

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LOCUS OF CONTROL AND THE BIG FIVE
PERSONALITY DIMENSIONS AMONG BLACK MANAGERS IN NAMIBIA

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the relation of locus of control to the “big five” personality dimensions (Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to Experience, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness) for 36 black managers in the private and semi-state organizations in Namibia. Spector’s (1988) work locus of control scale and the Revised NEO Personality Inventory were used to assess locus of control and the big five factors, respectively. It was hypothesized that external locus of control would correlate with low scores on Neuroticism and high scores on Extraversion, Openness to Experience, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness. Contrary to the hypothesis, internal locus of control correlated significantly ($p < .05$) with high scores on Extraversion, Openness to Experience, and Agreeableness. The correlation coefficients for Conscientiousness and Neuroticism did not reach statistical significance. The sample reported an internal locus of control. Although the sample’s mean scores for all the five factors fell in the average range, the sample had relatively higher mean scores on Conscientiousness and Extraversion, and relatively lower mean score on Agreeableness than the normative sample. The mean scores for Neuroticism and Openness to Experience did not differ much from that of the normative sample. The results of this study are, in most cases, consistent with findings of studies that investigated the same or similar personality traits, which suggest relevancy of personality constructs investigated in this study among research participants. The results are discussed in context of their relation to the findings of previous studies and controversy over cultural portability of personality assessment instruments in general. Suggestions and recommendations for future research and practice of personality assessment in work context are discussed.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my parents, Jesay and Emilia Kapolo.

DECLARATIONS

I hereby declare that this thesis is a true reflection of my research and it has not been submitted for a degree at any other institute of higher learning.

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CHAPTER 1

GENERAL ORIENTATION

1.1 Introduction

One of the myths resulting from the apartheid history in Namibia and South Africa is the belief that black people do not have the required personality characteristics for management positions (Human, 1991). Hence, it has been argued that placing black people in management positions as part of voluntary or government enforced affirmative action programs will lower productivity of organizations. However, not much research has been conducted to test the validity of this assumption by assessing personality of black people in management positions. This research will investigate the relationship between locus of control and the big five personality dimensions for black managers in parastatal and private companies in Namibia.

The concept of locus of control derives from Rotter's (1954; 1966; 1990) theory of cognitive social learning and it relates to an individual's perception of whether one has or does not have control over events in his/her life. A person who attributes control to internal factors such as ability, skills, or effort is said to have an internal locus of control and is called an internal. On the other hand, a person who attributes control to external factors such as luck, fate, chance, or powerful others is said to have an external locus of control and is called an external. In addition, people with

an internal locus of control perceive contingencies between their actions and resulting behavioural outcomes, which externals do not perceive.

Studies that have investigated the relationship between locus of control and performance among managers show significant differences between externals and internals. Compared to externals, managers with an internal locus of control are found to cope better with stress, more satisfied with their jobs, are more comfortable with participatory management, be more capable, innovative, and successful (Luthans, 1998). Based on the results of these studies, an argument has been put forward that in the successful management of organizations, an ideal manager must have an “internal locus of control” (Spector, 1982; Mitchell, Smyser & Weed, 1975). Furthermore, research has consistently reported that black people have an external locus of control, while white people have an internal locus of control (Berry, Poortinga, Segall & Dasen, 1992; Dyal, 1984). Thus, by implication, these findings suggest that white people, are the most suitable candidates for management positions.

In view of the literature, one would expect black managers in Namibia to espouse an external locus of control considering their experience with racial discrimination, limited opportunities availed to black people during the apartheid era, and the fact that Namibia is a developing country. Such assumption might be premature because several studies have shown that managers, as compared to other employees and the general population, tend to perceive an internal locus of control and internal locus of control is positively related to the level of a person in an organizational hierarchy and

the length of time one spent in a position (Harvey, 1971; Valecha, 1972; Mitchell, Smyser, & Weed, 1975; Gilad, 1982; Ward, 1989;). In addition, Smith, Dugan, and Trompenaars (1997) found that people in higher positions, regardless their sex, race, or country of residence tend to be more internal than those in lower positions.

The five factor model of personality classifies personality traits into five groups: Extraversion (i.e. sociable, assertive), Agreeableness (i.e. cooperative, good-natured), Conscientiousness (i.e. responsible, achievement-oriented), Neuroticism (i.e. tense, insecure, nervous), and Openness to Experience (i.e. imaginative, intellectual) (Digman, 1990). Research has revealed that elevated scores on conscientiousness and extraversion and low scores on agreeableness are valid predictors of good managerial performance (Barrick, & Mount, 1991; 1993). Furthermore, internal locus of control is associated with emotional stability, conscientiousness, extraversion, and low agreeableness (Crandall & Crandall, 1983; Morrison, 1997). Studies conducted in different cultures with the use of NEO personality inventory have not very often resulted in cross-cultural differences in scores (Digman, 1990; Costa & McCrae, 1992). Again, the scores yielded by the NEO personality inventory have correlated significantly with other measures of the big-five factors or related traits (McCrae & Costa, 1987; Digman, 1990). Taken together, these findings can be regarded as supporting evidence for culture fairness and construct validity of the NEO Personality inventory and the universality of the big-five factors.

1.2 Assessment of Personality in Organizations in Namibia

Most organizations in Namibia do not assess personality during the personnel selection process or for human resources development purposes. The tendency not to use personality assessment instruments can be attributed to black peoples' negative experience with personality assessment, as with other psychological assessments, which also made it difficult for them to see the relevancy of personality to work behavior or performance. At most, black people construe personality assessment as a strategy to deny them job opportunities, maintain the status quo, and to justify racial discrimination in employment.

During the apartheid era, very few, if any, black people held management positions in Namibia. Black people were in majority in clerical occupations and as laborers, and often regardless their qualifications. Even though this exclusion was the consequence of the implementation of the Job Reservation legislation (1972), it had been justified that it resulted from black peoples' inability to handle complicated tasks that comprise managerial roles. In general, many organizations in Namibia have been characterized as being made up of white management and black employees.

Following Namibia's independence from South Africa in March 1990, the government of Namibia proclaimed laws that prohibit the practice of any form of discrimination. In this regard organizations were expected to abolish discriminatory

labor practices and to start employing black people in jobs they are trained for and are able to execute, including managerial positions. Having not been satisfied with the pace of development in increasing the number of black people in management of some private companies, the Government proclaimed the Affirmative Action Act (1998). This Act requires organizations to revisit their employment practices in order to ensure that they do not unfairly prevent previously disadvantaged people from entering occupations from which they were previously excluded. In addition, organizations are also required to give preferential treatment to those people to give them positions for which they are suitably qualified even if they not necessarily best candidates.

Commercialization of several Government institutions and implementation of affirmative action has facilitated quite a number of black people in management positions. It follows then that black people are in management because of affirmative action or nepotism, because blacks have an upper hand in appointment of management of semi-state organizations. This then reinforces a long-held stereotype that blacks do not have qualities required for management positions. In these appointments people usually assume that the merit criteria is not applied.

The stereotype of incompetence has been created and maintained by the findings of studies that compared performance of blacks and whites on a number of psychological assessment tools and reported blacks to perform worse than the whites. The consequence of these findings is the belief that black people are inherently

inferior to and less capable than whites. The survey of Human (1991) revealed that white management students in South Africa believe that blacks and women do not have what it takes to be a manager or do not possess personality characteristics necessary for good managerial performance.

1.3 Problem Statement

The validity of the contention that black people do not have the necessary personality traits for managerial roles has not been established and the contention does not sound plausible for a number of reasons. First, the contention is informed by data from general population and research has shown that managers differ from general population on a number of personality traits (Gilad, 1982; Morrison, 1997). Second, it has not been established whether the results for black people are a true reflection of their psychological function or a function of the unreliable assessment instruments (Berry, Poortinga, Segall, & Dasen, 1992). Third, most of those studies were conducted during the hey-days of racism or apartheid periods when black people were oppressed and denied opportunities to meaningfully influence the course of their lives. It might be possible now that the social and political conditions of black people have improved, that the issue of psychological testing in work organizations can be revisited.

With the extension of research and application of personality to organizational settings, individual differences have not received adequate research attention.

Research has mainly focused on how different personality traits relate to organizational variables such as job performance, job satisfaction, or motivation. This lack of study is surprising in the light of findings in the general population suggesting that certain individuals, such as blacks and women, tend to report personality traits found to impact negatively on job performance. It will be worthwhile to investigate whether differences observed in general population persist in organizational settings or in a sample such as that of managers.

The noted lack of research in psychological assessment and organizational behavior in Namibia is another point of concern. Popularity of personality assessment in other countries, coupled with research findings suggesting the impact of personality on work behavior of individuals in management positions, demonstrate the need for investigating personality issues among managers in Namibia. Furthermore, the work behavior of managers can have a considerable impact on employees and subsequently on organizations' performance. With the globalization of the labor market, people from different culture groups would have to be assessed with same instruments. Therefore, the portability of assessment instruments to other countries and cultures needs to be investigated.

1.4 Objective of the Study and Research Question

The concept of locus of control is problematic in the sense that several factors such as culture, education, and social environment have an influence on the development

of locus of control. It is however not the intention of this study to investigate and explain locus of control by itself. The objective of this study is to investigate the pattern of relationship between locus of control and the big five personality dimensions for black managers in Namibia.

The study extends the work of Morrison (1997) by exploring the relationship between locus of control and the big five factors for black managers. The objective is to determine whether the findings reported by Morrison (1997) will be replicated in the present study. Tallent (1992) noted that using different instruments concurrently can be an effective method of assessing the validity of the instruments because if two or more instruments which purport to measure the same or related variable give the same results, it can be taken as an indication of the validity of those instruments. In other words, obtaining similar diagnostic indicators from different measures increases confidence in the accuracy of the inferences drawn.

The research question for this study is: What is the relationship between locus of control and the big five personality dimensions among black managers in Namibia?

1.5 Exposition of the Chapters

The thesis is divided into seven chapters with the first chapter forming the general orientation to the thesis. The second chapter will deal with the theoretical foundation of the study.

Literature on locus of control and how it relates to organizational behavior and managerial performance is presented in the third chapter.

The fourth chapter deals with literature on the big five factors and how they relate to organizational behavior and managerial performance.

The relationship between locus of control and the big five factors, cultural effects, and hypothesis is presented in the fifth chapter.

The sixth chapter deals with the empirical study.

The seventh chapter deals with the implication of the study results, limitations, and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

Luthans' (1998) model of organizational behavior provided the theoretical framework for this study. Organizational behavior is a field that applies behavioral approach in investigating and explaining human behavior in work organizations. In fact organizational behavior has its roots in behaviorism and it is founded on cognitive social learning approach, the latest form or group of behaviorism (Luthans, 1998). Before presenting Luthans' model of organizational behavior it is necessary to explain behaviorism and trace its development up to the cognitive social learning approach stage. This process will provide an understanding of complexities of human behavior and postulates that contributed to cognitive social learning theory.

2.2 Foundations of the Organizational Behavior Model

Behaviorism is a school of thought that ascribes to the notion that the subject matter of psychology and scientific investigation must only be observable behavior and objective scientific methods must be used in conducting investigations (Marx & Cronan-Hillix, 1987). Behaviorism raised strong criticism on introspection and explaining behavior in terms of feelings, thoughts and values. With time,

behaviorism has undergone modifications and different theorists in the movement provided different perspectives on behavior. This modification or evolution process resulted in four distinctive groups of behaviorism: classical behaviorism or S-R psychology, radical behaviorism, moderate behaviorism, and cognitive social learning theory (Meyer, 1997).

The first group, classical behaviorism or S-R psychology, is represented by Watson and Pavlov, who are regarded as the founding figures of behaviorism (Marx & Cronan-Hillix, 1987). However, Watson is credited as the founder of behaviorism. In classical behaviorists' view, behavior is made up of two elements: stimuli and response, hence the name S-R psychologist. A stimulus is defined as any object in the environment or physiological change in an organism that causes an organism to act. A response is any observable action made by an organism in response to a stimulus. Watson theorized that all responses are evoked by stimuli and learning takes place when a connection is made between a stimulus and a response. Hence, their studies aimed at identifying which stimulus elicits which response so that prediction can be made knowing either a stimulus or response.

The theory of Skinner (1974) is representative of radical behaviorism, the second form of behaviorism. Skinner (1974) observed that the S-R formula provided by the classical behaviorism could only apply to reflex, which he calls respondent behavior. He further theorized that an organism produces a behavior spontaneously without any identifiable stimulus preceding it. He discovered through his conditioning

experiments that it is not what precedes the behavior that matters much, but what follows the response. Skinner also learned that the consequence of the response offered a better explanation of behavior as it determines whether a response would be repeated or not. Behavior followed by a desirable consequence is usually repeated while if followed by an undesirable event, would not be repeated. Skinner's (1974) theory shifts the attention from a relationship between a stimulus and a response to a relationship between a response and the consequence of a response. To account for spontaneous or emergent behavior, Skinner concedes that emergent behavior affects the environment and it is this effect that controls it in turn. Because of the effect emergent behavior has on the environment, it is called operant behavior.

The theory of Dollard and Miller (1950) represents the third group, moderate behaviorism, S-O-R psychology or subjective behaviorism. The moderate behaviorist inserted the O for organism between a stimulus and response, which changed the S-R formula to S-O-R. They theorized that an organism has drives and needs that act as a mediator between a stimulus and response. According to Dollard and Miller (1950), human behavior is composed of habits and drives. A habit is a connection between a stimulus and response and a drive is an urge that causes an organism to act. In the moderate behaviorism, drives are regarded as motivating factors for an organism to act or respond. The two types of drives are: primary and secondary drives. Primary drives are biological needs such as a need for food or sex. Secondary needs are social or material needs whose satisfaction would lead to a satisfaction of a primary need.

Albert Bandura, Julian Rotter, and Walter Mischel are the most important figures in the development of the cognitive social learning theory (Meyer, 1997). However, Albert Bandura is credited as the father of cognitive social learning theory, probably because he contributed more to the encompassing framework of the theory than the rest. The cognitive social learning theory is a combination of ideas from behaviorism, with some modifications, and the cognitive approach to human behavior. The classical, radical, and moderate behaviorists' views of human behavior are criticized as being mechanistic and deterministic. Mechanistic because an individual is not given any role in the process and is portrayed as an object from which a stimulus evokes a response automatically. Deterministic, because human behavior is totally determined by stimuli in an external environment.

The cognitive approach is also criticized as being mentalistic by emphasizing the role of cognitive constructs in determining human behavior. Tolman (1959) theorized that an organism does not simply act in response to a stimulus, but it does so to achieve a goal. He postulated that through experience an organism learns to associate events with consequences and on this basis, an organism can form an expectation of what would follow a particular response. Hence, he concedes that behavior is purposive as it serves to meet a particular expectation. According to Tolman (1959), expectancy is a cognitive construct that usually precedes an action, which indicates that before engaging in an activity an organism is aware of the goal to be achieved by such activities.

The cognitive social learning theorists have extended and made improvements to cognitive and behavioral approaches and integrated them into a comprehensive theory. From the cognitive theory, the cognitive social learning theorists have borrowed the cognitive constructs, operationalized them and inserted them in the formula of human behavior. Like the moderate behaviorist, the cognitive social learning theorists' formula also has an O representing an organism but they assign variables different from those presented by moderate behaviorism. In the cognitive social learning theory, the organism represents personal variables, which are cognitive in nature, such as perception, personality, attitudes, motivation, and learning. The previous theorists did not make use of these variables because they consider them to be subjective, of mere speculations, and at best, against the principles of behaviorism. It is interesting to note that both Tolman and the moderate behaviorist, Dollard and Miller, are regarded as precursors of the cognitive social learning theory (Meyer, 1997).

Despite their use of cognitive constructs, the cognitive social learning theorists are still considered as behaviorist because they have operationally defined the cognitive constructs and developed the instruments to measure those constructs. Rotter (1990) insists that a response on a questionnaire or inventory is observable and measurable behavior. Another reason for including them into behaviorism movement is the fact that like other behaviorists, they recognize that behavior should be the focus of scientific investigation for which objective methods must be used. According to Meyer (1997), the cognitive social learning theorists have adopted and strictly

adhered to empirical investigation methodology throughout their investigations. In addition, cognitive social learning theorists also believe, even to a lesser degree, that behavior is learned through interaction with an external environment, implying the social origin of behavior.

The cognitive social learning theorists have also changed the structure of the human behavior formula presented by the moderate behaviorist. The structure of the formula they advanced as an explanation of human behavior is not linear or one way but a triangle reflecting constant reciprocal determination among organism, the environment, and behavior (see figure 2.1).

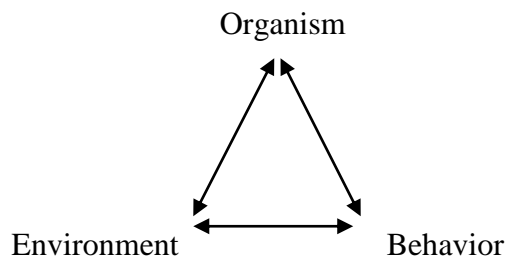


Figure 2.1 Schematic representation of reciprocal determinism process

Mischel (1968; 1973; 1993) advanced the proposition that neither the individual characteristics nor the environmental situation can predict behavior on its own because behavior is a product of interaction between the two factors. It was Bandura (1977) who advanced this proposition and called it reciprocal determination. According to Bandura (1986), human behavior is determined by three factors: the environment, personal variables, and behavior itself. The relationship among these

factors is portrayed in fig. 2.1. The bi-directional arrows indicate direction of influences between the points on the triangle.

Unlike the other behaviorists who portrayed an individual as a passive reactant to environmental stimuli, the learning theorists regarded an individual as an active participant in the process of producing behavior. According to Bandura (1986) individuals have social cognitive variables that mediate between environmental situation and resulting behavior. People perceive and process information about their environment and form cognitive factors that in return guide their behavior. Bandura (1986) identified the functions performed by an individual as symbolizing, thinking ahead, learning vicariously, self-reflecting, and regulating his/her behavior.

Rotter (1966), on the other hand, identified only one cognitive-social person variable, locus of control, which is one of the variables investigated in this study. Locus of control is a general expectancy about an individual's ability to influence events and one's action to be recognized and reinforced. Rotter (1966) advanced the argument that the probability of an individual performing a particular behavior is determined by expectancy and reinforcement value. In deciding to engage in an activity a person asks the following questions: Am I able to perform this activity?, Will I be rewarded? Is the reward of value? With regard to locus of control expectancy, an individual can either espouse an internal locus of control, meaning that he/she perceives him/herself capable and believes that his/her action would be rewarded, or an external locus of control, doubting his/her abilities and perceiving no connection

between his/her action and reward. Concerning reinforcement value, different people value different reinforcers. Differences in locus of control and valuing rewards or reinforcers are what Rotter (1966) believes to account for differences in personality.

Mischel (1993) provided a list of cognitive person variables, which includes those provided by Rotter and Bandura: competencies, encoding strategies, subjective values, a self-regulating system, and expectancy. According to Mischel (1993, p. 403), cognitive person variables are “psychological variables that interact with each other as an individual interprets the social world and acts in it. These variables suggest useful ways of conceptualizing and studying specifically how the qualities of the person influence the impact of stimuliand how each person generates distinctive complex behavior patterns in interacting with the conditions of his/her life.”

Mischel's (1993) definition of personal constructs parallels definitions of personality advanced by other theorist (Meyer, Moore, & Viljoen, 1997). Over the years quite a number of personality traits have been identified. The big five model is an attempt to reduce the number of personality traits by grouping them into five groups.

2.3 The Five Factor Model of Personality

The five factor model of personality originated from the work of Fiske (1949), who in failing to replicate the 16-factor personality suggested by Cattell (1947), only identified the five factors. Fiske (1949) conducted a study, using 21 of Cattell's bipolar scales, in an attempt to identify the basic personality traits. Tupes and Christal (1961) conducted a factor analysis study on Cattell's 30 bipolar scales and only identified the five factors instead of 16 reported by Cattell. Norman (1963), Borgatta (1964), and Smith (1967) conducted studies that yielded results corroborating that of Fiske (1949) and Tupes and Christal (1961).

According to McCrae and Costa, (1996), the five factor model of personality is composed of five components, Basic Tendencies, Characteristic Adaptations, Objective Biography, External Influences, and Dynamic Process, which interact dynamically. The Basic Tendencies are the big five personality dimensions Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to Experience, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness. According to Plomin & Daniels (1987), the Basic Tendencies are biologically or genetically inherited but undergo a development process that is only finalized in adulthood.

Characteristic Adaptation, the second component, consists of acquired competencies such as skills, abilities, habits, beliefs, and attitudes that result from individuals' interaction with their environment (McCrae & Costa, 1996). Self-Concept is

regarded as the most important element of Characteristic Adaptation as it, in return, influences how an individual perceives his/her environment and relates to the world.

The third component, Objective Biography, is the sum of what an individual has done or experienced up to a certain point in time or, what Piedmont (1998 p.76) coined as “the testament of one’s outward life”.

External Influences is the fourth component and it represents an individual’s psychological environment, such as culture, socialization, familial interactions, and socio-economic factors (McCrae & Costa, 1996). These external factors influence the process of development of the Basic Tendencies.

The fifth component, Dynamic Process, illustrates the interaction amongst the four components, which demonstrates that an individual is always in a state of becoming. McCrae & Costa (1996) theorized that there are two types of dynamics: universal and differential. The universal dynamics elucidate that the “ongoing functioning of the individual in creating adaptations and expressing them in thoughts, feelings, and behavior, is regulated, in part by, universal cognitive, affective, and volitional mechanisms, whereas differential dynamics illustrate that some personality processes are differentially affected by basic tendencies of the individual, including personality traits” (McCrae & Costa, 1996, p. 75).

The five-factor model of personality illustrates how the big five factors fit in the personality structure and how other factors, such as characteristic adaptations and specifically self-concept, and external psychological environmental factors, impact on their development and manifestation.

2.4 Organizational Behavior Model

Drawing from the cognitive social learning theory, Luthans (1998), in his organizational behavior model, explains organizational behavior in reciprocal determination among organizational environment, employees' personality characteristics, and behavior or performance. The reciprocal determination implies that the individual, the environment, and the performance outcomes are in constant interaction and influence each other reciprocally. It is thus theorized, in the organizational behavior model, that personality of organizational participants mediate between the environmental situation and the resulting performance.

According to Luthans (1998), basing the organizational model on cognitive learning theory facilitates the realization of the objectives of the organizational behavior model, which are to understand, predict, and manage human behavior in an organization. Management is the ultimate goal of the model that, if it is achieved, implies that employees are performing at an optimum level and an organization becomes productive.

The cognitive aspect of the cognitive social learning theory contributes to understanding of organizational behavior. They have not only identified personal variables that influence behavior, but have identified the mechanism underlying behavior. For example, on the basis of Rotter's (1966) locus of control orientation, explanations can be advanced as to why a person with an external locus of control is not performing. This can be done in terms of expectancy and reinforcement value. A few possible explanations can be that a person with an external locus of control does not believe he/she can do it, or he/she does not believe that performance would make any difference, or does not value rewards attached to performance. The trait theorists (Burger, 1990) would not provide such an explanation because they are only concerned with identification of relations between personality traits and behavior. To the above scenario, a trait theorist would say that, "A person is not performing because he/she has an external locus of control and people with external locus of control do not perform."

The cognitive social learning theory makes it clear that behavior cannot only be predicted by the environmental factors, but also by personality. Taking into account all the factors that contribute to the product, behavior in this case, increases the accuracy of predictions that can be made between two factors. Mischel (1983) criticized the trait approach theorist for predicting behavior on the basis of personality without considering situational factors. He further argues that ignoring situational factors explains the weak correlation between trait measures and behavior. According to Johns (1996), organisational behavior can only be managed if it is

explained and predicted. This entails establishing relationships between behavior and its causes as well as the process or mechanism by which such relationships are produced.

Even though this study did not investigate the relationship among personality, environmental factors, and performance, Luthans' (1998) organizational behavior model worked out to be the most appropriate theoretical foundation for the study. First, it is based on cognitive social learning theory from which one of the variables investigated in the study, namely locus of control, derives. Second, it is the cognitive social learning theorist that empirically and theoretically elucidated the importance of personality in explaining human behavior. Third, the study is conducted in an organizational setting which is the focus of the organizational behavior field.

In Luthans' (1998) organizational behavior model, organizational participants are portrayed as active agents who perceive and evaluate information about their environment and form cognitive representations that in return guide their behavior in interacting with their environment. In support of this line of thinking is Davis-Blake and Pfeffer's (1989) claim that individuals possess stable personality traits that significantly influence how they emotionally and behaviorally react to organizational settings.

To date, empirical research that investigated the relationship between individuals' personality and work performance have identified some personality factors that relate

to work behavior. The relationship between personality and work behavior is found to be stronger for individuals in professional and management positions, an indication that personality has more impact in these jobs. Consistent with this view is Miner, (1987) and Bell and Staw's (1989) assertions that the unstructured nature of the work of managers makes it subject to influence by the personality of a job incumbent. In addition previous research has indicated that many of the behaviors that are likely to be affected by personality are central to managerial work (Mintzberg, 1973).

Mehrabian (2000) compared the predictive validity of personality and mental intelligence for work and career success. Even though the result indicates a positive correlation between intelligence and work success, such correlation has become negligible when contrasted to personality factors. In other words intelligence, in comparison with personality factors, does not account for additional variance in work and career success. This finding provides empirical evidence for denouncing reliance on intelligence tests as sole predictors of job performance (Sternberg, Wagner, Williams, & Horvath, 1995).

Furthermore, Staudinger, Maciel, Smith, and Baltes (1998) reported a stronger positive correlation of personality variables than intelligence for performance on wisdom –related tasks. This demonstrates the usefulness of personality to wisdom in life planning. Saville, Sik, Nyfield, and Hackston (1996) demonstrated empirically that personality factors, in contrast to intelligence, are more predictive of job success

of senior and middle-level managers. Together these results help elucidate the line of reasoning linking personality to job performance of managers and the need to investigate personality for managers.

The importance of personality for work behavior is underscored by the number of studies devoted to the area and findings that suggest association between certain personality traits and job performance. Goleman (1995) advances the view that human talents which have been referred to as personality, and which he calls emotional intelligence, account for a significant amount of variation in success in personal life and career. The noted interest in using personality to explain individual differences in achievement arises out of disappointment with mental ability measures to provide meaningful explanation for differences in work behavior and job performance. While Goleman (1995) claims that both mental ability and emotional intelligence are needed, he highlights the importance of personality over mental ability by claiming that the former makes it possible for the latter to manifest.

CHAPTER 3

LOCUS OF CONTROL

3.1 Definition

The construct of locus of control derives from Rotter's theory of social learning and it relates to people's perception of whether they have or do not have control over events in their lives (Rotter, 1954; 1966; 1990). A person who attributes control to internal factors such as ability, skills, or effort is said to have an internal locus of control and is called an internal. On the other hand, a person who attributes control to external factors such as luck, fate, chance, or powerful others is said to have an external locus of control and is called an external. Another difference between externals and internals is that internals perceive contingencies between their actions and outcomes, which externals do not perceive. Rotter, Seeman, and Liverant (1962) identified the third group consisting of people called bilocals. Bilocals fall in the middle of the locus of control continuum and attribute control of events equally to both external and internal factors. Not much is known about this group because research has largely ignored it.

3.2 Development of Locus of Control Orientation

There has been a limited number of studies that have investigated or aimed at identifying antecedents of individual differences in locus of control. The social learning theory makes it clear that locus of control is a product of social learning. The concept of locus of control is problematic in the sense that several factors such as culture, organizational culture, education, and other factors in a social environment have an impact on the development of locus of control. In addition, locus of control is found to be situational rather than an enduring or stable personality characteristic and it interacts reciprocally with experience (Anderson, 1977; Lefcourt, 1982).

The fact that locus of control measures differentiate individuals at group or cultural levels has led some researchers to conclude that locus of control is a cultural phenomenon and it is contingent upon certain conditions in the social environment (Hsieh, Shybut, & Lotsof, 1969; Levenson, 1974; 1981; Lefcourt, 1982). It follows that people develop external or internal locus of control as a reaction to social interaction outcomes or experience in their social environment. Lefcourt (1982) observed that a person who encounters with powerful others and is denied an opportunity to attain desired ends in a process, is more likely to develop an external locus of control.

In an attempt to elucidate why some individuals develop an external locus of control and others an internal locus of control, Carton and Nowicki (1994) conducted a critical review of studies that investigated the causes of individual differences in locus of control among children. On the basis of the findings of those studies they concluded that, for children, the treatment they receive from their parents is a determining factor of whether a child develops an external or internal locus of control. The results of the studies reviewed, suggest that children who were treated consistently and granted autonomy, and were provided with warm, supportive relationships reported an internal locus of control. While these findings are in the same direction as those reported among adults it is more appropriate to look at the studies conducted among adults.

Research has shown that people in western, industrialized countries, as well as men tend to be more internal than those in non-western, developing countries, and women respectively (Spector, 1982; Berry, Poortinga, Segall, & Dasen, 1992). Cross-cultural studies conducted in the United States of America, revealed that Caucasian and higher economic status people are more likely to report an internal locus of control than lower economic status people or members of minority groups such as African, Spanish, and Native Americans (Gurin, Gurin, & Morrison, 1978; Dyal, 1984). However, Dyal (1984) further reported that differences in locus of control between whites and blacks, unlike other minority groups, remained, even when the socioeconomic status was controlled.

The study by Jessor, Graves, Hanson and Jessor (1968) reported a strong positive correlation between objective access to opportunity and perceived control. Subjects' positions in the opportunity structure were determined by their positions on eight variables namely; age, marital status, primary language, occupation, education, religion, inter-generation mobility, and social participation. Objective access to opportunity is defined as the degree to which one is able to achieve valued outcomes or what he/she wants. In summary, these findings imply that opportunity to achieve desired ends is not entirely dependent, on one's effort.

The findings of the above-cited study led Lefcourt (1982) to conclude that it is not the ethnic group membership or sex per se, but the degree to which one has access to secure valuable ends, that determines a person's locus of control. However, locus of control has come to be associated with group membership simply because ethnic group membership plays a role in getting access to opportunities in a society where people are treated according to their race or ethnic groups. Although these factors have provided insights into the determinants of locus of control, they might not be the real determinants of locus of control. Thus locus of control orientation reflects the extent to which external vs. internal factors is perceived as leading towards positive outcomes. Dyl (1984) claims that individuals' locus of control scores correspond with the actual degree of control that they can influence events in their lives in the real world.

Smith, Dugan, and Trompenaars (1997) provided convincing evidence to the contention that locus of control is influenced by the structures of social disadvantage and advantage in a society. The sample for this study comprised managers and employees from business organizations in 14 countries who, among other things, completed Rotter's locus of control scale or a translated version thereof. The findings suggested that men and women in senior position or higher status scored more internally than women in general, and men and women in lower positions or lower status. A pan-cultural factor analysis of locus of control items revealed that gender and status differences resulted from Effort and Socio-Political control variables. This implies that the main determining factor for locus of control orientation is the socio-political control.

The results of Smith et al.'s (1997) study provide counter-evidence for claims that race and sex influence locus of control because females and people from different races were found to espouse an internal locus of control. In addition, Blau (1993), using Spector's (1988) work locus of control scale, reported no relationship between locus of control scores and demographic factors such as race, sex, age, or marital status in organizational setting.

Gurin, Gurin, and Morrison (1978) observed that African American's high external score or external locus of control is due to their experience with discrimination. They further caution that scores of external locus of control for minority groups should be treated with great care as those scores may reflect a correct perception of a

socio-political environment in which they have very little or no personal control. This view is also supported by Levenson (1981) arguing that externality may reflect a belief in control by powerful others, which may express a genuine appraisal of situations and not necessarily a maladjusted personality. Consistent with this line of thinking is Gurin, Gurin, Lao, and Beatie's (1969) finding that Negroes who attributed control to external factors were more likely to exhibit innovative behavior than those who blamed themselves for their difficulties.

3.3 Locus of Control and Managerial Work Behavior

Locus of control concept has received substantial research attention since its introduction and has been used to explain behavior in different situations. Studies that investigated the role of locus of control in organizational settings have revealed the utility of locus of control in explaining human behavior in organizations. Locus of control is regarded as a psychological characteristic by which managers can be distinguished from the general population and their effectiveness can be predicted (Gilad, 1982; Ward, 1989). A line of evidence has demonstrated that, in comparison to the general population and non-managerial employees, managers tend to espouse an internal locus of control (Mitchell, Smyser, & Weed, 1975; Harvey, 1971; Morrison, 1997). Furthermore, research conducted to date has associated internal locus of control variable with effective management (Spector, 1982; Johns, 1996).

Anderson (1977) conducted a longitudinal field study that investigated the relationship between locus of control of managers, perceived stress, coping behavior, and job performance. The study was conducted in Pennsylvania following the Hurricane Agnes flood, which caused extensive damage to many businesses. Business managers, who participated in the study, were interviewed and their coping behavior, locus of control, perceived stress, and organizational performance were assessed eight months after the flood. Locus of control and organizational performance were again assessed after two and half years. The results of the first phase assessment showed that internals perceived less stress than externals and responded with task-oriented behavior. In addition, defensive coping behavior adopted by externals was found to correlate with perception of high level of stress.

The main aim of the second phase assessment was to investigate the relationship between locus of control and performance. The results revealed an interactive relationship. In other words, locus of control influences performance, and the consequences of performance in turn influence orientation of locus of control. This was demonstrated by the fact that internals, whose performance improved, became more internal while externals, whose performance deteriorated, became more external. The study of Rahim (1996) renders support for the findings on stress and locus of control in which internal locus of control was associated with an ability to cope with stress functionally. The results of this study render evidence to the contention that internal locus of control is a determining factor for managerial success.

Runyon (1973) investigated the interaction between management style and workers' locus of control and the effects of such interaction on workers' satisfaction with supervision and work involvement. The results showed that internals showed greater satisfaction with supervision under participative management than directive management. Conversely, externals showed greater satisfaction with supervision under directive management than participative management. This illustrates that internals prefer to work under participative management while externals prefer a directive management style. The results also indicated that internals showed greater work involvement than externals and that work involvement, even though not statistically significant, tends to be greater under participative management style.

Anderson and Schneier (1978) conducted a simulation study to investigate the relationship of locus of control and leader behavior and performance. The results indicated that groups led by internal managers performed better than those led by externals and that internal managers were more task-oriented and external managers were more socially or emotionally oriented.

3.4 Individual Power Base

Bass (1990) defines power as a capacity or potential of one individual to influence the behavior of another individual or individuals. Power to influence is manifested through dependency in that one individual is perceived by another as having control over what the former desires. French and Raven (1959) identified five bases or

sources of power: coercive, reward, legitimate, expert, and referent. Coercive power derives from the use of threat and punishment. On the other hand, reward power derives from one's ability to provide positive reinforcement and prevent negative reinforcement. Legitimate power is a synonym of authority and it derives from one's position or function in an organization. Expert power is gained by having special information or expertise that other people value. The last, but not least, form of power is referent power, which is merely based on friendly interpersonal relations with other people. A person who is well liked by others is more likely to exert influence on behavior of those people because they identify with him or her. Referent power is likened to charisma and individuals model their behavior on other individuals due to an admiration they have for those individuals.

The job of a manager is to get things done through and with other people such as colleagues or subordinates. In this way, managers use power to facilitate achievement of goals since they need co-operation, commitment, and compliance of subordinates. The field studies of Podsakoff and Schriesheim (1985) revealed that managers who use referent and expert forms of power were more likely to win staff members' true commitment and enthusiasm for their goals, while those who used reward and legitimate forms of power were only able to get staff members to comply with their requests or instructions. In addition, expert power is consistently associated with subordinate effectiveness. The use of coercive power involves threats and punishments and it has been shown to be ineffective as it causes employee resistance (Johns, 1996). According to Klein, Snell, and Wexley (1987), employees

who perceive their supervisors to be using coercive power during the performance appraisal interview tend to develop negative feelings about the accuracy of feedback and as a result, are not motivated to improve performance.

Mitchell et al. (1975) reported that internal managers use rewards, respect, and expertise as a way of influencing their subordinates while externals use coercion and authority or legitimate power. These findings are consistent with that of Goodstadt and Hjelle (1973) that internals tend to use personal persuasion (expert and referent) while externals tend to use coercion.

3.5 Strategic Planning

Miller, Kets de Vries, and Toulouse (1982) investigated the relationship between top executive locus of control and their strategic planning as well as the implications for structure and environment. The sample of chief executives reported an internal locus of control. The results suggest a strong and direct relationship between locus of control and strategic planning. In comparison to externals, the internal chief executives were more proactive, undertook greater business risk, pursued innovative corporate strategies, and developed long-term action plans. Internal executives were also found to lead properly structured, and dynamic organizations, which the researchers theorized to be attributable to the nature of strategy adopted. Nwachukwu (1995) replicated these findings and included job performance as one of the variables. In addition, the study reports a significant direct effect of structural

differentiation on performance and an indirect effect of strategic futurity on performance.

3.6 Relationship with Machiavellianism

Machiavellianism is a personality dimension characterized by the tendency to use persuasive, manipulative, aggressive, exploiting, and devious behavior to achieve personal goals even at the expense of ethics, truthfulness, and even other people (Calhoun, 1969). Studies that investigated the construct of locus of control in relation to Machiavellianism reported a positive correlation between external locus of control and Machiavellianism (Comer, 1985; Gable, Hollon, & Dangello, 1990; Gable, & Dangello, 1994). Interesting enough, studies that have also investigated the interaction among Machiavellianism, locus of control, and job performance of managers, indicate that externally controlled managers who adopt Machiavellian tactics perform better than external managers, who do not exhibit Machiavellian behavior, and also internally controlled managers (Gable & Dangello, 1994).

3.7 Transformational Leadership Behavior

Another managerial aspect investigated in connection with locus of control is transactional vs. transformational leadership behavior. According to Bass (1985) a leader can be classified as transactional or transformational depending on the nature of interaction with staff members and the level of activities in which he/she engages.

Transformational leadership is more advanced than transactional leadership, which is concerned with leading followers to perform towards set goals. Transformational leaders have more effect on their followers in the sense that they provide visions and then change beliefs and attitudes of their followers to be in line with that vision (Burns, 1978). Besides being good at transactional functions, transformational leaders provide their followers with intellectual stimulation, individual consideration and they also possess charisma (Bass, 1985; 1990). Research has shown that transformational leadership is more effective because it is associated with lower staff turnover rates, higher productivity, and higher employee satisfaction than transactional leaders (Bass, & Avolio, 1990).

Howell and Avolio (1993) investigated the relationship of locus of control to the two forms of leadership, transactional and transformational, for managers in Canada. Managers completed the shortened version of Rotter's (1966) locus of control scale that assess whether they perceive events to be controlled by external forces (external locus of control) or internal forces (internal locus of control). The managers were rated by their followers on Bass and Avolio's (1990) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, which provided the measures for transactional (contingent reward, active management, and passive management) and transformational (charisma, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) leadership behavior. The results indicated a positive relationship between internal locus of control and transformational leadership. In other words, managers who reported an internal locus of control were rated high on three measures of transformational leadership.

The impact of locus of control on performance has been found to be more profound for individuals in professional and managerial positions than those in lower and structured jobs (Spector, 1982). Explanation given for this difference is that, in general, personality is more likely to affect job performance where an individual has considerable discretion or autonomy in deciding what to do and work is unstructured or not closely supervised.

Very few studies have yielded findings that do not support the notion that locus of control is related to performance. For example, Johnson, Luthans, & Hennessey (1984) and Szilagyi, Sims, and Keller (1976) have not found a relationship between locus of control and job performance, while Brownell (1981) reported that externals perform better than internals. Tseng (1970) attributes these differences to problems with the measurement of job performance, which is sometimes ambiguously defined making it impossible to determine whether initiative or compliant performance was being assessed. Blau (1993) has empirically demonstrated that internals perform better than externals on tasks or jobs that require initiative, while externals perform better on tasks or jobs that require compliance.

CHAPTER 4

THE BIG FIVE FACTOR PERSONALITY DIMENSIONS

4.1 Descriptions of the Big Five Factors

The five factors were empirically extracted from the traits used by people to describe themselves and others, taking into consideration the semantic similarity of the indicators of traits (Goldberg, 1990; Peabody & Goldberg, 1989). Fiske (1949) and Tupes and Christal (1961) who originally discovered the five factor model, extracted the five factors through factor analysis of bipolar variables or scales constructed by Catell (1957) from factor-analytic studies of peer ratings of college students, questionnaires, and objective-test ratings.

Despite Block's (1995) criticism, consensus now exists among personality researchers that all personality traits can be grouped under the five factors, which are representative of human personality namely: Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, and Openness to Experience, (Digman, 1990). According to Costa and McCrae (1992), each of the five factors is bipolar and is measured by six facets. The score for the factor is the sum of the scores on those six facets. The norms for the NEO PI-R, which operationalize the big five factors, are based on the profiles of 500 men and 500 women selected from the groups of adult Americans who completed the NEO PI-R inventory between 1985 and 1991. The

term normative sample in this thesis refers to the group on which the norms are based because the present study did not have the norm group. The factor and facet scores that fall in an average range indicate that an individual is not different from an average person and such scores usually do not carry interpretive value. Scores attract definite interpretations once they fall into low or high ranges.

4.1.1 Neuroticism/Emotional Stability

Neuroticism is one of Eysenck's (1947) "Big Two" factors. Popularity of Neuroticism as a personality dimension is demonstrated by its prevalence in most personality inventories and theories (McCrae & Costa, 1987; Digman, 1990). Neuroticism measures an individual's degree of emotional control and tendency to experience negative affects such as anger, embarrassment, guilt, disgust, depression, and anxiety (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Anxiety, angry hostility, depression, self-consciousness, impulsiveness, and vulnerability are the facets for this domain.

The anxiety facet measures an inclination to experience an aversive emotional state such as worry, nervousness, tension, and jitteriness. People with low scores on this facet are calm, relaxed, stable, fearless, and do not ponder over what might go wrong. High scorers, on the other hand, are apprehensive, prone to worry, jittery, nervous, and tense, and tend to have fears or phobias, and free-floating anxiety.

The angry hostility scale measures an inclination to experience anger, bitterness, and frustration. People with high score on this facet tend to be hot-tempered, bitter, and frustrated in comparison with low scorers who are even-tempered, gentle, and amiable.

The self-consciousness scale contains items that assess an individual's tendency to feel ashamed and embarrassed. People who score high on this scale tend to experience discomfort when among other people and feel shy, ashamed, inferior, and embarrassed. Low scorers feel comfortable in social situations and are seen as poised, secure, and adequate.

Impulsiveness measures one's ability to control urges and cravings. People who score high on this facet find it difficult to resist urges and cravings and other people see them as hasty, sarcastic, and self-centered. Low scorers, on the other hand, are able to resist temptations and can tolerate frustrations.

The vulnerability facet measures an individual's ability to cope with stress. People who score low on this facet have the ability to contain themselves under stressful situations and are described as hardy, cool-headed, and resilient. In contrast, people with high scores are unable to deal with stress and tend to panic when faced with stressful situations.

The negative pole of this factor is Neuroticism, and it is indicated by the high scores on the domain. People who score high on this domain are prone to experience negative affects and do not have appropriate control over their emotions. Neuroticism is indicated by adjectives such as worrisome, insecure, self-conscious, depression, nervous, and temperamental. Neuroticism has also been associated with irrational beliefs (Teasdale & Rachman, 1983; Vestre, 1984) and poor coping strategies (McCrae & Costa, 1986). Low scores indicate emotional stability, which is regarded as the positive pole and indicates appropriate emotional control (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

4.1.2 Extraversion/Introversion

The Extraversion/Introversion factor is not only a common word but also a popular and prominent personality dimension that appears in most personality inventories. Extraversion is the other factor of the “Big Two” personality factors identified by Eysenck (1947). Jung (1946) has also identified an extraversion/introversion factor, which he defines as an indication of the direction of flow of psychic energy or libido. Extraversion represents an outflow of libido while introversion indicates an inflow of libido. Jung (1946) has described an extravert as an individual who is sociable, and focuses on people and the external environment, in contrast to an introvert, who is a loner, aloof, asocial, shy, and preoccupied with his/her own experiences and emotions. Though extraversion is construed differently under different theories, it maintains a common denotation across theories. Typically, extraversion is

construed to capture an individual's level of sociability, activity, assertiveness, and level of stimulation seeking (McCrae & Costa, 1987).

In the five factor model of personality, Extraversion is thought to tap an individual's level and nature of interpersonal interaction, the need for stimulation, and joy (Costa & McCrae, 1985). The six facets that comprise Extraversion are warmth, gregariousness, assertiveness, activity, excitement-seeking, and positive emotions (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

The warmth facet captures interpersonal intimacy. People who score high on this facet have a genuine like for people and form close attachments easily. Low scorers are not necessarily opposite but they tend to be more formal, reserved, and distant.

The gregariousness scale assesses an individual's inclination to enjoy being in the company of other people. People with high scores are gregarious, convivial, tend to have many friends, and enjoy being in a company of other people. Low scorers, on the other hand, tend to be loners who avoid crowds or social stimulation.

The assertiveness scale measures one's tendency to move towards other people. Individuals who score high on this facet tend to be dominant, forceful, outspoken, confident, and socially ascendant. Low scorers, on the other hand are described as unassuming, retiring, and reticent.

The activity facet captures one's level and nature of activity. People who score high on this facet are described as energetic, fast-paced, and vigorous in contrast to low scorers who tend to be unhurried, slow, deliberate, and relaxed.

The excitement-seeking scale contains items that capture an individual's craving for excitement and stimulation. High scorers tend to like bright colors and noisy environments and are characterized as flashy, strong stimulation seekers, and risk takers. In contrast, low scorers tend to be cautious, staid, and have no interest in thrills.

The positive emotions facet measures an individual's propensity to experience positive emotions such as love, excitement, happiness, and joy. High scores indicate cheerfulness, high-spirits, joy, and optimism while low scores indicate a placid nature, seriousness, and lack of enthusiasm.

People with high scores on Extraversion tend to be assertive, active, socially oriented (outgoing and gregarious), surgent, and they like stimulation and excitement. In addition, they tend to experience positive emotions such as love, joy, and happiness. Watson and Clark (1997) observed that extraverts or those who score high on this dimension are more likely to assume leadership roles. Introverts, those with low scores on Extraversion, are described as reserved, withdrawn, loners, aloof, shy, and unenthusiastic (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

4.1.3 Openness to Experience

The name Openness to Experience for this factor is unique to the five factor model. The construct is variously labeled as inquiring intellect (Fiske, 1949), culture (Tupes & Christal, 1961; Norman, 1963), intellect (Digman, 1988; Peabody & Goldberg, 1989), intelligence (Cattell, 1957; Borgatta, 1964), intellectance (Hogan, 1986), and independent (Lorr, 1986). Digman (1990) noted that all these labels point to a group of trait characteristics that are related. However, Piedmont (1998) observed that the Openness factor is not well researched and developed and there seem to be controversies over the name and operationalization of the construct. McCrae and Costa (1987) hinted that there seems to be a reciprocal influence between openness and intelligence because open individuals tend to be intelligent, and Openness scores positively correlate with psychometric measures of intelligence. However, McCrae and Costa (1987), maintain that intelligence and openness are different factors and even factor analysis studies have rendered support for this claim (McCrae & Costa, 1985a; 1992).

According to Costa and McCrae (1978; 1980), Openness to Experience taps an individual's susceptibility to fantasy, aesthetics, feelings, actions, ideas, and values as well as the tendency to think flexibly. Fantasy, aesthetics, feelings, actions, and ideas are the facets that contribute to the Openness domain (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

The fantasy facet contrasts day dreaming with realistic thinking. Low scores on this facet indicate practicality and realistic thinking. In contrast, people who score high on this facet tend to indulge in daydreaming as a means of creating an interesting inner world and enriching their lives.

The aesthetics scale contains items that tap an individual's appreciation of art and beauty. High scores on this scale indicate deep appreciation of arts and beauty while low scores indicate insensitivity and lack of interest in art and beauty.

The feelings facet measures an individual's degree of openness to his/her inner feelings and emotions as well as the value one attaches to those feelings and emotions. High scores indicate emotional responsiveness, sensitivity, empathy, and value placed on those feelings while low scores indicate insensitivity to environment, blunt emotions, and no value felt for feelings and emotions.

The action facet refers to an individual's willingness to engage in different and unfamiliar activities. High scores indicate preference for novelty and variety to the familiarity and routine implied by low scores.

The idea facet captures an individual's intellectual curiosity or degree of open-mindedness. High scores indicate willingness to consider or entertain new and unconventional ideas and enjoyment of philosophical arguments and brainteasers. High scorers on this facet tend to be intellectual, curious, analytical, and theoretical

in comparison to low scorers who tend to be pragmatic, factual, and unsusceptible to intellectual challenges.

The value facet taps an individual's degree of openness to different values. People who score low on this dimension tend to be dull, unimaginative, conventional and conservative compared to those with high scores who tend to be curious, creative, and entertain new ideas and unconventional values.

4.1.4 Agreeableness

Tupes and Christal (1961) labeled the personality construct interpreted as conformity (Fiske, 1949), and cortertia (Catell, 1957) as Agreeableness. Digman and Takemoto-Chock (1981), observed that Agreeableness seems not to be an appropriate label for the construct that contains the humanistic characteristics (altruism, nurturance, caring, and emotional support) on a positive pole, and antisocial characteristics (indifference, hostility, self-centeredness, spitefulness, and jealousy) on the negative pole. Their proposal for interpreting the construct, as Friendly Compliance versus Hostile Compliance does not seem to be well received among the five factor model researchers. Agreeableness remains the common interpretation or name for this dimension (Norman, 1963; Goldberg, 1981; Costa & McCrae, 1985).

In the five factor model, Agreeableness is construed as a personality dimension that assesses an individual's attitude towards others and propensity to co-operate with

other people (McCrae & Costa, 1987). The facets that comprise the Agreeableness dimension are, trust, straightforwardness, altruism, compliance, modesty, and tender-mindedness (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

The trust facet contains items that measure an individual's level of honesty in dealing with other people and trust. People who score high on this scale tend to believe that other people are honest and have good intentions. In addition, others see them as forgiving, trusting, and peaceful people. Low scores on this scale suggest cynicism, skepticism, pessimistic, suspicious, ruthless, and a tendency to believe that people are not honest.

The straightforwardness scale evaluates an individual's level of sincerity, frankness, and genuineness in dealing with other people. High scores on this facet indicate sincerity, frankness, charm, and shrewdness while low scores indicate flattery, craftiness or deception.

The altruism facet measures an individual's concern for other people's welfare as indicated by a willingness to extend a helping hand to the needy, generosity, and being considerate of others. People scoring high on the altruism scale tend to be generous and considerate of others in comparison to low scorers who tend to be self-centered, selfish, cold, stingy, and snobbish.

The compliance scale contains items that assess an individual's propensity to comply or defer to other people. High scores suggest deferentially, obligingness, and kindness while low scores indicate stubbornness, aggressiveness, competitiveness, and uncooperativeness.

The modesty facet measures an individual's opinion about himself/herself in relation to other people. People who score low on this scale think that they are superior people and are characterized as conceited, arrogant, proud, flashy, and tough. Scores that are too low may indicate narcissism. People with low scores, on the other hand, tend to be humble, self-effacing and unassuming.

The tender-mindedness scale assesses an individual's capacity to show sympathy and concern for other people. High scores indicate friendliness, warmth, kindness, sympathy, gentleness, and soft-heartedness. People who score low on this facet tend to be unsympathetic, emotionally cold, and callous.

The domain score for Agreeableness is the sum of the scores of the facets. High domain scores on this scale represent Agreeableness and low scores suggest Antagonism. On average, agreeable people are good natured, courteous, forgiving, sympathetic, altruistic, modest, co-operative, and tender-minded. Costa and McCrae (1992) caution that very high scores on Agreeableness may indicate maladaptive behavior such as dependency and fawning. Antagonistic people are described as callous, skeptical, unsympathetic, uncooperative, ruthless, rude, and mistrustful. In

addition they tend to relate to others in defective ways and set themselves against other people (McCrae & Costa, 1987). In fact, very low scores are associated with Narcissistic, Antisocial, and Paranoid Personality Disorders, Sociopath, and Machiavellianism.

4.1.5 Conscientiousness

Norman (1963) was the first researcher to interpret the cluster of personality construct, which was labeled as superego strength (Cattell, 1957) or dependability (Tupes & Cristal, 1961) as Conscientiousness. The dictionary definition of Conscientiousness indicates a state of being governed by conscience, which is a moral sense of right and wrong (Morris, 1976). Thus a conscientious person is dutiful, moralistic, diligent and scrupulous. At face value, Conscientiousness implies self-control, carefulness and thoroughness (Morris, 1976). However, Costa and McCrae (1992) point out that planning, organizing, and carrying out duties can also be part of self-control.

In the big five factor model, Conscientiousness is conceptualized as a tendency to be organized, persistent, achievement oriented, and motivated in pursuing a planned goal (Costa, McCrae, & Dye, 1991; Piedmont, 1998). In this context, Conscientiousness is manifested in six facets, competence, order, dutifulness, achievement striving, self-discipline and deliberation (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

The competence facet concerns an individual's perception about his/her abilities. Costa, McCrae, and Dye (1991) noted that the competence facet has a very high positive correlation with internal locus of control as well as self-esteem. People who score high on this facet perceive themselves to be capable, prudent, sensible, and effective (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Other people see them as intelligent, confident, thorough, and efficient, in contrast to low scorers, who appear to be forgetful, frivolous, and confused. In addition, low scorers tend to doubt their capabilities and feel inadequate.

The order scale contains items that assess an individual's degree of organization. People who score high on this scale tend to be organized, neat, tidy, precise, efficient, and methodical. On the other hand, those with low scores are described as disorganized, unmethodical, impulsive, and careless.

The dutifulness facet represents the moral aspect of Conscientiousness. People who score high on this facet tend to be dutiful, scrupulous, and moralistic. Other sees these individuals as dependable, mannerly, organized, and thorough. In contrast, low scorers tend to be undependable, lazy, absent-minded, and distractible. Low scorers are not necessarily immoral they just do not seem to be particular about observing moral obligations.

The achievement striving facet taps an individual's level of aspiration and the effort one applies in pursuing his/her goal. High scores indicate high levels of aspiration,

diligence, hard work, ambition, industriousness, and persistence. People with low scores on this facet tend to be lackadaisical, lazy, unambitious, and without a purpose or goal.

The self-discipline scale refers to the motivational aspect of Conscientiousness. High scorers are not easily bored or distracted and are able to motivate themselves to complete the tasks they have started. Low scorers tend to procrastinate and are easily distracted or discouraged to an extent that they easily abandon the tasks they have started.

The deliberation facet assesses an individual's inclination to think before speaking or acting. People who score high on this facet tend to exercise caution and think issues through before making decisions or acting and are seen as mature, logical, and cautious. Those who score low are described as immature, hasty, impulsive, and careless because they do not deliberate on issues before acting or speaking.

People who score high on Conscientiousness dimension tend to be responsible, persistent, purposeful, determined, scrupulous, dependable, and achievement-oriented. Very high score may indicate fastidiousness, compulsive neatness, or workaholism. On the other hand, those with lower scores tend to be irresponsible, impulsive, and disorganized. McCrae and Costa (1987) have adopted Undirectedness as a label for the opposite pole of Conscientiousness. McCrae,

Costa, and Busch (1986) remarked that people low in conscientiousness tend to be hedonistic and indulge in sex.

The results of studies that investigated the five factor model in different countries, nations, or groups of people indicated that the five factors were recoverable in many languages and culture groups (McCrae & Costa, 1997; Digman, 1990). This does not however mean that all individuals have shown similar personality patterns. Variations have been observed but such variations could be attributed to consequences of experiences of living under different social environments rather than negating universality of the five factors (McCrae & Costa, 1997). In addition, correlations have been reported between the big five model and other personality inventories, another indicator of the robustness of the model (Goldberg, 1981; McCrae & Costa, 1987; Digman, 1990). Research to investigate the application of the five factor model to different life contexts has been intensified and the five factors are used to explain behavior in social, clinical and organizational settings.

4.2 The Five Factor Model and Organizational Behavior

The discovery of the five factors has stirred interest in investigating relations between personality traits and organizational behavior and specifically job performance (Costa, 1996). In fact, the five factor model has restored confidence in industrial psychologists to revive and intensify research on relations between personality and job performance, which has been undermined by methodological

inadequacies and improper operationalization of personality and job variables. As a result, organizations have relied on academic qualifications and mental ability measures as a basis for personnel selection and performance. As mental ability indicators fail to account for significant variances in job performance, the attention has shifted to personality as having the potential to differentiate successful performers from unsuccessful ones.

Goleman (1995) asserts that the poor predictive validity of personality for job performance can be attributed to the use of personality inventories, which were not designed for that purpose, and performance criteria that are not properly defined. This provides an explanation why studies that investigated the relationship between personality and job performances have failed to produce satisfactory results. Even though research on personality and work behavior is still contaminated by methodological and conceptualization problems, evidence is accumulating suggesting an association between certain personality traits and job performance.

Judge & Higgins (1999) conducted a longitudinal study investigating predictive validity of mental ability and the big five personality dimensions for career success. In this study career success was defined as ‘the real or perceived achievements an individual has accumulated as a result of work experience’ and consists of extrinsic and intrinsic successes. Extrinsic success is indicated by objective and observable factors such as salary, job promotions, and occupational status, while intrinsic

success is represented by an individual's reaction to his or her own career, commonly referred to as job satisfaction.

It was found that the big five traits accounted for significant differences in job satisfaction or intrinsic success even when mental ability was controlled, which was not the case with mental ability considered alone. However, both mental ability and the big five traits were found to be good predictor of extrinsic success. Conscientiousness was significantly positively correlated with both extrinsic and intrinsic successes whereas Agreeableness, Neuroticism, and Extraversion were significantly correlated with extrinsic success. A negative relationship was observed in cases of Agreeableness and Neuroticism while a positive correlation was observed with extraversion. Interestingly enough, the results suggest that adulthood measure of the big five factors accounted for more differences in intrinsic and extrinsic successes in comparison to childhood measures, but both measures predicted both intrinsic and extrinsic success.

Morrison (1997) administered a set of personality inventories, including the NEO Five-Factors Inventory (Costa & McCrae, 1989) used to assess the big five personality factors, on American business managers. The results revealed that managers differed from the average adult population on four factors, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Openness to Experience, and Neuroticism. Managers exhibited elevated scores on Conscientiousness and Extraversion and

slightly lower scores on Neuroticism and Openness to Experience. The scores on Agreeableness dimension did not differ from the average scores.

4.3 Job Performance

Barrick and Mount (1991) conducted a meta-analysis on criterion-related validity studies that investigated the relations of personality to job performance. The study investigated the validity of the five factors for five occupations namely; police, managers, sales, professionals, and skilled/semi-skilled for job performance criteria: job proficiency, training proficiency, and personnel data. The results suggest that Conscientiousness is a valid predictor of job performance in all occupations and for all performance criteria studied.

The results showed that individuals who reported a high level of Conscientiousness performed better than those with low scores or exhibit traits that indicate a low level of conscientiousness. The predictive validity of the other four factors was found to vary across occupations as well as performance criteria. Extraversion was found to be a valid predictor for sales and managers occupation across all performance criteria. Interaction with people is an important aspect of jobs in these two occupations and traits such as sociability, assertiveness, and gregariousness, which comprise Extraversion dimension, are essential for effective job performance. Extraversion and Openness to Experience were also found to be valid predictors for training proficiency for all occupations. The study has however failed to find

something concrete with regard to the predictive validity of emotional stability and agreeableness dimensions.

Another meta-analytic review (Tett, Jackson, & Rothstein, 1991) reported a correlation of .24 between personality and job performance. Predictive validity for four of the big five factors have reached significant levels ranging from .16 to .33 while Neuroticism showed a negative (-.22) correlation to job performance. So far research has revealed that Conscientiousness and Extraversion are relevant personality factors and valid predictors of job performance for managers.

Salgado (1997) conducted a meta analysis on studies that investigated relationships of personality to job performance in European countries. Personality factors investigated in meta-analyzed studies were reclassified to the big five personality factors and relationships to job performance as rated by supervisors, according to personal data or incidences such as accidents or wages and training proficiency. Correlation of personality to job criteria was investigated for different occupational groups such as managers, police, professionals, sales, and skilled labor. The findings of this study are in many respects consistent with the findings of Barrick and Mount (1991) probably because both studies used similar methods.

Salgado (1997) found Conscientiousness and Emotional Stability to be valid predictors for performance in all occupations and for all job criteria. With regard to Extraversion, the researcher's interpretation of the results is not in agreement with

the results as depicted in the tables. The researcher claims that Extraversion does not correlate with any performance criterion while the table shows a correlation of 0.12 and 0.14 for personnel data and performance rating criteria, respectively. Again, the researcher claims that Extraversion predicted performance for police and managers without mentioning correlations among skilled labor force ($p = .08$) and sales ($p = -.11$). A low predictive validity for managers as well as an inverse correlation for sales of Extraversion dimension are perplexing considering the importance of interpersonal skills in these occupations. The results suggest that Agreeableness is a valid predictor for training proficiency criterion only and for skilled labor, professionals, and lastly managers for which a negative correlation was observed. Openness to Experience was found to be a valid predictor for personnel data and training criteria and for police and skilled labor occupations.

The three meta-analyses reviewed above provided different and in some cases contradictory results. According to Ones, Mount, Barrick, and Hunter (1994), differences in findings of the meta analysis studies arose from different methods used in the studies. Barrick and Mount (1991) and Salgado (1997) conducted meta analysis on all studies that investigated personality–job performance relationship while Tett, et al. (1991) restricted their analysis to confirmatory studies which both researchers agreed as the main cause of differences in findings. More interestingly, in Barrick and Mount's (1991) study, managers made up more than half of the sample while in that of Tett, et al. (1991) managers made up 10 % of the sample.

The personality factors which are valid predictors for managerial performance yielded a higher validity coefficient in the study by Barrick and Mount (1991) while personality factors which are valid predictors for performance in non-managerial positions yielded a higher correlation coefficient in Tett, et al (1991). Discrepancies between the findings of these two studies can probably be attributed to the composition of the samples. In this context, the results can be interpreted as showing the same in different ways or from different angles. It should also be noted that, in the case of managers, the findings of Tett et al. (1991) are incomparable to that of other two studies, as they have not presented the validity coefficients for managers. It proved impossible to statistically reconcile differences or inconsistency among the results of these studies solely on the basis of critical analysis.

Salgado (1997) pointed out that both studies were to a greater extent limited by the studies they have analyzed. He observed that most of the studies were conducted with personality assessment scales not designed for assessing the big five factors, or not appropriate for assessing personality in work settings. Despite controversy about statistical methods and methodological procedures, the meta-analytic studies have yielded results, which offer support for predictive validities of Conscientiousness, Extraversion, and Agreeableness for managerial performance.

Barrick and Mount (1993) hypothesize that the lower predictive validity of personality factors results from the presence of intervening variables that have not been controlled in studies. To test this hypothesis, Barrick and Mount (1993)

investigated whether the level of autonomy one has in his/her position has a moderating effect on the relationship between personality factors and job performance for managers. In this study, the Personal Characteristics Inventory (PCI) was used to assess the big five personality dimensions of research participants. The Personality Characteristics Inventory has been shown to be a reliable and valid measure of the big five personality dimensions (Norman, 1963; Burisch, 1984; Golberg, 1992). Costa and McCrae (1985) reported very high correlations between the big five factors and similar constructs in the PCI.

Supervisors and job incumbents completed a questionnaire that assesses managerial autonomy and the average scores were used as an autonomy measure for a particular job. Supervisors of research participants were requested to assess participants' job performance according to criteria such as planning, administration, effort, and communication. The results demonstrate that the level of autonomy in the job influenced the predictive validities of Conscientiousness, Extraversion, and Agreeableness for job performance criteria. In other words, Barrick and Mount (1993) found autonomy to be a moderating factor on the relationship between three personality dimensions; Conscientiousness, Extraversion, and Agreeableness and job performance. The predictive validities of these factors were found to be significantly higher in jobs with higher autonomy than average and low autonomy. Conscientiousness and Extraversion correlated positively to job performance while a negative correlation was observed between Agreeableness and job performance. In

summary, predictive validities of Conscientiousness, Extraversion and Agreeableness increase with increase in autonomy level.

Robertson, Baron, Gibbons, MacIver, and Nyfileld (2000) investigated the predictive validity of Conscientiousness for overall job performance of managers. The study reported very low validity coefficients for four organizations with only one out of five organizations showing a statistically significant positive correlation ($r = .25$) for Conscientiousness and current job performance. The weak correlation between Conscientiousness and job performance in four organizations can probably be attributed to organizational factors that differentiate them from the other organization. It will be illogical to conceive these results as counterevidence to the claims that Conscientiousness is a valid predictor of overall job performance. Instead, the results highlighted several important factors to be considered in investigating the role of personality in determining job performance.

Firstly, the fact that validity coefficients differ from organization to organization illustrates the presence of certain organizational factors that might moderate or interfere in personality-job performance relationship.

Secondly, autonomy was not controlled for in the study and previous research identified autonomy as a moderating factor on conscientiousness–job performance relationship (Barrick & Mount, 1993). The fact that participants were from the

lowest managerial level in their organizations puts a question mark on the amount of autonomy attached to their jobs.

Lastly, these findings suggest that job performance is an outcome of many interacting factors and possessing one personality trait might not guarantee good job performance. In light of the fact that Conscientiousness correlated positively with certain work performance indicators such as quality driven, articulation, and flexibility suggest that Conscientiousness is important for job performance even not overall job performance.

4.4 Conflict Management styles

Rahim (1992) defines conflict as a process characterized by incompatibility, disagreement, or dissonance among or between individuals or social entities. According to Thomas (1992), conflict starts the moment one party perceives that the other party has or is about to frustrate his/her goal attainment or negatively impact on his/her interest. From the traditional perspective, conflict is bad and it must be avoided as it indicates malfunctioning in a relationship or a group (Robbins, 1998). In contrast, human relationists' view of conflict is that conflict is a natural and inevitable process that has potential benefit for parties in a relationship or improving group performance. The interactionist approach on the other hand emphasizes that conflict is necessary for group performance since its absence encourages static,

apathy in the group, as well as non-responsiveness to needs for change and innovation.

Taking into account the traditional, human relations, and interactionists' views on conflict, Rahim (2000) concedes that whether conflict provides negative or positive effect on group performance depends on the way conflict is managed. Conflict is effectively managed if its constructive functions are maximized and dysfunctions are minimized. The most important factor in the management of conflict is the styles individuals in conflict adopt as a reaction to the perceived conflict or in an attempt to solve the conflict. Blake and Mouton (1964) identified five styles people are likely to adopt in reaction to conflict: forcing, withdrawing, smoothing, compromising, and problem solving. Rahim and Bonoma (1979) reinterpreted the five styles as competing (forcing), avoiding (withdrawing), obliging (smoothing), compromising, and integrating (problem solving). Thomas (1976) asserts that the five styles of conflict management are determined by two dimensions related to the willingness to satisfy the interest of the other party or cooperativeness and willingness to satisfy one's interest or assertiveness. It is then the crossing of these two dimensions that yields the five styles of conflict management.

According to Rahim (1992), a person who is only concerned about the satisfaction of his/her own needs even at the expense of the other party uses the competing style in managing the conflict. A high level of assertiveness and low level of

cooperativeness characterize the competing style. The end product of a conflict situation in which one party adopts this style is in most cases a win-lose.

The avoiding style involves a low level of assertiveness and cooperativeness. In this situation the parties involved in a conflict intentionally ignore that a conflict exist and do not address issues surrounding the conflict. Since conflict is never addressed both parties' interest or needs remains are not satisfied. Hence this style produces a lose-lose situation. However, Johns (1996) claims that avoidance can be an effective style if conflict is trivial and the other party is aggressive and powerful, that addressing conflict will not yield any benefit.

The obliging style, also called accommodation, is characterized by a low concern for one's needs (low level of assertiveness) and a high concern for the other party (high level of cooperativeness) (Rahim, 1992). A person who adopts this style tries to satisfy the needs of the other party in order and sacrifice his/her own need in order to resolve the conflict.

A person who adopts a compromising style is concerned about resolving a conflict in a give-and-take way. Such a person has a moderate concern for the other party (moderate level of cooperativeness) as well as himself/herself (moderate level of assertiveness). The compromising style offers partial satisfaction of both parties' needs which means that parties do not really address issues causing conflict but instead concentrate on what to give up in return for what.

The integrating style is regarded as the most effective style of conflict management. This style involves active and open discussion of issues causing conflict and parties aim at solving the problem in a way that both parties' interests or needs are satisfied. The integrating style is indicated by a high level of both assertiveness and cooperativeness.

Conflict management is another important aspect of a manager's job. Even though literature on conflict management has shown that some styles yield better results, there can be conflict situations in which competing or avoidance, for example, can be appropriate (Thomas, 1976; Rahim, 1992). It is however theorized that certain personality traits might predispose individuals to use a specific style of conflict management even in situations where it is not appropriate (Thomas, 1976). In such a situation an individual might not be flexible enough to first assess the situation and determine the appropriate style.

Antonioni (1998) investigated how the big five personality dimensions relate to the four conflict management styles. The study assessed and compared personality and conflict handling styles of undergraduate business students and managers. The Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory (Rahim, 1983) was used to assess conflict-handling styles while the NEO-FFI (Costa & McCrae, 1985) was used to assess the big five factors.

Except for lower scores on Extraversion and Neuroticism for managers, no significant difference was observed in the distribution of the three factors (Agreeableness, Openness, and Conscientiousness) between the managers and students. The two samples however differed on propensity to use certain conflict management styles. In comparison to students, managers showed preference for the integrating style. In addition, students showed propensity to use avoiding, obliging, and dominating styles more than managers. The results from the managers' sample suggest a significant and strong correlation between the integrating style with agreeableness, extraversion, and conscientiousness. That is, managers with elevated scores on these three dimensions tend to use integrating style more than those with lower scores.

With regard to the competitive style, the results indicate a negative relationship with Neuroticism and Agreeableness. This implies that managers with low scores on Agreeableness and Neuroticism have a tendency to use a competitive or dominating style in handling conflicts. Whereas Conscientiousness correlated negatively with the avoiding style a positive correlation was reported between the avoiding style and Agreeableness. The personality variables were not found to account for the differences in the managers' tendency to use the compromising style. Again, Openness was not found to be a significant predictor of conflict handling style. Stated differently, no relationship was observed between Openness and any of the four styles of conflict handling.

CHAPTER 5

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LOCUS OF CONTROL AND THE BIG FIVE PERSONALITY DIMENSIONS

5.1 Behavioral Evidence

The relationship between locus of control and the big five factors can be inferred on the basis of similarity or resemblance of behavior exhibited or personality traits reported by internals or externals to indicators of the five factors. Comparison can be conducted on reports of studies conducted in clinical, social, and organizational settings in which locus of control was concurrently investigated with other personality traits or psychological functioning.

5.1.1 Neuroticism

Locus of control has been extensively researched in connection with behavior related to the Neuroticism factor such as anxiety, depression, impulsiveness, and ability to cope with stress. In general, studies conducted so far have associated external locus of control with Neuroticism. Crandall and Crandall (1983), in summarizing the findings of the studies conducted thus far, concluded that internal locus of control is associated with the ability to delay gratification and better emotional adjustment as indicated by high self-esteem, less anxiety, and less depression. Other studies have

reported that people who perceive an external locus of control tend to use maladaptive coping strategies when faced with difficulties (Anderson, 1977; Taylor, 1982; 1983; Vickers, Conway, & Haight, 1983; Perlow & Latham, 1993). In contrast, when faced with difficult situations, internals respond with appropriate strategies that make them deal effectively with situations.

According to Krause and Stryker (1984) the effective coping mechanisms of internals demonstrate that internal locus of control acts as a psychological buffer against stressful events. Rahim (1996) provided support for the claims of moderating effects of internal locus of control on a relationship between stress and strain for managers. Several studies reported that people who report an external locus of control tend to perceive more stress than internals even if they happen to be in the same situation (Kilpatrick, Dubin, & Marcotte, 1974; Anderson, 1977; Novaco, Stokols, Cambell, & Stokols, 1979; Cook, Novaco, & Sarason, 1980; Kobasa, Maddi, & Courington, 1981; Kobasa, Maddi, & Kahan, 1982). Due to their high perception of stress and ineffective coping strategies, externals have reported experiencing negative moods such as anger, depression, and tension more than internals (Lefcourt, 1982; Ganellen & Blaney, 1984; Benassi, Sweeney, & Dufour, 1988; Lester, Castromayor, & Icli, 1991; Goodman, Cooley, Sewell, & Leavitt, 1994; Reynaert, Janne, Vause, Zdanowicz, & Lejeune, 1995). Several studies have linked external control to impulsiveness or inability to resist temptations (Johnson & Gormly, 1972; Lefcourt, 1982).

One of the most consistent findings in the literature on locus of control and Neuroticism is the positive relationship between external locus of control and anxiety (Feather, 1967; Watson, 1967; Platt & Eisenman, 1968; Ray & Katan, 1968; Goss & Morosko, 1970; Burnes, Brown, & Keating, 1971; Powell & Vega, 1972; Manuck, Hinrichsen, & Ross, 1975a,b; Morelli, Krotinger, & Moore, 1979; Helms & Giorgis, 1980; Spector, 1994; Rahim, 1996). This consistency prompted Ray and Katan (1968) to conduct a factor analysis on locus of control scale, Manifest Anxiety Scale, and Test Anxiety Scale. The fact that the results did not indicate any factors crossing the scales suggests that locus of control is not a hidden factor in anxiety scales. Organ (1976) replicates the findings of Ray and Katan (1968), contributing to the notion that locus of control and anxiety are different concepts but related. Archer (1979) advanced an argument that there might be an interactive determination between locus of control and anxiety. Despite the consistent and strong correlations between locus of control and anxiety, the mechanism of the relationship between locus of control and anxiety remains a problem to be specified.

5.1.2 Extraversion

Findings that link locus of control to Extraversion are scanty. Based on the theoretical underpinnings of locus of control, people who report an internal locus of control believe in and seek to exert control over their environment (Rotter, 1966; Lefcourt, 1982). In this context, it has been argued that internal orientation might predispose one to be more assertive, active and to seek out stimulating environments

(Lefcourt, 1982; Spector, 1982). The study of Bax (1966) rendered support for the association of internal locus of control with high scores on assertiveness. Miller et al. (1982) reported that internal executives tend to undertake more proactive, innovative, and risky strategies than externals. The positive relationship between internal locus of control and risk taking has been reported elsewhere (Lefcourt, 1982). Several studies reported that people with an internal locus of control, in contrast to externals, tend to actively scan an environment or search for information required for decision making, planning, or achieving a particular goal (Seeman & Evans, 1962; Seeman, 1963; Davis & Phares, 1967; Lefcourt & Wine, 1969; Wheeler & Davis, 1978; Miller et al., 1982; Nwachukwu, 1995).

Locus of control has been shown to positively relate to the positive emotions facet of Extraversion. Kilpatrick, Dubin, and Marcotte (1974) investigated the relationship between scores on Rotter's (1966) Locus of Control scale and the Profile of Mood States (POMS-McNair, Lorr, & Droppleman, 1971) used to assess positive (vigor) and negative moods. The results revealed that externals scored higher on negative moods scale while internals scored higher on a positive mood scale. These results indicate that externals are more likely to experience negative moods than internals who, on the other hand, tend to experience positive moods more than externals. Other studies reported very significant correlations between internal locus of control and high scores on the Happiness scale, suggesting that internals tend to live happier lives than externals (Brandt, 1980; Diener, 1984; Cooper et al., 1995).

5.1.3 Openness to Experience

Costa and McCrae (1992) reported that people who score low on the openness to value facet of Openness to Experience tend to be dogmatic. Rokeach (1960) defines dogmatism as a cognitive ability to receive, understand, evaluate, and act on stimuli or information. Those low in dogmatism are open-minded and not defensive against thinking or beliefs that are different from theirs. In contrast, highly dogmatic people are not only closed-minded but they also have a tendency to distort information, be authoritative, and intolerant of those who hold values and beliefs different from theirs. Carlozzi and Bull (1995) reported that dogmatic people tend to be insensitive to feelings, linking dogmatism to the openness to feelings facet.

Dogmatism has also been associated with locus of control in that people who report an external locus of control are also found to be dogmatic as indicated by their scores on Rokeach (1960) scale (Sherman, Pelletier, & Ryckman, 1973) and reported belief in supernatural (Scheidt, 1973; Randall & Desrosiers, 1980) and astrological (Jorgenson, 1981) agents. Lefcourt (1982) asserts that openness to experience is demonstrated by active seeking of opportunities to test one's values, abilities, potentials, and limits as a way of enhancing self-understanding. Information seeking can be one of such opportunities. Several studies have reported that internals, in comparison to externals, are more likely to gather or seek relevant information (Seeman & Evans, 1962; Seeman, 1963; Phares, 1968). Moreover, Phares (1968) observed that internals, in contrast to externals, make the best use of information.

Taken together, the results of these studies also link internal locus of control to the higher end of open to ideas facet. Other studies have also associated internal locus of control with adaptiveness, high imagination, creativity, and the tendency to act and innovate (Rotter, 1966; Miller et al., 1982)

5.1.4 Agreeableness

One indication of the relevancy of locus of control to Agreeableness derives from correlations of both low scores on Agreeableness and external locus of control to Machiavellianism (Comer, 1985; McCrae & Costa, 1987; Gable, Hollon, & Dangelo, 1990; Gable & Dangelo, 1994). Machiavellianism seems to parallel the trust and straightforwardness facets of Agreeableness as it stems from an assumption that since people are naturally inclined to evil, do not know what is good for them, and cannot be trusted, it is justifiable to manipulate them.

Some studies found positive correlations between external locus of control and aggressiveness and tendency to use coercive style of influence, linking external locus of control to the lower end of the compliance facet (Mitchell, et al., 1975; Perlow & Latham, 1993). There is a need to differentiate between the term compliance in the big five model and as used in the locus of control literature. Research has accumulated evidence that in comparison to internals, externals are more conforming and compliant (Lefcourt, 1982; Spector, 1982). However, as Spector (1982) observed, compliance in those studies has to do with submissiveness of

authoritarians or persuasion, which does not fall in the Agreeableness realm. Consistent with this contention is Biondo and Macdonald 's (1971) finding that people with external locus of control are more likely to conform or comply with requests or instructions from high status sources than low status sources. As mentioned before, the compliance facet concerns behavior related to dealings with interpersonal conflict.

Locus of control has also been linked to the altruism facet. Several studies have reported positive correlations between internal locus of control and helping behavior and altruism (Midlarski, 1971; Midlarski & Midlarski, 1973; Ubbink & Sadava, 1974). In addition, internals are found to be more considerate of other people than externals (Pryer & Distefano, 1971)

5.1.5 Conscientiousness

There appear to be consistent and significant correlations between locus of control and the facets that comprise the Conscientiousness factor. Costa and McCrae (1992) observed that of the facets of Conscientiousness, the competence facet has the highest correlation with internal locus of control. This makes theoretical sense because perception of locus of control implies a belief in one's ability over situational factors (Rotter, 1966; 1990).

With regard to the moral aspect of Conscientiousness, several studies have investigated a possible link with locus of control. Alker and Poppen (1973) investigated differences between external and internals in moral reasoning on Kohlberg's Moral Judgment Interview (1969). The results indicated a statistically significant difference between internals and externals in moral reasoning maturity. Internals were found to use more principled reasoning than externals. Though Bloomsberg (1974) did not find a significant correlation between locus of control and moral judgment on Rest's Defining Issues Test (Rest, 1976), the results revealed that internals were more likely to choose items indicating principled and differentiated moral reasoning. In addition to internals' principled and differentiated moral reasoning, internals are also found to have clear moral values to which they adhere despite being punished or rejected by other people (Lefcourt, 1982). In contrast, externals are less likely to have clear values and tend to comply with instructions or request of authority figures even if it involves inflicting pain or harm on other people.

According to Lefcourt (1982), locus of control is an important determinant of achievement-oriented behavior, which is akin to the achievement-striving facet of Conscientiousness. In a series of research reports, perception of internal locus of control has been associated with high levels of aspiration, persistence, purposeful planning, ambition, greater effort, academic and career achievements, hard work and need for achievement (Valecha, 1972; Mischel, Zeiss, & Zeiss, 1974; Broedling, 1975; Lied & Pritchard, 1976; Karabenick & Srull; Yukl & Latham, 1978; Lefcourt,

1982; Miller et al., 1982; Crandall & Crandall, 1983). Several studies demonstrated that internals tend to exercise caution and take a deliberate approach to decision making or planning especially in situations that are complicated, important, and create challenges to competence (Julian & Katz, 1968; Johnson & Kilmann, 1975; Wheeler & Davis, 1978).

In summary, the studies cited above provided clear and consistent evidence of a positive relation between external locus of control to Neuroticism, Introversion, Closedness to Experience (dogmatism), Antagonism, and Undirectedness.

5.2 Empirical Evidence

In the preceding section, the relationships between locus of control and the big five factors were inferred from behavior exhibited or personality traits reported by those reported an external or internal locus of control. To ascertain the validity of the inferred links between locus of control and the big five factors, it is necessary to look at the study that empirically investigated the relationship between locus of control and the big five personality dimensions. Literature review revealed one study that provides empirical evidence on the correlations between the big five factors and locus of control.

Morrison (1997) investigated the relations of the big five personality dimensions with scores on various personality scales including locus of control for a sample of

business managers. In this study, the NEO Five-factor Inventory (Costa & McCrae, 1989) was used to measure the big five personality dimensions. Locus of control was measured with a 12-item scale consisting four items from Rotter's (1966) Locus of Control scale and eight items from a shortened version of the Rotter scale (Rotter, Chance, & Phares, 1972). As hypothesized, scores of locus of control significantly correlated with scores of the four of the big factors, namely Extraversion, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, and Agreeableness. Positive correlations were observed between locus of control and Extraversion, Conscientiousness, and Agreeableness while an inverse correlation was observed with Neuroticism. No correlation was observed between locus of control and Openness to Experience.

The results imply that managers with internal locus of control tend to be Extraverted, Conscientious, relatively Agreeable, and Emotionally Stable. It is of interest that both internal locus of control, Conscientiousness, and Extraversion have been consistently associated with good managerial performance. At this stage, it is not clear how Emotional Stability and Agreeableness relate to managerial performance, because inconsistent and contradictory results have been reported. However, the negative correlation between internal locus of control and Neuroticism is consistent with findings of studies reporting that internals tend to use effective coping strategies, cope well with stress, and report good psychological adjustment (Anderson, 1977; Rahim, 1996).

Even though the association of Agreeableness with internal locus of control fits in with empirical evidence provided by Mitchell et al. (1975) describing internals as less likely to exhibit aggressive behavior or use coercive styles of management, the relationship between Agreeableness and managerial behavior has not been well established. Salgado (1997) reported a negative correlation between Agreeableness and managerial performance, Barrick and Mount, (1991) observed a positive correlation, and Barrick & Mount (1993) a negative correlation between Agreeableness and management performance. Antonioni (1998) reported that managers with low scores on Agreeableness are more likely to use a dominating style of conflict handling while those who scored high on Agreeableness dimension demonstrated a tendency to use the avoiding style.

The findings of Antonioni (1998), together with that provided by Morrison (1997), suggest that an average score on Agreeableness is probably appropriate for managers. Costa and McCrae (1992) have also noted that extreme scores on both ends of the Agreeableness scale indicate unhealthy psychological functioning. Very low scores indicate Narcissistic, Antisocial, and Paranoid Personality Disorders, while very high scores indicate Dependent Personality Disorder. It should however be noted that other studies (Barrick & Mount, 1991; 1993; Salgado, 1997) have not assessed personality with the inventory used by Morrison (1997) and Antonioni (1998) which might be the contributing factors for differences in findings. This indicates the need for further research to uncover the connection between Agreeableness variables and job performance of managers.

5.3 Effects of Cultural Differences

The research reviewed provide theoretical and empirical support for relevancy of locus of control and the big five factors for management performance as well as correlations between locus of control and the big five factors. Most, if not all, of these studies have been conducted in western countries such as United States and Britain, with white people as the majority of research participants. Possible differences in culture, social and organizational environments between western research participants and that of participants in this study may produce different results.

In cross-cultural psychology and specifically in practice of personality assessment, differences in behavior or scores on assessment tools between people with different cultures are usually attributed to differences in cultures (Berry et al., 1992). Furthermore, Retief (1992) concedes that people from different cultures tend to respond differently to items in personality inventories because they are likely to attach different meanings to events and situations. While certain studies demonstrate that some personality traits can be generalized cross culturally, the dynamics presented by different cultures and unique psychological functioning of different socio-cultural groups can cause differences in their positions on personality dimensions (Wilson, Doolabh, Cooney, Khalpey, & Siddiqui, 1990; Frank, 1992; Stumpf, 1993; McCrae & Costa, 1997).

The influence of cultural differences on personality and behavior has sustained the interest and attention of social scientists for many years. At the outset, the term culture, needs to be defined within the contexts of anthropology and cross-cultural psychology, which is used in this study, so as to differentiate from the common usage of the term. A classical definition of the concept culture comes from Tylor (1871, p. 27) who defines culture as the system that “includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, laws, customs, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society.” Shweder and LeVine (1984) illustrate the influence of culture by stating that culture conditions thought, feelings, and behavior at social and psychological levels. This is in line with the cognitive social learning theorists’ recognition of the social origin of human behavior.

The voluminous work of Hofstede (1980) culminated in identification of four culture patterns or variables namely collectivism/individualism, tightness/looseness, masculinity/femininity, and high/low complexity. Triandis (1996) refers to these patterns as cultural syndromes that he defines as “ a pattern of shared attitude, beliefs, categorization, self-definition, norms, role definitions, and values that is organized around a theme that can be identified among those who speak a particular language, during a specific historic period, and in a definable geographic region” (p. 408). These cultural syndromes have all along been thought of as unidimensional with the terms representing opposite ends of a continuum. As an example, on masculinity/femininity syndrome, a group of people can have a culture characterized

as masculinity and another group that differs from it on this syndrome is characterized as femininity.

Collectivism/individualism cultural syndrome is widely researched and found to be the single most important cultural difference that causes differences in social behavior between cultural groups (Triandis, 1985; Trubisky, Ting-Toomey, & Lin, 1991; Gudykunst, Gao, Schmidt, Nishida, Bond, Leung, Wang, & Barraclough, 1992; Phalet & Claeys, 1993; Bond & Smith, 1996). Collectivism/individualism is a bipolar dimension on which collectivism and individualism are at opposite ends of a continuum. According to Hofstede (1980), collectivism/individualism is a value orientation that can be adopted by an individual in relating to his/her social group. Collectivism is characterized by a tendency to value interdependence, group existence and goals, as well as loyalty to one's social group, whereas individualism is characterized by a tendency to value an individual's existence, initiative or goals, independence and self-reliance.

Individualism is prevalent in western countries such as United States, Britain, Canada, and Australia while collectivism is mainly found in developing countries and eastern countries such as Pakistan, Columbia, China, Venezuela and Mexico (Hofstede, 1980). According to Triandis (1989), African countries are assumed to have collectivism cultures. Nigeria was the only African country included in Hofstede's (1980) study and was found to be collectivist. Eaton and Low (2000) investigated collectivism/individualism cultural syndrome on second year

psychology class students at the University of Cape Town, South Africa. The results indicated that students who specified indigenous or African languages such Xhosa, Shoto, Swazi, Ndebele, Shona, or Tswana as their mother tongue tended to show collectivism while English-speaking students showed individualism. Blacks were not included in the English-speaking group and blacks who did not grow up in Sub-Saharan Africa were not included in the African group. The present study did not investigate the participants' orientation on collectivism/individualism cultural syndrome. However, considering that participants are black, African, and live in a developing African country, it is safe to assume that they ascribe to a collectivist culture.

Culture determines the values and norms that govern and guide behavior of members of a particular culture (Gudykunst, Ting-Toomey, & Chua, 1988; Myers, 1990; Hall, 1991). Different cultures tend to have different values and norms and, as such, different behaviors are to be expected from members of different cultural groups. People from a collectivistic culture tend to have social behaviors that are considered as desirable and encouraged within a collectivism culture. The same applies to those who belong to individualistic cultures. These cultural differences also influence personality that people from different cultural groups tend to have different positions on a personality dimension. Again, the pattern of correlation among personality dimensions might differ across cultural groups.

Locus of control is regarded as a cultural phenomenon and blacks have been consistently found to report an external locus of control (Lefcourt, 1982; Dyl, 1984; Marks, 1998). Several studies have reported that people with collectivistic cultures tend to make external attributions whereas members of individualistic cultures make internal attributions (Miller, 1984; Newman, 1991; Al-Zahrani & Kaplowitz, 1993; Morris & Peng, 1994; Lee, Hallahan & Herzog, 1996; Anderson, 1999). Carpenter (2000) demonstrated that it is only attribution for failure, which is related to collectivism/individualism cultural syndrome, and not attribution for success. The results further indicate that people from collectivism cultures have a tendency to make external attributions for failure while those belonging to individualistic cultures make internal attributions for failure. Furthermore, one of the distinguishing features of individualism is that social behavior is determined by personal beliefs, values, and attitudes whereas in collectivism it is determined by social norms, obligation, and duties. Personal beliefs, values, and attitudes are internal processes while social norms are external to an individual. In addition, personal autonomy is valued and encouraged in Western and individualistic cultures (Bond, Leung, & Wan, 1982; Triandis, 1990).

Collectivism/individualism cultural syndrome has also been investigated in connection with personality traits related to the big five factors. Collectivistic cultures emphasize group and social harmony and behavior that is likely to disturb harmony, such as assertiveness and individual willful actions is discouraged (Wolf, 1964). Moreover, Hofstede (1980) noted that gregariousness and group orientation

are some of behavioral characteristics of people of collectivistic cultures. People of individualistic cultures on the other hand tend to be assertive, autonomous, and self-reliant (Bond, Leung, & Wan, 1982; Triandis, 1990). The findings of Van Eeden and Prinsloo (1992) render support to claims that group dependency is a cultural specific trait for people in collectivistic cultures. The results indicate that the African language groups scored lower than the English/Afrikaans group on self-reliance, suggesting a tendency to be group dependent. It is not clear how collectivism relates to Extraversion considering that assertiveness and gregariousness are both facets of Extraversion. The fact that people from collectivistic cultures are found to be people oriented and use interdependent self-descriptions suggests that they probably tend to be extraverts (Hofstede, 1980; Eaton & Low, 2000).

There seems to be a positive relationship between collectivism and Agreeableness. Research has shown that people of collectivistic cultures tend to be cooperative (Triandis, Leung, Villareal, & Clack, 1985), modest (Triandis, McCusker, & Hui, 1990), generous and loyal to fellow social group members (Hofstede & Bond, 1984; Hui, Triandis, & Yee, 1991), compliant and obedient (Kim, 1994), and have concern for other people (Hui & Triandis, 1986; Hui & Villareal, 1989). On the other hand, people of individualistic culture tend to be competitive and put less value on relationships and social harmony (Bond, Leung, & Wan, 1982; Triandis, 1990). According to Bond and Hwang, (1986) aggressiveness is discouraged in the Chinese society, which is also collectivistic.

Ang and Chang (1999) established that need for achievement is not specific to people of individualistic cultures. Their study reported a positive correlation between collectivism and need for achievement. This serves as evidence that achievement-related behavior is also prevalent among societies that emphasize collectivism. With respect to the moral aspect of Conscientiousness, research has shown that people from collectivistic cultures tend to score higher on moral discipline than those of individualistic cultures (Chinese Culture Connection, 1987; Chiu & Kosinski, 1994). In addition, Schwartz and Sagiv (1995) assert that social order and self-discipline are typical values for people of collectivistic cultures. The above-cited information suggests that people from a collectivistic culture tend to be conscientious.

Cross-cultural literature provides very little empirical evidence connecting collectivism/individualism cultural syndrome to the two of the five factor personality dimensions; Neuroticism and Openness to Experience. Reports of lower levels of life satisfaction, sense of well-being, and happiness among people of collectivist cultures suggest that they tend to be less emotionally stable (Diener & Diener, 1993; Diener, Diener, & Diener, 1993). It is interesting to note that Prinsloo (1999) found that the African group scored low on emotional stability and relatively high on openness to change. This seems to suggest that the African group tend to be less conservative and less emotionally stable than the Afrikaans/English group. It should be noted that it has not been empirically established that blacks or African groups in South Africa have a collectivistic culture.

5.4 Hypothesis

While a review of literature indicated utilities of variables under study in explaining behavior in organizational setting, it has not provided a theoretical framework for predicting with confidence the personality profiles of black managers in Namibia. This is due to the lack of consensus in claims from findings in collectivistic and individualistic cultures coupled with non-existence of empirical data on personality of blacks, Africans and especially Namibians. It was expected that participants would report an external locus of control because of their assumed cultural orientation. Hence external locus of control in this context does not serve as an indication of psychological maladjustment.

It was therefore hypothesized that external locus of control will correlate with high scores on Extraversion, Openness to Experience, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness and low scores on Neuroticism.

CHAPTER 6

EMPIRICAL STUDY

6.1 Research Methodology and Methods

6.1.1 Research approach

Christensen (1988) identified two main research approaches, descriptive and experimental. The objective of the research dictates the research approach to be used. The objectives are the same as that of science, description and explanation, which, if both are met, would make it possible for the remaining objectives, prediction and control, to be satisfied. The descriptive research approach is used when the aim of the study is to describe a phenomenon in terms of variables that indicate its existence and any relationship observed between variables. Experimental research approach, on the other hand, is used when the aim of the study is to explain the reasons for existence of a phenomenon and its causes.

The objective of the study is to investigate the relationship between the big five personality dimensions and locus of control among black managers in Namibia. The correlational approach, which is one of the descriptive research approach techniques, is therefore the most appropriate approach for this study. As Christensen (1988) noted, the shortcoming of the correlational approach is that it only shows that a

relationship exist between variables but it does make it possible to determine if there is a causal relationship between variables.

6.1.2 Research Instruments

The research instruments used in this study were Spector's (1988) Work Locus of Control, which was used to measure locus of control and the Revised NEO Personality Inventory (Costa & McCrae, 1992), which was used to assess the big five personality dimensions. These inventories will be discussed in the following section.

The inventories were used in their original forms, without adaptation or translation. It was not found necessary to translate the inventories because of many different local languages and the level of development of the target group. English is the official language in Namibia and all business activities are conducted in English. Fluency in English was one of the criteria used in selection and it is expected that all managers are fluent in English and would not have problems in completing inventories. Most of participants indicated verbally that they did not experience any problem in completing the inventories because the items were easy to understand.

Spector's (1988) Work Locus of Control scale is a domain-specific scale developed for use in assessing locus of control in work settings. Rotter (1966) observed that

the Rotter (1966) scale had not yielded high correlation coefficients with other personality variables. This, according to Rotter (1966), could be attributed to the relations of items in the scale to the type of behavior investigated. Hjelle (1971) reported that Rotter's (1966) scale is subject to social desirability bias and might not be a valid scale for locus of control. Blau (1993) has also made an observation that the Rotter (1966) scale is too general and consists of items derived from different areas, and as such might not be a good measure of locus of control in work settings or predictor of organizational behavior variables.

Phares (1976) theorized that the use of domain-specific scales might improve the predictive validity of locus of control and recommended the development of such scales. Spector (1988) has taken a step in that direction and developed the work locus of control scale. The work locus of control has been found to significantly correlate with Rotter's (1966) scale, but in comparison with Rotter's (1966) the work of locus control has shown significantly higher predictive validities for organizational variables (Spector, 1988; Blau, 1993). Spector's (1988) scale contains items that tap whether an individual perceives luck, effort or powerful others to play a role in getting a job or promotion, how one's performance is evaluated and rewarded, and in making money. Unlike Rotter's (1966) scale, Spector's (1988) scale contains items that concentrate on work related issues.

Spector's (1988) scale contains 16 items on which respondents rate themselves on a five-point Likert-type ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. Eight

items, which are positively stated, are reversed scored that disagreeing with the statement indicates an external locus of control. In these cases, higher numbers are attached to strongly disagree (5) and disagree (4). In case of negatively stated items, of which there are also eight, lower numbers are anchored to 'strongly disagree' (1) and 'disagree' (2). The points scored on the items are added up to give the final score, which is an indicator of one's locus of control. Lower scores indicate an internal locus of control while higher scores indicate an external locus of control.

Costa and McCrae (1992) developed the Revised NEO Personality Inventory that operationalizes the big five factor model of personality through empirical and factor analytic methods. The Revised NEO Personality inventory is more comprehensive than the NEO Five-Factor Inventory (1992) because it has more items (240) and assesses the facets of the big five factors. The NEO Five-Factor Inventory provides measures for the five factors only and it has 60 items.

The self-rating (S) form of the Revised NEO Personality Inventory was used in the study, as it were participants who rated themselves. Respondents rate themselves on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' (0) to 'strongly agree' (4) or 'strongly disagree' (4) to 'strongly agree' (0) in the case of reversed scored items. Each factor has six facets, which are assessed by eight items. The scores of six items are added up to give a score for a factor. That means each factor is assessed by 48 items. The inventory is scored in terms of six facets for each factor, which are summed to give a score for a factor.

The Revised NEO Personality Inventory, in its original form or translated versions, has produced similar personality structures among individuals with different cultural orientation and languages (McCrae & Costa, 1997). These results provide empirical evidence to claims that the five factors are recoverable in different cultures and languages and the Inventory is culture fair. The appropriateness of using the Inventory in work settings has also been established (Costa, 1996). In order to investigate differences between Namibian black managers and other respondents, it is necessary to use the inventory in its original form. The observed significant correlation between the NEO-PI-R facet scales with scores of measures of similar construct has been taken as an indication of convergent validity of the Inventory (Costa & McCrae, 1992a).

6.1.3 Research Procedure

Resistance to participation in the study was expected due to negative perception attached to psychological assessment among blacks in Namibia. It was thought that personal contacts with candidates would result in better response rates. Candidates were contacted in person in order to request their participation in the study. Those who volunteered to participate were then given the inventories and instructions on how to complete them. Anonymity of the respondents and confidentiality was emphasized. The aim was for participants to complete inventories in the presence of the researcher but most participants opted to complete the inventories at home and to

inform the researcher to collect them when completed. The inventories were administered at the same time.

Edwards (1970) conceded that self-report forced-choice personality inventories are subject to response distortion. It has been observed that people distort responses in order to present themselves in socially favorable manners or as psychologically healthy individuals. In order to minimize or prevent response distortion, participants were not informed that the inventories were personality assessment instruments nor the type of information sought. They were informed that the purpose of the study was to investigate the profiles of managers in Namibia and inventory sought their opinion on several work related issues. The logic behind this was to avoid providing a framework whereby participants would know the type of information tapped by the inventories and would be able to determine the response that will put them in a favorable light.

6.1.4 Data Analysis

Locus of control and the big five personality dimensions are extensively researched variables for which standardized inventories are available. These standardized inventories were used to generate data as the study is conducted within the quantitative research paradigm of social sciences (Mounton & Marais, 1996). In other words, quantitative methods were used to generate and evaluate data.

All the returned inventories were first examined for completeness and appropriateness for inclusion in the study. The inventories were hand-scored and data was transferred to one form for each participant, which were submitted to the computer center for analysis. The SPSS version 8 program (Huizenh, 1994) was used for data analysis. The descriptive statistical correlations, and stepwise regression analytical procedures were performed.

The univariate analysis procedures were used to organize and summarize data (Blalock, 1972). The results of this procedure describe the sample in terms of its composition, and provide summaries of how a sample responds on various variables. In this stage, the interest is on how a sample measures on various variables, which are investigated in isolation. This procedure provides for example, the means, standard deviations, frequency distributions, central tendency, and dispersion measures for a sample on various variables.

Bivariate analysis procedures (Blalock, 1972) were used to investigate correlations between locus of control scores and the five factors. Correlations between demographic factors such as age, sex, job and managerial tenure and locus of control and the big five factors were also investigated because previous research has revealed relations between demographic factors and locus of control (Dyl, 1984; Berry, et. al., 1992) as well as the five factors (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

According to Bryman and Cramer (1999), multivariate analysis is used to test for intervening variables or whether the relationship of interest is moderated, and spuriousness. This procedure makes it possible to investigate correlation between three or more variables by holding other variables constant. This allows to test whether there is a combined effect of two or more independent variables on the dependent variable. This can be indicated by a difference in correlation coefficients of two variables when no other variables were controlled and when other variables were not controlled. It might be possible that a low or an insignificant correlation might be observed when the correlation between the two variables was investigated and such correlation might disappear or reach significance with a partial correlation test.

It is necessary to conduct this test because previous research has shown that demographic factors have influence on locus of control and the big five factors. The results of this test will not only further understanding of the nature of variables under study but will also improve the effectiveness of the study.

According to Kleinbaum, Kupper, Muller, and Nizam (1998), stepwise regression analysis is a multivariate procedure used to test the amount of variance in the dependent variable accounted for by each independent variable. In this study locus of control is the dependent variable while the five factors are the independent variables. The end product of this procedure is the formula in which independent variables are arranged from the best predictor to the one that accounts for the least

variance in the dependence variable. The advantage of this procedure is that this test reveals the actual relationship between variables, which might have been masked or confounded by other variables that influence one or both variables under investigation.

6.2 Sample

The target group for this study was black people employed in management positions in private and parastatal organizations in Namibia. The term “black” in this study refers to people who, during the apartheid system, were excluded from managerial positions based on the job reservation act. This was done based on the fact that they were not of Caucasian origin. The sample covered the three management levels, managing director/chief executive officer, general managers, and managers. Approximately 80 managers were approached to participate in the study of which only 36 useful cases were obtained. Most people did not even agree to a meeting to deliver and explain the documents. Some refused the study documents while others accepted the documents but never completed them despite many reminders.

The sample consisted of 36 managers. The majority of participants were men (83%), married (77%), and indicated indigenous languages such as Herero, Damara>Nama, Lozi/Subia, Rukwangari, and Oshiwambo (91%) as their primary languages. Only 9% indicated Afrikaans as their primary language but are nevertheless classified as blacks. The sample had an average age of 37 years, the youngest was 25 years old

and the oldest was 49 years old. 86 % had university degrees (M degree 31%, B degree 56%) the rest had tertiary diplomas or certificates (8%) or just grade 12 (6%). The period in their current positions ranged from one to five years and an average was 2 years. The sample had average management tenure of 4 years; the lowest was one year and highest was 11 years. The sample consisted of 81% managers, 14 % general managers, and the rest were either managing directors or chief executive officers.

The composition of the sample was to a large extent determined by the potential candidates' willingness to participate in the study. As such the sample is not assumed to be representative of black managers in Namibia. It might also be possible that the decision to participate or not is a function of the personality factors being investigated in the study. For example, Rosenthal and Rosnow (1969) found that low authoritarians were more likely to volunteer to participate in studies than high authoritarians.

External locus of control is associated with cynicism, closed-mindedness, dogmatism, and authoritarianism (Lefcourt, 1982). On the other hand, internals are found to be more considerate of other people, willing to help others, cooperative and altruistic than externals. Most people might have participated in the study for the sake of helping a student obtain data in order to complete the project. It is likely that people who had an internal locus of control, open to experience, and agreeable were more likely to participate in the study.

According to McCrae and John (1992), people who score low on Conscientiousness scale tend to be lazy, irresponsible, disorganized, careless, lack self-discipline, and procrastinate. Some of the managers who were approached but declined to participate in the study indicated that they were too busy to complete the inventories. It takes about half an hour to complete both inventories. Some of those who accepted the inventories promising to return them upon completion did not return the inventories. It might be possible that most of the people who participated in the study were highly conscientious because low scorers were too busy to do anything or indefinitely postponed or even forgot to complete the inventories.

6.3 Results of the study

6.3.1 Locus of control

Descriptive statistics for locus of control are shown in table 6.1. The locus of control scale scores range from 20 to 45 with a mean of 32 and standard deviation of 5.96. The results suggest that the sample report an internal locus of control orientation, using 40 as a cut-off score. The results suggest that 92% of the sample reported an internal locus of control orientation. The frequency polygon is positively skewed which means that the sample differs from the normal population in locus of control orientation. In other words the results suggest that managers tend to be more internally oriented than the general population.

Table 6.1 Descriptive statistics for locus of control

| | |
|------------------|---------|
| Mean | 32 |
| SD | 5.96 |
| Range | 20 – 45 |
| Skewness | - 0.081 |
| Mode | 29 |
| Median | 32 |
| Internal LOC | <40 |
| External LOC | >40 |
| Bilocal | 40 |
| Possible minimum | 16 |
| Possible maximum | 80 |

The relationship of demographic factors to locus of control was investigated to determine whether locus of control varies with variables such as sex, age, or level of education. The Pearsonian r for age and locus of control is .24 and not statistically significant. The results did not indicate any correlation between locus of control and the level of education. Albeit a slightly higher mean score 33 for the female group in comparison to the male group mean score of 32, no significant difference was observed between females' and males' scores on locus of control scale.

6.3.2 The big five factors

The scores on the big five factors were compared to that of the adult normative sample in the Revised NEO Personality Inventory and NEO Five-Factor Inventory Manual (Costa & McCrae, 1992). The means and standard deviations for NEO PI-R scale of managers and the norm group are presented in table 6.2. The combined values of the norm group were used due to a small number of women in the present study.

Table 6.2 Means and Standard Deviations for NEO PI-R of the present study and normative sample.

| Domains & Facets | Present Study | | Normative Sample | |
|--------------------------|---------------|-------------|------------------|-------------|
| | M | SD | M | SD |
| Neuroticism | 79.8 | 14.2 | 79.1 | 21.2 |
| Anxiety | 14.5 | 3.4 | 14.3 | 5.3 |
| Angry Hostility | 13.9 | 4.1 | 12.4 | 4.6 |
| Depression | 14.1 | 3.7 | 12.3 | 5.4 |
| Self-Consciousness | 14.9 | 3.5 | 14.3 | 4.4 |
| Impulsiveness | 14.7 | 3.6 | 15.8 | 4.4 |
| Vulnerability | 8.3 | 3.6 | 10.0 | 3.9 |
| Extraversion | 117.8 | 15.9 | 109.4 | 18.4 |
| Warmth | 22.4 | 3.0 | 22.9 | 4.0 |
| Gregariousness | 18.7 | 5.4 | 16.5 | 4.8 |
| Assertiveness | 20.0 | 4.5 | 15.8 | 4.7 |
| Activity | 19.2 | 3.7 | 17.6 | 4.4 |
| Excitement-Seeking | 17.5 | 4.2 | 16.4 | 4.9 |
| Positive Emotions | 20.6 | 3.5 | 20.2 | 4.5 |
| Openness | 111.6 | 14.5 | 110.6 | 17.3 |
| Fantasy | 15.3 | 3.3 | 16.6 | 4.9 |
| Aesthetics | 18.2 | 4.8 | 17.6 | 4.3 |
| Feelings | 20.1 | 4.0 | 20.3 | 4.0 |
| Actions | 17.4 | 4.1 | 16.4 | 3.7 |
| Ideas | 21.9 | 4.4 | 19.0 | 5.0 |
| Values | 20.4 | 4.1 | 20.7 | 4.1 |
| Agreeableness | 115.1 | 17.1 | 124.3 | 15.8 |
| Trust | 17.1 | 4.3 | 21.8 | 4.2 |
| Straightforwardness | 19.6 | 4.5 | 21.2 | 4.4 |
| Altruism | 22.2 | 4.2 | 23.6 | 3.5 |
| Compliance | 17.6 | 4.6 | 18.9 | 4.0 |
| Modesty | 18.4 | 3.9 | 18.9 | 4.2 |
| Tender-Mindedness | 21.2 | 3.7 | 20.5 | 3.5 |
| Conscientiousness | 132.6 | 16.0 | 123.9 | 17.6 |
| Competence | 22.8 | 3.6 | 22.2 | 3.5 |
| Order | 18.9 | 3.8 | 19.0 | 4.2 |
| Dutifulness | 23.5 | 4.0 | 23.2 | 3.9 |
| Achievement Striving | 23.1 | 3.0 | 19.5 | 4.0 |
| Self-Discipline | 22.9 | 4.5 | 21.8 | 4.3 |
| Deliberation | 21.4 | 3.7 | 17.5 | 4.1 |

In comparison to the means of the normative sample, the scores of the managers were not statistically significant different. However, the standard deviations in the present study tend to be somewhat smaller than those in the norm group. This serves as an indication of homogeneity of the group and that the data tend to cluster around mean values. This also indicates that the frequency distributions do not assume normal distributions. These deductions will be elaborated on or clarified when analyzing data for individual factors.

With respect to Neuroticism, participants had a mean score of 79.8 and a standard deviation of 14.2, indicating an average score on Neuroticism. The scores of more than half (55%) of research participants fell in an average range (65-85), while 16.7%, 22.2%, and 5.6% fell in low (45-64), high (87-106), and very high (107-192) ranges respectively. Comparing the mean score of black managers (79.8) with the mean score of the norm group (79.1) indicated that there is no significant difference between the two groups.

The scores of 99 to 118 on the Extraversion factor are considered to be an average. The score of participants ranged from 86 to 153 with the mean score of 117.8 and a standard deviation of 15.9. The results show that 39 percent of participants scored above average on this factor and the mean score indicates a very high average or highest score in the average category.

The mean score on Openness to Experience scale was 111.6 with a standard deviation of 14.5 and corresponds to an average score. For comparison, very high

scores are above 138, high scores range from 120 to 137, an average is between 101 and 119, and scores below average are classified as either low (83-100) or very low (0-82). The results indicate that 28 % of participants scored above average which is equal to those who scored below average and leaves 44 percent with scores in the average range. The skewness value is small (.112) and together with an insignificant difference between the mean and median indicates a normal distribution.

Concerning Agreeableness, the sample had a mean score of 115 with the standard deviation of 17, which even though still in an average range, is relatively lower than the mean score (123.3) of the normative sample. The results indicate that 42 percent of participants scored below average and 19 percent scored above average. The frequency polygon for Agreeableness scores is positively skewed toward low scores on this factor.

The sample's mean score on Conscientiousness was 132.6 with a standard deviation of 16, which even though relatively higher than that of the normative sample, is still in the average range. The results show that 58 percent of participants scored above average (>133), while only 14 percent scored below average (<115) and 28 percent of scores fell in the average range, which is between 115 and 133. The skewness value (-.394) indicates that the frequency is negatively skewed towards high scores on this factor.

To gain a deeper understanding of the big five personality profiles of participants in this study, correlations were computed among the five factors. Pearson correlation coefficients for the five factors are presented in table 6.3.

Table 6.3 Intercorrelations among the five factors

| Factors | Neuroticism | Extraversion | Openness to Experience | Agreeableness |
|------------------------|-------------|--------------|------------------------|---------------|
| Neuroticism | - | - | - | - |
| Extraversion | -.505** | - | - | - |
| Openness to experience | -.424** | .542** | - | - |
| Agreeableness | -.244 | .294 | .040 | |
| Conscientiousness | -.540** | .594** | .397• | .0871 |

N=36, two tailed

• $p < .05$

** $p \leq .01$

The results indicate that scores on Neuroticism negatively correlated with scores on Extraversion, Openness to Experience, and Conscientiousness while scores on Extraversion positively correlated with scores Openness to Experience and Conscientiousness. Furthermore, scores on Openness to Experience positively correlated with scores on Conscientiousness. Agreeableness was not associated with scores on any of the other four factors.

6.3.3 Correlations between locus of control and the big five factors

The Pearson correlation coefficients for locus of control and the five personality dimensions are presented in table 6.4. The hypothesis stipulated that external locus of control would correlate with low score on Neuroticism, and high scores on Extraversion, Openness, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness.

Table 6.4 Pearson correlation coefficients for locus of control and the five factors

| Factors | | Locus of control |
|------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------|
| Neuroticism | Pearson Correlation | .287 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .090 |
| | N | 36 |
| Extraversion | Pearson Correlation | -.429●● |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .009 |
| | N | 36 |
| Openness to Experience | Pearson Correlation | -.400● |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .016 |
| | N | 36 |
| Agreeableness | Pearson Correlation | -.374● |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .025 |
| | N | 36 |
| Conscientiousness | Pearson Correlation | -.204 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .232 |
| | N | 36 |

● $p < .05$

●● $p < .01$

The results in table 6.4 do not provide support for the hypothesis. These results indicate that locus of control was significantly negatively correlated with Extraversion, Openness to Experience and Agreeableness. The highest correlation was obtained with Extraversion while Agreeableness had the lowest of the significant correlations. Both correlation coefficients have a negative value, meaning that high

scores on these factors are associated with internal locus of control, which is the lower end of the locus of control scale. In other words, the results indicate that managers who reported an internal locus of control or had low scores on locus of control scale had high scores on Extraversion, Openness, and Agreeableness factors. Weak, insignificant, positive and negative relations were observed with two of the big five factors, Neuroticism ($r = .287$) and Conscientiousness ($r = - .204$) respectively.

The partial correlation coefficients for locus of control and the five factors controlling for certain demographic variables is presented in table 6.5. A comparison of correlation coefficients showed no significant differences.

Table 6.5 Partial correlation coefficients

| Factors | Controlled variable: | | |
|-------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------|
| | Job Tenure | Management tenure | Age |
| Neuroticism | .300 | .298 | .242 |
| Extraversion | -.424• | -.453•• | -.392• |
| Openness | -.386• | -.410• | -.374• |
| Agreeableness | -.399• | -.376• | -.359• |
| Conscientiousness | -.180 | -.211 | -.232 |

N = 36, Degree of freedom = 33, 2-tailed Significance

- $p < .05$
- $p < .01$

Even though coefficients varied a little bit with partial correlation, significant coefficients retained their significance and insignificant ones remained insignificant. This provides evidence that demographic factors do not impact significant influence on correlations between locus of control and the big five factors and any variance in locus of control is attributable to variance in the five factors.

The results of the stepwise multiple regression analysis are presented in table 6.6. All the five factors were entered in the equation in the following sequence: Agreeableness, Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, and Extraversion. According to Bryman and Cramer (1999), independent variables, the five personality factors in this case, are entered in the equation according to their contribution to explanation of variance in the dependent variable (locus of control). The factor with the highest correlation with locus of control, Agreeableness, was entered first and the rest of five factors were entered according to the magnitude of their partial correlations (the effects of other personality factors partialled out) with locus of control. When added to the equation, the factor is evaluated against the factor or factors already in the equation. In the end, all independent factors are considered together as to how much variance each factor causes in the dependent variable. Consequently, independent variable or personality factors with fewer and lower correlations with others appear earlier while those with more and higher correlations appear later in the sequence and equation (Pedhazur, 1982).

Table 6.6 Output of SPSS stepwise multiple regression analysis

Model Summary

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate | Change Statistics | | | | |
|-------|-------|----------|-------------------|----------------------------|-------------------|----------|-----|-----|---------------|
| | | | | | R Square Change | F Change | Df1 | Df2 | Sig. F Change |
| 1 | .560a | .313 | .199 | 5.34 | .313 | 2.734 | 5 | 30 | .038 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Agreeableness, Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, Extraversion

ANOVA b

| Model | | Sum of Squares | Df | Mean Squares | F | Sig. |
|-------|------------|----------------|----|--------------|-------|-------|
| 1 | Regression | 389.406 | 5 | 77.881 | 2.734 | .038a |
| | Residual | 854.483 | 30 | 28.483 | | |
| | Total | 1243.889 | 35 | | | |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Agreeableness, Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, Extraversion

b. Dependent Variable: Locus of Control

Coefficients a

| Model | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | T | Sig. | |
|-------|-----------------------------|------------|---------------------------|-------|--------|------|
| | B | STD. Error | Beta | | | |
| 1 | (Constant) | 62.505 | 17.554 | | 3.561 | .001 |
| | Neuroticism | 9.249E -03 | .081 | .022 | .114 | .910 |
| | Extraversion | -8.230E-02 | .083 | -.219 | -.996 | .327 |
| | Openness to Experience | -.120 | .077 | -.292 | -1.559 | .129 |
| | Conscientiousness | 2.989E-02 | .076 | .080 | .393 | .697 |
| | Agreeableness | -.105 | .057 | -.300 | -1.827 | .078 |

a. Dependent Variable: Locus of Control

The combined effect of the five factors on locus of control indicated by the Coefficient of Multiple Determination (R^2) in the Model Summary table is 0.313, meaning that 31.1 percent of variance in locus of control is explained by the five factors working together. The F value indicates the statistical significance for the equation or the likelihood of the five personality factors to predict locus of control in a different sample drawn from the same population. The model with all five factors can be considered a good fit because it has an F value of 2.734 and is significant at .038 ($p < .05$). However, Cohen and Holiday (1982) indicated that for a multiple correlation coefficient to be considered as high it must be equal to or above 0.7 ($R^2 \geq .49$).

Standardized Coefficients or beta weights in the table labeled coefficients indicate the number of standard deviation units locus of control changes per one standard deviation change in a personality factor. The personality factor with the highest standardized coefficient explained the greatest variance in locus of control. In this case Agreeableness has the highest coefficient. The coefficients are also used in the equation employed to predict a dependent variable (locus of control) when values of the big five personality dimensions (independent variables) are known. The equation generated by stepwise regression analysis is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Locus of Control} = & - 0.300 (\text{Agreeableness}) - 0.292 (\text{Openness}) + 0.080 \\ & (\text{Conscientiousness}) + 0.022 (\text{Neuroticism}) - 0.219 \\ & (\text{Extraversion}) \end{aligned}$$

Extraversion explained the second greatest variance in locus of control but due to high correlations with other three personality factors, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, and Conscientiousness it came last in the equation. While a correlation multiple coefficient of 0.313 can be considered as an indication of a moderate relationship, coefficients cannot be relied upon due to high inter-correlations among the five factors (Cohen & Holliday, 1982). It is therefore not surprising that regression coefficients for all the five factors did not reach significance.

6.4 Interpretation and discussion of the results

6.4.1 Locus of control

Black managers, as a group, scored low on Spector's (1988) work locus of control scale, which indicates an internal locus of control. It was not possible to compare the mean score of the group with that of other managers reported by previous studies because most of studies that investigated locus of control among managers have used Rotter's (1966) scale or an adapted version thereof. The finding is however consistent with those studies reporting that managers tend to espouse an internal locus of control more than other employees and general population (Harvey, 1971; Valecha, 1972; Mitchell et al., 1975; Miller et al., 1982; Morrison, 1997; Smith, Dugan, & Trompenaars, 1997).

Contrary to some studies, no significant relationship was found between locus of control and demographic factors such as age and gender (Smith et al., 1977). This finding is consistent with the finding of Blau (1993) in that both studies did not observe any significant relationship between locus of control and demographic factors.

According to Rotter (1966), individuals who report an internal locus of control have a high belief or expectation about their ability to control situational factors. In other words, internals as compared to externals, who fail to see contingency between their actions and outcomes, have high expectancy that their actions would lead to desired outcomes or reinforcement. This difference obviously leads to differences in work performance of externals and internals. Blau (1993) has provided empirical evidence that the difference in performance between externals and internals exists only when initiative and independence action is required.

In the literature pertaining to locus of control and managerial performance, internal locus of control has been consistently associated with good performance (Spector, 1982; Johns, 1996). Hence, the managers' low scores on locus of control suggest that they believe in personal control, tend to show greater job motivation, are satisfied with their jobs, display good management styles or leadership behavior, are competent, and overall suited for managerial roles (Spector, 1982).

This result challenges the widespread notion that race, culture, gender, and the country's level of development influence locus of control orientation. As with previous findings, these results reveal that people in positions of power tend to report an internal locus of control (Harvey, 1971; Morrison, 1997; Smith et al., 1997). In this context, the concept of locus of control can be conceptualized in the framework of domination in which a difference exists between those who have power and those upon whom power is exerted. It is not idiosyncratic for those upon whom power is exerted to perceive an external locus of control. Furthermore, Dyl (1984) observed that locus of control scores correlate to the actual degree of control people can impact on the course of their own lives in the real world.

At this juncture, the question why managers tend to report an internal locus of control needs to be addressed. Does it mean that people who espouse an internal locus of control have better chances of getting managerial positions or do people develop an internal locus of control once they occupy management positions? One would be tempted to think that because of their belief in their ability and their desire to be in control, internals are more likely to apply for management positions than externals. On the other hand, despite not believing in their abilities, externals might not prefer to be in a position where they have to make decisions and manage others (Lefcourt, 1982). Consequently, this would increase chances of internals getting those positions and the possibility of most, if not, all managers having an internal locus of control.

The reasoning that internals are more likely to be selected for management positions has not received an empirical support. The results of Anderson and Nestle's (1976) study did not reveal any difference between externals and internals in being selected for managerial positions. However, consistent with Anderson's (1977) finding, the results demonstrated a reciprocal influence between locus of control and work experience. Both studies showed that career success or success at work caused a shift toward internal locus of control. It then follows that a manager's perception of internal locus control is attributable to his/her work experience.

These findings offer empirical support for cognitive social learning theory that it is the social arrangement or structure that determines locus of control orientation (Lefcourt, 1982) as well as Luthans' (1998) claim of reciprocal determination among personality, organizational environment, and performance. In this case, organizational arrangement and practice related to the distribution of rewards or action-reward sequence is relevant to the development of locus of control belief. In work organizations, rewards can be anything that follows actions or performance such as salary increment, promotion, recognition, or even a verbal remark or feedback. Research has shown that consistency and instrumentality or fairness of rewards is associated with an internal locus of control (Lefcourt, 1982; Carton & Nowick, 1994). On the other hand, if rewards are not allocated according to internal variables such as individual performance or effort, then people are more likely to perceive that performance or effort is not instrumental in gaining rewards.

Allocation of rewards is similar to reinforcement and the reinforcement theory explains the impacts of rewards on subsequent performance and behavior. The reinforcement theory postulates that actions, which are followed by positive reinforcements are more likely to be repeated than those followed by negative reinforcement or not reinforced at all (Bandura, 1986; Luthans, 1998). This scenario explains the reported association between external locus of control and poor performance or locus of control and performance in general (Spector, 1982). It follows that people who are not rewarded for their performance not only espouse an external locus of control but also adjust their performance.

Situational strength is another variable that can influence the perception of locus of control in work organization. In his earlier work, Mischel (1968; 1973) advanced an argument that individuals' behavior is determined by the interaction between personality and situational characteristics. In his later work Mischel (1977) theorized that situational characteristics moderate the relationship between personality characteristics and behavior. Situational strength is the degree of structure in place or amount of demand for individuals to conform to laid down regulations and procedures. Situational strength can either be weak, meaning that there is no or little structure and demands to conform are few, or strong where there is a definite structure in place and many demands to conform.

Research in organizational setting has shown that weak situations give people autonomy to decide how to perform their jobs while strong situations restrict people

to laid down procedures and regulations (Barrick & Mount, 1993). In addition, personality has been found to be relevant or expressed in weak situations where autonomy is high (Mischel, 1977; Weiss & Adler, 1984). While acknowledging that autonomy and internal locus of control are different concepts, it is a logical assumption that autonomy facilitates an internal locus of control. On the other hand, a strong situation signals a lack of internal control, as a person is expected to comply with decisions and procedures of those in power.

The tendency of managers to report an internal locus of control as indicated by the present study and other previous studies can be attributed to the allocation of rewards and situational strength (Harvey, 1971; Andrisani & Nestle, 1976; Smith et al., 1997). Bell and Staw (1989) observed that the work of managers is unstructured in comparison to that of non-managerial employees, which is routine and highly structured. It then follows that because of autonomy managers have, they are more likely to espouse an internal locus of control than those in jobs with low or no autonomy. Furthermore, getting a managerial position is an achievement in itself and can be perceived as positive work experience (Andrisani & Nestle, 1976). However, managers' perception of allocation of rewards as fair and consistent can be ambiguous as it can be a true reflection of management practice or an attempt to justify their actions.

In most studies, the differences in locus of control have been misinterpreted in that much emphasis is put on individual characteristics as determining factors. However,

in the social learning theory, locus of control should be influenced by environmental factors because it has been demonstrated that developing external or internal locus of control is a product of social learning (Rotter, 1966). Individual characteristics associated with locus of control indicate individuals at social or organizational disadvantage and not inherent weakness in those individuals (Smith et al., 1997). Literature on locus of control has deviated from the theory in which the concept is embedded and this can limit the utility of locus of control. Instead of asking who will be best suited for a position on basis of locus of control one should ask how to create an environment in which most individuals can perceive an internal locus of control.

6.4.2 The big five personality dimensions

The present sample's mean scores on all five factors fell in the average range. However, the mean scores for the present sample on Extraversion and Conscientiousness are considerably higher while that on Agreeableness is lower than those of the normative sample. The results of the big five-factor personality dimensions suggest that managers, who participated in this study, can be described as Extraverted, Conscientious, and less Agreeable than the normative sample. The managers' mean scores on the remaining factors, Openness to Experience and Neuroticism, did not differ much from the mean scores of the normative sample, which indicate that they are not different from other people on these factors.

Considering that the mean scores on Conscientiousness, Agreeableness and Extraversion are in the average range, no interpretation is warranted. However this will conceal very important information, as it will deny 58 percent, in the case of Conscientiousness, of interpretation. Similar to this study, Morrison (1997) reported higher mean scores for managers on Extraversion and Conscientiousness than the average population. With regard to Neuroticism and Openness to Experience, the results of the present study differed from that of Morrison (1997) as the present sample's mean scores for these factors correspond to that of the normative sample while Morrison (1997) reported slightly less mean scores for managers than average scores. Again, the present study reported a lower mean score on Agreeableness than the normative sample while Morrison (1997) found no difference between the mean score of managers and average scores on this factor.

With regard to correlations among the five factors, the present study and that of Morrison (1997) reported negative significant correlations between Neuroticism and both Extraversion and Conscientiousness while Barrick and Mount (1993) reported a significant negative correlation between Neuroticism but not Extraversion. In both Barrick and Mount (1993) and Morrison's (1997) studies Neuroticism negatively correlated with Agreeableness, which was not observed in the present study. Moreover, Barrick and Mount (1993) and the present study reported negative correlations between Neuroticism and Openness to Experience. With regard to Extraversion, the present study observed positive correlations with both Openness to Experience and Conscientiousness, Morrison (1997) observed positive correlations

with both Conscientiousness and Agreeableness and Barrick and Mount (1993) observed a positive correlation with Openness to Experience only. In Morrison's (1997) study, Openness to Experience did not correlate with any other factor but in the present study Openness to Experience also positively correlated to Conscientiousness.

The similarities and differences reported between the present study and the previous studies indicate that just as there are similarities there are also differences among studies. The results of the present studies did not however indicate striking differences that separate the present sample from those of other studies. One of the most important findings of the present study, is the higher scores on Extraversion and Conscientiousness which complement the previous findings and claims that managers are more conscientious and extraverted than other people (Johns, 1996; Morrison, 1997). As previously mentioned elsewhere, research has not produced consistent findings concerning Agreeableness and management. This inconsistency can probably be attributed to the fact that extreme scores on both ends of the scale indicate unhealthy psychological functioning (Costa & McCrae, 1992). It must, however, be noted that research with the big five factors is in its infancy and not much evidence has been accumulated thus far.

In Luthans' (1998) model of organizational behavior, personality is considered as a repository of previous experience as well as the influencer of subsequent job behavior. Like the cognitive social learning theorist, Luthans (1998) does not

emphasize the influence of genetics on the development of personality, instead he explains personality as being flexible and sensitive to an individual's experience. Reciprocal interaction among situation, behavior, and personality imply that situational factors as well as the consequences of past behavior can cause a change in personality. In this context, the social or organizational environment, through the socialization process, is thought to have more influence on the type of personality organizations' participants adopt. Like societies, organizations define behaviors that are appropriate and employees must learn those behavior, and behave in accordance with the expectations. Reward systems are again instrumental in enforcing conformity because organizations tend to positively reinforce activities that are considered appropriate and punish those that contradict the norms and values of organizations (1998).

Differences in the two of the five personality dimensions namely Extraversion and Conscientiousness between managers and other people might have resulted from activities managers usually perform. As Staw and Barsade (1993) noted managers interact with different people in carrying out their activities. It is logical to assume that as managers become used to interacting with different people, they become more relaxed and enjoy social situations. In addition to managing their own activities, they are also responsible for managing activities of their staff members and planning and self-discipline is essential in effectively coordinating different activities. Hence, consistent with Luthans' (1998) model of organizational behavior, managers tend to

score high on these dimensions because of the reinforcement or their perception that it is the appropriate behavior for people in management.

6.4.3 Correlations between locus of control and the five factors

The study provided impressive bivariate correlations between locus of control and the five factor model. The negative correlation between locus of control and Extraversion is consistent with the empirical finding of Morrison (1997) and Crandall and Crandall's (1983) assertion that perception of internal locus of control facilitates more assertiveness towards others and good interpersonal relationships.

Contrary to Morrison (1997) who found no significant relation between locus of control and Openness to Experience, this study observed a significant association between internal locus of control and this dimension. A negative relationship between locus of control and Openness to Experience suggest that individuals who perceive internal locus of control are also open to experience.

This relationship seems to have a theoretical basis. According to Piedmont (1998), a low score on Openness scale indicates an individual who conforms to authority, honors tradition, is uncomfortable with change, and prefers familiarity and routine. Internals, on the other hand, have been found to be less compliant, proactive, creative, innovative, risk taking, initiative, and to lead dynamic organizations, as leaders (Spector, 1982; Miller et al., 1982). In addition, McDaniel (1992) reported

that the more effective change leaders had higher scores on the Openness to Experience scale than the ineffective ones.

The measure of Agreeableness was also significantly associated with locus of control score in the present study. This is consistent with Morrison's (1997) findings and contention that internals adopt effective coping strategies and thus are less likely to exhibit aggressive behavior or use a coercive style (Mitchell et al., 1975; Perlow & Latham, 1993). According to Piedmont (1998) Agreeableness captures interpersonal orientation that ranges from Mother Teresa-ish to Machiavellian. Also of interest, external locus of control is associated with Machiavellian, a behavior characterized by cynicism, manipulation, deception, and aggression (Comer, 1985; Gable, Hollon, & Dangelo, 1990; Gable & Dangelo, 1994). In addition, Mitchell et al. (1975) reported that internals were more considerate than externally controlled managers, a quality captured by the altruism facet of Agreeableness.

Although in the same direction, the correlation between locus of control and Neuroticism observed in this study is weaker than that reported by Morrison (1997). This finding is inconsistent with previous research reports that internally oriented individuals, as compared to externals, display better psychological adjustment (i.e., less depression and anxiety), use effective coping strategies in face of difficulties, and are more satisfied with life (Crandall & Crandall, 1983; Cooper et al., 1995; Anderson, 1977).

The studies of Manuck, Hinrichsen, and Ross (1975a,b) indicated that, because internals are likely to attribute failures to themselves, they might become anxious about failure and disappointments. It stands to reason that internals who experience failure or are not recognized for their performance might have scored high on Neuroticism despite their low scores on locus of control (Lefcourt, 1982). Likewise, there might be externals who scored low on Neuroticism, as externals are less likely to attribute failure to their own actions. This interaction disturbs the pattern of correlation and consequently weakens the relationship.

The weak relationship between locus of control and Conscientiousness is also paradoxical in the context of previous research which suggests that internals tend to be self-motivated, competent, responsible, creative, innovative, achievement oriented, develop long-term plans, and pursue innovative corporate strategies, and empirical findings linking Conscientiousness to internal locus of control (Spector, 1982; Miller et al, 1982; Nwachukwu, 1995; Morrison, 1997). The finding of Gurin et al., (1969), suggesting that Negroes with external locus of control orientation or who did not blame themselves for their difficulties were more likely to show innovative behavior than those who blamed themselves, may help to clarify or reconcile disparities in these findings.

Over all, the findings of this study collaborate with previous studies and theory pertaining to locus of control and the big five factors. In addition, the study discovered a correlation between Openness to Experience and locus of control. The

weak correlation of locus of control to Neuroticism and Conscientiousness can be taken as an indication that these relationships might be moderated.

The correlations observed, in the present study, between locus of control and three of the five factors namely Extraversion, Openness to Experience, and Agreeableness seem to elucidate the interaction between environmental or situational factors and personality characteristics. Locus of control is construed as individuals' cognitive representation of the world, which in return guide their subsequent behavior or how they react towards the world (Meyer, 1997). Barrick and Mount (1993) empirically demonstrated that autonomy, which closely parallels locus of control, moderated the relationship between personality and job performance. However, Luthans' (1998) model of organizational behavior postulates that personality moderates the relationship between environmental situation and job performance.

Rotter (1966) asserts that locus of control should have correlations with the indicators of life adjustment with external locus of control predicting maladjustment. The literature review shows that the body of empirical evidence demonstrates strong relationships between locus of control and the big five personality dimensions. According to Piedmont (1998), the five factor personality characteristics provide a comprehensive summary of individuals, emotional, interpersonal, experiential, attitudinal, and motivational styles. In this context personality characteristics are thought of as coping or survival strategies to help individuals adapt to their world. Research has shown that people tend to exhibit personality traits that indicate

unhealthy psychological functioning when under difficult circumstances or undergoing a life crisis (Lefcourt, 1982;Piedmont, 1998). Personality characteristics, according to Piedmont (1998) serve as indicators of how successful an individual has been in meeting the demands of life.

In Luthans' (1998) model of organizational behavior, motivation to perform is influenced by an individual's conviction that he/she is able to perform a certain task successfully and a valued reinforcement will follow the action. Again, the belief in one's ability or in reinforcement is influenced by past experience. An individual who did not succeed or was not rewarded in the past attempt might not try to perform because he/she does not believe it would make any difference. As a result, a person might become lazy, depressed, or withdrawn.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION

7.1 Implications of the study

This study was conducted with the aim of providing empirical data on locus of control and the big five personality dimensions for black managers in private and semi-state organizations in Namibia. The results of this study suggest that there is great similarity between the personality of black managers and managers in other parts of the world who contributed data to this area of research. Furthermore, the data obtained in this study conform to theories and previous research findings in the area. The findings of this study need to be replicated and further study before they can be taken seriously.

The results of the present study suggest that locus of control and the big five factors might be universal or transcend the cultural boundaries. With regard to locus of control the findings do not permit any conclusion concerning culture as influencing the results. Moreover, the findings render support to the contention of Smith et al. (1997) that differences in locus of control are determined by “patterns of social advantage and disadvantage” so that those disadvantaged are more likely to perceive an external locus of control and the advantaged an internal locus of control. Hence it

is expected for locus of control to differ along racial and sexual lines in countries where racial and sexual discrimination is practiced.

Attributing differences in personality between cultural groups to culture is unwarranted because conclusions were based on correlations. However, correlation between variables indicates that a relationship exists between the variables but such correlation does not provide evidence for causation (Christensen, 1988; Bryman & Cramer, 1999). In addition behaviors that constitute culture and personality originate from the social environment, develop and are shaped through the same process, social learning (Berry et al., 1992). Hence, correlations between culture and personality indicate relatedness of different variables influenced by the same conditions. It should be expected for people who share a social environment and who are faced by similar social conditions to exhibit similar behavior.

The results of this study also raise the question whether cultural differences do indeed account for differences in personality and organizational behavior. It seems that there are social and organizational requirements for interacting with and treating people of different backgrounds that when these requirements are met, cultural differences or their effects are weakened. While not playing down cultural differences, it is logical not to expect individuals of a certain group to espouse an external locus of control in an organization where there are equal opportunities, equitable distribution of rewards, as well as fair and consistent treatment of employees regardless of cultures.

A vast amount of research in organizational behavior clearly shows that work experience plays an important role in shaping personality of employees and determining managerial work performance. However, research has not provided evidence that selecting managers based on personality characteristics is a means of appointing managers who would be effective. Thus, human resources development strategies, to equip managers with required competencies and create an organizational culture that fosters an internal locus of control, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Emotional Stability, and Openness to Experience, seem to be viable options. Personality measures for employees can be used for the identification of individuals and organizational development needs. In addition, this knowledge can inform the content of human resources development programs and organizational development interventions.

7.2 Limitations and recommendations for future research

The study might have several limitations. First, the sample was very small and participants were not randomly selected. Participation in the study was determined by a candidate's willingness to complete a questionnaire and such decision could have been influenced by personality traits investigated in the study. As such, the sample is not assumed to be representative of black managers in Namibia and caution must be exercised in generalizing the findings to those who did not participate in the study. The results can only be compared to the findings from other country and theory and not to the Namibian general population or non-managerial employees, as

they have not been included in the study. It is recommended that a similar study be conducted with a larger sample consisting of unemployed people, non-managerial employees and managers.

Second, the validity and culture fairness of personality assessment instruments used in the study has not been established. It might be possible that the instruments contain culture specific items that could have produced different responses among research participants. In addition, data analyzed in this study was generated with the use of self-report inventories, which have been shown to be subject to response distortion. The Revised NEO Personality Inventory has an observer-report (R) form, which has been used in validation studies. It is advisable to conduct a study investigating correlations between self-ratings and the ratings of those who know individuals very well so as to determine the validity of the Inventory. Another recommendation is to initiate and intensify research in personality to validate assessment tools developed in other countries.

The main reason for conducting this specific study is accumulation of convincing empirical evidence provided by previous research and contention that personality is the main determinant of performance of managers. Performance of research participants was not assessed and inference cannot be made with certainty as to how personality traits investigated in this study relate to performance. Future research should, in addition to locus of control and the five factors, include performance as one of the variables.

Another limitation is that this study being correlational, provides no evidence of causal relationship or direction of relationships between locus of control and the big five factors. The likelihood of recursive effect from locus of control to the big five factors as well as a bi-directional relationship with the five factors can probably not be ruled out. Although the evidence of a coherent pattern of correlations between locus of control and some of the big five factors is fairly consistent, there is still not a clear picture of the mechanism that produces these correlations. This is due to the fact that most of the studies were cross-sectional or correlational that do not allow for an assessment of cause and effect. Future research can probably investigate whether there is any causal relationship between locus of control and the personality factors of the big five model.

The findings of this study do not reflect negatively on research participants and more importantly, provide counterevidence to stereotypes held toward a group to which participants belong. Even though further research is needed to support these findings, a conclusion can be drawn that the assessment instruments used in this study can generate valid data among black managers. The results of this study can be used to influence people's perception concerning personality assessment in multicultural organizations as well as a guide to future research in this area.

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