = Good improvement	4 = Very good improvements
Time-management	2.64	0.75	7.14	28.57	57.14	7.14
Creativity	2.79	0.70		35.71	50.00	14.29
Self-monitoring	2.79	0.80	7.14	21.43	57.14	14.29
Stress-management	2.57	0.76	7.14	35.71	50.00	7.14
Emotional intelligence	2.86	0.54		21.43	71.43	7.14
Self-esteem	2.86	0.66		28.57	57.14	14.29
Self-efficacy	2.86	0.66		28.57	57.14	14.29
Socialisation	2.93	0.92	7.14	21.43	42.86	28.57
Work engagement	2.93	0.73	7.14	7.14	71.43	14.29
Interpersonal communication	2.86	0.54		21.43	71.43	7.14

Note: The Information as per Scale (1 =No Improvement to 4 =Very Good Improvement) are presented by the overall percentage of the supervisor's evaluation.

Table 5.13 shows that individuals who participated in the self-management training programme had improved with regard to their behaviours as perceived by their supervisors. The overall results indicate that the participants of the experimental group had improved more in emotional intelligence, work engagement and interpersonal communication. These were the highest scores, represented by 71.43%. Time-management, self-monitoring, self-esteem and self-efficacy were the second highest scores (57.14%), while creativity and stress-management were the third highest scores (50%). With regard to socialization, the results showed that 42.86% of supervisors thought that the participants had made good improvement, while improved 28.57% show very good improvement.

No comparison was made between the experimental and control groups in this regard. The results showed that the experimental group had improved on the items for which they were

evaluated by their supervisors. This evaluation was made after one month when the participants of the experimental group had exercised the training content in the work environment.

The results also showed that the mean and standard deviation for each item were very good. The mean scores ranged from 2.57 to 2.93, while the standard deviations ranged from 0.54 to 0.92. The participants scored the following: Socialisation (mean = 2.92 (*SD* = 0.92), Self-monitoring (mean = 2.79 (*SD* = 0.80), Stress-management (mean = 2.57 (*SD* = 0.76), Time-management (mean = 2.64 (*SD* = 0.75), Work engagement (mean = 2.93 (*SD* = 0.73), Self-esteem (mean = 2.86 (*SD* = 0.66) and Self-efficacy (mean = 2.86 (*SD* = 0.66), emotional intelligent (mean = 2.86 (*SD* = 0.54) and Interpersonal communication (mean = 2.86 (*SD* = 0.54). This implies that the supervisors of the experimental group were satisfied with the self-management training programme because of its impact on the work environment and subsequently, the change it brought about in the participants.

5.7 QUALITATIVE IMPRESSIONS

The initial sample size for this study was 40 ($n = 20$ for the experimental group and $n = 20$ for the control group), but unfortunately, the number of participants was reduced to 34 when some participants voluntarily withdrew from the study. Based on the final number of 34 participants, 17 were assigned to the experimental group and 17 were assigned to the control group.

Table 5.14 indicates how the number of participants was reduced.

Table 5.14

Reduction in the Number of Participants

		Questionnaires distributed	Questionnaires returned	Questionnaires pending
Pre-test	Experimental Group	17	17	0
	Control Group	17	17	0
Post-test	Experimental Group	17	16	1
	Control Group	17	17	0
Post-post-test	Experimental Group	16	15	1
	Control Group	17	16	1
Supervisors Questionnaires		16	14	2
		117	112	5

Table 5.14 also shows that during the pre-test measurement, there was no reduction in either the experimental group or the control group. During the post-test measurement, the experimental group was reduced by one (6.25%) participant who voluntarily withdrew from the study, but there were no reductions among the participants of the control group. During the post-post-test measurement, one participant in the experimental group withdrew from the study, so that in total is two participants (12.5%) of the experimental group withdrew. With regard to the control group during this measurement, only one participant (6.25%) withdrew from the study. The table shows that during the pre-, post-and post-post measurement, only three (0.09%) participants withdrew from the study. The table also shows that during the evaluation given by supervisors of the experimental group, fourteen (87.5%) supervisors evaluated their subordinates, while two (12.5%) supervisors did not return their questionnaires. The overall numbers of questionnaire distributed was 117. Of these, 112 (95.7%) were returned, while 5 (4.27%) did not come back to the researcher.

The study was challenging because if a participant withdrew from the study, it was not possible to replace him or her since the main focus was to assess the behavioural changes before the training intervention, soon after the intervention, and one month after the intervention in order to determine whether a significant difference existed in both groups.

Participants were very active during the self-management training programme. The process was time consuming, especially with regard to the development of the training manual, nominations and logistical arrangements. The training interventions for the experimental group and the voluntary training of the control group were conducted as scheduled.

The following are the qualitative impressions that were gathered from the evaluation forms completed by the experimental group after the self-management training programme.

- **How effective was the self-management training programme?**

Sixteen (100%) of participants indicated that the training was very effective. They also stated that they had learnt strategies to manage themselves at work and to improve their behaviours. Two (12.5%) participants indicated that they had learnt through sharing ideas with different colleagues. Four (25%) participants stated that the self-management training programme had given them an idea of how to monitor themselves in order to minimize the need for a supervisor's control and also to allow them to be self-directed. Participants indicated that the self-management training programme had brought about changes in their lives as well as at work.

One (6.25%) participant indicated that the self-management training programme could contribute towards the advancement of the organisation. Two (12.5%) participants commented that the self-management training programme was a vital aspect in their daily-working-lives and contributed to the organisation's success.

- **Which component/s of the self-management training programme was/were effective and important and why?**

Fifteen (93.75%) participants indicated that all sessions, such as self-efficacy, self-esteem, time-management, stress management and self-management, were effective and applicable to employees. Participants stated that they had learnt how to manage themselves instead of waiting for a supervisor to direct them to do their work. Participants further stated that employees should apply both self-efficacy and self-esteem in order to be more confident. In addition, participants affirmed that self-esteem and self-efficacy were the foundation of behaviour change and practice. They indicated that they had learnt a great deal that could be applied on a daily basis. Some participants indicated that through self-management training, they had learnt the difference between self-efficacy and self-esteem and how to manage time effectively.

Two (12.5%) participants suggested that induction and orientation for new employees should be conducted at the work place to make work more effective and to acquaint employees with new work environments.

- **Which component/s do you think should be incorporated in self-management training programmes, and why?**

Twelve (75%) participants proposed that all components that were covered by the training should be incorporated in self-management training because they were needed every day in the work place. Two (12.5%) participants suggested that managers should also form part of the self-management training. One (6.25%) participant stated that decision-making should also form part of the self-management training programme.

- **What are the effects of self-management training programme on employees?**

Ten (62.5%) participants indicated that they should put into practice the principles learned during self-management training in order to manage themselves at work and to have confidence in themselves. They further stated that this would also assist them in the following areas: self-motivation, quality time management, happy environment/workplace, self-control, a change in lifestyle and development of good behaviours.

Two (12.5%) participants felt that the training would build self-esteem and encourage employees to take greater control over their work in order to enhance productivity and to achieve organisational goals. Three (18.75%) participants stated that poor self-management could lead to stress, and employees would feel empowered by being creative in the workplace. With training, they would also feel safe and secure in the work place as well as outside the work environment. Two (12.5%) participants pointed out that senior management should be included in self-management training programmes so that they would be equipped with leadership skills in the Public Service.

- **To what extent do you feel you have learned from the self-management training programme?**

Two (12.5%) participants gave no response to this question. Thirteen (81.25%) participants indicated that they had learned to monitor themselves and had enjoyed the content of the programme. They appreciated the self-management training programme and felt that it was a good opportunity to learn. Participants further stated that they had learnt the effective use of time and were very grateful to benefit from the training. They felt that the self-management training programme had changed their lifestyles, and they indicated that they had learnt the ability to cope with stress in the work place caused by various factors. Participants also indicated that they understood all topics explained during the training. One (6.25%) participant emphasized a desire to be involved in many training courses with different facilitators.

- **Why do you think self-management training programmes are needed in the Public Service of Namibia?**

Fourteen (87.5%) participants stated that the self-management training programme would improve the attitude of public servants towards their work. Such a programme would also boost work performance and assist employees to understand the term 'self-management'. Public servants would also learn how to avoid stress and to be time conscious. Employees would be empowered, which would increase work productivity and efficiency. A self-management training programme would improve the public service through creating conducive working environments for all employees, irrespective of their positions.

- **What have you not learned that you needed or expected during the self-management training programme?**

Except for four participants who did not complete this part, twelve (75%) participants indicated that they had learned everything that they wanted to learn. One (6.25%) participant further indicated that decision-making and motivation techniques for workers had not been addressed during the self-management training programme and should form part of the training.

- **Which part/s of the self-management training programme do you feel will be most useful when you are back at work?**

Fifteen (93.75%) participants indicated that the self-management training programme would help them to manage themselves. They also highlighted the idea that time management, self-efficacy and self-esteem, stress-management, emotional intelligence and self-monitoring would be very helpful when participants went back to work. One (6.25%) participant stated that self-esteem and self-efficacy were difficult aspects, but that through training they had learnt a lot about these concepts. Fifteen (93.75%) participants indicated that all components of the training would be useful, including dealing with work-related stress. One (6.25%) participant suggested that self-management components were interrelated like solid chains that should not be broken.

- **What did you like best about the self-management training programme?**

Eight (50.0%) participants stated that what they had liked best was the training related to self-monitoring, self-management, self-esteem, self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, time management and work-related stress. Eight (50.0%) participants affirmed that the programme and its interaction were applicable to all employees. They further attested that they had enjoyed the presentation, quality of materials, and time management, as well as the presenter who was very confident and knew the subject matter well. They also found that group activities and information sharing were very effective and explained the purpose of the training content. They furthermore affirmed that input from colleagues as well as the facilitator's ideas added value to their knowledge of self-management. Participants stated that after the training programme, they were in a better position of knowing how to manage stress, the effects of stress and how to control their behaviours.

- **Please add any comments about the self-management training programme that have not been covered and that you would like to make.**

Ten (62.5%) participants did not indicate anything in this section. Two (12.5%) participants indicated that more top managers needed to attend the self-management training programme to acquire skills in managing behaviours. One (6.25%) participant said that positive and negative stress in the work environment was not covered during the training and should form part of the training. One (6.25%) participant pointed out that these kinds of training were vital for organizations, that learning made employees productive, and that it was important to consider learning as an on-going process. One (6.25%) participant stated that training should be conducted at least four times a year in order to minimize stress at work, while another

(6.25%) participant indicated that customer care should form part of the self-management training programme.

5.7.1 Collage exercise

The following are the qualitative impressions of participants in the self-management training programme in which they were engaged in different activities. Participants engaged in collage exercises in which they were requested to write down their expectations of the course.

Course expectations expressed by participants were as follows:

- to learn more about self-management and how to manage the work;
- to know the importance of the self-management training programme;
- to improve on prioritizing, especially when overloaded with work, and to be in a position of self-management;
- to have an understanding of self-management, and to learn what would be discussed during the self-management training programme;
- to expect improvement in individuals and also within the organization;
- to learn how to manage time effectively and how to use an effective management style to complete more work;
- to gain a good understanding of the training;
- to be able to identify self-management skills and make use of self-management skills in the organization;
- to gain general knowledge, skills and experience to compete in the ever developing world and the work environment;
- to be fully equipped and motivated in daily performances; and

- to acquire proof of having attended the self-management training programme.

After the self-management training programme, the participants were requested to review the papers on which they had written their training expectations. They were then requested to indicate whether their expectations had been met or not. Hundred percent (100 %) of participants indicated that their training expectations had been met.

5.7.2 Group discussions during the self-management training programme

The following information was gathered from the participants of the experimental group during group discussions in which they pin-pointed the factors that could contribute to time-wasting, poor self-management and lack of self-efficacy during working hours.

➤ Time-wasting factors

- Mobile telecommunication promotions (e.g. Aweh-aweh promotions that allow individuals to make unlimited calls from their cellular phones);
- Unspecified time given for submissions with regard to requested activities or reports (If no time is specified, employees can submit the requested activities even at 11:50 p.m.);
- Visiting other employees' offices just to chat;
- Using Facebook (or other internet facilities) for a long period; and
- Prolonging tea-break time.

➤ **Poor self-management factors**

The participants indicated that lack of the following factors could contribute to poor self-management: management leadership, assistance from both supervisor and subordinates, work orientation, on-the-job training (i.e. for new employees who often know theory but not practice), resources to do the work, work guidelines in place, recognition of all employees irrespective of their positions, capacity building, exposure of employees to new environments or new products (i.e. information technology) and a culture of reading (e.g. Government acts, regulations and reports).

➤ **Lack of self-efficacy factors**

Participants pointed out that the following factors could lead to poor self-efficacy among employees:

- Too much dependence on others;
- Staying away from work when things got difficult (i.e. on the part of high-level employees); and
- Delegation of too many activities by managers to their subordinates.

5.8 DISCUSSION OF THE EMPIRICAL RESULTS

The following sections would focus on the discussing of the empirical results.

5.8.1 Socio-Demographic Characteristics

The results showed that there is no major difference between the experimental and control group in terms of socio-demographic data. The mean age for the experimental group was 37,25 ($SD = 6.70$), while for control group it was 36.50 ($SD = 6.70$).

5.8.2 Comparisons of the Pre-Test for the Experimental and Control Groups

The pre-tests for the experimental and control groups were compared. The results would be indicated in the following sections:

5.8.2.1 Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS)

The results showed that no statistically significant difference was found between the experimental and control group. It can thus be stated that the random sampling was successful, because the two groups obtained comparable scores. In terms of reliability, SWLS had acceptable internal consistencies for the experimental group (0.67), the control group had (0.55). Nunnally (1978) points out that the reliabilities of 0.50 to 0.60 are appropriate for early phases of basic research. According to Wissing and Van Eeden (2002) the SWLS has been used in the South African context in which alpha reliability coefficient of 0.60 was reported. Diener et al. (1985) reported an alpha coefficient of 0.87 and a two-month test-retest stability with an alpha coefficient of 0.82 reported. Additionally, the results showed that the experimental group scored higher than the control group with regard to reliability, this could be attributed as a result of the self-management training programme.

5.8.2.2 Psychological Wellbeing Scale (PWBS)

The results show the statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$; $d > 0.80$, large effect) were found between the experimental and control groups for the sub-item Environmental Mastery. The result also shows that the statistically significant differences were found between the experimental and control group with regard to sub-item Self-acceptance ($p < 0.05$; $d > 0.50$, medium effect). In terms of reliability, the PWBS had acceptable internal consistencies for experimental group for the following sub-scales: Positive Relations with others (0.69), Personal Growth (0.65). With regard to the reliability of the control group, the results showed the following scores: Purpose in Life (0.82), Environmental Mastery (0.75), and Personal Growth (0.63).

The reliability with regard to internal consistency of the PWBS was reported in a study by (Ryff, 1989) in which the following alpha coefficients were found: 0.93 for self-acceptance, 0.91 for positive relations with other, 0.86 for autonomy, 0.90 for environmental mastery, 0.90 for purpose in life, and 0.87 for personal growth.

5.8.2.3 Psychological Empowerment Questionnaire (PEQ)

The results show that no statistically significant difference was found between the experimental and control group with regard to PEQ. It can thus be stated that the random sampling was successful, because the two groups obtained comparable scores. In terms of reliability, PEQ shows that Self-determination had internal consistencies for the experimental group of (0.53). In addition, the result scored low in other sub-items (meaning, competence

and impact) ranged from 0.40 to 0.45. Stander and Rothmann (2009) found that the Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the PEQ ranged from 0.81 (competence) to 0.89 (meaning).

5.8.2.4 Work Engagement Scale (WES)

The results showed that no statistically significant difference was found between the experimental and control group with regard to WES. With regard to reliability, the result show that WES had acceptable internal consistencies for Cronbach's alpha of 0.90 for the experimental group and 0.85 for the control group. According to Olivier and Rothmann (2007) the Cronbach's alpha of 0.72 was reported, which is consistent with the findings of May et al. (2004) in a study that was conducted in a large insurance firm. The results of this study scored high than the results reported by Olivier and Rothmann (2007) as well as May et al. (2004).

5.8.2.5 Time Management Questionnaire (TMQ)

The results showed that during the pre-test, a statistically significant difference was found between the experimental and control groups with regard to TMQ on sub-item 36 ("I make appointments with the file in order to get the work done at a specific time without interruption") ($p < 0.05$; $d > 0.80$, large effect) and sub-item 38 ("I have a system or process in place to automate, as much as possible, tasks such as engagement letters, proposals, responses to requests for proposals, billing, review, etc.") ($p < 0.05$; $d > 0.20$, small effect). This indicates that the participants knew how to prioritise their work by finding specific time to get the work done without any interruption and by automating tasks. This would help

them to manage their time effectively. Alay and Kocak (2002) reported that the time planning was found to be acceptable with a Cronbach alpha of 0.88.

5.9 COMPARISONS OF THE PRE-TEST, POST-TEST AND POST-POST-TEST OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP

The comparisons of the pre-test, post-test and post-post-test of the experimental and control group would be provided as per following scale.

5.9.1 Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS)

The results show that during the pre-and post-test, pre- and post-post-test as well as during the post- and post-post-test, no statistically significant difference was found between the experimental and control group with regard to SWLS. This is an indication that the self-management programme did not impact the satisfaction with life of the experimental and control groups. Pavot and Diener (1993) pointed out that SWLS provides a clear sign of how individuals in organisations measure their lives as satisfactory with regard to personal development.

5.9.2 Psychological Wellbeing Scale (PWBS)

The results show statistically significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$) was found between the experimental and control groups concerning the pre- and post-test of Environmental Mastery. Statistically significant ($p \leq 0.05$) difference with a large effect ($d \geq 0.80$) regarding Environmental Mastery between the experimental and control groups concerning the pre- and

post-test was also found. The results indicated that a statistically significant difference was found between the experimental and control groups during the post-test and post-post-test regarding Positive Relations with Others. The difference was statistically significant ($p \leq 0.05$) as well as practically significant ($d \geq 0.50$). The statistically significant ($p \leq 0.05$), difference with a large effect ($d \geq 0.80$) was found during the experimental group and control group regarding the pre-post and post-test as well as pre- and post-post-test of Self-acceptance.

The results indicate that the experimental group was more sensitive to Environmental Mastery as well as to Positive Relations with Others and Self-Acceptance as a result of the self-management training programme. With regard to the participants of the control group, a significant difference was not found because they did not participate in the self-management training programme. In addition, the results indicate that there were no significant differences between the experimental and control groups with regard to the following: Autonomy (i.e. pre- and post-test, pre- and post-post-test as well as during the post and post-post-test), Environmental Mastery (i.e. pre- and post-post-test as well as during the post and post-post-test), Personal Growth (i.e. pre-and post-test,- pre- and post-post-test as well as during the post- and post-post-test), Positive Relations with Others (i.e. pre- and post-test as well as during the pre- and post-post-test), Purpose in Life (i.e. pre- and post-test, pre- and post-post-test as well as during the post- and post-post-test) and Self-Acceptance (i.e. post- and post-post-test). The experimental group were uncertain in these areas because they tried to implement what they learnt through training, while the control group does not have knowledge of the training. According to Ryff (1989) PWBS requires individuals to assess their own thoughts, evaluate themselves by their own standards, affirm their own values and

make necessary choices to symbolize those values and work towards goals they have set for themselves.

5.9.3 Psychological empowerment Questionnaire (PEQ)

The results indicate that no statistically significant difference was found between the experimental and control groups during the pre-and post-test, pre- and post- post-test as well as during the post- and post-post-test with regard to PEQ for Meaning, Competence, Self-determination and Impact. Since the changes could not appear soon after the training, the experimental group wanted to implement the content of the training and were uncertain, while the control group does not have any knowledge of the training. According to Uhl-Bien and Graen (1998), self-management models encourage the training and enrichment of employees who can work on their own without close supervision, and can solve their own problems. Spreitzer (1995) found that work satisfaction, managerial success, innovation behaviour and decreased stress were practically connected with empowerment.

5.9.4 Work Engagement Scale (WES)

The results indicated that no statistically significant difference was found with regard to WES between the experimental and control group during the pre- and post-test, pre- and post-post-test as well as post and post-post-test. Olivier and Rothmann (2007) found that psychological meaningfulness and psychological availability predict employee engagement. In addition Rothmann and Storm (2003), found that engaged police officers had an active coping style that assisted them to perform well at work.

5.9.5 Time Management Questionnaire (TMQ)

The results indicated that the participants of the experimental group showed greater positive relations with others during the post-test and post-post-test. This indicates that they valued other people, which created good relations. The participants also showed a higher score with regard to the Time-Management Questionnaire, sub-item 49 (“I fully empower subordinates and to let others to do their work that they were supposed to do”) during the pre-test and post-post-test as well as during the post-test and post-post-test measurement. The statistical significance ($p \leq 0.05$) was found, with a practical significance of 0.24. This indicates that that the individuals who participated in the self-management training programme compared with those who were not involved, had a greater understanding of empowering others and letting others to do the work that they were supposed to do. This would contribute to work satisfaction and engagement. Alay and Kocak (2002) states that what employees gain from time management is not solely time, but rather a better life. Lockwood (2009) added that employees’ engagement contributes to psychological well-being which can have an impact on the quality and quantity of work.

5.9.6 Knowledge and Reaction Evaluation Questionnaire

With regard to the evaluation of the self-management training programme, the overall score rated all the items of the Knowledge and Reaction Evaluation Questionnaire in the “good” category. This indicates that the presentation of the self-management training programme was effective.

5.9.7 Supervisors' Evaluation of the Experimental Group

The evaluation given by the supervisors of the experimental group indicates that supervisors were satisfied with the self-management training programme because of its impact on the work environment. The results further indicated that the participants of the experimental group had improved more in emotional intelligence, work engagement and interpersonal communication. These areas were the highest scores, represented by 71.43% of each dimension. The second highest scores are time-management, self-monitoring, self-esteem and self-efficacy, represented by 57.14%. The third highest scores are for creativity and stress-management, represented by 50%. With regard to socialisation, the results showed that participants scored 42.86% represented 'good improvement' and 28.57% represented 'very good improvement'. This is a very good score because once 'good improvement' is combined with the 'very good improvement'; the results represented 71.43% of socialisation. This evaluation was made after one month when the participants of the experimental group had exercised the training content in the work environment. There is no comparison made by the supervisors of the experimental and control group because the scale was mainly designed for the experimental group.

5.9.8 Qualitative Impressions

Qualitative impressions revealed that the self-management training programme was very effective. It taught participants how to manage themselves at work and improved their behaviours. The self-management training programme brought changes in the participants' lives as well as at work. They stated that they had learnt the difference between self-efficacy and self-esteem, and also how to manage time effectively. The qualitative impressions also

indicated that all components used during the self-management training programme were effective and applicable to employees.

The qualitative impressions further indicated that all components used during the self-management training programme should be incorporated in future self-management training because they are needed every day in the work sphere. Additionally, decision-making should be added to the self-management training programme. The participants felt that managers should also be included in the self-management training programme so as to be equipped with leadership skills in the Public Service. It was also felt that the self-management training programme could make employees feel safe and secure in the workplace as well as outside the work sphere. The participants appreciated the self-management training programme, and pointed out that this was a good opportunity for them to learn through such a programme. They felt that the programme had changed their lifestyles, and that they had learnt the ability to cope with stress in the work place.

The qualitative impressions indicated that the self-management training programme would improve the attitude of public servants towards their work. Such a programme would also boost work performance and help employees to understand the term “self-management”. Once employees were trained in self-management, they would be empowered, which would increase work productivity and efficiency in work. Through this programme, public servants would learn how to cope with work-related stress and how to be time conscious. Leka et al. (2003, p.3) indicate that “work-related stress is the response people may have when presented with work demands and pressures that are not matched to their knowledge and abilities and which challenge their ability to cope”. This programme would improve the public service by creating conducive working environments for all employees, irrespective of their positions.

Concerning the qualitative impressions, the participants enjoyed the presentation, quality of materials, time management and the presenter who was very confident and knew the subject matter. Group discussions and information sharing were very effective. Input from their colleagues as well as the facilitator's ideas added value to the participants' knowledge of self-management. Participants felt that the self-management training programme should be conducted at least four times a year. This could help employers to minimize stress among employees. Participants pointed out self-management training should also focus on the orientation of new employees.

With regard to the collage exercise in which the participants of the experimental group participated by writing down their expectations of the course, they all indicated that their expectations were met. The group discussions also provided qualitative impressions. Among others, the following were perceived to be factors that contribute to time-wasting at work: unspecified time given for submissions with regard to requested activities or reports (i.e. if no time is specified, employees can submit the requested activities even at 11:50p.m.), visiting of other employees' offices for chatting purposes, using of Facebook (or other internet facilities) for a long period; and prolonging of tea-break time. Lack of the following factors can contribute to poor-self-management: management leadership, assistance from both supervisor and subordinates, work orientation, on-the-job training (i.e. for new employees who often know the theory but not the practical aspects), resources to do the work, work guidelines in place, recognition of all employees, irrespective of their positions, capacity building, exposure of employees to new environments or new products (i.e. information technology and a culture of reading, e.g. Government acts, regulations and reports). Lack of any or all of these factors can contribute to poor-self-management. These views were gathered through group discussions during the self-management training programme.

Qualitative impressions further indicated that lack of self-efficacy can occur as a result of the following: too much dependence on others, stay away from work when things got difficult (i.e. on the part of high-level employees), and delegation of too many activities by managers to their subordinates.

5.10 CONCLUSIONS

The conclusions of the study, based on the results of this research, are as follows:

The aim of the study was to develop and evaluate a self-management training programme for public servants in the Ministry of Education in Namibia. A training manual for the self-management training programme was developed, after which the training programme was implemented in the Ministry of Education's headquarters.

Consequent to the self-management training programme, the following areas were evaluated: The conceptualisation of self-management, and reasons why it is necessary for employees; the conceptualisation of the effects of self-management on employees, the determination of the most effective content and methodology for a self-management training programme for employees in the Namibian public service, and the evaluation of the immediate and long-term effects of a self-management training programme in the Namibian public service on the knowledge and behaviour of participants.

With regard to the specific objective of the research, the following conclusions were drawn:

- **Self-management** can be defined as the process of assisting individuals to manage stress and control their behaviours. It assists employees to monitor, self-direct and manage themselves in doing the work instead of waiting for a supervisor to direct them. It helps employees to apply both self-efficacy and self-esteem, and to be more confident. Self-management is a method by which employees can learn different strategies to manage themselves at work as well as to improve their behaviours.

- **The aim of a self-management training programme** – The self-management training programme improves the attitude of public servants towards their work. It boosts work performance and assists employees to understand the term ‘self-management’. It improves the public service by creating conducive working environments for all employees, irrespective of their positions. It helps employees to share views with others through group discussions. A self-management training programme contributes towards the advancement of the organisation and its success. It assists employees to nourish emotional intelligence through group participation and also to develop self-esteem and self-efficacy. It helps employees to distinguish between self-efficacy and self-esteem, and brings changes in their lives as well as at work. This can minimise stress among employees and contribute to work productivity and organisational success.

Barrios-Choplin et al. (1999) point out that a self-management training programme assists employees to change their interpretive styles and manage their mental and emotional responses to stress. Such programmes have the potential to produce long-term changes in employees’ health, performance and productivity.

- **The contents of a self-management training programme** – The content of a self-management training programme should include the terms self-management, time-management, emotional intelligence, self-esteem, self-efficacy, self-monitoring and decision-making. Such a programme should also include the orientation of new employees as well as decision-making. Group discussions should form part of such training, giving all participants the opportunity to share their views, and allowing everyone to participate in the programme. Through group discussions, participants would provide crucial information that would add value to the self-management training programme. Role-plays are also essential as these would create conducive environments for the participants. Collage exercises can be used to assess whether the self-management training programme met the participants' expectations, and to explore possible improvements to such training in the future.

- **Methodology of a self-management training programme** – Concerning the methodology of a self-management training programme, better results could be obtained if various approaches to learning could be used. This includes activities in which participants can demonstrate different skills of self-management, as well as role-playing, collage exercises and group discussions.

Concerning the specific research findings, the following conclusions were reached:

- Self-management training contributed to the participants' environment mastery and self-acceptance. This means that the participants of the experimental group were more sensitive to environment mastery and self-acceptance before and after the self-management training programmes, and accepted themselves the way they were. They

prioritised making appointments in a file in order to get work done at a specific time without any interruption, and had a process in place to computerize tasks.

- Self-management training contributed to participants' positive relations with others. This was demonstrated after the participants had practised their learning outcomes in the work environment one month after the self-management training programme
- After the self-management training programme, participants also showed higher skill in empowering subordinates and attending to assignments that others were supposed to do. This indicates that the individuals who participated in the self-management training programme, compared with those who were not involved, had a greater understanding of empowering others.
- Self-management training programmes are needed in the Public Service of Namibia to improve the attitude of public servants towards work, and also to improve work performance.
- The self-management training programme increased participants' awareness of 'self-management' as well as the strategies involved in the self-management training programme.

The self-management training programme did not have a significant impact on the other aspects of life satisfaction and psychological empowerment. It is possible that these aspects are not easy to change in a short time.

- The evaluation given by the supervisors' of the experimental group indicated that the participants had improved in all items assessed such as; emotional intelligence, work engagement, time-management, self-monitoring, self-esteem, self-efficacy, creativity, stress-management and interpersonal communication as a result of the self-management training programme.
- Concerning the qualitative evaluation, it seems that the programme contributed to learning about self-management, components of self-management, and its contribution to the Public Service of Namibia.

5.11 LIMITATIONS

The following are the identified limitations of the research:

- No previous research had been conducted into self-management training programmes in the Namibian context.
- This study was limited to the Ministry of Education headquarters. Ideally, the study should have included participants from other Ministries.
- The measurement focused only on the selected participants and no replacements could be made if participants voluntarily withdrew from the study. This was due to the fact that the measurements were focused on pre-test, post-test and post-post-test measurement in which participants were expected to participate from the beginning of the measurement.

- The time-frame for the self-management training programme was insufficient, although in monetary terms it was not an issue, at least three days for this type of programme should be considered.
- The items in the Time-Management Questionnaire were too many; fewer items should be used.
- There was no comparison made between the supervisors of the experimental group and those of the control group to assess the behavioural changes one month after the self-management training programme as a result of the training intervention

5.12 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR SELF-MANAGEMENT TRAINING PROGRAMME

The following recommendations and suggestions for related research concerning the self-management training programme in the Ministry of Education can be made:

- It is suggested that further research should accommodate participants from other Ministries (i.e. two participants from each Ministry, with both participants being randomly assigned to experimental and control groups).
- Furthermore, it is also suggested that in future, training should be conducted for at least three days in order to provide participants with enough training time. It was observed during the presentation that participants had shown a need to discuss their personal

growth issues in a facilitative environment. Both the presenters and the participants in the self-management training programme played a major role in this regard.

- It is imperative for organisations to ensure that self-management training programmes are implemented and monitored on a regular basis. This will ensure that the training has improved the behaviours of the individuals who participated in the training, as well as the organisation as a whole.
- It is strongly suggested that the supervisors of the control group should assess the behavioural changes of the control group and compare them with those of the experimental group.
- Managers should participate in the self-management training in order to be equipped with skills and strategies for managing themselves, as this would assist them to manage others. The self-management training programme is not only aimed at non-management employees, but is for all employees, irrespective of their positions.
- The future research should make it clear that it is crucial for managers to attend self-management training programmes and share the training content with their subordinates. This would assist both managers and subordinates when they go back to their workplaces to implement the training content effectively, and also to practise it.
- It would also be appropriate for managers to attend such training because they might also lack self-management skills.

- Self-management training programmes should not be done in seclusion. On-going development efforts should be undertaken by the organisations, since the organisation could harvest diverse benefits through this.

- Self-management training programmes should not be centralized, but should be extended within ministries or organisations in other regions.

- Self-management training should focus on the orientation of new employees and on decision-making.

- Based on the positive responses of the participants' in the self-management training programme, it is strongly recommended that each institution or organisation should cultivate a culture of learning in order to minimize negative life events among the employees. It is also highly essential for self-management training programmes to be considered by organisations and by individuals as a responsibility.

- Lastly, other researchers are motivated to participate in this type of study and to promote well-being in organizational set-ups.

5.13 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The following are the recommendations for future research concerning self-management training:

- Future research should be conducted at a different Ministry/Office/Agency to see whether behavioural changes will occur as a result of a self-management training programme. This will positively generalize the study to the Public Service of Namibia.
- A bigger sample size is recommended for this type of study to secure continuity if some participants withdraw from the study.
- Longitudinal research should be undertaken to determine the long-term effects of a self-management training programme. A follow-up measurement may be conducted five to ten months after the programme, which would further illuminate the true effect.
- Comparisons should be made between the supervisors of the experimental and control groups.

5.14 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter focused on the results of the study. The results of the quantitative study were reported, and the means of the differences between the experimental and control groups based on various measuring instruments were provided. The feedback from the participants of the experimental group concerning the self-management training programme was reported. The qualitative results with regard to the experimental group discussions and collage exercise participants were indicated. Qualitative results were reported by percentage with regard to

the experimental group. The evaluation given by supervisors of the experimental group also contributed to the qualitative results of the study.

In this chapter the results of this study was discussed. The conclusions, limitation and recommendations for self-management training programme as well as for the future research were made.

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APPENDICES

- Appendix A The Self-management training programme manual
- Appendix B Role-play on cultural diversity (X and Y community)
- Appendix C A letter to the Ministry of Education asking permission to conduct a research and to make use of the training venue and the overhead projector by the researcher
- Appendix D A letter from the Ministry of Education authorized the researcher to conduct a research study and to make use of the training venue and the overhead projector by the researcher
- Appendix E A scale developed for supervisors' of the experimental group
- Appendix F Research Instruments
- Appendix G A letter written by the researcher through the Training Division of the Ministry of Education informing the Directorates to nominate their staff-members to participate in the research study.
- Appendix H Correspondences made to the supervisors' of the experimental group informing them to evaluate their subordinates
- Appendix I A letter to the research participants confirming the conduction of the self-management training programme
- Appendix J Correspondences to the participants of control group informing them participating in the self-management training programme
- Appendix K A letter from the Training Division in the Ministry of Education informing directorates to nominate their staff-members to participate in the research.
- Appendix L Copyright by Editorial Safeliz