

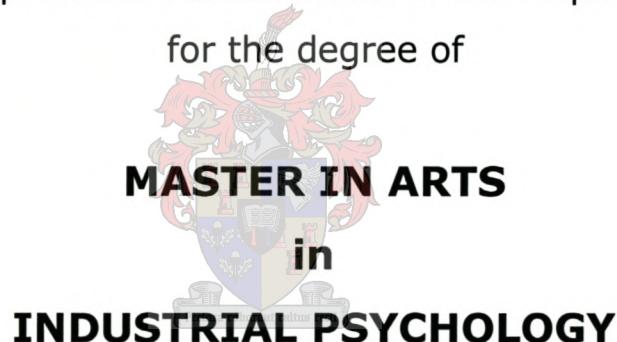
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TRAINER LOCUS OF CONTROL AND TRAINING STYLE ORIENTATION

by

ESMÉ KLEYN

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PROMOTOR: Dr Ronel du Preez

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DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this thesis is my own original work and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it at any university for a degree.

Esmé Kleyn

March 2004

ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TRAINER LOCUS OF CONTROL AND TRAINING STYLE ORIENTATION

In the current South African context the Government places a great deal of emphasis on the importance of adult training and development as a solution for addressing many social and economic problems. It is therefore important to investigate all aspects regarding the training context in order to optimise learning. The trainer plays an integral part within this system. Although literature regards the trainer as very important for training success, very little substantial research has been documented with regards to the influential factors on the training style orientation that trainers use when training adults.

In order to investigate this problem, a study of the relevant literature is done. The following topics are examined for this purpose: The training system and the components thereof, andragogy and pedagogy as training style orientations, several trait theories of personality as the basis of the study, locus of control as a personality trait, and the influence of personality and more specifically locus of control within work-related settings.

Three questionnaires were administered on a sample of 100 respondents, i.e. a Demographic questionnaire, the Training Style Inventory and the Locus of Control Inventory in order to generate data to investigate the research problem and hypotheses. The Demographic Questionnaire collected data regarding gender, age, qualifications, training experience, ethnicity, subject area of the training content, and type of organisation. The Training Style Inventory measured the training style orientation of the trainer respondents, and the Locus of Control Inventory was used to measure the locus of control of respondents.

The results indicate support for the hypothesis that there is a statistical significant correlation between locus of control and training style orientation. More specifically, there is a statistically significant correlation between internal locus of control and the

andragogical training style orientation, and also between external locus of control and the pedagogical training style orientation.

The main objectives of this study were successfully achieved and documented. Conclusions and recommendations for further research are made. It is recommended that future research replicate the study with a greater and random sample of respondents, within the South African context. Also, investigating the effectiveness of the trainers as a result of their locus of control and training style orientation is an interesting possibility for future research.

OPSOMMING

DIE VERBAND TUSSEN LOKUS VAN BEHEEROPLEIERS EN OPLEIDINGSTYLOKIËNTASIE

Die Suid-Afrikaanse regering plaas groot klem op die belangrikheid van volwasse opleiding en ontwikkeling in die huidige Suid-Afrikaanse konteks as 'n moontlike oplossing vir etlike sosiale en ekonomiese probleme. In 'n poging om leer te optimeer, is dit dus noodsaaklik om alle aspekte binne die opleidingskonteks deeglik in oënskou te neem. Die opleier speel 'n baie belangrike rol in die sukses van die opleidingsintervensie. Alhoewel die opleier binne die literatuur wel as 'n belangrike rolspeler in die sukses van opleidingsintervensies geag word, is daar baie min navorsing gedokumenteer oor die faktore wat die opleidingstyl wat opleiers tydens intervensies gebruik, beïnvloed.

'n Studie van die beskikbare literatuur ondersoek hierdie probleem. Die volgende onderwerpe is vir die doel ondersoek: Die opleidingstelsel en die komponente daarvan, andragogie en pedagogie as opleidingsstytoriëntasies, verskeie persoonlikheidstrekteorieë as die grondslag van die studie, lokus van beheer as 'n persoonlikheidstrek, en die invloed van persoonlikheid en meer spesifiekk lokus van beheer binne die werkplek.

Die data wat nodig is om die navorsingsprobleem te ondersoek en die hipoteses te toets, is ingesamel deur 100 respondentte elk drie vraelyste te laat voltooi, naamlik 'n Demografiese vraelys, 'n Opleidingsstytvraelys en 'n Lokus van Beheer-vraelys. Die demografiese vraelys het inligting ingesamel ten opsigte van geslag, ouderdom, kwalifikasies, opleidingservaring, etnisiteit, onderwerp van die opleidingsinhoud en die tipe organisasie betrokke. Die Opleidingsstytvraelys het die opleidingsstytoriëntasie van die opleiers wat deelgeneem het aan die studie gemeet, en die Lokus van Beheer vraelys is gebruik om die lokus van beheer van respondentte te bepaal.

Die resultate bevestig die hipoteese dat daar 'n statisties beduidende verband bestaan tussen lokus van beheer en opleidingsstytoriëntasie. Daar bestaan verder 'n statisties beduidende verband tussen interne lokus van beheer en 'n andragogiese opleidingsstytoriëntasie, en ook tussen eksterne lokus van beheer en 'n pedagogiese opleidingsstytoriëntasie.

Die hoofdoelwitte van hierdie studie is suksesvol bereik en gedokumenteer. Gevolgtrekkings en aanbevelings vir toekomstige navorsing word ook gemaak. Die aanbeveling is dat toekomstige navorsing hierdie studie herhaal binne die Suid-Afrikaanse konteks. Die studie behoort ook 'n groter en ewekansige steekproef in te sluit. Die effektiwiteit van die opleiers as 'n resultaat van hul lokus van beheer en opleidingstyloriëntasie is ook 'n interessante moontlikheid vir verdere navorsing.

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**"The man who has ceased to learn ought not to
be allowed to wander around loose in these
dangerous days."**

Dr M.M. Coady

**to my parents, Andries and Hettie,
who never fail me**

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CHAPTER 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction and motivation for the study

Due to the historical imbalance in South African training and education, there is a backlog in training and development amongst many adults in this country. As a result of this the South African Government has launched initiatives like the National Skills Authority (NSA) and the Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs) (Swart, 1997). Their functions are clearly defined by the Skills Development Act (Republic of South Africa, 1998). A skills development levy has been introduced and as of April 1st 2001 South African organisations have to pay 1% of their total remuneration package towards the National Skills Development Fund (Republic of South Africa, 1999). The message from the government is clear - companies have to pay far more attention to the training and development function, as the penalties for failing to do so may be severe. Adult training is therefore a very important part of any South African organisation. Organisations need to ensure that, while they have to perform training and development amongst their employees as a matter of legal obligation, they also get a real return on the investment. It is therefore important that research focuses on all aspects of training and development, in order to assist companies in continuously improving their own training initiatives.

Productivity, effectiveness and how to optimise an employee's performance in his or her working environment are now integral concepts in organisations of any size. As a result Human Resource Development has become crucial to the success of just about every business venture. Human Resource Professionals such as Industrial and Occupational Psychologists therefore have a huge role to play in the successful development of the most valuable commodity in modern business and industry – the employee. Training and development are a major part of human resource development, and are therefore very important tools in improving and optimising the workplace performance of employees. If the purpose of training and development is to better equip employees in order to perform certain tasks or learn special skills, the role of the trainer and his or her effectiveness in reaching these goals should come under close scrutiny.

Furthermore the fast moving technological era results in increasing numbers of adults returning to education to update their current skills or learn new skills, and therefore once again underlines the importance of adult training (Kaplan & Kies, 1995). The future training population will be a more diverse one, and trainers must be able to adapt and adjust in order to optimise learning (Green, 1988 in Kaplan & Kies, 1995). This is especially true given the South African training and educational environment characterised by past imbalances in training and development opportunities. The trainers' abilities to adapt to the diversity of their training groups are crucial to the effectiveness of the information transfer between trainer and learner, as is the interaction between trainer and learner on a group as well as an individual level. The ability of the trainers to adapt their training style orientation as a result of interaction with the training group, as well as the awareness of their own personality variables and their impact on the groups' learning, is of vital importance for a trainer's ability to optimise learning.

Trainers and learners form part of a training system that also includes the learning environment and the learning content (Zastrau, 1986). A great deal of information is available as far as the learning environment, learning content and learners are concerned (Ingalls, 1973; Knowles, 1970; Merriam & Caffarella, 1991; Robinson, 1994), but not so as far as the trainer is concerned, especially with regards to training style orientation (Engelbrecht, 2000). Furthermore, research investigating relationships between trainer personality and the training environment has been sporadic (Fisher & Kent, 1998). Pratt (1988) is of the opinion that it is still unclear what influences a trainer to choose a particular training style orientation, but factors such as experience, training, personality, personal philosophy and preferred working ways are all possibilities.

There is an intuitive appeal and an obvious practical importance to demonstrate relationships between the trainers' personality traits and the style they exhibit when in a training environment (Thompson, 1997; Heimlich & Norland, 1994; Houtz et al., 1994; Poon Teng Fatt, 1993; Walklin, 1990). While research is scarce and not overwhelming with regards to the personality's influence on trainer and learner behaviour, Houtz, Le Blanc, Butera, Arons, Katz, Orsini-Romano and McGuire (1994) argues that there is enough evidence to continue investigations, and concludes that more work is needed. Furthermore, most studies in this field so far involved primary, secondary and higher education sectors (Fisher & Kent, 1998). This study will focus on the adult training environment.

Since personality itself is such a broad construct, the personality trait locus of control will be the focus of this study. Locus of control is not only one of the most widely studied

personality traits, but it is also one of the most popular personality variables to study within the organisational or work context (Adler, 1995; Coetzer & Schepers, 1997; Kren, 1992; Spector, 1995), and has very good potential to determine behaviour within the organisational context (Dailey, 1978). Locus of control has also been statistically linked to a variety of behavioural factors within organisations, such as motivation, participation, effort, incentives, performance, job satisfaction, compliance with authority, perception of the job, turnover, management style and leadership style (Best, 1994; Blau, 1993; Boone et al., 1996; Bothma & Schepers, 1997; De Vries, 2002; Erbin-Roesemann & Simms, 1997; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Kinicki & Vecchio, 1994; Kren, 1992; Le Roux et al., 1997; Macan, Trusty & Trimble, 1996; Nunns & Argirys, 1992; Riipinen, 1994; Schafer & McKenna, 1991; Spector, 1982; Spector, 1995; Theron, 1994, Zastrau, 1986).

The relationship between locus of control and management style is important for the purpose of this study. According to Zastrau (1986) one can confidently adapt Hersey and Blanchard's definition for management style as a definition for training style orientation, as the two constructs share many similarities. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1984) management style can be defined as the behaviour managers exhibit in their relationships with individuals in order to reach the set objectives. If one therefore considers the similarities between management style and training style orientation, it can be postulated that there is a possibility of a relationship between locus of control and training style orientation.

Not only is this study necessary because of the lack of current research in this area as explained, but its results will also be of use in the training and development of trainers. An awareness of the influence of personality traits within the training environment can assist not only in training trainers, but also in trainers' self-development (Fisher & Kent, 1998). There remain many unanswered questions regarding to what contributes towards making a trainer effective (Yin et al., 1998). If locus of control is found to indeed influence training style orientation, future training programmes can focus on developing the locus of control of trainers. There are several studies supporting the view that locus of control is not a stable construct and can be developed, although some believe it to be a long and intensive process (Boone et al., 1996; Els et al., 2001; Heimlich & Norland, 1994; Rotter, 1954).

Awareness of the effect that locus of control as a personality trait has on training style orientation may lead a trainer to modify and capitalise on this trait and the effect it has on training style orientation (Costin & Grush, 1973; Grinder & Stratton, 1990; Houtz et al., 1994). Trainers can therefore use their personal strengths to their advantage, and

remediate and compensate for their weaknesses (Houtz et al., 1994). Furthermore, trainers should have a good understanding of their own training style orientation, and the effect it has on the training outcome (Davenport & Davenport, 1985a). Trainers will have to develop their knowledge and self-awareness if they want to meet the challenge of training the progressively diverse learners (Halpern and Associates, 1994). Self-awareness is important, as trainers need to be able to adapt their training style orientation to the other elements in the training system (Grow, 1991; Nellmapius, 1992; Rinke, 1985; Zastrau, 1986). The application of the principles of andragogy and pedagogy should be influenced and guided by the situation, the learners and the content of the training.

The results of this study could be used to assist companies during recruitment and selection processes. Employers are recognising to a greater extent the importance of personality in the person-job fit. It is not necessarily what a person knows that makes for a successful employee but rather who he or she is. In today's competitive labour market, and considering the high cost of recruitment, employers need to be confident that they are employing the right person for the job. In order to reach this objective personality is at least as important as knowledge and skills according to Caudron (1997). Knowledge regarding the relationship between locus of control and training style orientation can therefore be used to facilitate an optimal fit between the personality of the trainer and the characteristics of the training intervention.

1.2 Objectives of the study

The research initiating question that delineates this study is: Does a relationship exist between trainer locus of control and training style orientation? In order to answer the research question, a number of specific objectives can be stated for this study, namely:

- 1) To conceptualise the constructs locus of control and training style orientation from existing literature.
- 2) To determine the training style orientation (andragogy and pedagogy) of trainers participating in this study.
- 3) To determine the locus of control (external and internal) of trainers participating in this study.
- 4) To investigate if a statistically significant relationship exists between the variables training style orientation and locus of control.

- 5) To determine if the training style orientation groups (andragogy and pedagogy) differ with regard to gender, age, qualifications, experience and ethnicity, type of organisation, and type of skills trained.
- 6) To make a contribution to theory building in the field of Human Resource Development and make recommendations for future research.

1.3 Research methodology: a preview

The research methodology includes both a literature study (objective 1) and an empirical investigation (objectives 2 to 5). The following aspects regarding the research methodology of the empirical research can be stated in short.

The research design can be classified as an *ex post facto* design, and a correlation design is applied. The sample consists of 100 adult trainers (respondents) from several companies in London, United Kingdom. The target population proved to be relatively small, and as a result a convenience sample was used.

The measurement instruments include a Demographic Questionnaire, the Locus of Control Inventory (Schepers, 1998) and the Training Style Inventory (TSI) (Engelbrecht, 2000). Both these instruments show satisfactory reliability. A comprehensive discussion of the measurement instruments follow in chapter 3.

Statistical analyses were performed with the SPSS and Statistica programmes. In order to reach the empirical objectives of the study the data was subjected to appropriate statistical analysis.

1.4 Outline of the study

Chapter 2 focuses on the necessary theoretical foundation and background in order to meet objective 1 of the study. The initial focus is on the definition of training and the components that contribute to the training system as a whole (the learning environment, the learning content, the learner and the trainer). Training style and training style orientation are then defined as constructs, leading to a discussion of andragogy and pedagogy as training style orientations. The second part of the chapter focuses on the other variable that is involved in this study, namely trainer personality, which is duly

defined. Several relevant personality theories are also discussed. The influence of personality on workplace behaviour is outlined, followed by a detailed discussion on the development of the construct locus of control as a personality trait, the definition of locus of control and the influence of the trait in work-related settings.

In order to attain objectives 2 to 5, chapter 3 concentrates on the research methodology applied in this research project. The measuring instruments used are discussed in detail, together with the sample of respondents who completed the questionnaires. The chapter also describes the collection process of the data, and the research design used in doing so. The chapter concludes by stating the hypotheses that are investigated during this research, and the statistical methods used.

The aim of chapter 4 is to reach objectives 2 to 6, by investigating the relationship between the constructs of locus of control and training style orientation as identified in the sample adult trainers, and also the biographical data collected. It describes the statistical processing of the data gathered during the study, as well as the results obtained from the processed data. The data is reported in meaningful tables and figures wherever possible.

Chapter 5 provides a summary of the study as a whole. Furthermore conclusions are drawn, the implications of the study are discussed, and recommendations with regards to possible future research are made.

1.5 Summary

The main objective of this research is to investigate the relationship between the locus of control and training style orientation of trainers. Chapter 1 outlined the background and motivation for the research. The objectives of this research were stated and a brief outline of the thesis was presented. The following chapter provides a literature review of the principle constructs in this research, i.e. locus of control and training style orientation in order to shed light on the research initiating question, i.e. does a relationship exist between trainer locus of control and training style orientation.

CHAPTER 2: Literature review

2.1 Introduction

The primary focus of this study is training style orientation. Training style orientation is very important within the training system, as the style orientation a trainer uses will influence the training outcome (Zastrau, 1986). Training style orientation can be defined as an expression of the trainer's personality within the training environment (Heimlich & Norland, 1994). This study aims to investigate the relationship between training style orientation and the trainer's personality. The personality trait under investigation is locus of control and can be defined as a personality trait that has an influence on behaviour (Boone et al., 1996; Erwee, 1997).

This chapter commences by defining training and explaining the different parts of the training system, specifically the position of the trainer and the style orientation he or she uses within the system. Thereafter the variety of roles that the trainer has to fulfil within the system is discussed, and the difference between trainer roles and training style orientation is explained. Training style orientation is thereafter defined, with the focus on andragogy and pedagogy as the two distinguishing training style orientations.

As the focus of the study is the relationship between training style orientation and the personality trait locus of control, personality is defined, and four specific personality trait theories are discussed. Attention is also briefly given to the relationship between the broader construct of personality and work behaviour. The chapter then continues to more specifically discuss and define locus of control as a personality trait. The last section of the chapter describes the influence of locus of control on specific constructs in the work environment. The chapter concludes with some final remarks.

2.2 Definition of training

Training involves the development of a person. It is an activity where people of all ages participate in the transfer of knowledge, skills, values, information, understanding, appreciation and attitudes that improve themselves, and enable them to cope with life. Examples are problem-solving (especially in the adult life context), technical, conceptual and human relationship skills (Du Plessis, 1997; Erasmus & Van Dyk, 2003; Meyer, 2002; Van Dyk et al., 2001).

Within the working environment training refers to all activities that are designed to improve job performance and therefore contributes towards reaching the organisational objectives (Nadler & Wiggs, 1986). Plug, Louw, Gouws & Meyer (1997:257) interpret training as "...a systematic series of activities to which people are subjected to in order to result in new knowledge, skills or behaviour".

To summarise training can be defined as:

- activities
- involving people of all ages
- with the goal to develop the skills, knowledge and behaviour
- needed to cope with real-life problems effectively
- and reach set objectives.

Adult training is very important within the South African context, as it is a way of addressing the unfair and discriminatory educational system of years gone by. The South African Qualification Authority (SAQA) Act of 1995 strongly advocates and supports the development of generic life skill competencies through training and education. Furthermore the National Qualification Framework (NQF) supports the South African Qualification Authority in the implementation of an integrated system of skills and competencies (Meyer et al., 2001).

2.3 The trainer and the training system

The training system has various components, but the trainer is the central component in the system and consequently plays a key role (Zastrau, 1986). As evident from figure 1 the other components are the learning environment (the physical environment, interpersonal relationships, and the company culture), the learning content, and the learners themselves (Zastrau, 1986).

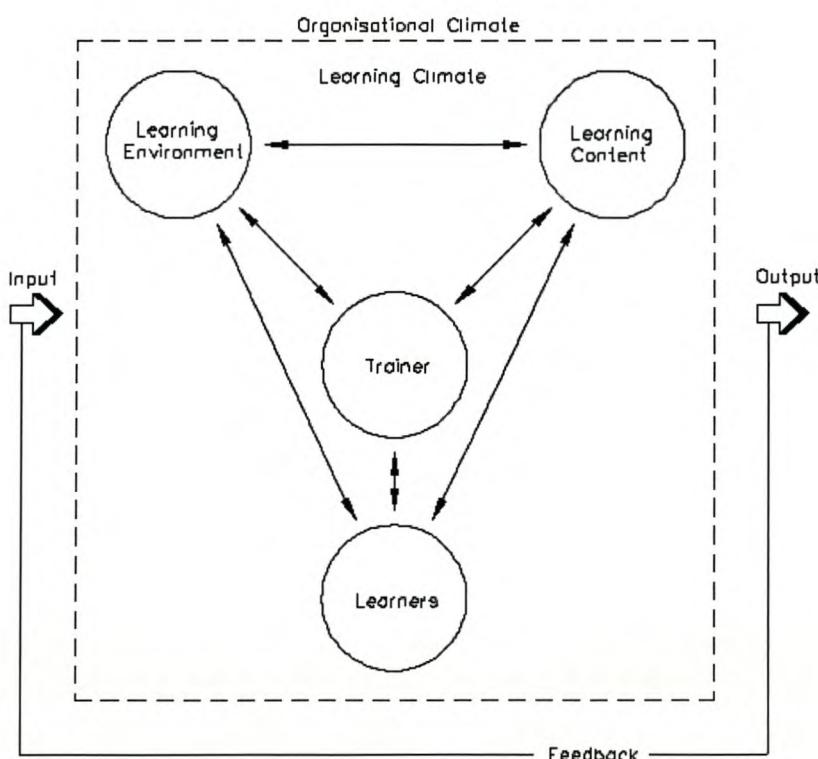


Figure 1: The training system

(adapted from Zastrau, 1986:23)

The trainer is responsible for organising and integrating the learners, the learning content and the learning environment in order for the learners to achieve optimal learning (Zastrau, 1986). Monteith (1987) agrees that the trainer and the learning content are two main factors outside of the learner that influence the outcome of the training, in other words whether learning occurs or not. The trainer has to present the training, and create different learning opportunities depending on the learners' previous learning experience (Zastrau, 1986).

It is evident that the trainer plays an important role in the learning process itself. According to Monteith (1987) learning do not solely depend on the learners' intelligence and effort, but it depends greatly on the trainer's planning and training. According to Kaplan and Kies (1995) the learning process is dependent on the variation of delivery, trainer style orientation and quality. It is therefore a mutual process, and the direct result of the interaction between the trainer and the learner.

More specifically the trainer's training style orientation and associated behaviour may have a significant influence on training outcome. When adults are asked to give an opinion regarding the three factors that influence the success of a training course the most, they list a relevant course design, the trainer's training style orientation and efficient organisation and administration (Daines et al., 1994). "While training products' basic content and format may remain the same, personal style makes all the difference. The trainer's style sets the tone for the learning process." (Russ, 1994:46). The trainer therefore determines the quality of instruction that will be involved in the transfer of knowledge and skills (Monteith, 1987).

The importance of the trainer to optimise learning cannot be overstated. Even as far back as the early seventies it was stated that an organisation may have the best facilities money can buy, and the training needs may have been established carefully and correctly, but the training can still fail if the trainer does not possess the skills and competencies necessary to do the job (Ingalls, 1973). Furthermore, once trainees are back in the workplace, no amount of support, positive socialisation or motivation will result in the transfer of new skills and knowledge if learning did not take place effectively during the training course in the first place (Mazur, 1999; Meyer, 2002; Sloman, 1994; Van Dyk et al., 2001).

2.4 The roles of the trainer in the training system

Before explaining the different roles a trainer has to fulfil, it is important to distinguish between training roles and training style orientations. The roles of a trainer refer to the different functions he or she fulfils within the training field, and the training style orientation refers to the manner in which a specific role is fulfilled. Consequently a trainer can fulfil the same role but exhibit different styles in doing so (Zastrau, 1986).

Several authors have identified the various roles that trainers have to perform depending on their individual working conditions and circumstances. Some of the different roles are (Baird et al., 1985; Erasmus & Van Dyk, 2003; Ingalls, 1973; Mazur, 1999; McCullough, 1987; Meyer, 2002; Meyer et al., 2001; Prior, 1994; Rogers, 1986; Van Dyk et al., 2001; Walklin, 1990; Zastrau, 1986):

- Task analyst - the trainer specifies tasks needed for a job's success;
- Individual development counsellor - the trainer assists individuals in assessing personal competencies and identifies and plans development activities;
- Needs analyst - the trainer defines gaps between actual and ideal performance;
- Programme designer - the trainer translates training needs into programme content and learning activities;
- Instructional writer - the trainer prepares all written training materials;
- Planner - the trainer plans all training activities and structures training content;
- Organiser - the trainer arranges the learning tasks and the location where training takes place;
- Media specialist - the trainer develops training software;
- Instructor - the trainer presents the material;
- Climate setter - the trainer sets a climate (interpersonal relationships, physical conditions and organisational structure and policy) that encourages, supports and directs learning;
- Group facilitator - the trainer manages group discussions;
- Controller - the trainer monitors programmes throughout and adapt it if need be;
- Programme administrator - the trainer ensures that facilities are adequate and that logistics run smoothly;
- Evaluator - the trainer identifies the extent of the training impact;
- Transfer agent - the trainer helps trainees to successfully transfer new skills after training;
- Manager and Leader - the trainer encourages and motivates learners;
- Marketer - the trainer promotes the training courses;
- Training and development manager and/or Skills Development Manager - the trainer organises the Training and Development-function within an organisation;
- Learner Support - the trainer and learner should have a supportive relationship to optimise learning;
- Strategist - the trainer makes long-range plans for the Training and Development function; and
- Theoretician - the trainer tests the learning theories in practise.

According to Meyer et al. (2001) the trainer within the South African Education, Training and Development (ETD) context is not just a trainer, but a consultant to the organisation and provides support to achieve the business objectives. This necessitates that trainers should continuously study and improve themselves in order to meet the requirements of these varied roles. It is however the training style orientation that trainers use when fulfilling these roles that determine the quality of instruction, and will have the greatest effect on the learning outcomes. Training style orientation will be discussed in greater detail in the following sections.

2.5 Defining training style orientation

Before moving towards defining training style orientation, it is important to distinguish between training style orientation and training method. Two trainers can use exactly the same training method, for example lectures, small discussion groups or audiovisual equipment, but they still differ in the manner in which they conduct their training (Fischer & Fischer, 1979). Training style orientation therefore influences how a trainer would implement a particular training method (Heimlich & Norland, 1994). Training style orientation would influence whether a training method is successful or not (Jacobs, 1987). Training style orientation therefore refers to a classroom mode – a way the trainer approaches the learners that are consistent with various training methods (Fischer & Fischer, 1979).

Training style orientation is important as it substantially influences the learning outcome of the training, or in other words whether training goals are reached (Robinson, 1994). Training style orientation influences the amount of material the learner learns, and the amount of time it will be retained (Chandler et al., 1996). It also influences the learner's motivation to continue future learning (Daines et al., 1994).

Training style orientation can be defined in mainly three ways. It can first of all be defined as a philosophy. "Style has to do with form rather than content, process rather than product. It includes the implementation of a philosophy; it contains evidence of beliefs about, values related to, and attitudes toward all the elements of the training-learning exchange" (Heimlich & Norland, 1994:40). The individual philosophy every trainer has is built upon the following factors: The trainer's view of the learner, the purpose of the learning content, and his or her own role as the trainer (Heimlich & Norland, 1994).

Style orientation can secondly be defined as a function of a trainer's personality, experience, ethnicity, education, and other individual traits (Heimlich & Norland, 1994). Many theorists classify training style orientation as a combination of the personality traits and characteristics displayed by the trainer (Conti, 1985; Heimlich & Norland, 1994). According to Heimlich and Norland (1994) and Fischer and Fischer (1979) style is a form of expressing yourself.

Training style orientation can thirdly be defined as the consistent behaviour of the trainer as observed by the trainees in a specific training environment that distinguishes him or her from other trainers (Zastrau, 1986). Zastrau (1986) agrees that one should first look at the behaviour of the trainer, with specific emphasis on the identifiable behavioural dimensions, before attempting to describe training style orientation. Training style orientation consists of a trainer's pattern of personal training behaviours and attitudes, and the communication process and media used to transmit and receive learning content within the training environment (Kaplan & Kies, 1995; Robinson, 1994). Training style orientation is therefore a persistent method of approaching trainees (Fischer & Fischer, 1979).

To summarise training style orientation can be defined as:

- a set of beliefs that the trainer has regarding the training environment;
- a consistent set of behaviour that the trainer exhibits while training; and
- a function of the trainer's personality.

For the purpose of the present study it is of particular importance that training style orientation is viewed as a function of personality traits. Also, the concept of training style orientation is described by researchers and theorists as training style orientation, and also training style. For the purpose of this study training style orientation will be used, and it refers to both concepts. The next section will identify the different training style orientation labels representing the different training style orientations that are present in the literature.

2.6 Training style orientation labels

Different training style orientations exist because of fundamentally different assumptions about the learning process and the learner, as these training style orientations prescribe different instructional methodologies and techniques (Knowles, 1978). However, it is important to remember that in the same way that one cannot identify one best way to live, you cannot identify and describe one best way to train others (Hiemstra & Sisco, 1990). Trainers should therefore have the ability to make use of various training style orientations in order to optimise the outcome of the training intervention.

Also, there is not just one universally applicable way of classifying the very complex set of relationships between a trainer and a trainee within the training environment (Rogers, 1986). It is therefore important not to over-exaggerate the importance of the different training style orientation labels available, but to focus on the underlying philosophies and characteristics that the particular training style orientation represents (Zastrau, 1986). The different training style orientation labels found in the literature to depict the distinct style orientations of training, for example pedagogy and andragogy, trainer-centred and learner-centred, or self-directed and trainer-directed learning, as a result matters little. The importance is that the trainers make a distinction between the different style orientations at their disposal, and vary their approach depending on the demands of the situation, the learning content (knowledge or skills) involved, and the learners (Rinke, 1985; Zastrau, 1986).

Many theorists have devised classification systems to describe different training style orientations (Heimlich & Norland, 1994). Training style orientations are often portrayed as positions on a continuum (Kidd, 1975). The following is a list of the different labels given to training style orientations:

- Permissiveness versus control (Kidd, 1975);
- Aggressiveness versus protectiveness (Kidd, 1975);
- Emphasis on content versus emphasis on participation (Kidd, 1975);
- Learner-centred and trainer-centred (Lenz, 1982);
- Highly content-centred to highly people-centred (Robinson, 1994);
- The sheep-dogging approach versus the free-range approach (Rogers, 1986);
- Those who tell, those who sell, those who consult and those who join (Rogers, 1986);

- Initiating and responsive behaviours (Flanders, 1970);
- Learning-oriented training style orientation and training-oriented training style orientation (Broadbent, 1998);
- Task-oriented, co-operative planner, trainee-centred, subject-centred and learning-centred (Fischer & Fischer, 1979); and
- Andragogy and pedagogy (Knowles, 1970).

This study will use andragogy and pedagogy to label the defining training style orientations to a trainer's disposal. Andragogy and pedagogy represent a relatively understandable and uncomplicated framework to organise the differences between child and adult training so that even people who are not directly involved in training and development can understand it. Although alternative suggestions do have merit, it still falls short from fully conveying the whole training style orientation and seems to be only singular characteristics of the superseding style orientations of andragogy and pedagogy. For example, using self-directed or trainee-centred training to describe a style orientation only focuses on one characteristic of the main assumptions underlying the style orientation of andragogy. It portrays nothing of the importance of the immediate application of knowledge, the utilisation of the trainee's experience or the fact that learning is problem-centred (Davenport & Davenport, 1985b).

2.7 Defining andragogy and pedagogy as training style orientations

As early as 1926, Lindeman stated that adult education starts where adults find themselves in situations that call for adjustments to be made in order to succeed. The need for a separate term to describe the way in which adults are assisted to learn became apparent when it was widely accepted that the principles of pedagogy did not fulfil the needs of the adult learner (Krajnc, 1989). The philosophy of andragogy has however had difficulty in gaining acceptance as a training style orientation in its own right because pedagogy has been synonymous with education and training for so long (Du Plooy, 1991). Despite the resistance, the concept of andragogy has had a vast and far-reaching effect within adult education and practise (Brookfield, 1989). Andragogy aims to assist and equip trainees to fulfil their social roles within the community (Van Dyk et al., 1993).

Numerous scientists contribute the philosophy of andragogy to Knowles, but contrary to this notion, a German teacher called Alexander Kapp was the first person who, in 1833, linked andragogy to the process of adult training (Davenport & Davenport, 1985c; Nellmapius, 1992). Anderson and Lindeman (cited in Davenport & Davenport, 1985c) consequently introduced andragogy to the United States in 1927. Although various theorists in Europe and North America used it thereafter, Malcolm Knowles popularised it in 1970 in the United States with his book "The Modern Practise of Adult Education Andragogy Versus Pedagogy" (Nellmapius, 1992). Knowles came across the concept while on a trip in Europe, and thought it the perfect label for his own developing ideas and theory of adult education. Lindeman can be coined the spiritual and Knowles the commonly accepted father in the development of the theory of andragogy (Davenport & Davenport, 1985c).

The term andragogy is formed from the Greek noun "agoge" which means "the activity of leading", and "andr" which means "adult". Andragogy can therefore be defined as the "art and science of leading adult learning" or helping adults to learn (Ingalls, 1973:10; Titmus, 1989). Andragogy can thus be defined as is a set of assumptions about adult learners, and a series of recommendations for the planning, management and evaluation of training that is most suitable for adults (Dasdoor, 1993; Knowles, 1980; Knowles, 1984; Marshak, 1983; Titmus, 1989). This definition will also serve as the definition of andragogy as proposed for the purposes of this study.

Pedagogy is formed from the Greek word "pais" which means "child", and "agogus" which means "leading" (Van Dyk et al., 1997). It can be defined as the "art and science of teaching children" (Knowles, 1970). For the purpose of this study pedagogy is defined as the style of education directed at those for whom the educational role forms their social role and is a primary activity in their lives, and therefore usually best suited to children (Krajnc, 1989).

2.8 Variation in training style orientation

As explained in section 2.7 the pedagogical model is commonly seen and defined to be more suitable for training children, and the andragogical model developed as a result of the needs of the adult learners not being met by the pedagogical model, and is therefore aimed at the adult population. The two style orientations however should not be seen to

be exclusively for either adult or child learners. According to Knowles (1979) both adults and children can benefit from both style orientations depending on the circumstances.

The variable in the training environment that is most under the trainer's control is the training style orientation (Robinson, 1994). It is the responsibility of the trainer to be skilled enough to evaluate the training environment, and vary his or her style orientation accordingly in order to optimise the training outcome (Davenport & Davenport, 1985a; Knowles, 1995; Russ, 1994). According to Grow (1991) and Zastrau (1986) the success of the training intervention depends on the trainer's ability to do so. The trainer has to evaluate especially two factors in the training environment in order to make a decision on the appropriate training style orientation, the two factors being the personal characteristics of the learners, and the situational constraints of the training intervention.

Firstly the trainer should consider the learners with regards to their personal characteristics, ability, readiness to learn, willingness to take responsibility, preferred learning styles and experiences (Brookfield, 1989; Dasdoor, 1993; Davenport & Davenport, 1985a; Grow, 1991; Okpala & Gillis-Olion, 1995; Pratt, 1988; Rogers, 1986; Russ, 1994; Zastrau, 1986). According to Kaplan and Kies (1995) it is important for trainers to realise what influence their training style orientation has on learners. Furthermore trainers will have to change the way they think about training completely if they want to optimise learning – they will have to view their training role from the perspective of how the learners learn, rather than how the trainer trains. When trainers do not consider the learners when choosing the training style orientation, the training process can actually inhibit cognitive development rather than enhance it (Crous, 1991). It is important to remember that adult learning is not merely an extension of child learning, and that the trainer has to look at individual learner characteristics (Crous, 1991; Erasmus & Van Dyk, 1999; Grupe & Connolly, 1995). These individual differences between learners could be a result of situational, psychological and developmental variables (Alberts, 1988).

Pedagogy may therefore sometimes be appropriate when training adults, and should also not automatically be seen as the style orientation that should always be utilised for children learners. Pedagogy is suitable for any learners who lack the knowledge and skills necessary to make informed decisions and be self-directed (Knowles, 1970; Pratt, 1988). "There is nothing inherently demeaning or destructive in pedagogical, temporarily dependent relationships" (Pratt, 1988:168). Pratt (1988) continues that adult learners do vary in the degree of their desire, capability and readiness to take responsibility and control over all training functions and tasks, in contrast to the

assumptions of adult learners made by the andragogical model. Adults can therefore be dependent when they have little or no experience or knowledge, and under these circumstances the pedagogical model of training is more appropriate (Grow, 1991; Marshak, 1983; Reed, 1993).

Secondly, trainers should consider the situational constraints of the training intervention. These constraints include the restrictions imposed on the trainer by the knowledge and skills that constitute the learning content (Brookfield, 1989; Dasdoor, 1993; Davenport & Davenport, 1985a; Grow, 1991; Okpala & Gillis-Olion, 1995; Pratt, 1988; Rogers, 1986; Russ, 1994; Zastrau, 1986). When the learning content is formal and new to the learners, the pedagogical approach is appropriate (Beder, 1985). When the learning content is structured around a problem that the learners are experiencing, an andragogical approach would be more successful (Beder, 1985). Nellmapius (1992) supports this view and continues that this variance of style orientation is appropriate whether the learners involved are adults or children. If trainers ignore the learner characteristics or the situational constraints when deciding the training style orientation, the difficulties involved in the training process will simply be magnified (Hiemstra & Sisco, 1990).

However, trainers face mixed situations, which make their ability to vary training style orientations even more important. According to Marshak (1983) trainers may, for example, face self-directed learners, but a situation with directed training goals because of the unknown nature of the learning content.

Studies have supported the theory that both andragogy and pedagogy can be successful with both adult and children training. Grow (1991) believes that training style orientation is a balance between trainer-directedness and learner self-directedness, and that learners will progress through different phases towards self-directedness. Dependent learners react better to pedagogical principles, and self-directed learners prefer an andragogical training style orientation (Grow, 1991; Zemke & Zemke, 1995). A mismatch between the training style orientation on the one hand, and the learner characteristics and situational variables on the other, will result in stress and conflict that will inhibit learning (Grow, 1991).

Hersey and Blanchard (1988) also reported results on the changing and integration of training style orientations. During an experimental training course trainees were moved through different stages starting with dependent roles to more self-directed ones. It started off with lectures, and then moved on to directed discussions, less-structured

discussions and lastly to student-directed discussions. The trainer therefore changed role from expert to guide, facilitator, participant and consultant. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) reported that, although there initially was resistance from learners, this progression made for a more successful course than a course conducted in a more trainer-centred method.

According to Rogers (1986) the most effective trainers are those who face the challenge of varying training style orientations to suit the learner and the situation during the course of a single training programme. When one considers the considerable challenge trainers face in order to use the training style orientation that is most effective, it follows that, in order to succeed, trainers have to acquire as many skills as possible (Rachal, 1983; Russ, 1994). Training and development practitioners should therefore continuously attempt to gain new insights into their own characteristics and their preferred training style orientation in order to develop their skills and change as required if they aim to become more competent (Ingalls, 1973; Kidd, 1975). According to Thompson (1997) trainers who are aware of the influence of their own personality traits on training and learning style orientation can make allowances and use the information to develop their own training style orientations. This is especially relevant in the South African context where the population of learners is increasingly more diverse and trainers therefore have to be able to vary their training style orientation in order to optimise learning (Nellmapius, 1992). Trainers have to engage in life-long learning if they want to continue to be effective in optimising learning. Trainers also need to keep updating their skills and knowledge in order to facilitate and manage life-long learning in others. The concept of life-long learning is supported by the SAQA and especially addressed by the NQF in the South African context. According to Meyer et al. (2001) the NQF is an integrated system that encourages and supports life-long learning.

2.9 The characteristics of andragogy and pedagogy

Andragogy and pedagogy make opposing assumptions with regards to the learner and the learning process, and these assumptions explain the underlying characteristics of the two training style orientations. The focus of this discussion will be the four basic assumptions Knowles' theory of andragogy holds that are based upon the characteristics of the learners.

These assumptions are:

- A person's self-concept moves from dependency to self-direction as he or she matures;
- As a person matures he or she accumulates a wealth of experience that becomes a resource during learning;
- Readiness to learn becomes increasingly directed by a person's social roles as he or she matures; and
- As a person matures, the orientation to learning becomes increasingly problem-centred in contrast to being subject-centred. The application of learning therefore changes from being postponed in nature to an immediate application (Knowles, 1970; Knowles, 1978; Knowles, 1980).

2.9.1 Self-concept of the learner

According to Knowles (1978) learners' self-concept varies from dependency to self-directedness. Pedagogy makes the assumption that the learner needs support, thus the learner is in a dependent relationship with the trainer (Pratt, 1988). The learner is dependent regarding the what, when and how learning should take place (Knowles, 1995). As a result learners do not direct the learning process, but follow instructions from a dominant trainer (Ingalls, 1973; Knowles, 1995; Van Dyk et al., 1997). The pedagogical trainer will decide and be clear about the learning content and the criteria for acceptable performance, will monitor progress and give clear feedback to dependent learners (Pratt, 1985). As a result of these assumptions about the self-concept of the learner, the pedagogical learning climate is more formal, authoritarian, competitive, judgmental, more distant and impersonal (Davenport & Davenport, 1985a; Robinson, 1994).

The andragogical model assumes that the learners are self-directed and independent in their learning, and do not want or need a lot of support (Beder, 1985; Erasmus & Van Dyk, 1999; Grupe & Connolly, 1995; Knowles, 1978; Newton, 1977; Pratt, 1988; Zemke & Zemke, 1995). Andragogical adult learners want to feel accepted, respected and supported as equals by the trainer within the training environment (Alberts, 1988; Daines et al., 1994; Grupe & Connolly, 1995; Knowles, 1984). If andragogical adults are not recognised to be autonomous and self-directing individuals within the training

context, they will be frustrated and this will have a negative effect on the learning process (Ingalls, 1973).

As the learner's capacity for self-direction is a key dimension in the practice of andragogy, andragogical trainers should assist rather than direct training. The trainer's role is redefined as a catalyst for learning rather than an instructor, a procedural technician, resource person and co-inquirer (Knowles, 1980; Knowles, 1984). They should assist learners in becoming more mature, self-directing and autonomous individuals (Ironside, 1989).

The andragogical training climate is friendly, more informed, democratic, independent, mutually respectful, consensual, close, collaborative, supportive, personal, participative, and one of voluntary participation (Alberts, 1988; Knowles, 1970; Nellmapius, 1992; Robinson, 1994; Zastrau, 1986). The self-direction of training choices is of great importance, and therefore training programmes are designed in accordance with learners' needs and interests (Krajnc, 1989; Zastrau, 1986). The relationship between trainers and learners is reciprocal with regards to all training activities, with both being in partnership and helping one another as peers (Ingalls, 1973; Knowles, 1980; Knowles, 1984). According to Boud (1981) trainers and learners are equals, with the learner having a choice in what and how they learn. With this climate of self-direction, the andragogical model aims to enable learners to design and own their personal learning process, and to assist them to become more skilful in all social roles and facets of life (Crous, 1991).

The principles of the andragogical training style orientation are promoted through the SAQA as co-ownership for all concerned in the training intervention (Meyer et al., 2001). This involves that the learner and the trainer should both be involved and take responsibility for all training processes. Furthermore, training should be outcome based and therefore focus on what the learner is able to do as a result of the training intervention (Meyer et al., 2001). This is in contrast to the traditional content based training where the trainer has complete control and the focus is on training content (Meyer et al., 2001). Trainers will therefore have to develop their skills and undergo a paradigm shift in order to adapt to the requirements and guidelines of the SAQA and the NQF.

2.9.2 Experience of the learner

Learner experience can either be viewed as a rich training resource, or it can be viewed as being of little or no worth (Knowles, 1978). Pedagogy views the learner's experience to be of little or no worth. Van Dyk et al. (1997) state that children have very little experience that can be utilised during training, as they have not experienced life extensively. The experiences they do possess are judged to be of little or no worth in the training situation, and as a result the pedagogical training experience can be characterised by one-way communication from the trainer to the trainee with very little feedback (Knowles, 1978; Knowles, 1984; Knowles, 1995). The experience of the trainer is therefore valued as the primary source of information (Ingalls, 1973).

Andragogy promotes learners to learn directly from personal experience, in other words, to utilise what the person already knows (Ingalls, 1973). According to Newton (1977) the most productive training strategies are those that utilise a huge amount of the experience that learners can contribute. The assumption is therefore made that experience represents a base for further learning to take place, and that it should be analysed as a rich resource during training (Knowles, 1978). The recognition of prior learning (RPL) is supported by the SAQA (Meyer et al, 2001). Adults have a massive amount of experience and knowledge that is a valuable resource during training, and the experience that adults have is judged to be of high quality (Daines et al., 1994; Erasmus & Van Dyk, 1999; Grupe & Connolly, 1995; Knowles, 1978; Knowles, 1995; Newton, 1977; Van Dyk et al., 1997; Zastrau, 1986).

The experience that adults possess is viewed as a valuable resource, but moreover adult learners themselves have a need to utilise their personal experience during training (Knowles, 1978). According to Krajnc (1989) and Alberts (1988) adults test new knowledge and skills against their vast mass of experience continuously. Adult learners' experiences are the most meaning in learning activities that make a direct connection to past experience (Brookfield, 1989). The learning is more likely to be effective and efficient if the material is relevant to the learner, and links to existing knowledge (Daines et al., 1994).

The andragogical training environment is therefore characterised by multi-communication, with both trainer- and learner experience valued and utilised whenever possible (Ingalls, 1973; Reed, 1993). The trainer acts as a content resource and designs

and manages the learning process, while utilising learner experience to integrate past experiences with new learning experiences (Zastrau, 1986). It is the trainer's responsibility to put learners in contact with all relevant and available resources that, other than the trainer, include personal experience, peers, material and media resources, and field experiences (Knowles, 1995).

2.9.3 Readiness to learn

Readiness to learn is subject to biological development or social pressure, or because of the developmental tasks of social roles (Knowles, 1978). The pedagogical model views the learner ready to learn as a result of physiological and biological maturation (Knowles, 1978; Knowles, 1984). Readiness is mostly a function of age, and as a result learners are deemed ready to learn when society prescribes that they have to advance on to the next level (Knowles, 1995). It is therefore mostly determined by societal pressure, and children are generally expected to learn when they are told to do so (Van Dyk et al., 1997).

The andragogical learner's readiness to learn is linked to developmental tasks (Erasmus & Van Dyk, 1999). The assumption is that learners become ready to learn when they experience the need for knowledge or need to learn new skills to perform more effectively in some aspect of life (Erasmus & Van Dyk, 1999; Knowles, 1995). Readiness to learn is often linked with moving between developmental stages or acquiring a new social role, task or problem (for example marriage, divorce, the birth of children, a change of address or a new job) (Ingalls, 1973; Knowles, 1995; Van Dyk et al., 1997). The demands of a new developmental stage, a new role or an unsolved problem lead to a performance gap, resulting in the readiness to learn that at its peak presents a "teachable moment" (Ingalls, 1973; Knowles, 1970). Zemke and Zemke (1995) state that the teachable moment created as a result of a need to learn is moreover natural motivation to participate in learning. It can however be induced artificially by engaging adults in career planning (Knowles, 1995).

2.9.4 Orientation to learning

A major difference between andragogy and pedagogy is the process used to choose the learning content, in other words, being either subject-centred or problem-centred (Knowles, 1970; Knowles, 1978). The pedagogical model makes the assumption that learners are subject-centred in their orientation to learning (Brown, 1985; Van Dyk et al., 1997). Pedagogical learning revolves around subjects, grades and classes, and the trainer makes the decisions about content; training activities are therefore also largely subject-centred (Ingalls, 1973; Knowles, 1978; Knowles, 1980; Marshak, 1983; Van Dyk et al., 1997). Pedagogical learning is the process of acquiring content that is prescribed to you by someone else (Knowles, 1995). Pedagogical learning also has a postponed application, with training aiming to prepare the learners for the future (Ingalls, 1973; Knowles, 1978; Knowles, 1984).

In contrast the andragogical model makes the assumption that learners are life, task, competency, performance, skill, or problem-centred where learning is concerned, and therefore organise learning experiences accordingly (Alberts, 1988; Brown, 1985; Erasmus & Van Dyk, 1999; Grupe & Connolly, 1995; Knowles, 1978; Knowles, 1980; Knowles, 1984; Knowles, 1995; Marshak, 1983; Newton, 1977; Van Dyk et al., 1997; Zemke & Zemke, 1995). Adults do not participate in learning without purpose, but join training programmes with the aim to learn specific skills and knowledge, and experience most meaning in those learning activities that make a direct connection with their present problems (Brookfield, 1989; Erasmus & Van Dyk, 1999; Grupe & Connolly, 1995; Zemke & Zemke, 1995). The andragogical trainer understands that learners participate in training as a result of existing or anticipated problems that they have to solve, and his or her approach to learning therefore revolves around learners who make their own learning decisions with trainer support only (Brown, 1985; Ingalls, 1973).

The outcomes-based education system (OBE) supported by the NQF is in accordance with the andragogical problem-centred orientation to learning. OBE focuses on the outcome of the training rather than on the content, and therefore the focus of the training is on what the learner can achieve shortly after the training intervention that he or she could not master before (Meyer et al., 2001). Furthermore andragogical learning usually has an immediate application, as learners want to use what they are learning immediately in order to, for example, successfully complete a developmental stage, or solve a problem in their lives (Alberts, 1988; Beder, 1985; Ingalls, 1973; Knowles, 1970; Knowles, 1978; Knowles, 1984; Zemke & Zemke, 1995). According to Daines et al. (1994) andragogical

learners would not be satisfied if training has a long-term time perspective because they see the value of learning to be immediate.

2.10 Design elements of andragogy and pedagogy

The pedagogical model favours a content design, in comparison with the andragogical model which favours a process design. According to Ingalls (1973) the andragogical trainer has to manage and guide the training process carefully, rather than managing mainly only the content of the training programme as the pedagogical trainer does. The pedagogical trainer's role is therefore that of transmitter of information, in comparison to the andragogical trainer who acts as a facilitator of learning (Beder, 1985; Zastrau, 1986).

The pedagogical content design model prescribes that the trainer decides what content has to be covered during training, organises it into manageable chunks, decides what the logical sequence of it should be, and also which methods should be used to transmit the content (Katz, 1994; Knowles, 1995). As a result the trainer is responsible for most parts of the pedagogical training process – setting the learning goals, directing the learning process, and also for the evaluation of the results. The pedagogical model is therefore a trainer-centred one, and concentrates on the instruction process (Katz, 1994; Marshak, 1983; Zastrau, 1986; Zemke & Zemke, 1995).

In contrast to that the andragogical process design model is a learner-focused design, and consists of eight parts (Katz, 1994; Knowles, 1995; Zastrau, 1986). These parts will now be discussed in further detail, and where appropriate will be contrasted to the pedagogical model.

2.10.1 Preparing the learners for the programme

Learners should be ready for the training experience and the learning process (Knowles, 1995). The readiness of the learners of both the pedagogical and andragogical model has been discussed in detail in section 2.9.3.

2.10.2 Setting the physical and psychological climate

It is important to arrange furnishings and equipment in such a way that it enhances the learning process (Knowles, 1980). The physical training environment should be arranged in a way that makes the learners feel at ease, as this decreases anxiousness which could have a negative influence on learning (Daines et al., 1994).

The psychological climate within the pedagogical model is more formal and authoritarian (Davenport & Davenport, 1985a; Du Plooy, 1991; Robinson, 1994). On the other hand the andragogical psychological climate is one of mutual respect and trust, collaboration rather than competitiveness, support rather than judging or threatening behaviour, openness, authenticity and fun (Du Plooy, 1991; Knowles, 1995).

2.10.3 Involving learners in mutual planning

The locus of responsibility, for example for the planning process, is an important distinguishing factor between andragogy and pedagogy. Within the pedagogical model the trainer plays a central role in every part of the learning process, including the planning of the intervention. Learners therefore have very little or no responsibility, as they are mostly the passive recipients of instructions by the trainer (Beder, 1985; Davenport & Davenport, 1985; Erasmus & Van Dyk, 1999; Knowles, 1984; Marshak, 1983; Robinson, 1994; Van Dyk et al., 1997; Zastrau, 1986).

Personal responsibility for all educational choices is of great importance in the andragogical model, and learners take an active role in the planning process (Dasdoor, 1993; Knowles, 1984; Krajnc, 1989). The trainer and the learner collaborate in arranging the learning content, and ultimately all training activities are the mutual responsibility of both the trainer and the learners (Erasmus & Van Dyk, 1999; Knowles, 1970; Knowles, 1980; Knowles, 1984; Robinson, 1994; Van Dyk et al., 1997; Zastrau, 1986). The Education, Training and Development (ETD) practises supports co-ownership of the trainer and the learner, and the andragogical model is therefore in accordance with this practise (Meyer et al., 2001). When learners participate in making training decisions, they feel more commitment towards the process as a whole (Knowles, 1995). Also, adult learners may favour this approach, as they are accustomed to have to take responsibility in their everyday lives (Daines et al., 1994).

Learners' independence in the learning process, as supported by the andragogical training style orientation, however, does not imply an absence of structure. It simply demands a new trainer role, where the trainer has to assist and encourage learners to take greater responsibility for learning (Boud, 1981; Reed, 1993). As a result, the learner is responsible for reaching learning goals through self-direction and self-evaluation with the trainer in a supportive and facilitative position (Marshak, 1983).

2.10.4 Involving learners in diagnosing learning needs

Learning needs originate from the learner experiencing a problem that requires skills that they do not possess. These needs often relate to a new developmental stage that learners encounter as a result of the changing of their social and personal roles (Brown, 1985; Knowles; 1984; Krajnc, 1989).

Andragogy allows learners to diagnose the learning needs themselves, and learners are involved in the planning of their own learning with the trainer acting only as a procedural guide and content resource (Knowles, 1984). Once again this practise is supported by the South African Qualification Authority (SAQA) and the National Qualification Framework (NQF) (Meyer et al., 2001). This mutual assessment of learning needs is important as adults will respond best to training content that relates directly to the individual problem that created the need to learn, and training interventions will therefore be optimised (Krajnc, 1989; Zemke & Zemke, 1995).

When learners are involved in establishing their learning needs, it also has a significant positive effect on their motivation to learn (Erasmus & Van Dyk, 1999; Nellmapius, 1992; Van Dyk et al., 1997; Zemke & Zemke, 1995). This is because adults are only motivated to learn and willing to invest time and energy if they see or understand the need or reason to do so. Adult learners are especially motivated to learn when they perceive the training programme necessary to be able to fulfil new roles or solve problems successfully (Beder, 1985; Daines et al., 1994). The importance of learners being motivated when entering a training programme cannot be underestimated. If learners are motivated to learn when entering a training session, they receive maximum benefits from the intervention, as they are more attentive and more receptive to new ideas. The result is that they are ready to learn. Motivated learners are also more likely to transfer the new skills and knowledge after completion of the training (Nunes, 2003).

Andragogical and pedagogical learners are motivated by both internal and external factors. Andragogical learners are however more internally motivated, and these internal factors cause them to learn more effectively. Internal motivational factors include the need for recognition, self-esteem, self-actualisation, quality of life, self-confidence, self-perception and responsibility (Alberts, 1988; Erasmus & Van Dyk, 1999; Nellmapius, 1992; Reed, 1993; Van Dyk et al., 1997).

Pedagogical motivation to learn is usually external to the learner. Sources include trainers, parents, competition for grades, or the consequences of failing at the pedagogical training tasks. As a result learners learn because they are told to do so (Knowles, 1995; Van Dyk et al., 1997).

2.10.5 Involving learners in forming learning objectives

For the same reasons as given in section 2.10.4 for involving learners in the diagnosis of their learning needs, it naturally follows that within the andragogical model learners need to be involved in the formulation of the training objectives (Knowles, 1995). Only by involving learners will the trainer know what their requirements and expectations of the course are, and what they want to achieve as a result of it.

2.10.6 Involving learners in designing training plans

The design of a training plan is greatly influenced by the problem-centred orientation that andragogical learners have towards training (Nellmapius, 1992). As a result, andragogical training courses should consist of units focused on a problem, and units following on it, depending on the learner's readiness to deal with the problem (Knowles, 1995). As mentioned before, the NQF allows for an outcomes-based education system, and the focus of training is on what the learner can do afterwards (Meyer et al., 2001). Therefore, the andragogical model suits the requirements of the NQF, as the focus is on the skills a learner needs in order to solve a specific problem.

In contrast to that, the pedagogical design is subject-centred (Knowles, 1995). Training content is therefore grouped and classified into subjects by the trainer, and all the training activities are sequenced according to the logic of the subject-matter (Du Plooy, 1991; Ingalls, 1973; Knowles, 1978; Knowles, 1980; Knowles, 1995; Marshak, 1983).

2.10.7 Helping learners carry out training plans

As the pedagogical learner is seen to be dependent and lacking experience, the trainer has to take responsibility for learning to take place (Ingalls, 1973; Knowles, 1984; Van Dyk et al., 1997). The strong design orientation of the pedagogical model results in highly structured training techniques to assist learners (Zastrau, 1986). Information and skills are transferred from the trainer to the trainees through mostly transmittal techniques such as lectures, assigned readings and audio-visual presentations (Davenport & Davenport, 1985a; Marshak, 1983; Robinson, 1994; Zemke & Zemke, 1995). These techniques form the backbone of the pedagogical model's methodology (Knowles, 1995).

In contrast, andragogical learners are independent, self-directed and have a wealth of experience to contribute to the learning experience (Daines et al., 1994; Erasmus & Van Dyk, 1999; Grupe & Connolly, 1995; Knowles, 1978; Knowles, 1995; Newton, 1977; Zemke & Zemke, 1995). The training techniques used in an andragogical training situation move away from the transmittal techniques pedagogy favours, and focus on participatory experiential techniques while tapping into the vast experience of the learners (Knowles, 1970; Knowles, 1984; Marshak, 1983). Experiential techniques include group discussions, role playing, skill-practise exercises, field projects, inquiry projects, action projects, independent study, laboratory methods, consultative supervision, demonstrations, seminars, the case method and the critical incident method (Davenport & Davenport, 1985a; Robinson, 1994; Zemke & Zemke, 1995).

These design principles are embedded in the NQF and SAQA legislation as the trainer is expected to focus on the learner's frame of reference rather than on his or her own. This is evident from the NQF stating that it is a "lifelong learning system that brings together South Africans from all the varieties of socio-economic backgrounds representing a variety of worldviews, thinking, practice and experience to negotiate and define quality through the synthesis of these elements" (Meyer et al., 2001:11).

2.10.8 Involving learners in evaluating learning outcomes

The andragogical philosophy supports the idea of self-evaluation, where learners assess their own progress with the assistance of the trainer by using self-collected evidence (Knowles, 1995; Robinson, 1994; Van Dyk et al., 1997). According to Grupe and Connolly (1995) adult learners have a need to be involved with the trainer when they are being evaluated. Andragogical evaluation moreover serves the purpose of re-diagnosing future learning needs, and results in a process of continuous development as it uses the shared evaluation result at the end of a training experience to identify future learning needs (Knowles, 1984; Knowles, 1995; Ingalls, 1973). If adults perceive evaluation to be a process of re-diagnosis of future needs, they see it to be more constructive and as a result they participate with more enthusiasm (Knowles, 1984).

The SAQA and NQF promote learner participation in all facets of evaluation, and learners should for example be involved in establishing standards for evaluation, and collecting evidence of performance. Moreover, and in agreement with the andragogical principles, the evaluation serves as feedback regarding future training needs. A further benefit of holistic and participative evaluation is that it gains legitimacy and transparency if all the stakeholders participate in it (Meyer et al., 2001).

Within the pedagogical framework the learner is dependent on the trainer to evaluate whether learning did take place, as the trainer conducts and is in complete control of the evaluation process (Knowles, 1995; Robinson, 1994). The trainer also controls what he or she believes to be suitable reward or punishment to aid in learning (Marshak, 1983).

The evaluation of training outcomes concludes the design elements involved with andragogy and pedagogy. The following section will focus on the relationship between the two training style orientations.

2.11 The relationship between andragogy and pedagogy as training style orientations

The controversy surrounding the relationship between andragogy and pedagogy has been present since the 1920's (Delahaye, 1987). Knowles unknowingly added to the controversy by publishing *The Modern Practise of Adult Education: Pedagogy Versus Andragogy* in 1970 (Delahaye, 1987). Several researchers believe that andragogy and pedagogy are independent variables that have no correlative relationship (Delahaye, 1987; Delahaye, Limerick & Hearn, 1994). According to this research andragogy and pedagogy are therefore not on a continuum, but separate, independent and unrelated constructs. Delahaye (1987), however, is of the opinion that the relationship between andragogy and pedagogy requires further research.

From the middle of the 1970s andragogy and pedagogy have been defined as the two ends of a continuum (Delahaye, 1987). Zemke and Zemke (1995) agree that andragogy and pedagogy portray the two ends of a spectrum that ranges from trainer-directed training to learner-directed training. The focus of the training is either on the trainer or on the learner, or a combination of the two. This therefore implies that the more andragogical trainers becomes, the less pedagogical they will be. Andragogy and pedagogy are therefore opposites of one another (Zemke & Zemke, 1995). For the purpose of this study andragogy and pedagogy are seen to be two opposite and related constructs on a continuum. The Training Style Inventory (Engelbrecht, 2000) used to measure training style orientation in this study, shares this view, and defines the andragogical and pedagogical training style orientations as 2 constructs on a continuum.

As discussed in section 2.5, training style orientation can be defined as a function of the trainer's personality traits. This study aims to investigate this relationship between one specific personality trait, i.e. locus of control, and the training style orientation of the trainer. Although this relationship is the main aim of this study, research done by Davenport and Davenport (1985a) shows that other variables may also influence and have relationships with training style orientation. As a result some of these demographic variables will be included in a questionnaire to measure whether there are any differences in the andragogical and pedagogical training style orientation groups with regards to gender, age, qualifications, experience, ethnicity, type of organisation and type of skills trained. Each of these variables will be briefly discussed hereafter.

2.11.1 The influence of the demographic variables on the training style orientation groups

Various demographic variables have been associated with training style orientation. This study will look at the influence of gender, age, ethnicity, qualifications, experience, training field and type of organisation on training style orientation. According to Davenport and Davenport (1985a) this information is important as it provides an empirical base for the discussion of training style orientation, and furthermore it is useful when planning training interventions.

Gender has been found to have an influence on the training style orientation of the trainer (Courtenay & Stevenson, 1983; Davenport, 1984; Davenport & Davenport, 1985a; Davenport & Davenport, 1985b; Heimlich & Norland, 1994). Van Allen (1982) and Grubbs (1981) found that females achieved higher andragogical training style orientation scores. Engelbrecht (2000) however found no statistically significant relationship between gender and training style orientation.

Courtenay and Stevenson (1983) and Engelbrecht (2000) found that older individuals have a more andragogical training style orientation. Various researchers have found a relationship between age and training style orientation (Davenport & Davenport, 1985a; Davenport & Davenport, 1985b). However, Van Allen (1982) found that younger participants had higher andragogical scores.

Heimlich and Norland (1994) identify training style orientation as a function of an individual's ethnicity as well as other variables. These researchers state that the way a trainer trains is a result of all the facets of his/her life. During her research Engelbrecht (2000) did not find any relationship between ethnicity and training style orientation.

There is also a relationship between qualifications and training style orientation (Heimlich and Norland, 1994). Respondents with higher educational qualifications were found to be more andragogical with regards to their training style orientation (Engelbrecht, 2000; Van Allen, 1982).

The experience of the trainer furthermore influences training style orientation (Heimlich & Norland, 1994). The more experience a trainer has, the more andragogical their training style orientation seems to be. Engelbrecht (2000) could find no such relationship however.

According to Davenport and Davenport (1985a; 1985b) and Grubbs (1981) the training field involved, i.e the types of skills being trained, have an influence on the training style orientation of the trainer. Trainers involved in training content related to hard skills, seem to have a more pedagogical training style orientation, and trainers training soft skills a more andragogical training style orientation. Some studies however cannot find support for this research (Engelbrecht, 2000).

The last biographical variable that will be investigated with regards to its relationship to training style orientation is organisation type. The type of organisation where the training is being done seems to have a relationship with the training style orientation of the trainer (Davenport, 1984; Davenport & Davenport, 1985b). Engelbrecht (2000) found no relationship between the type of organisation involved and the training style orientation of the trainers though.

The following sections of this chapter will focus on personality, and more specifically on the personality trait locus of control. The rest of the chapter therefore continues to execute the first objective that was set in section 1.2.

2.12 Defining personality

According to Adler (1995:419) the most widely used scientific definition of personality is that it is "...a set of non-physical and non-intellectual psychological qualities which make a person distinct from other people". Although it is a psychological concept, it cannot be separated from the physical body and it is a multi-faceted, organised construct (Carver & Scheier, 1992).

Personality determines how individuals relate to the world, and it is a causal force which manifests itself in behaviour, thoughts and feelings (Allport, 1961; Carver & Scheier, 1992). Personality refers to both the dynamic nature of the behaviour of individuals, and also the tendency to react in a consistent and predictable way to a variety of situations (Ike, 1997; Möller, 1993). According to Carver and Scheier (1992) it shows up in patterns, recurrences and consistencies.

Although personality causes consistent ways of behaving, personality itself is not necessarily stable and consistent and can change over time. It is a relatively stable set

of characteristics that is partly inherited, but personality is also to a large extent formed by social, cultural and environmental factors (Gerber et al., 1998). It is therefore not passive, but actively develops over time (Carver & Scheier, 1992).

In the context of this study there are three aspects of these definitions that are especially important:

- Personality is a multi-faceted construct;
- Personality is not only a set of psychological qualities, but is displayed in behaviour; and
- Personality has a dynamic nature, and can therefore develop and change over time.

2.13 Personality theories

According to Zimbardo et al. (1995), personality theories help to achieve two important goals. They aid in understanding the origin, structure and correlates of personality; and can be used to predict behaviour and life events based on information known about a person's personality.

The personality construct can be analysed and researched from different theoretical perspectives, namely the Psychodynamic perspective (Freud; Jung; and Adler), the Behavioural perspective (Pavlov; Skinner; and Bandura), the Humanistic perspective (Rogers; Maslow; and Frankl) and the Biological and Trait perspective (Allport; Eysenck; Cattell; and Guilford). The Psychodynamic personality theory focuses mainly on the unconscious, and believes that the unconscious is much more important than the conscious in understanding personality. The Behavioural model rejects the focus on the 'subjective' consciousness, and focuses on behaviour in order to study personality. The Humanistic model focuses on both those characteristics that make an individual unique and different from others, and also recognises the importance of behaviour (Möller, 1993).

According to Adler (1995) most of the empirical personality research in organisational behaviour has adopted traits as the unit of analysis. This can be motivated by the fact that by labelling and classifying the many traits that can be observed, it helps to organise human behaviour (Zimbardo et al., 1995). The broad focus of this research is the

relationship between personality (specifically locus of control) and behaviour within the trainer's working context. The choice of the Trait perspective could therefore be justified and is supported by literature (Adler, 1995; Kleynhans, Schmidt & Schepers, 1999; Zimbardo et al., 1995).

2.13.1 Defining traits

From the trait perspective personality is seen to be a multi-faceted construct, therefore personality is perceived as being the sum of a number of different traits. Traits are defined as stable dimensions of personality along which individuals differ (Baron, 1996).

The relationship between traits and behaviour is frequently used in defining traits. Personality theorists however do not agree on the extent of the relationship between traits and behaviour. According to Zimbardo et al. (1995) traits are only used for its descriptive value to summarise patterns of observed behaviour. Traits are therefore dimensions of a person's social reputation (Adler, 1995), and serve as labels to describe differences in directly observable behaviour (Kleynhans et al., 1999). One is therefore labelled with a trait because of one's observable behaviour, irrespective of whether it really exists internally. This is supported by Allport (cited in Westen, 1996) who states that personality is observable because of the resulting behaviour.

On the other hand, traits are seen as internal psychological structures that give behavioural direction and relate to regularities in behaviour, as traits refer to a predisposition to react in an equivalent way to environmental stimuli (Adler, 1995; Allport, 1961; Zimbardo et al., 1995). Traits are the origin of behaviour according to Carver and Scheier (1992).

The common factors of these definitions that are of importance for this study are:

- Traits are psychological structures that accounts for an individual's personality; and
- Traits have an influence on behaviour.

Traits are therefore the fundamental structures that make up an individual's personality and form the basis of behaviour. If traits can therefore be described and measured, one should be able to hypothesise about the impact a trait will have on behaviour. The

assumption can possibly then be made that if a trait can develop and change, the behaviour hypothesised to be influenced by the trait will develop and change as well. The possibilities for research in this field, i.e. the development and change of traits and associated behaviour, are numerous. Especially training and development stakeholders could find knowledge in this regard of great value.

2.13.2 The structure of personality traits

Personality traits are seen as either unidimensional or continuous variables, or as typologies or class variables (Adler, 1995). In the first instance individuals can be positioned on a bipolar continuum with respect to a particular trait, being either towards the one end of the continuum or towards the other. People therefore differ from each other concerning the amount of a personality trait that they have, but they are unable to possess both traits on the continuum (Carver & Scheier, 1992). In comparison, when traits are seen to be typologies or class variables, people are classified into different typologies/categories of traits (Adler, 1995). Traits therefore do not have two poles, but is an independent category. When traits are seen to be class variables a person can therefore possess multiple categories of the same trait. According to Rotter (1954) the personality trait locus of control is not one-dimensional. The construct of locus of control is a class variable, consisting of two separate categories (Kleynhans et al., 1999; Macan et al., 1996; Spector, 1995). For the purpose of this study, the personality trait locus of control will be regarded as a typology or class variable.

Traits can also be approached from either a nomothetic- or idiographic point of view. According to the idiographic point of view people are unique, and some traits are present in only one individual that make comparisons very difficult. The nomothetic point of view allows comparisons between respondents, as traits are seen to have the same meaning for different respondents. Respondents would therefore differ on traits quantitatively, but not qualitatively. From the nomothetic point of view people are unique because of the different combinations of traits they exhibit, and people's uniqueness therefore lies within the individual profile. Most personality theorists favour the nomothetic approach that has dominated personality psychology for the past thirty years. Even psychologists favour the idiographic approach, for example Gordon Allport, does not reject the nomothetic approach entirely (Carver & Scheier, 1992). This study will be based on the nomothetic point of view. The implications of this are that all respondents will have a

score on the personality trait locus of control and that one will be able to make comparisons between different people regarding the personality trait and its influence on training style orientation.

2.13.3 The influences on personality traits

There is disagreement regarding the origin of personality, in other words whether one is born with personality traits fully developed (inherited), or whether it can develop or change throughout life (learned). Whether traits are inherited or learned relates to the nature-nurture debate.

Most personality traits are influenced in varying degrees by genetic factors. This is the finding whether one looks at specific traits or broad traits (categories of traits). Some believe that people possess stable characteristics that influence them irrespective of the circumstances or passing time. Traits are therefore judged to be stable and resistant to change. Any changes through training are likely to be in the manner traits are displayed in behaviour, and not to the traits themselves (Carver & Scheier, 1992).

When studying personality traits and its development there is however disagreement as to the degree that can be contributed to genetics, and subsequently also the degree of traits that can be contributed to the environment and gradual development. The percentage that can be attributed to genetics when one studies traits ranges from twenty to sixty percent (Zimbardo et al., 1995).

For the purpose of this study it is important however that there is a significant percentage of trait development that is not attributed to genetics. This implies that traits are influenced by other factors and can therefore develop and change after birth regardless of genetic predisposition. This is supported by Zimbardo et al. (1995) who states that the environment has a powerful influence on personality traits.

According to Gerber et al. (1998) personality is formed by a few main contributing factors namely cultural factors, social class and group membership factors, family relationship factors, and inherited factors. It is important to realise that inherited factors are therefore one of several possible influences on personality, and that your personality is therefore not cast in stone at birth. According to Adler (1995) adult personality traits

are likely to change slowly when individuals are exposed to prolonged psychologically salient environmental factors.

Implicit to these contributing factors is that an individual is not born with a fully developed personality (inherited factors), but that personality evolves and develops over time because of the influence of cultural factors, social class and group membership factors and also family relationship factors.

2.13.4 Trait theories

Trait theories of personality attempt to identify several key distinguishing dimensions between individuals and therefore try to group the multitude of personality traits in more manageable units (Baron, 1996). Trait theorists also believe that personality traits direct behaviour (Zimbardo et al., 1995).

According to Baron (1996) the trait approach to personality (even though it overcomes a lot of the shortcomings of the other personality perspectives) still has the potential for further development and improvement. The trait approach has a descriptive nature, but the theory should rather focus more on how traits develop and influence behaviour. This study is one such attempt. Trait theorists still have not agreed on the most important basic trait dimensions that underlie the multitude of specific traits, although the "Big Five" theory (see section 2.13.4.4) attempts to unify opinions.

Four influential trait theories have been identified that will hereafter be discussed briefly.

2.13.4.1 Allport's central, secondary and cardinal traits

Allport believes that traits form the structure of personality, which in turn directs behaviour (cited in Zimbardo et al., 1995). Allport supported the theory that personality traits (and not environmental conditions) have the most critical influence on human behaviour.

Allport divides traits into several major categories, depending on the extent of the influence that the particular trait has on a person's life. The most important category is

central traits. These are the five or ten traits that represent the major characteristics of a particular individual, and that can describe a person the best (Baron, 1996; Zimbardo et al., 1995). Secondary traits are of least importance, seeing that these traits have a relatively weak influence on a person's behaviour. Some people's personalities are dominated by a single trait, referred to as the cardinal trait by Allport. Most people however do not develop a cardinal trait. Thus, an individual has some common traits and some unique traits, which culminate into a unique person (Zimbardo et al., 1995).

2.13.4.2 Eysenck's theory

Eysenck links types, traits and behaviour into a hierarchy (Zimbardo et al., 1995). On the lowest level of the hierarchy are responses; responses combine to form habits; habits combine to form traits; and traits combine to form types that form the top level (Westen, 1996; Zimbardo et al., 1995).

He also identifies three overarching psychological types or broad dimensions, namely extroversion-introversion, neuroticism-emotional stability and psychoticism-impulse control (also known as supertraits) (Westen, 1996; Zimbardo et al., 1995). Extroversion refers to tendencies towards sociability, craving for excitement, liveliness, activeness and dominance. Emotional instability refers to the ease and frequency of a person getting upset or distressed, to greater moodiness, anxiety and depression (Carver & Scheier, 1992). Eysenck however did not focus his research efforts on the neuroticism dimension (Carver & Scheier, 1992).

2.13.4.3 Cattell's surface and source traits

According to Cattell there are sixteen source traits which are the key dimensions of personality. Cattell relied on factor analysis to generate the sixteen source traits. The traits identified are warmth, abstract thinking, emotionally stability, dominance, enthusiasm, conscientiousness, boldness, tender-mindedness, suspiciousness, imaginative, shrewdness, apprehension, experimenting, self-sufficiency, control and tenseness. Each source trait consists of a multitude of less important surface traits (Baron, 1996; Westen, 1996; Carver & Scheier, 1992).

Cattell developed a measuring instrument named the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF) to measure these source traits, which results in a total personality profile. The 16PF is an adult-level personality test, and is subsequently only intended for the use of persons eighteen years or older.

2.13.4.4 The "Big Five"

The first time the so-called Big Five Theory was published was in 1949 by D.W. Fiske. It resulted when he claimed that he could not find evidence of Cattell's sixteen factors. In the 1960s researchers like Norman, Borgatta and Smith confirmed the relevance of the five factors as the basis of personality (Carver & Scheier, 1992). This body of research has been growing ever since, in an attempt to try and simplify the many individual traits into more manageable basic units of analysis, and to simplify and unify many of the different trait theories in existence.

This theory postulates that personality consists of only five key dimensions or superordinate bipolar traits (Baron, 1996; Westen, 1996; Zimbardo et al., 1995). The five dimensions are very broad and each dimension brings together a large quantity of individual traits. Traits in a dimension are grouped together because they have a common theme over and above the fact that they are distinct and have unique individual connotations. The five dimensions do not intend to replace the individual traits, but rather demonstrate the relationships among the many traits (Zimbardo et al., 1995). The five broad dimensions are Extraversion (or Surgency), Emotional Stability (or Neuroticism), Agreeableness (or Likeability), Conscientiousness (Achievement orientation and Dependability) and Openness to experience (Baron, 1996; Adler, 1995).

The "Big Five" do incorporate a lot of the previously discussed theories. Two of the five dimensions are present in Eysenck's theory, namely extroversion and emotional stability. It also corresponds with Eysenck's theory regarding the idea that so-called superordinate traits exist, and that these traits incorporate more specific traits within them. Several of Cattell's 16 source traits merge and become Eysenck's supertraits. In this way Cattell's traits are also amenable to the "Big Five" (Carver & Scheier, 1992).

2.14 The influence of personality on work behaviour

According to Adler (1995) during research in relation to work behaviour personality has been treated in mainly four ways. Firstly, as a predictor where single personality traits are related to another relevant variable. Secondly personality interacts with other factors as well, in other words the effect of a personality variable on another variable is seen as partially dependent on other factors as well (usually situational factors). Thirdly personality traits are treated as being the dependent variable, in other words how personality can be developed or changed as a result of for example situational factors. Lastly personality can be researched in dynamic interplay with situational factors, with personality and situational factors continuously influencing one another.

Personality theory and research differ as to whether it is individual differences or situations that are actually the main determinant of behaviour (Maram & Miller, 1998). Personality's value in explaining organisational behaviour has been questioned on both conceptual and empirical grounds. On conceptual ground it is seen as either reductionist or beyond the scope of science, because it is not directly observable. On empirical grounds the criticism is that behaviour is largely determined by situational factors, and that this is the reason why results of relationships between personality and behaviour are contradictory at times (Adler, 1995).

Interaction models were subsequently developed as a possible answer to the debate concerning relationships between people, situations and behaviour. Interaction models state that behaviour is determined by situational factors, but that the effects that these situational factors have on behaviour will depend on personality factors (Adler, 1995; Louw & Raubenheimer, 1990). The most important relationship between personality and behaviour may for example be to determine the types of situations an individual will enter, and only then will situational factors come into play. In other words, people exert considerable control over which types of environments they enter, and subsequently what type of behaviour they display. People therefore are not only reacting to situations forced on them. These choices they make partly depend on personality differences (Carver & Scheier, 1992).

The important role that personality plays within the work environment is self-evident according to Furnham and Stringfield (1993). Carver and Scheier (1992:78) state that the relationship between personality and behaviour stems from the very definition of personality traits that "...individual differences on a trait should correlate with differences in related behaviour". This relationship is clear when similar situational variables induce

different types of behaviour in different people (Carver & Scheier, 1992). According to Gerber et al. (1998) behaviour exhibited in the work environment is the result of differences in individuals because of the fact that every person has a unique personality.

From the discussion on Trait theories of personality in section 2.13.4 it is theorised that the combining of individual traits into core dimensions when researching the effect of personality on behaviour is useful in certain circumstances. The question can however be asked whether anything is lost in the process of combining individual traits to form the so-called supertraits. According to Carver and Scheier (1992) the answer is affirmative. When a researcher uses supertraits it leads to a picture that is easier to process, but using individual traits lead to greater accuracy and greater amounts of variance. As a result most personality psychologists still direct their attention at understanding specific traits and their influence on behaviour in key areas of people's lives (Baron, 1996). This study will focus on an individual personality trait, namely locus of control, and its effect on the work behaviour (training style orientation) of trainers.

2.15 The development of locus of control

Locus of control has had a central position within personality research for a few decades, with researchers continuously asking new questions about locus of control as a personality variable (Bothma and Schepers, 1997). Rotter developed the concept of locus of control expectancies as a result of his conclusion that different people will learn different things given virtually similar conditions for learning (Carver & Scheier, 1992). According to Best (1994) the concept of locus of control was born as a result of a need to find a variable that can contribute to the prediction of how expectancies change as a result of reinforcements.

Locus of control stems from the Attribution Theory and the Social Learning Theory. These theories will be briefly discussed hereafter.

2.15.1 The attribution theory

"The concept of locus of control stems from attribution theory..." (Bothma & Schepers, 1997:45). The attribution theory involves itself with the attribution processes involved when individuals interpret the environmental causes of behaviour. It stems from the work of cognitive theorists such as Fritz Heider (1958), who is generally recognised as the founder of the attribution theory.

People constantly attempt to find causes for their behaviour and the behaviour of others. The allocation of causes to specific behaviour is called attributions. The causal attributions people make and their interpretation of it determines their perception of their world to a large extent. Causes can be either dispositional or situational, in other words causes are either because of human nature and attributes, or because of the external world and environmental factors (Schepers, 1995).

The attribution theory therefore involves itself with the manner in which an individual uses information from the environment in order to create causal explanations for events (Coetzer & Schepers, 1997). There are three basic assumptions underlying the theory:

- People attempt to find causes for their own and other's behaviour;
- People give causality to behaviour in a systematic manner; and
- Attributions made concerning behaviour have an effect on future behaviour.

2.15.2 The social learning theory

The Social Learning Theory provides "...the largest body of empirical data about perceived control" (Bothma & Schepers, 1997:45). This theory emphasises the importance of reinforcement, regard and gratification in determining behaviour.

The Social Learning Theory attempts to explain human nature and complex social behaviour by making assumptions that are used as part of the explanations. Possible explanations are given with regards to the reasons why people make certain choices, given the variety of behaviours available to them (Erbin-Roesemann & Simms, 1997; Phares, 1976).

This theory postulates that the reinforcement of behaviour will lead to the expectation that the same behaviour and situation in future will lead to the same reinforcement. The potential for behaviour to take place is therefore dependent on the individual's belief that there is a relationship between behaviour and reinforcement, and also the value the individual attaches to the reinforcement (Coetzer & Schepers, 1997). Social learning theorists believe that people differ concerning the extent to which they believe in a cause-and-effect link between behaviour and the reinforcement that may follow. It is necessary to recognise the link in order for instrumental learning to occur (Carver & Scheier, 1992).

According to Best (1994) the social learning theory consists of six basic assumptions:

- The person needs to interact with a meaningful environment in order to understand personality;
- Personality emphasises learned social behaviour;
- Personality is unified, interdependent and stable. An individual would choose new life experiences based on past experiences;
- It encompasses general and specific behaviour determinants;
- Human behaviour is motivated and these motivating forces affects the direction of subsequent behaviour; and
- A person's expectancy of whether behaviour will lead to desired and valued outcomes need to be taken into account. This expectancy is influenced by past experience.

2.16 Defining locus of control

Locus of control is a personality trait (Boone et al., 1996). As discussed in section 2.15 locus of control developed from both the attribution theory and the social learning theory. In defining locus of control the two theories focus on different aspects of locus of control, although both theories agree on the basic definition of locus of control as a personality trait that directs behaviour.

The Attribution Theory defines locus of control as a multi-dimensional personality construct that aims to establish the cause of behaviour (Erwee, 1997). It refers to the degree that one attributes the causes or control of events to oneself or to the environment (Phares, 1973). Locus of control consequently has implications for the

amount of personal responsibility individuals are prepared to take for behaviour and occurrences in their own lives (Phares, 1976; Lefcourt, 1966). Individuals with an internal locus of control will be more likely to accept responsibility for both positive and negative consequences of personal actions, as they attribute the causes of events to personal skill (Best, 1994; De Charms, 1968; Lefcourt, 1966; Theron, 1994). External locus of control on the other hand refers to all aspects being outside of personal control and not related to personal action, but due to the occurrence of chance or luck, the external environment and/or powerful others (De Kock & Roodt, 1995).

Social learning theorists view locus of control as a personality construct that refers to the generalised expectancy of control over reinforcements or rewards, and is especially relevant with regards to learner behaviour (Rotter, 1966; Spector, 1995). Locus of control does not concern itself with the expectancy towards any particular type of reinforcement, but rather whether an individual perceives behaviour important in order to reach goals, in other words whether an individual recognises cause-effect relationships (De Kock & Roodt, 1995; De Wet, 1990; Johnson & Sarason, 1978; Judge et al., 1998; Louw, 1989; Plug et al., 1988; Rotter, 1966). According to Best (1994) one can differentiate between internals and externals by analysing their ability to predict and control outcomes. Internal individuals believe they can control occurrences in their lives, whilst external individuals consider that their lives are controlled by fate (Carver & Scheier, 1992; Lefcourt, 1966; Phares, 1976; Rotter, 1966). Because internals believe that their behaviour has an influence on the result of occurrences, they actively attempt to influence the environment, while externals are usually more passive (Kren, 1992).

There is disagreement as to the structure of the concept of locus of control. Some believe that internal and external locus of control can be placed on a bipolar continuum, while others believe it to be a classifying construct. According to Phares et al. (1971) locus of control is a continuum that reflects the belief that individual behaviour will lead to reinforcements. Lefcourt (1982) and Phares (1978) agree that locus of control is a personality dimension and a continuum because a continuum locus of control is defined as a continuous dimension and in terms of its bipolar opposite endpoints. An individual therefore obtains one locus of control score, either being more internal or more external.

Locus of control is however also judged to be a personality variable that *classifies* people as either internal or external depending on where they put control for the reinforcements that occur as a result of their behaviour (Phares, 1968). Schepers (2000) agrees that the internal and external loci of control are two independent scales. When you ask individuals what they contribute their failures in the working environment to, people with

an internal locus of control would say lack of hard work, lack of commitment, etc. People with an external locus of control in contrast would say fate, interference of others, circumstances out of personal control, etc. The reasons internals and externals give therefore do not appear to be bipolar opposites. This study supports the view that the internal and external loci of control are two independent categories. An individual can therefore theoretically be high or low on both internal and external locus of control, as you obtain individual scores for internal- and external locus of control. The Locus of control Inventory (Schepers, 1998) used to measure locus of control in this study adopts this approach.

There is also disagreement as to whether a personality trait like locus of control can change. Some researchers believe that the expression of certain personality traits, for example generalised control expectancies, is relatively stable across a variety of situations (Costin & Grush, 1973; Miller & Rose, 1982). There is however evidence to support this study's view that locus of control can be developed and change, given time and exposure to the right conditions. When one studies locus of control from the point of view of interaction models, locus of control can be either the dependent or the independent variable, which implies that there may be influencing factors on locus of control when the construct is the dependent variable. Performance is one such influencing factor, where internals will adjust their expectations upward or downward as a result of experiences to a greater extent than externals, as they acknowledge the cause-effect relationship (Anderson, 1977). Other job characteristics that have influence on locus of control are job mobility, skill utilisation, influence and income (Howard & Bray, 1988; O'Brien 1984).

Locus of control is not inherent or consistent in any individual, and generalised control expectancies are partly constitutional and partly because of accumulated life experiences (Boone & De Brabander, 1993; Lefcourt, 1982; Phares, 1978; Ross & Taylor, 1999). Schepers (2000) is of the opinion that locus of control can change through training. During a study by Cilliers (1995) trainees' locus of control developed towards internal locus of control during a workshop. The trainees became more self-motivated, self-directed and developed more integrated feelings, values and needs. They also made more independent, autonomous and flexible choices based on the demands of the individual situation. Chen (1995) experienced success in shifting health locus of control from external to internal through biofeedback training, and the changes were retained at the follow-up.

There are basic assumptions that resulted from defining locus of control and which are especially important to this study:

- Locus of control is a personality trait;
- As a personality trait one can hypothesise that locus of control has an influence on behaviour;
- Internal and external locus of control are independent categories and when measured individuals would have scores on both; and
- Locus of control can develop and change through both life experienced and training.

This study focuses on the influence of locus of control (as defined in this section) on training style orientation. As trainers exhibit the behaviour that represents their training style orientation while at work, the next section will focus on locus of control within the working environment.

2.17 Locus of control in work-related settings

Locus of control is not only one of the most widely studied personality traits (Adler, 1995), but it is also one of the most popular personality variables to study within the organisational or work context (Coetzer & Schepers, 1997; Dailey, 1978; Kren, 1992; Spector, 1995). The construct locus of control plays a very important role in different life situations, and is an explanatory variable in the human behaviour that is exhibited within these situations, for example behaviour in work-related settings (Best, 1994; Louw & Raubenheimer, 1990; Reid, 1977). Different people will therefore possibly exhibit different behavioural patterns to exactly the same situation because of their individual locus of control.

Through research, locus of control has been linked with various manifestations of performance-related, social and adaptive behaviour (Louw & Raubenheimer, 1990). It has also been correlated to a variety of behavioural factors within organisations that include motivation, participation, individual responsibility, effort, incentives, performance, job satisfaction, compliance with authority, perception of the job, turnover and leadership style (Best, 1994; Blau, 1993; Boone et al., 1996; Bothma & Schepers, 1997; Erbin-Roesemann & Simms, 1997; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Kinicki & Vecchio, 1994; Kren, 1992; Le Roux et al., 1997; Macan et al., 1996; Nunns & Argirys, 1992; Riipinen, 1994; Schafer

& McKenna, 1991; Spector, 1982; Spector, 1995; Theron, 1994). A variety of constructs that have been studied in relation to locus of control will be discussed in more detail hereafter.

2.17.1 Cognition and information processing

A fundamental difference between people which is based on their locus of control is their cognitive performance. According to Schepers (1998) it seems that people that rate high on internal locus of control and autonomy and low on external locus of control perform better during cognitive measurement when compared to people high on external locus of control and low on internal locus of control and autonomy. According to Ross and Taylor (1999) students in an advanced level programme are not only more internally controlled, but also more personally responsible for intellectual-academic failures than general and basic level students. Out of thirty-six studies thirty-one concluded that internals experience higher academic achievement than externals (Bar-Tal & Bar-Zohar, 1977).

Individuals with an internal locus of control are not only cognitively more active when compared to those with an external locus of control, but prone to perceive relevant environmental information when acting upon opportunities, acquire bigger amounts and also more diverse types of information (Lefcourt and Telegdi, 1971; Phares, 1976). Internals moreover discover new opportunities with greater ease, are more open to new situations, are more successful and creative in problem-solving, are assertive, confident, alert and non-defensive (Anderson, 1977; Bush, 1988; Gilad, 1982; Lefcourt, 1982; Lefcourt & Telegdi, 1971). As a result internals react to unfamiliar situations with extensive trial-and-error behaviour, learn from feedback, and use the feedback for future reference (Lefcourt, 1982; Phares, 1967). Situations that offer learning opportunities are attractive to internals (Bush, 1988). Internal locus of control individuals engage in life-long learning, and also experience spontaneous learning (Gilad, 1982; Lefcourt, 1982). According to Boone et al. (1996) where environmental factors are concerned internal and external CEOs are likely to use different learning strategies when assessing success and failure.

2.17.2 Task complexity

There may not be a direct relationship between locus of control and the performance of complex tasks as the relationship is moderated by intelligence, but locus of control may directly influence the individual's motivation to get involved in complex tasks spontaneously (De Kock & Roodt, 1995). Internals prefer meaningful and complex tasks that demand a wide range of skills and autonomous decision-making, and provide performance-feedback. High complexity tasks also cause internals to experience a greater feeling of job satisfaction than externals do (Dailey, 1980; Perrewé & Mizerski, 1987).

2.17.3 Dealing with the environment and exerted control

The feeling of control that a person has over his or her environment is of fundamental importance in trying to explain behaviour (Louw & Raubenheimer, 1990). According to Pienaar and Bester (1996) a person who feels personally responsible for his or her success and failures (internal locus of control) is more likely to set goals and have a better overall picture of the future, in comparison to a person who believes that external factors are in control of successes and failures (external locus of control).

Phares et al. (1971) state that internals are superior in the manner in which they deal with the environment and their activity levels in manipulating their surroundings. Internals attempt to, and indeed do, exert more control over their working environment than externals. The control is exercised in various areas, for example a more pro-active attitude, work flow, task accomplishment, operating procedures, work assignments, decision-making, relationships with supervisors and subordinates, working conditions, goal setting, work scheduling, initiative, individualism, self-directedness and organisational policy (Erbin-Roesemann & Simms, 1997; Knoop, 1981; Kren, 1992; Spector, 1995; Theron, 1994). According to O'Brien (1984) internals tend to look for jobs that provide them with greater personal autonomy as this enable them to exert control in the working environment. It is therefore most effective for internals to be in a participatory environment, while externals perform best in a low participatory environment (Brownell, 1982). Externals rely on other people to make their decisions on their behalf, and are strongly influenced by the opinions of others (Dasdoor, 1993).

Theron (1994) states that the tendency to control will however be exactly the same for internals and externals regardless of locus of control if the reward is not valued. This result is in agreement with the construct of valence found in Expectancy Theories. Valence refers to the perceived value of the particular reward for the individual, and therefore whether a reward will be a motivating force or not (Gerber et al., 1998; Greenberg & Baron, 1997).

2.17.4 Personal ethical standards

People with an internal locus of control have higher personal ethical standards when compared to those with an external locus of control, and also perceive others as having higher ethical standards (McCuddy & Peery, 1996). This study is correlational, and no causality can therefore be predicted. Internals saw behaviour of an uncertain ethical nature as generally unacceptable, in comparison to externals who saw it as generally acceptable (Reiss & Mitra, 1998). Internals will moreover show resistance to actions that go against personal moral judgement, and will respond positively to influences that reflect their own beliefs and values (Lefcourt, 1982).

2.17.5 Motivation

People with an internal locus of control are self-motivated, and in other words they are intrinsically motivated to fulfil their job roles (Clark, 1979; O'Brien, 1984; Spector, 1982). According to Erbin-Roesemann and Simms (1997) pro-active individuals with an internal locus of control perceive their jobs as more enriched and are more intrinsically motivated. Internals are however not only intrinsically motivated, but are generally more motivated individuals and perceive their jobs to be a strong motivating force (Dailey, 1980; Knoop, 1981).

There is a positive relationship between internal locus of control and achievement motivation, while external locus of control and achievement motivation is correlated negatively (Le Roux et al., 1997). Bothma and Schepers (1997) confirmed that individuals with an internal locus of control have a strong belief in personal ability, and a high need for achievement.

The relationship between locus of control and motivation can be explained and interpreted from the Expectancy theory. Because internals feel confident about their ability, they believe that effort will lead to valued outcomes. Externals on the other hand believe that performance is contingent on factors outside of personal control, and therefore do not believe that personal effort will lead to valued outcomes. This argument can also serve to explain why externals are not motivated and influenced by pay incentives, whereas internals are (Theron, 1994).

2.17.6 Career management

Individuals with an internal locus of control are more effective on a personal level than externals are the evidence of which you will find when you analyse their number of promotions (career development), career status, salary increases, salary levels, and awards within the generic working environment (Andrisani, 1977; Heisler, 1974; O'Brien, 1984). Not only do internals possess higher salaries and career status, but Buchele (1983) found that a change in locus of control has a statistically significant relationship with salary and status. Internals choose jobs that demand higher levels of skill, and put more effort into their jobs than externals (O'Brien, 1984). The careers of individuals with an internal locus of control as a result tend to show better development and locus of control has a significant influence on the subjective career plateau. The career plateau refers to a person's evaluation that he or she has reached a dead end in his or her career, and that there will not be any further career progression (Tremblay & Roger, 1993).

2.17.7 Self-control and change

In contrast with externals, internals have better self-control, are independent and rely on personal judgement. Internal individuals have the ability to delay gratification, and are not as susceptible to the influence and control of others as they have a sense of personal control over their lives (Phares, 1976). Externals are more dependent upon feelings of warmth and satisfaction from others, as they believe in the importance of external influences rather than having faith in their own ability to direct and control their lives (Dailey, 1978). Internal individuals who have self-control and are able to function well autonomously, are also more prone towards making organisational and personal

changes, as they are generally more receptive to change due to their feelings of being in control (Kleynhans et al., 1999).

2.17.8 Levels of stress

Individuals who feel that environmental stimuli are under personal control and can be predicted - in other words those with an internal locus of control - experience lower perceived levels of stress and anxiousness, learn more, and will be more productive (Phares, 1976; Rahim, 1996; Schafer & McKenna, 1991). Internals do not only experience less stress, but when they do experience stress they also handle it better, because locus of control acts as a mediator between the two variables. As a result of the belief internals have that they can control the environment, they perceive stress as an opportunity to increase their performance and achievement levels. Internals therefore view stress in a positive way, in comparison to externals who tend to suffer negative effects when faced with stressful situations (Bernardi, 1997).

2.17.9 Commitment and job involvement

Organisational commitment can be predicted by locus of control. Individuals with an internal locus of control experience more organisational commitment, and exhibit especially affective organisational commitment. Emotional attachment, identification and involvement in the organisation are the factors that constitute affective commitment (Kinicki & Vecchio, 1994; O'Brien, 1984; Spector, 1982). Locus of control does not only play a role in organisational commitment, but also in personal commitment with internals being more personally committed. Personal commitment refers to involvement with personal functioning (Best, 1994).

Individuals with an internal locus are not only more committed than those with an external locus of control, but are also more involved in their jobs (Dailey, 1980; O'Brien, 1984). The reason for this may be that they regard their job as an opportunity to obtain valued rewards. Supervisory support has been found to be a moderating variable in the relationship between work locus of control and job involvement. Internals experience inhibited job involvement when they have high supervisory support, in comparison to externals who are more job involved when they have high supervisory support (Nunns &

Argyris, 1992). Riipinen (1994) however disagrees and states that locus of control and job involvement are independent from one another, and that locus of control cannot be used to predict job involvement.

2.17.10 Job satisfaction and performance

The development of locus of control is an important part of assisting people in achieving personal satisfaction from their behaviour (Clark, 1979). This would include work behaviour. When compared to externals, internals experience more job satisfaction, perceive more task difficulty and variability in their jobs, remain in their jobs longer, have less perceptions of powerlessness and feel less alienated from their careers (Dailey, 1980; Garson & Stanwych, 1997; Judge et al., 1998; Knoop, 1981; O'Brien, 1984; Pretorius & Rothmann, 2001; Rothmann & Agathagelou, 2000; Schafer & McKenna, 1991; Spector, 1982; Theron, 1994). Individuals with an internal locus of control view their jobs as being more enriched on job dimensions such as skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. In comparison the more re-active externals experience low levels of job satisfaction and feelings of powerlessness (Erbin-Roesemann & Simms, 1997). As a result, there is a negative relationship between external locus of control and job satisfaction (Judge et al., 1998; Pretorius & Rothmann, 2001; Rothmann & Agathagelou, 2000; Spector, 1986). Locus of control does not only have an influence on how satisfied individuals are at work, but is also a role-player in their work performance.

Findings about the relationship between locus of control and job performance are ambiguous and should be interpreted with caution. According to Best (1994) this can be because of the influence of situational factors, attractiveness of the performance outcomes, inappropriate measurement of ability, or the use of performance ratings that influence performance. A positive relationship between internal locus of control and job performance has however been proved and can be explained (Bothma & Schepers, 1997; Kalechstein & Novicki, 1994). According to Spector (1995) internals believe that they will succeed at tasks if they work hard towards it, and will do so if the reward is a desired one. As a result internals react better to performance-related incentives than externals do, as the internals believe that receiving the reward is within their personal control. When incentives were absent internals performed worse than externals (Kren, 1992).

As an internal locus of control has a positive influence on job performance, it follows naturally that the organisation for which the individual works will perform better as a result. Boone et al. (1996) found that the locus of control of CEOs had a positive influence on organisational performance. This performance related specifically to strategy choice, but internals additionally achieved better results irrespective of strategy. It is possible that the difference in performance between internal and external CEOs could be attributed to internals having the ability to implement strategies more successfully than externals.

According to Blau (1993) it is important not to condemn people with an external locus of control as redundant workers simply because some research shows that internals are better performers. Internals may be better at tasks that require initiative, but externals perform better when doing highly structured and routine tasks. Internals and externals may therefore simply be suited for jobs of a different nature.

2.17.11 Personality in the training environment

The individual personality trait of locus of control has not yet been correlated with training style orientation, but several other personality traits have. Some of these studies will hereafter be reviewed, as this could shed light on the role personality traits in general have within the training environment.

According to Walklin (1990) trainers are all very different because of their differing personalities. Chandler et al. (1996) found that a heightened awareness of personality preferences in the training environment positively increases understanding and communication between trainers and learners. These authors believe that the trainer's style orientation could make a difference in the amount of learning content that is learned, and also how long it is retained.

Trainer personality and learner perceptions of the classroom environment correlated significantly in a study conducted by Fisher and Kent (1998). The classroom environment scales measured during the study included personalisation, informality, student cohesion, task orientation and individualisation. Trainer personality also had an influence on the perceptions of learners regarding the amount of freedom and responsibility they thought they were allowed during training (Fisher et al., 1998).

The personality traits of the trainer correlated significantly with trainer effectiveness within the training environment (Erdle et al., 1985). According to Behr (1987) the trainer's personality and training behaviour can be used to predict the learner's ratings of trainer effectiveness. Trainers rated as excellent use a training style orientation that is consistent with their personality and their own learning style (Provost et al., cited in Thompson, 1997).

Trait theories state that behaviour across various types of situations is influenced by personality traits (Zimbardo et al., 1995). There is a significant relationship between trainer personality traits and interpersonal trainer behaviour (Erdle et al., 1985; Fisher et al., 1998). Costin and Grush (1973) found that a number of trainer personality traits have a significant influence on not only the training behaviour of the trainer and the learner, but also the training effectiveness in a college setting. The personality of the trainer therefore does not only influence the behaviour of the trainer, but also the behaviour of the learners in reaction to it (Lorentz & Coker, 1977).

Trainer personality is indicative of trainer style orientation (Parkay, 1980). According to Fisher et al. (1998) the results of the Parkay study in 1980 support the postulation of interdependence between personality traits and interpersonal trainer behaviour. Trainers adopt a training style orientation dependent on their personalities, and therefore show their personalities through the way they train (Poon Teng Fatt, 1993). The trainer's personality traits are the most important factor in training style orientation, and all the traits of the trainer form a synergistic whole that guide and direct the behaviour of the trainer (Conti, cited in Heimlich and Norland, 1994). Kagan and Grandgenett (1987) reviewed empirical research and concluded that there are indeed consistent relationships between trainer personality traits and training style orientation. There is a statistically significant relationship between personality (as measured by the Meyers-Briggs Type Indicator) and training style orientation, learning style and training outcome (Fisher et al., 1998; Jonassen, 1981). Although the training of the trainer and socialisation are important sources through which trainers acquire basic training skills, techniques strategies and styles, these factors appear to have a lesser influence on trainer development when compared to the influence of trainer personality (Butt et al., 1989; Butt et al., 1988; Gregorc, 1979). According to Heimlich and Norland (1994) trainers continually strive to better their training methods and techniques, but they should begin the development process with developing the skills inherent to them as these are the essence of style.

Personality traits are not only important during the training intervention. Transfer after training is more effective when the learner has an internal locus of control, and the perception of a supportive working environment (Tziner & Haccoun, 1991).

2.17.12 Managerial performance

In the context of managerial performance the face value of studying locus of control follows directly from its definition according to Boone et al. (1996:668) : "Leading a company is in essence a persistent attempt to control the environment". According to Cilliers and Wissing (1993) locus of control is one of the intrapersonal characteristics that (combined with interpersonal skills) contribute towards personal effectiveness as a manager. They developed a training programme with small groups, and found that it resulted in the development and change of the interpersonal skills and intrapersonal characteristics (locus of control being one of these).

Internal managers are prone to risk-taking and effective planning (Miller & Toulouse, 1986). Seeing that a willingness to take risks is important to the effectiveness of an entrepreneur, internal locus of control is one of the personal characteristics that also contribute to performance in this area (Rahim, 1996). According to Els et al. (2001) locus of control can be used to predict effectiveness within the franchised fast-food sector. The researchers found that to be effective in this sector, one needs a low external locus of control.

Managerial performance is also affected significantly when personality and participation within the workplace interacts. According to Brownell (1981) locus of control acts as a moderator between budgetary participation and managerial performance – participation has a positive effect on internal managers, but a negative effect on external managers where performance is concerned. The relationships between locus of control, and the participative style of the organisation as a whole, also have an influence on performance. When the manager's locus of control and the organisation's style are in conflict with one another, one can expect lower satisfaction and poorer performance from the manager in question (Frucot & Shearon, 1991).

2.17.13 Leadership styles

Internal and external managers use different leadership styles (Boone et al., 1996). External locus of control and transactional leadership correlate positively (Howell & Avolio, 1993; Van Staden et al., 2000). Managers with an external locus of control use a more coercive, authoritarian leadership style, and allow very little participation (Goodstadt & Hjelle, 1973; Simmons, 1959). In contrast internal locus of control and transformational leadership correlate positively (Howell & Avolio, 1993; Van Staden et al., 2000). Internal managers exhibit a more personal, persuasive style, and allow greater participation and autonomy from subordinates, for example in the setting of company budgets (Goodstadt & Hjelle, 1973; Le Roux et al., 1997; Licata et al., 1986). Managers with an internal locus of control are more considerate to their subordinates. The more participative and caring leadership style that internals use creates an environment where employees feel more empowered (Erbin-Roesemann & Simms, 1997; Pryer & Distefano, 1971).

According to Theron (1994) the results concerning the effect of locus of control on leadership styles fit in with the locus of control-authoritarianism hypothesis. According to this hypothesis externals tend to demonstrate an authoritarian leadership style, as a result of their preference to be managed by a coercive means of supervision and a directive style. Seiler and Bartlett (1982) agree that authoritarian individuals prefer rigid systems with lower levels of participation.

It is not only the locus of control of leaders that are important where leadership styles are concerned. The locus of control of subordinates also has a moderating effect on leadership in the organisational context. Externals are easier to supervise as they are more compliant, conforming and prefer to follow directions rather than give it. They therefore cope and comply with coercive supervisors in a more effective way, and prefer directive leadership styles. Externals therefore conform to authority much easier than internals. In comparison to that internals prefer participative supervisory styles, and actually perform better when participating than when they are part of leader-directed groups (O'Brien, 1984; Spector, 1995).

Locus of control has a huge influence on the role-making process in supervisory-subordinate relationships (Yukl, 1989). Kinicki and Vecchio (1994) not only found a correlation between locus of control and leader-member exchange, but also found that leader-member exchange can be predicted by locus of control. Maram and Miller (1998)

found significant correlation between work locus of control and leader-member exchange when they duplicated the above-mentioned study.

TABLE 1
THE INFLUENCE OF LOCUS OF CONTROL IN WORK-RELATED SETTINGS

Construct	Internal locus of control	External locus of control
Cognition and information processing	better cognitive performance, better information collection and processing, assertive, confident, alert, non-defensive, better problem-solving	lower cognitive performance, worse information collection and processing, less assertive, less confident, less alert, defensive, lower problem-solving
Task complexity	prefer high-complexity tasks, moderated by intelligence	do not prefer high complexity tasks, and experience less job satisfaction when involved in it
Dealing with the environment and exerted control	personal responsibility, autonomous, more controlling	contribute successes and failures to external factors, less controlling
Personal ethical standards	higher personal ethical standards	lower personal ethical standards
Motivation	self-motivated	externally motivated
Career management	more promotions, more salary increases, less prone to reach a career plateau	less promotions, less salary increases, more prone to reach a career plateau
Self-control and change	more self-control, not susceptible to control of others, receptive to change	less self-control, susceptible to control of others, less receptive to change
Levels of stress	lower perceived levels of stress	more perceived levels of stress
Commitment and job involvement	more organisational commitment, more job involved, supervisory support a moderating variable	less organisational commitment, less job involved, supervisory support a moderating variable
Job satisfaction and performance	more job satisfaction, better job and organisational performance	less job satisfaction, lower job performance
Personality in the training environment	better learner transfer after training, learners prefer andragogical training style orientation	less transfer after training, learners prefer pedagogical training style orientation
Managerial performance	risk-taking and effective planning, prefer participative style	do not perform well with participative style
Leadership style	prefer participative style and encourage participation from subordinates	prefer coercive management style, do not favour participation and is more authoritarian

2.17.14 Summary: Locus of control in work-related settings

Section 2.17 lists and explains the variety of work-related constructs influenced by locus of control. In order to understand behaviour within organisations, it is necessary to understand the impact that locus of control has on the beliefs and behaviour of the employees. Table 1 serves as a summary of the specific constructs that are influenced by the locus of control of employees within organisational settings.

2.18 Locus of control and training style orientation

There is an obvious practical importance and intuitive appeal to demonstrate relationships between the personality traits of trainers, and his/her training style orientation (Thompson, 1997; Heimlich & Norland, 1994; Houtz et al., 1994; Poon Teng Fatt, 1993; Walklin, 1990). The two constructs being investigated in this study are locus of control and training style orientation.

Training style orientation refers to a consistent set of beliefs and behaviour within the trainer's working environment. Variables that have been theoretically linked to training style orientation are personality, training, experience, personal philosophy and preferred working ways (Heimlich & Norland, 1994; Pratt, 1988). There are also significant similarities between training style orientation and leadership style (Boone et al., 1996; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Van Staden et al., 2000; Zastrau, 1986). Although training style orientation has not been investigated in relation to locus of control as a personality trait, locus of control does have an influence on leadership style, and it is therefore likely that locus of control may stand in some type of relationship to training style orientation.

Locus of control has had a central position within personality research for a few decades, and is one of the most popular personality variables to study within the work context (Coetzer & Schepers, 1997; Dailey, 1978; Kren, 1992; Spector, 1995). Within the working environment it has been found to have relationships with various work-related behaviours including motivation, participation, individual responsibility, performance, effort, incentives, job satisfaction, compliance with authority, perception of the job, turnover and leadership style (Best, 1994; Blau, 1993; Boone et al., 1996; Bothma &

Schepers, 1997; Erbin-Roesemann & Simms, 1997; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Kinicki & Vecchio, 1994; Kren, 1992; Le Roux et al., 1997; Louw & Raubenheimer, 1990; Macan et al., 1996; Nunns & Argirys, 1992; Reid, 1977; Riipinen, 1994; Schafer & McKenna, 1991; Spector, 1982; Spector, 1995; Theron, 1994). Locus of control has therefore been proven to have extensive influences on work-place behaviours, and seeing that training style orientation can be defined as a set of work-place behaviour that is influenced by personality, it seems appropriate to investigate the relationship between these two constructs more closely.

In summary, this study resulted from the following theoretical framework:

- There are possible relationships between training style orientation and personality traits, and locus of control is a personality trait;
- Locus of control has been linked extensively through research to various work-place behaviours, and training style orientation can be defined as work-place behaviour; and
- There are similarities to the constructs of training style orientation and leadership style, and locus of control has been found to have an influence on leadership style.

2.19 Summary

The trainer's role within the training system is a very important one, and as a result the first part of the chapter is dedicated to the various roles a trainer has to fulfil. Thereafter the training style orientations, and specifically andragogy and pedagogy, are defined and described in great detail, as these variables are the focus of the study.

As described in section 2.5 training style orientation can be defined as the function of personality traits. The relationship between training style orientation and the personality trait locus of control is the focus of this study, and as a result personality and more specifically, locus of control are defined and discussed. The influence that locus of control has proved to have on workplace constructs is also discussed in great detail, and summarised in Table 1.

Two areas of the body of literature and research regarding locus of control are of particular interest and importance for this study. Firstly locus of control has a big influence on information gathering and processing, and is therefore relevant within the training environment. In the second place the influence of locus of control on the

managerial and leadership style of managers is a relevant and very important finding, seeing that trainers have to lead, manage and control the training environment in a similar way that managers do in organisations.

According to Erbin-Roesemann and Simms (1997) research about the influence of locus of control in organisational settings can be used to the advantage and satisfaction of both internals and externals, as the aim is not to exclude either group. Research can aid in finding out the different ways to approach and utilise both groups within the working context. It is important to realise that internals and externals are possibly simply suited for jobs of a different nature (Blau, 1993). However, information with regard to the influence of locus of control within the workplace is very useful and relevant for recruitment and selection processes. It can aid in finding better person-job fits, and this is advantageous to both the prospective employee and the employer. The employee will experience more positive rewards from the job in the form of less stress, more job satisfaction etc, and the organisation will have a more effective, productive and happy employee. Knowledge about the influence of locus of control within the working context can also contribute towards training and development efforts.

This chapter concludes the conceptualisation of the constructs locus of control and training style orientation from existing literature, and consequently serves as the attainment of objective 1 as set in section 1.2. Chapter 3 will focus on the research methodology followed in order to reach the empirical objectives of this study, and to answer the questions at hand.

CHAPTER 3: Research methodology

3.1 Introduction

As discussed in Chapter 2, the role that the trainer plays within the training context has long been neglected by researchers. Along with the trainees and the learning content, the training style orientation that the trainer uses has a significant influence on training results (Conti, 1985; Conti & Welborn, 1986). This research attempts to shed some light on the influence the locus of control of the trainer has on the training style orientation the trainer uses when training others. In the light of the lack of previous research focusing on the trainer, this research will be of importance to organisations and trainers alike in the development of training and development interventions.

This chapter describes the hypotheses that form the focus of this study, and also the processes involved in testing the hypotheses. The chapter firstly focuses on the three different questionnaires used to collect the data regarding the training style orientation of the trainers, and their locus of control. It also describes the sample of respondents used in the study, the different steps followed during the data collection phase, and the research design that forms the basis of the research. Lastly the hypotheses and the statistical procedures employed are described.

3.2 Measuring instruments

Three questionnaires were used during this study. The questionnaires include:

- A Demographic questionnaire;
- The Training Style Inventory (Engelbrecht, 2000); and
- The Locus of Control Inventory (Schepers, 1995).

In the following sections these questionnaires are described in detail.

3.2.1 Demographic questionnaire

The demographic questionnaire consists of 7 questions in total (Appendix A). It was constructed by using the research done by Davenport and Davenport (1985a) and by adapting the demographic questionnaire used by Engelbrecht (2000) during her study. The questionnaire is based upon the assumptions that the training style orientation of the trainer may be effected by gender, age, qualifications, experience, ethnicity, the type of organisation involved, and subject areas of the training content.

The questionnaire consists of mostly closed-ended questions, as it simplifies data analysis. Closed-ended questions allow a comparison between individual results, and also ensure a greater uniformity of measurement that may contribute to better reliability (Schreuder, 1995; Oppenheim, 1992).

Open-ended questions may be relatively easy to put to respondents, but they are very difficult to analyse (Oppenheim, 1992). There are, however, two open-ended questions included in the demographic questionnaire. These answers were classified according to a system called coding, and as a result categories called the coding frame were identified (Oppenheim, 1992).

3.2.2 Training Style Inventory (TSI)

The Training Style Inventory was developed by Engelbrecht (2000) in order to assess the training style orientation of adult trainers (Appendix B). This study therefore serves as further empirical testing and refinement of the newly developed questionnaire.

Engelbrecht (2000) used two existing training style orientation questionnaires in the development of her own. The two measuring instruments used to develop the updated Training Style Inventory (Engelbrecht, 2000) are the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) (Conti, 1985), and the Educational Orientation Questionnaire (Hadley, 1975). Engelbrecht's (2000) Training Style Inventory is more suitable for measuring andragogical and pedagogical training style orientations for the purpose of this study, as it was designed to specifically measure the training style orientations andragogy and pedagogy as defined in Chapter 2.

3.2.2.1 Items of the Training Style Inventory

The Training Style Inventory consists of forty-two direct and closed statements. Participants are therefore forced to reply according to an already established response framework. The questionnaire is a summative rating scale, and uses a 5-point Likert-type scale that ranges from never to always. The answers that the respondents can choose from are "never", "seldom", "sometimes", "frequently" and "always". The items can either be positive or negative, which has an influence on the manner in which the item is scored (Engelbrecht, 2000).

3.2.2.2 Factors in the Training Style Inventory

The Training Style Inventory consists of seven underlying factors. Every individual item in the questionnaire relate to one of the seven factors. The seven factors are judged to be the basic influential factors in the training style orientation of a trainer. The items and their individual association with the seven factors can be seen in Table 2. These seven first-order factors therefore combine to form a single second-order factor, namely training style orientation (Engelbrecht, 2000).

The first factor in the Training Style Inventory is the learner-centred activities. These items relate to the trainers' attitude towards evaluation techniques, and the broad location of authority within the training context. This factor includes seven negative items and two positive items.

The second factor in the Training Style Inventory is personalising instruction. This factor refers to the amount trainers do personalise instruction according to, for example, the learning group's abilities and motives. This factor includes three negative items and five positive items.

The third factor in the Training Style Inventory relates to experience. These items focus on whether the trainer values and uses the experience of the learner during the training process, by using it during training and encouraging learners to relate new learning experiences to their existing experiences. This factor includes five positive items.

The fourth factor in the Training Style Inventory is assessing student needs. This refers to the co-operation (or lack of it) between the trainer and the learner regarding the learning needs of the learner. This factor includes three positive items.

The fifth factor in the Training Style Inventory is climate building. This refers to elements within the learning climate like friendliness, formality, risk-taking, experimentation and periodic breaks. This factor includes six positive items.

The sixth factor in the Training Style Inventory is participation in the learning process. This factor focuses on the amount of involvement from the learners in training elements like learning content and evaluation of personal performance. This factor includes four negative items and three positive items.

The seventh and last factor in the Training Style Inventory is flexibility for personal development. This factor refers to the extent that the trainers view themselves as providers of knowledge or as facilitators. This factor includes three negative items and one positive item (Engelbrecht, 2000).

TABLE 2
THE FACTORS AND ITEMS OF THE TRAINING STYLE INVENTORY

FACTOR:	ITEMS:
One	2, 11, 12, 19 ,27, 28, 35, and 37
Two	8, 22, 23, 30, 32, 34, 38, and 39
Three	4, 13, 29, 36, 40, and 41
Four	7, 10, and 21
Five	3, 9, 17, 18, 20, and 26
Six	1, 14, 15, 16, 31, 33, and 42
Seven	5, 6, 24, and 25

(Adapted from Engelbrecht, 2000)

3.2.2.3 The total score of the Training Style Inventory

Respondents get a minimum of one and a maximum of five on each item, and these scores are added up to give each respondent a total score of between forty-two and two-hundred and ten. Training style orientation is judged to be normally distributed along the training style orientation continuum, and as a result of this, Engelbrecht hypothesised that five categories of training style orientations will be identified on the continuum (Engelbrecht, 2000). The resulting training style orientations and their allocations are explained and detailed in Table 3.

TABLE 3
SCORES AND TRAINING STYLE ORIENTATIONS

Percentage of total scores on TSI	The training style orientations of trainers
Category 1: Lowest 10%	Style A: Pedagogical
Category 2: Next 20%	Style B: Pedagogy – preference Andragogy - inferior
Category 3: Next 40%	Style C: Flexible (no preference or inferior style)
Category 4: Next 20%	Style D: Andragogy – preference Pedagogy – inferior
Category 5: Top 10%	Style E: Andragogical

(Engelbrecht, 2000:72)

During her research Engelbrecht (personal communication, Friday 15 June 2001) however found that the 5 groups do not yield significant results, and as a result suggested that the 5 groups should be replaced by only 2 training style orientation groups. These groups are identified by dividing respondents into those whose total score is smaller than or equal to the average score for the whole group of respondents, and those respondents whose total score is bigger than the average score. For the purpose of this study respondents will therefore be divided into two groups: A pedagogical training style orientation (a score between 42 and 126), and an andragogical training style orientation (a score between 127 and 210).

3.2.2.4 Preference and inferior training style orientations

According to Engelbrecht (2000) trainers differ regarding the extent to which they are comfortable with using andragogical and pedagogical principles. The preference training style orientation is therefore the style they are comfortable with, and the inferior training style orientation the one they implement and use with effort. The behaviour that trainers prefer to use would therefore be part of the preference training style orientation, and the behaviour he or she prefer not to use (but do use occasionally) part of the inferior training style orientation (Engelbrecht, 2000). According to Walklin (1990) trainers are different regarding their ease with the different training style orientations as a result of their different personalities. For the purposes of this study the preferred training style orientation was excluded, and training style orientation is defined in terms of two groups, i.e. andragogy and pedagogy.

3.2.2.5 Reliability of the Training Style Inventory

The Training Style Inventory was item-analysed through the SPSS Reliability procedure (Engelbrecht, 2000). The reliability coefficient was initially 0.7737. Items 15, 16, 24, 19, 26, 27, 31, 35, and 42 were eliminated at the time of Engelbrecht's (2000) study that resulted in a final reliability coefficient of 0.8339. This value is regarded as satisfactory.

3.2.2.6 Validity of the Training Style Inventory

The validity of the Training Style Inventory warrants further investigation (Engelbrecht, 2000). Although the questionnaire proves to be a reliable measuring instrument of training style orientation, that does not guarantee its reliability.

3.2.3 Locus of Control Inventory

The Locus of Control Inventory was developed by Schepers (1995) in order to assess individuals' locus of control. It is conceptually grounded in both the social learning and attribution theories (Schepers, 1995). The questionnaire was revised in 1998, resulting in items being added, and small changes were also made to language and the formulation of the existing items (Van Staden et al., 2000). During this study the 88-item 1999 edition was used. Items 60, 77, and 86 are slightly changed for the study, in order to be more applicable to the population involved. This was done in co-operation with Schepers.

The best known and most widely used locus of control measuring instrument is that of Rotter (1966) (Bothma & Schepers, 1997; Macan et al., 1996). Rotter's (1966) questionnaire, however, measures locus of control as a continuum, and therefore does not support the view of this study and supportive literature that locus of control is indeed a multi-dimensional construct. Furthermore, according to Coetzer and Schepers (1997) and Schepers (1995) the Rotter I-E Scale can be misleading, as it is an ipsative scale, and therefore cannot be used in the measurement of inter-individual differences. It also cannot be used in connected studies. According to Warehime (1972), studies using undimensional measuring instruments when investigating locus of control and performance produce non-significant results. As this research focuses on the differences between the respondents and on correlations between the variables, the Locus of Control Inventory developed by Schepers (1995) is used. This questionnaire can be used for inter-individual comparisons as it is a normative measuring instrument (Schepers, 1995).

3.2.3.1 Three sub-scales of the Locus of Control Inventory

During the development of the Locus of Control Inventory Schepers (1995) found that factor analysis yielded three independent factors. These factors are interpreted as autonomy, internal locus of control and external locus of control. According to Schepers (1995) it is therefore obvious that internal locus of control and external locus of control are not bipolar and opposite of one another, but are independent constructs. Macan et al. (1996) agree with this dual-dimensional view of locus of control. They also found that factor analysis proves that internal and external locus of control is not a single bipolar dimension, but "...two dimensions, internal and external, making it possible for individuals to be high (or low) on both internal and external control" (Macan et al., 1996,

p. 356). The Locus of Control Inventory therefore consists of three normative scales – internal control (30 items), external control (27 items), and autonomy (31 items) (Van Staden et al., 2000). For the purpose of this study the results with regards to autonomy will be disregarded, as it does not form part of the objectives and focus of this study.

3.2.3.2 Items of the Locus of Control Inventory

The Locus of Control Inventory (1998) has 88 items in total. The items are direct and closed statements, with the answers in the form of a seven point scale. The respondents have a choice to choose an answer between 1 and 7, with 1 being the negative response and 7 the positive response to the question.

3.2.3.3 Scoring in the Locus of Control Inventory

The Locus of Control Inventory is based on the assumption that locus of control is not bipolar opposites but two independent constructs. Respondents receive a score on both internal and external locus of control (Schepers, 1995). These scores can then be used during the statistical analysis of the data.

3.2.3.4 Reliability of the Locus of Control Inventory

The Locus of Control Inventory is a well-established measuring instrument within the South African context (Schepers, 1998). Pre-graduate university students completed the revised questionnaire used during this study (Schepers, 1998). The reliability of the three scales using the Cronbach coefficient alpha are 0,856 for internal control, 0,866 for external control, and 0,892 for autonomy. All three scales are therefore reliable.

3.3 Sample

The sample population used during this study consists of adult trainers in London, United Kingdom. Several organisations were contacted in order to gain their participation in this study. Thereafter appointments were made with the participating trainers for the questionnaires to be completed. This was necessary as the Locus of Control Inventory

need to be completed in the presence of the researcher, as a requirement of the Occupational Board of Psychology, Law 56, 1974. The population of trainers suitable to participate in the study proved to be very small and difficult to come by, and therefore the sample was a convenience sample (Huysamen, 1993). All trainers that expressed a willingness to participate in the study were included. This resulted in a sample of 105 trainers who completed the questionnaires anonymously. Five questionnaires could not be used for the study, because they are incomplete. The response rate is therefore 95.24%, and the results are based on the analysis of a sample size of 100 trainers.

3.4 Data collection

The following steps were followed during the execution of this study. Firstly, the training style orientations of the trainers were identified by employing the Training Style Inventory (Engelbrecht, 2000).

Secondly, the trainers completed the Locus of Control Inventory (Schepers, 1998). Trainers could therefore be classified accordingly. This questionnaire gives each trainer a score on internal and on external locus of control, and also a score on autonomy.

Thirdly the trainers also completed a biographical questionnaire. This questionnaire is as result of the research finding that variables such as gender, age, qualifications, experience and ethnicity are possible influences on training style orientation (Davenport & Davenport, 1985a:152-158). According to Huysamen (1993) one of the ways to attempt to control possible noise variables such as these identified by Davenport and Davenport (1985a) is to include them into the study as an independent variable. Lastly, the statistical analysis was done in order to test the hypotheses set out in section 3.5.1.

3.5 Research design

For the purpose of this study, an underlying ex post facto design was used. Ex post facto research designs use neither random assignment nor experimental manipulation of the independent variable(s) (Research Methodology, 2000; Huysamen, 1993).

The correlation design observes the variables in an attempt to establish the extent to which they co-vary (Research Methodology, 2000). This design is deficient in the

definitive characteristics of random assignment to the research project, and manipulation or experimental input (Research Methodology, 2000; Huysamen, 1993). The reasons for using this design are the difficulty in finding respondents from a relatively small population, and the fact that the variables are simply observed and that no attempt was made to manipulate them. Training style orientation (andragogy and pedagogy) is the dependent variable, and locus of control (internal and external) is the independent variable.

3.5.1 Hypotheses

The following hypotheses can be stated:

- Ho1: There is no statistically significant correlation between internal locus of control of the trainer, and andragogical training style orientation of the trainer.
- Ha1: There is a statistically significant correlation between internal locus of control of the trainer, and andragogical training style orientation of the trainer.
- Ho2: There is no statistically significant correlation between external locus of control of the trainer, and pedagogical training style orientation of the trainer.
- Ha2: There is a statistically significant correlation between external locus of control of the trainer, and pedagogical training style orientation of the trainer.
- Ho3: There are no statistically significant differences in terms of gender between the two training style orientation groups.
- Ha3: There are statistically significant differences in terms of gender between the two training style orientation groups.
- Ho4: There are no statistically significant differences in terms of age between the two training style orientation groups.
- Ha4: There are statistically significant differences in terms of age between the two training style orientation groups.

- Ho5: There are no statistically significant differences in terms of qualifications between the two training style orientation groups.
- Ha5: There are statistically significant differences in terms of qualifications between the two training style orientation groups.
- Ho6: There are no statistically significant differences in terms of experience between the two training style orientation groups.
- Ha6: There are statistically significant differences in terms of experience between the two training style orientation groups.
- Ho7: There are no statistically significant differences in terms of ethnicity between the two training style orientation groups.
- Ha7: There are statistically significant differences in terms of ethnicity between the two training style orientation groups.
- Ho8: There are no statistically significant differences in terms of organisation type between the two training style orientation groups.
- Ha8: There are statistically significant differences in terms of organisation type between the two training style orientation groups.
- Ho9: There are no statistically significant differences in terms of training field between the two training style orientation groups.
- Ha9: There are statistically significant differences in terms of training field between the two training style orientation groups.

3.6 Summary

Chapter 3 provides a discussion of the research methodology that was applied in this study. Emphasis is placed on the measuring instruments, sample composition, data gathering, research design and the hypotheses stated. This chapter therefore serves as an explanation with regards to the methods this study uses in order to reach objectives 2-5. In Chapter 4 the results and discussion of the empirical study will be presented.

CHAPTER 4: Results and discussion

4.1 Introduction

The main purpose of this study is to establish whether there is a statistically significant correlation between the locus of control of the trainer and the training style orientation the trainer uses. The results and discussion will be presented in the following order: A description of the demographic profiles of the respondents, thereafter the statistical analysis of the questionnaires will be done, and lastly the results of the hypotheses will be presented.

4.2 Demographic profile of the sample

The results of the demographic questionnaire are reported in the following sections.

4.2.1 Gender and age

In total, 100 individuals participated in this study of which 53% (53) are females and 47% (47) are male (Refer to Figure 2). The age of the sample varies between 22 and 64 years. The frequency distribution are as follows: 14% are between the ages of 22 and 30, 36% are between the ages of 31 and 40, 32% are between the ages of 41 and 50, 13% are between the ages of 51 en 60, and 5% are older than 61 years. Figure 3 shows the age distribution across the five categories.

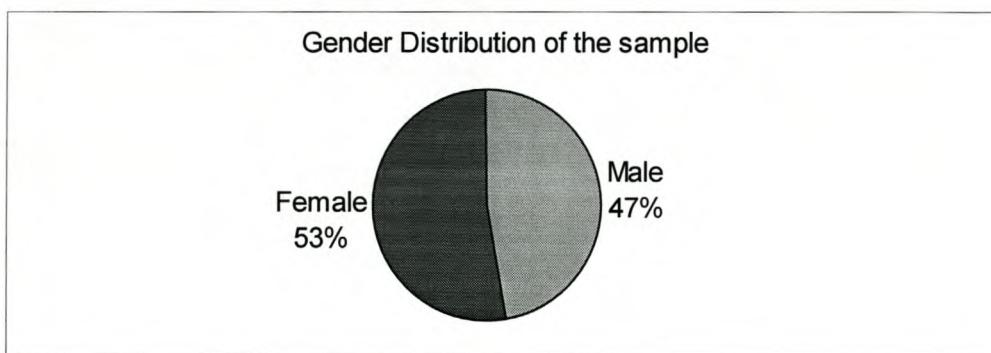
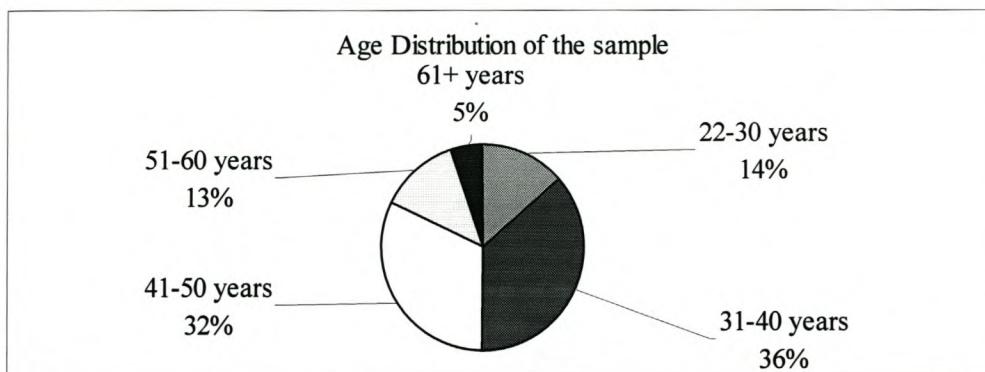


Figure 2: Gender of respondents

**Figure 3: Age of the respondents**

4.2.2 Qualifications

Most of the respondents have finished high school (98%), while only 2% have a GCSE (British equivalent of Grade 10). In turn, 9% have A levels (British equivalent of grade 12), 15% have a diploma and 31% of the participating individuals have a bachelors degree, while 43% of the respondents have obtained a post graduate degree. Refer to Table 4 for a detailed breakdown of the qualifications of the respondents.

TABLE 4
THE HIGHEST QUALIFICATIONS OF THE RESPONDENTS

	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
GCSE	2	2	2
A level	9	9	11
Diploma	15	15	26
B. Degree	31	31	57
H. Degree	19	19	76
M. Degree	22	22	98
Doctorate	2	2	100
Total	100	100	

4.2.3 Training experience

Almost 29% of the sample has been training for a period of five years or less. In turn, 21% of the respondents have been training for more than 21 years. Figure 4 shows the number of years spent in the training field according to six categories.

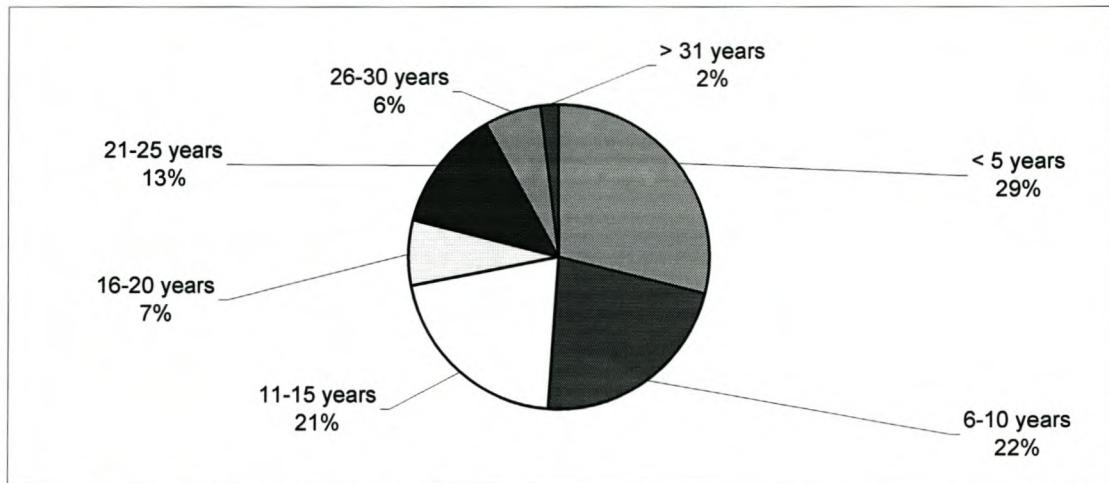


Figure 4: Training experience

According to table 5, 43% of all women respondents have training experience of ten years or less as opposed to the 60% of men falling in this category. Furthermore, table 5 indicates that the majority of those having training experience between 11 and 15 years are women (28,3%).

TABLE 5
CROSS-TABULATION BETWEEN YEARS IN THE TRAINING FIELD AND GENDER

Years in training field	Male	Female	Total
5 years or less	16	13	29
6-10 years	12	10	22
11-15 years	6	15	21
16-20 years	0	7	7
21-25 years	7	6	13
26 or more years	6	2	8
Total	47	53	100

4.2.4 Ethnicity of respondents

The distribution of the ethnicity of the sample displays that 95% respondents are white, 3% are of mixed race and 2% are Asian (Refer to Figure 5).

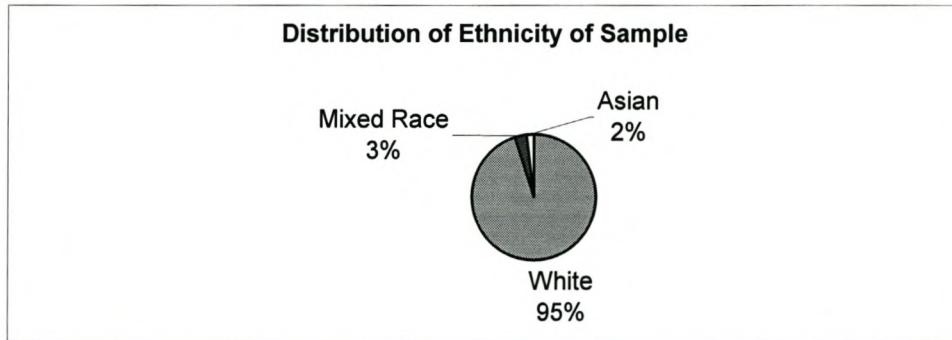


Figure 5: Ethnicity of respondents

4.2.5 Type of organisation

A total of seven types of organisations are represented in this study (Refer to Table 6). The Training and Development sector contributes to 66% of the sample, while Recruitment is responsible for 10%. The rest of the organisational types (Financial, Retail, Manufacturing, Public Services and IT) contribute a further 24%, but individually they are less than 10% each.

TABLE 6
TYPES OF ORGANISATIONS REPRESENTED IN THE STUDY

Type of organisation	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
1. Training & Development	66	66	66
2. Manufacturing	3	3	69
3. Recruitment	10	10	79
4. Retail	3	3	82
5. Financial services	7	7	89
6. Public Services	4	4	93
7. IT	7	7	100
Total	100	100	

Of both the men and the women, the majority are employed in Training and Development organisations (Refer to Table 7).

TABLE 7
CROSS-TABULATION BETWEEN TYPE OF ORGANISATION AND GENDER

Type of organisation	Male	Female	Total
1. Training & Development	33	33	66
2. Manufacturing	3	-	3
3. Recruitment	3	7	10
4. Retail	1	2	3
5. Financial services	4	3	7
6. Public Services	1	3	4
7. IT	2	5	7
Total	47	53	100

4.2.6 Subject area

Figure 6 shows that most of the respondents (70%) are responsible for the training of soft skills such as communication skills and management skills as examples, whereas 30% of the respondents are responsible for the training of hard skills, for example driving forklift trucks and IT skills.

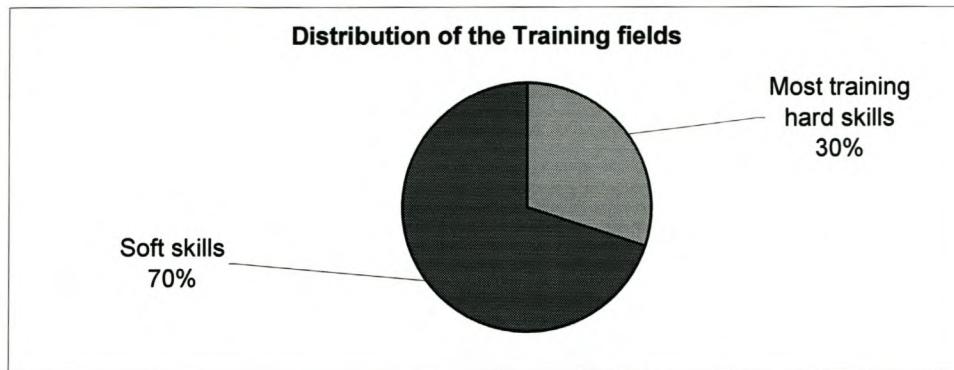


Figure 6: Subject areas within the training field

TABLE 8
CROSS-TABULATION BETWEEN SUBJECT AREA AND GENDER

Subject Area	Male	Female	Total
Soft skills	29	41	70
Hard skills	18	12	30
Total	47	53	100

Furthermore, Table 8 indicates that the majority of trainers involved in the training of hard skills are men (38,30%) while the majority of the trainers involved in the training of soft skills are women (77,36%).

4.3 Statistical analysis of the questionnaires used

The Locus of Control Inventory (Schepers, 1995) and the Training Style Inventory (Engelbrecht, 2000) are used during this study. This section describes the statistical methods used in analysing the questionnaires and their results.

4.3.1 Reliability of the Locus of Control Inventory and the Training Style Inventory

In order to make reliable and scientifically sound conclusions from the data gathered, it is important to determine the reliability of the two questionnaires used prior to further analysis.

The Cronbach-Alpha statistical method will be used as the measure of reliability for a set of two or more construct indicators. Values range between 0 and 1, with higher values indicating higher reliability among the indicators. Using the following formula, developed by Schepers, the reliabilities of the two questionnaires were calculated:

$$\alpha = \frac{K^2 C_{gh}}{S^2 x} \quad \text{where}$$

K = Number of variables

C_{gh} = average intercorrelation of variables

S²x = Total variance of test (Equal to the sum of all the elements of the Var-cov Matrix).

Both the Locus of Control Inventory ($\alpha = 0,837$) and the Training Style Inventory ($\alpha = 0,840$) reported acceptable reliability (Refer to Appendix C and D).

4.3.2 Training Style Inventory

The main purpose of this study is to determine if a statistical significant correlation exists between the andragogical training style orientation and the internal locus of control of trainers, as well as between the pedagogical training style orientation and external locus of control of trainers, as measured by the Locus of Control Inventory.

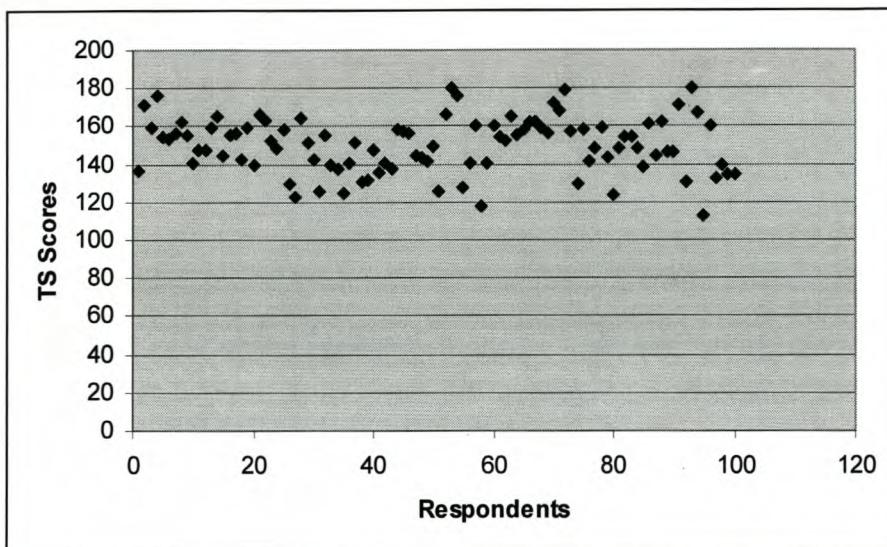


Figure 7: Training Style Score per Respondent

In order to determine the two training style orientation groups, i.e. andragogy and pedagogy the following calculations were made. The total for each respondent was calculated for the Training Style Inventory questionnaire. The total scores between 42 and 126 can be seen as the pedagogical training style orientation and the total scores between 127 and 210 can be seen as the andragogical training style orientation. According to the above method of scoring of the questionnaire there were seven respondents in the pedagogical training style orientation (score ≤ 126) and ninety-three respondents in the andragogical training style orientation (score ≥ 127).

The Cronbach-Alpha was calculated for the Training Style Inventory questionnaire's pedagogical and andragogical training style orientations, and although both have an acceptable reliability ($\alpha = 0.720$ for the pedagogical training style and $\alpha = 0.881$ for the andragogical) this result must be treated with caution as the pedagogical training orientation has only 7 respondents.

4.3.3 Locus of Control Inventory

The Locus of Control Inventory was divided into three dimensions, namely the autonomy, internal and external dimensions. The total score for each respondent was calculated for the questionnaire. The result varies from a minimum of 342 to a maximum of 480 (the range is equal to 138). The variation in the respondents' total results can be seen in Figure 8.

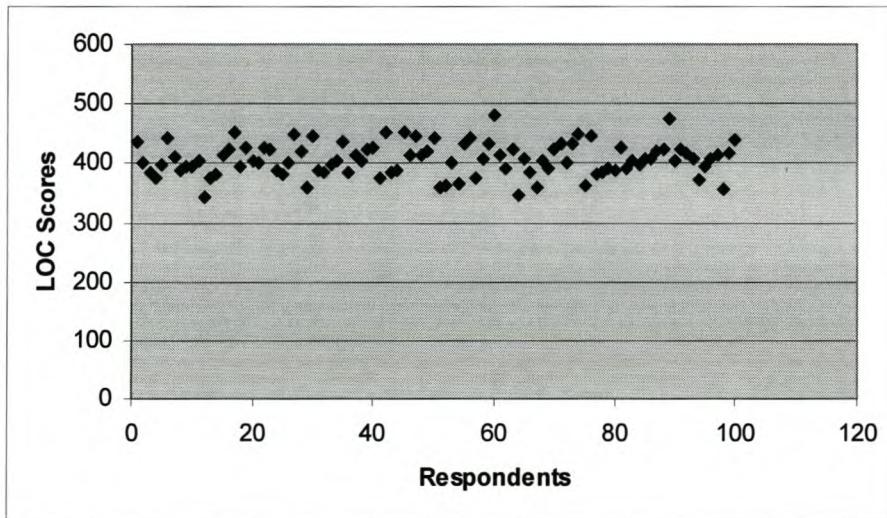


Figure 8: Locus of Control Score per Respondent

All three dimensions of the Locus of Control Inventory questionnaire (autonomy, internal locus of control and external locus of control) were found to be reliable as shown in Section 4.3.1. The autonomy dimension has a Cronbach-Alpha of 0,8673, the internal dimension has a Cronbach-Alpha of 0,8816, and the external dimension has a Cronbach-Alpha of 0,8361.

4.3.4 The relationship between locus of control and training style orientation

The Pearson Product-Moment Correlations reported in Table 9 provides the results with regard to the relationship between the locus of control (internal and external) and the training style orientation (pedagogy and andragogy) of trainers. The correlation coefficient measures the strength of the linear relationship between the variables, i.e. internal and external locus of control, and the pedagogical and andragogical training style orientations. The individual measurements from the 2 questionnaires are used in the calculation of the Pearson Product-Moment correlations between the selected variables.

Cohen in Pallant (2001) suggests the following guidelines for the interpretation of Pearson Correlation values:

- $r = .10$ to $.29$ or $r = -.10$ to $-.29$ small
- $r = .30$ to $.49$ or $r = -.30$ to $-.49$ medium
- $r = .50$ to 1.0 or $r = -.50$ to -1.0 large

TABLE 9
Pearson Correlation between external and internal locus of control and pedagogical and andragogical training style orientation

		TRAINING STYLE ORIENTATION	
		Pedagogy	Andragogy
LOCUS OF CONTROL	External	Pearson	
		Correlation	-0.787
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.036*
	Internal	N	93
Pearson			
		Correlation	0.590
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.162
		N	93

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

The significant values should be interpreted with caution as very small correlations could be statistically significant in large samples ($n > 100$) and the theoretical and practical significance of the findings could be questionable (Pallant, 2001). In the next section the hypotheses will be discussed and tested, and conclusions will be drawn as a result of it.

4.3.5 Testing the hypotheses H₀₁ and H₀₂

In this section the hypotheses will be tested and the results reported and discussed in similar order as to which they were presented in section 3.5.

4.3.5.1 Is there a statistically significant correlation between internal locus of control and andragogical training style orientation?

As can be seen from Table 9, there is a statistical significant correlation between internal locus of control and the andragogical training style orientation ($r = -0.334$; $p = 0.001$). H₀₁ is therefore rejected. This correlation falls in the medium group ($r = -0.3$ to -0.49) and should still be interpreted with caution as the coefficient of determination is 0.11, thus only 11% of the variance between internal locus of control and the andragogical training style orientation is shared. It can be postulated that this medium correlation can be the result of training style orientation being influenced by a large number of variables of which personality (and specifically locus of control) is only one. This results in a large percentage of the variance that remains unexplained.

Although locus of control has not been directly linked with training style orientation in previous research, the wider variable of personality is believed to have a relationship with training style orientation. This medium correlation is therefore partly supported by various researchers who believe that trainer personality has a direct influence on the way trainers train (Engelbrecht, 2000; Erdle et al., 1985; Heimlich & Norland, 1994; Poon Teng Fatt, 1993; Thompson, 1997; Walklin, 1990). However, very little research has ever statistically established the relationship between training style orientation and the

personality of the trainers. Engelbrecht (2000) found limited support that there exists a systematic relationship between personality and training style orientation.

4.3.5.2 Is there a statistically significant correlation between external locus of control and pedagogical training style orientation?

There is a statistical significant correlation between external locus of control and the pedagogical training style orientation ($r=-0.787$; $p = 0.036$) (Refer to Table 9). H_02 is therefore rejected. This is a large correlation and the coefficient of determination is 0.61, thus indicating that 61% of the variance between external locus of control and the pedagogical training style orientation is shared. This result is positive, but should however still be interpreted with caution as the number of respondents in this group is only seven.

The findings of this study that there is a statistically significant correlation between internal locus of control and an andragogical training style orientation, and external locus of control and a pedagogical training style orientation is supported by research done with regards to managerial performance and leadership. Parallels can be drawn between trainers and managers/leaders, as trainers attempt to control the training environment in a similar way as managers do in companies (Boone et al., 1996). Managers and leaders with an internal locus of control prefer and use more participative styles, whilst those with an external locus of control exhibit a more authoritarian style and do not allow much participation (Brownell, 1981; Erbin-Roesemann & Simms, 1997; Goodstadt & Hjelle, 1973; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Kinicki & Vechio, 1994; Le Roux et al., 1997; Licata et al., 1986; Maram & Miller, 1998; Theron, 1994; Van Staden et al., 2000; Yukl, 1989).

4.3.6 Testing hypotheses H_03 to H_09

In order to test hypotheses 3 to 9 that focus on the differences between the two training style orientations according to various variables (gender, age, qualification, experience, ethnicity, organisation type and training field), it is necessary to subject the data to a chi-square test (Refer to Table 10).

TABLE 10
Chi-Square Analysis: Training style orientation and Demographic variables

Demographic variable	χ^2	df	p-value
Gender	1.803	1	0.179
Age	5.876	4	0.209
Qualification	1.090	4	0.896
Experience	3.865	3	0.276
Ethnicity	0.396	2	0.820
Organisation type	18.121	4	0.001
Training field	2.641	1	0.104

4.3.6.1 Is there a statistically significant difference in terms of gender between the two training style orientations?

There are no statistical significant differences in terms of gender between the two training style orientation groups ($\chi^2 = 1.803$; $p = 0.179$) (Refer to Table 10). Ho3 is therefore accepted.

This finding supports the findings of Engelbrecht (2000). It is however in contrast to research done by Courtenay & Stevenson (1983), Davenport (1984), Davenport and Davenport (1985a), Davenport and Davenport (1985b), Heimlich and Norland (1994) and Van Allen (1982) who all found that there is a relationship between gender and training style orientation.

4.3.6.2 Is there a statistically significant difference in terms of age between the two training style orientations?

There are no statistical significant differences in terms of age between the two training style orientation groups ($\chi^2 = 5.876$; $p = 0.209$) (Refer to Table 10). Ho4 is therefore accepted.

This result contradicts the findings by previous researchers indicating that age does have an influence on training style orientation (Courtenay & Stevenson, 1983; Davenport & Davenport, 1985a; Davenport & Davenport, 1985b; Engelbrecht, 2000; Van Allen, 1982). Some researchers report that older respondents have an andragogical training style orientation (Courtenay & Stevenson, 1983; Engelbrecht, 2000), while Van Allen (1982) report that younger respondents have an andragogical training style orientation (Van Allen, 1982).

4.3.6.3 Is there a statistically significant difference in terms of qualifications between the two training style orientations?

There are no statistical significant differences in terms of qualifications between the two training style orientation groups ($\chi^2 = 1.090$; $p = 0.896$) (Refer to Table 10). Ho5 is therefore accepted.

According to Engelbrecht (2000) and Van Allen (1982) respondents with higher educational qualifications exhibit a more andragogical training style orientation. This study is therefore in contrast to previous findings, and further research is therefore needed to determine the relationship between these variables.

4.3.6.4 Is there a statistically significant difference in terms of experience between the two training style orientations?

There are no statistical significant differences in terms of experience between the two training style orientation groups ($\chi^2 = 3.865$; $p = 0.276$) (Refer to Table 10). Ho6 is therefore accepted.

Past research has shown that the more experienced the trainer is, the more andragogical his/her training style orientation is (Heimlich & Norland, 1994). On the other hand Engelbrecht (2000) could find no correlation between trainer experience and trainer training style orientation.

4.3.6.5 Is there a statistically significant difference in terms of ethnicity between the two training style orientations?

There are no statistical significant differences in terms of ethnicity between the two training style orientation groups ($\chi^2 = 0.396$; $p = 0.820$) (Refer to Table 10). Ho7 is therefore accepted.

Heimlich and Norland (1994) hypothesised that training style orientation is a function of all aspects of an individual's life, for example the person's ethnicity. Engelbrecht (2000) could however find no support for this hypothesis, and neither could this study.

4.3.6.6 Is there a statistically significant difference in terms of organisation type between the two training style orientations?

There are statistical significant differences in terms of organisation type between the two training style orientation groups ($\chi^2 = 18.121$; $p = 0.001$) (Refer to Table 10). Ho8 is therefore rejected.

Engelbrecht (2000) found no statistically significant relationship between the type of organisation and the training style orientation, but this study's finding does find support from Davenport (1984) and Davenport and Davenport (1985b). A possible reason for the relationship between organisation type and training style orientation is that different types of companies require different approaches as a result of company culture, and the nature of the activities involved. A company with a very authoritative and restrictive culture will probably favour a more pedagogical approach for their training systems, whereas a company with a co-operative and participative culture would be more inclined towards an andragogical training style orientation during training.

4.3.6.7 Is there a statistically significant difference in terms of training field between the two training style orientations?

There are no statistical significant differences in terms of training field between the two training style orientation groups ($\chi^2 = 2.641$; $p = 0.104$) (Refer to Table 10). Ho9 is therefore accepted.

This finding is in contradiction with previous research that found that the training field has an influence on training style orientation (Davenport & Davenport, 1985a; Davenport & Davenport, 1985b; Grubbs, 1981). This study is however in support of Engelbrecht (2000) who also could not find a statistically significant relationship between the variables.

In summary, this study therefore does not find support for the hypotheses that gender, age, qualifications, experience, ethnicity and training field, i.e. the type of skills involved (hard skills or soft skills) stand in relationships to training style orientation. There is however support for the hypothesis that there are statistically significant differences between the andragogical and pedagogical training style orientation groups with regards to the type of organisation. This may be explained by the different activities different organisations have, and therefore the different approach that is necessary to train the skills involved within the particular business. For example IT companies may require a more pedagogical training style orientation approach as the skills involved are very rigid, and therefore very little participation is possible. This explanation does have support as researchers have found that one of the most important situational constraints of training interventions that influence the training style orientation a trainer should use, is the knowledge and skills involved in the organisation involved in the training intervention (Brookfield, 1989; Dasdoor, 1993; Davenport & Davenport, 1985a; Grow, 1991; Okpala & Gillis-Olion, 1995; Pratt, 1988; Rogers, 1986; Russ, 1994; Zastrau, 1986).

4.4 Summary

This chapter describes the analysis of the data gathered by means of the procedures as described in Chapter 3, and serves as the realisation of objectives 2-6. Chapter 4 starts with detailing the demographical results of this study. The chapter thereafter deals with the description of the reliability testing of the measuring instruments of the variables this

study focuses on, i.e. locus of control and training style orientation. The final Cronbach Alpha for the Locus of Control Inventory is found to be 0,837, and for the Training Style Inventory it is 0,840.

More importantly the chapter presented the testing of the statistical hypotheses. Several statistical procedures are incorporated to address the testing of the hypotheses.

The study finds that there is a medium correlation between internal locus of control and the andragogical training style orientation, with $r = -0.334$ and the p-value < 0,001. A high correlation is also found between external locus of control and the pedagogical training style orientation, with $r = -0,787$ and the p-value = 0,036. Hypotheses Ha1 and Ha2 are therefore accepted. These correlations should however be interpreted with caution because in the first hypotheses the coefficient of determination is small, and in the case of the second hypotheses there are only seven respondents.

Hypotheses Ho3, Ho4, Ho5, Ho6, Ho7, Ha8 and Ho9 are all accepted. This confirms that there is no statistical significant difference in terms of gender, age, qualifications, experience, ethnicity and training field involved between the two training style orientation groups, i.e. pedagogy and andragogy. There is however a statistically significant difference between the two groups in terms of organisation type.

These results have implications within the training and development industry, not only for trainers but also for employers. The next chapter will discuss the implications of the study within the South African context in greater detail.

CHAPTER 5:

Conclusion, implications and recommendations

5.1 Introduction

Chapter 4 focussed on the results and discussion thereof. This final chapter will firstly discuss the general conclusions derived from the results obtained, after which the implications of the study will be highlighted. Finally the limitations of the study as well as recommendations for future research will be presented. This last chapter accomplishes objective 6 of this study, and therefore all six objectives have been achieved.

5.2 General conclusions

The main objective of this study was to investigate the relationship between the training style orientation trainers exhibit and their locus of control. This study found that there are statistically significant correlations between internal locus of control and an andragogical training style orientation, and between external locus of control and a pedagogical training style orientation. Furthermore no statistically significant differences exist between the two training style orientation groups with regards to gender, age, qualifications, experience, ethnicity, and the training field involved. However, statistically significant differences were found between the two training style orientation groups and the organisation type. The implications of these findings will be discussed in the following section.

5.3 Implications of the study

This study firstly attempted to contribute to the development of the collection of theory regarding training style orientation, and the relationship of the personality of the trainer with training style orientation. This is important because of a lack of research within this area.

Secondly, the results of this study can be used when companies recruit and select adult trainers. One of the most important and dynamic areas within organisations is that of the recruitment and selection process. It is these activities that determine the quality of employees the company has, and therefore it has a direct influence on the performance of the company. As a result of the importance of recruiting quality employees, and the high cost involved when recruiting, many companies employ some form of psychometric personality testing in an effort to assess candidates as thoroughly as possible. Companies can use the results of this study to ensure they employ trainers with a suitable training style orientation that fit the specific organisational needs and skills. Furthermore, knowing how single personality traits influences training style orientation can be used to train and develop trainers to become more adaptable and skilful (Heimlich & Norland, 1994). Companies can incorporate the results into training programmes for trainers, as locus of control (and as a result also training style orientation) can be developed (Els, Linde & Rothmann, 2001).

Lastly, trainers themselves can use the conclusions of this study during their personal development and training. If trainers are aware of their own training style orientation, it contributes to the effectiveness of the training they do (Conti, 1985). Trainers can focus on their strengths and weaknesses with regards to their training style orientation, and develop their style orientation as need be. Also, if trainers are aware of the influence a personality trait like locus of control has on their training style orientation, they can develop this trait over time and as a result develop their own training style orientation and their ability to vary it. To adapt a different training style orientation therefore requires developing one's personality and learning a whole new set of behaviours (Heimlich & Norland, 1994). Els et al. (2001) implemented a locus of control development programme using both an experimental and a control group. They found that internal locus of control could be effectively developed in the experimental group, and this was still valid even 3 months after the intervention.

5.4 Limitations of the study and recommendations for future research

Although the analysis of the data of the sample of 100 respondents did provide statistically significant correlations and differences, it is recommended that the study is replicated with a greater sample of respondents. The pedagogical training style orientation group in this study is very small, and care should be taken with the interpretation of the results. This limitation could be addressed in future research by equal representation of the training style orientation groups and increasing the sample size. Also, if possible, it would be beneficial if the respondents can be chosen on a random basis. As this study was conducted in the United Kingdom, it cannot be assumed that it is completely representative of the South African population. It is therefore advisable to replicate the study with trainers in the South African context.

The Training Style Inventory (Engelbrecht, 2000) is a relatively newly developed measuring instrument for training style orientation. Although it has proved to be a very reliable questionnaire, more examination and investigation need to be done in order to establish its validity. It would therefore be interesting to do a similar study while using a different measuring instrument for the training style orientation of the trainers.

Further research should focus on the construct of training style orientation, as a lot of the variance remains to be unexplained. It would be useful to develop a theoretical model that would indicate all the variables that impact on training style orientation in order to explain the variance in greater detail.

As discussed in chapter 1, the objective of this study was to establish whether there is a statistically significant relationship between trainer locus of control and training style orientation. The aim was not to draw any conclusions of trainer effectiveness as a result of either a specific training style orientation, or internal and external locus of control. This is however an interesting possibility for future research.

5.5 Conclusion

This study focussed on increasing the understanding of the relationship between locus of control and training style orientation. A contribution was made to the field of human resource development by stressing the importance of knowledge with regards to locus of control and training style orientation as constructs, and also the relationship between them. This knowledge could assist future research in this domain.

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APPENDIX A

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

Please indicate what your answer is by making a cross (x) in the appropriate box or write it down in the space provided. Please ignore the boxes at the right-hand side of the questionnaire.

Your Name (optional):

For office
use only

1. Gender:

Male

1
2

Female

3

2. Age: _____

4-5

3. Your highest qualification:

GCSE

1
2
3
4
5
6
7

A-levels

Diploma

B. Degree

H. Degree

M. Degree

PHD

6

4. Years of experience in the field of training:

5 years or less

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8

6-10 years

11-15 years

16-20 years

21-25 years

26-30 years

31-35 years

36 years or more

7

5. For research purposes it would be appreciated if you would indicate your ethnicity by marking the appropriate box below:

White

1
2
3
4

Black

8

Mixed race

Asian

6. Please write down the type of organisation you are currently working for:

6. Which area do you do most training in:

Hard skills

1
2

Soft skills

9

APPENDIX B

TRAINING STYLE INVENTORY

This is a questionnaire that measures the training style of trainers. Since it is not a test there are no correct or incorrect answers. Therefore, please consider each statement independently and then answer according to your immediate reaction. In order to describe your typical training behaviour as accurately as possible, you must choose one of the following options by circling the appropriate answer.

- Never:** You never display the behaviour in question.
Seldom: You seldom display the behaviour in question.
Sometimes: You act according to the learning content, the level of the trainees and your experience.
Frequently: You frequently display the behaviour in question.
Always: You always display the behaviour in question.

1. I involve trainees in determining the criteria for evaluating their performance during training.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

2. I apply disciplinary measures.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

3. I permit risk-taking as part of the learning process.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

4. I encourage trainees to accept the values of our society.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

5. I provide the knowledge, rather than acting as a guide towards knowledge.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

6. I keep to the training objectives that were determined at the beginning of the programme.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

7. I participate when trainees assess their training needs as a group.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

8. I regard lecturing as the most effective method for presenting my subject material to the trainees.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

9. I arrange the physical environment to facilitate interaction among trainees.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

10. I help trainees develop short-term as well as long-term objectives.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

11. I take into account the trainees' readiness when planning training units.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

12. I motivate trainees to learn what I believe they ought to know.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

13. I plan learning opportunities to take into account the trainees' prior experiences.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

14. I allow trainees to participate in deciding which topics will be covered during training.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

15. I determine the objectives of a training programme.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

16. I make the decisions about what knowledge and skills should be learned.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

17. I encourage dialogue among trainees.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

18. I utilise the knowledge and skills that most adults already possess to achieve training objectives.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

19. I use what established practice has indicated that adults need to know as my chief criteria for planning learning opportunities.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

20. I permit experimenting as part of the learning process.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

21. I have individual discussions to help trainees identify their specific training needs.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

22. I let each trainee work at his/her own rate regardless of the amount of time it takes him/her to learn a new concept.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

23. I use a variety of training techniques.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

24. I maintain a well-disciplined training venue to minimize the factors that could interfere with the learning process.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

25. I allow the discussion of controversial subjects that involve value judgements.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

26. I allow the trainees to take periodic breaks during training.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

27. I personally choose the techniques by which the necessary information is communicated to the trainees.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

28. I use written tests as my chief method of evaluating trainees' progress.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

29. I plan activities that will promote each trainee's growth from dependence on others to greater independence.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

30. I determine my instructional objectives in accordance with the training group's abilities and needs.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

31. I decide how the chosen knowledge and skills should be learned.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

32. I allow a trainee's motives for participating in continuing education to be a major determinant in the planning of learning objectives.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

33. I have the trainees identify their own problems that need to be solved.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

34. I arrange my training material logically rather than in terms of trainees' readiness to learn.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

35. I select all the training material and activities provided.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

36. I construct learning opportunities that enable trainees to apply the new knowledge and skills during the training session.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

37. I measure a trainee's educational growth by comparing total achievement to expected performance as measured by standardised tests.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

38. I encourage competition among trainees.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

39. I use a variety of training materials.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

40. I help trainees to relate new learning to prior experiences.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

41. I organise adult learning episodes according to problems that trainees encounter in everyday life.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

42. I decide when during the training programme, the chosen knowledge and skills should be learned.

Never Seldom Sometimes Frequently Always

APPENDIX C

**RESULTS OF THE RELIABILITY ANALYSIS OF THE LOCUS OF CONTROL
INVENTORY**

Summary for scale: Mean=406,980 Std.Dv.=27,3330 Valid N:100

Cronbach alpha: ,836978 Standardized alpha:
,845722

Average inter-item corr.: .061422

	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	StDv. if deleted	Itm-Totl Correl.	Alpha if deleted
q1	403,27	747,4971	27,34039	-0,1296	0,841507
q2	402,7	715,53	26,74939	0,261592	0,834607
q3	401,7	730,89	27,03498	0,103233	0,837248
q4	404,19	712,674	26,69595	0,294853	0,833932
q5	401,71	721,7659	26,8657	0,337363	0,834
q6	401,26	728,9524	26,99912	0,122321	0,837034
q7	401,35	739,1675	27,18764	-0,00858	0,838204
q8	400,96	729,0584	27,00108	0,151941	0,836335
q9	401,9	721,27	26,85647	0,247117	0,834883
q10	401,38	723,5556	26,89899	0,249807	0,834919
q11	404,98	736,4796	27,13816	0,029733	0,83813
q12	404,05	708,0074	26,60841	0,352189	0,83276
q13	401,22	724,9516	26,92492	0,309445	0,834537
q14	401,28	725,9216	26,94293	0,23702	0,835174
q15	403,97	754,629	27,47051	-0,21227	0,843469
q16	401,31	728,9539	26,99915	0,133797	0,836729
q17	401,67	730,9211	27,03555	0,106986	0,837134
q18	400,77	719,8971	26,8309	0,387485	0,833467
q19	400,87	723,4131	26,89634	0,329883	0,834238
q20	404,21	720,3459	26,83926	0,246179	0,834886
q21	403,34	732,6245	27,06704	0,062115	0,838336
q22	401,3	717,67	26,78936	0,321856	0,833748
q23	402,92	722,6136	26,88147	0,165468	0,836643
q24	401,52	711,1497	26,66739	0,402753	0,832332
q25	401,3	734,11	27,09447	0,082175	0,83718
q26	402,09	722,7419	26,88386	0,210618	0,835501
q27	400,68	737,5576	27,15801	0,024203	0,837766
q28	401,52	711,5896	26,67564	0,427204	0,832158
q29	402,36	718,1904	26,79907	0,277026	0,834353
q30	401,62	730,5956	27,02953	0,088035	0,837855
q31	401,18	715,5676	26,7501	0,293193	0,834021

q32	401,5	730,33	27,02462	0,143675	0,836405
q33	400,92	730,4336	27,02654	0,153705	0,836245
q34	403,75	704,4276	26,54105	0,39904	0,831811
q35	403,63	694,1931	26,34754	0,465952	0,83002
q36	403,28	698,9016	26,43675	0,452055	0,83061
q37	400,72	730,9016	27,03519	0,175417	0,835992
q38	403,73	717,2772	26,78203	0,27796	0,834314
q39	404,05	714,1875	26,72429	0,326935	0,833458
q40	401,04	734,1584	27,09536	0,081357	0,83719
q41	404,54	711,1683	26,66774	0,437969	0,832021
q42	401,01	729,7699	27,01425	0,145442	0,836408
q43	404,1	733,65	27,08597	0,056616	0,838185
q44	401,34	724,3444	26,91365	0,302682	0,834511
q45	405,04	730,9385	27,03587	0,127965	0,836643
q46	401,5	728,1899	26,98499	0,19215	0,835751
q47	404,22	717,9916	26,79536	0,26855	0,834483
q48	402,54	718,4084	26,80314	0,280473	0,83431
q49	401,5	727,59	26,97388	0,231145	0,835328
q50	403,38	721,3956	26,85881	0,235925	0,835063
q51	403,22	711,7516	26,67867	0,334889	0,833214
q52	404,9	732,49	27,06455	0,077914	0,837701
q53	405,2	720,58	26,84362	0,330247	0,833925
q54	400,88	727,4256	26,97083	0,201615	0,835623
q55	401,05	731,6075	27,04824	0,158191	0,836179
q56	404,33	724,761	26,92139	0,197163	0,835698
q57	403,27	715,6571	26,75177	0,286384	0,834136
q58	405,26	733,7924	27,0886	0,064427	0,8378
q59	400,97	727,7691	26,9772	0,257508	0,835149
q60	400,98	730,3396	27,0248	0,175412	0,835979
q61	401,03	732,1091	27,05751	0,146956	0,836303
q62	401,68	732,0576	27,05656	0,132585	0,836487
q63	401,82	724,7076	26,92039	0,268568	0,834801
q64	401,84	722,8944	26,8867	0,24712	0,834926
q65	402,9	715,39	26,74677	0,287626	0,834109
q66	400,82	726,8476	26,96011	0,252848	0,835099
q67	401,28	715,9216	26,75671	0,389195	0,832964
q68	400,86	731,8605	27,05292	0,119845	0,836711
q69	400,8	735,1	27,11273	0,069919	0,837264
q70	400,9	725,29	26,93121	0,267285	0,834858
q71	403,3	727,23	26,9672	0,125028	0,837255

q72	403,59	720,2619	26,8377	0,214417	0,835512
q73	404,42	736,2836	27,13455	0,032153	0,83812
q74	401,24	722,4424	26,87829	0,328923	0,834132
q75	401,14	724,9203	26,92435	0,274555	0,834769
q76	402,11	719,0179	26,81451	0,239957	0,835004
q77	404,86	730,4604	27,02703	0,096437	0,837566
q78	401,33	726,7811	26,95888	0,1803	0,835936
q79	404,45	711,8875	26,68122	0,40301	0,832405
q80	404,05	699,2075	26,44253	0,486514	0,830191
q81	401,38	718,8756	26,81186	0,32663	0,833797
q82	401,29	722,8259	26,88542	0,301614	0,834368
q83	401,35	721,6075	26,86275	0,329092	0,83404
q84	404,25	709,8876	26,64371	0,356164	0,832795
q85	401,07	733,0851	27,07554	0,133299	0,836446
q86	401,38	730,5555	27,02879	0,176207	0,835975
q87	401,5	728,91	26,99833	0,163366	0,836147
q88	404,19	735,7539	27,12478	0,029573	0,838572

APPENDIX D

RESULTS OF THE RELIABILITY ANALYSIS OF THE TRAINING STYLE INVENTORY

Summary for scale: Mean=150.130 Std.Dv.=14.1312 Valid N:100

Cronbach alpha:0.840415 Standardized alpha: .845611

Average inter-item correlation: 0.120010

	Mean if deleted	Variance if deleted	Standard Deviance if deleted	Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if deleted
t1	146,83	183,2611084	13,53739643	0,401584566	0,834416
t2	146,02	188,999588	13,74771214	0,31671828	0,836883
t3	146,38	184,8356018	13,59542561	0,429211169	0,833808
t4	146,79	192,2059021	13,86383438	0,137170017	0,842296
t5	146,95	188,7474976	13,73854065	0,368719965	0,835816
t6	148,06	193,596405	13,91389275	0,191357806	0,839482
t7	146,66	193,3444061	13,90483379	0,134214252	0,841382
t8	146,14	182,9204102	13,52480698	0,530694723	0,831259
t9	145,79	187,6659088	13,69912052	0,328598291	0,836565
t10	145,97	189,6491089	13,77131462	0,295317382	0,837401
t11	145,97	189,98909	13,78365326	0,26493898	0,838168
t12	147,52	185,6296082	13,62459564	0,384058505	0,835014
t13	145,97	187,1291046	13,67951393	0,447748154	0,834107
t14	146,74	184,9324188	13,59898567	0,454485685	0,8333
t15	147,63	188,3531036	13,72417927	0,275177389	0,838154
t16	147,5	186,75	13,66565037	0,369790822	0,835469
t17	145,44	190,7664032	13,81182098	0,366470546	0,836455
t18	145,94	188,7363892	13,73813629	0,323735982	0,836708
t19	147,1	199,8100128	14,13541698	-0,108992845	0,84835
t20	145,87	186,3531036	13,65112114	0,453988284	0,833742
t21	146,4	188,8199921	13,74117851	0,306415498	0,837134
t22	146,77	187,9971008	13,71120358	0,349792182	0,836057
t23	145,69	189,4139099	13,76277256	0,41561529	0,835393
t24	147,9	192,1500092	13,86181831	0,166615814	0,840817
t25	146,28	187,6416016	13,6982336	0,386813283	0,835247
t26	145,49	194,1099091	13,93233299	0,162878484	0,840001
t27	147,88	195,2256012	13,97231579	0,061473347	0,843143
t28	146,2	184,0200043	13,56539726	0,43603006	0,833504
t29	146,19	185,3539124	13,6144743	0,455699563	0,833396
t30	145,96	190,9184113	13,81732273	0,294011176	0,837503

t31	147,62	193,0555878	13,89444447	0,155787528	0,840687
t32	146,58	184,4235992	13,58026505	0,434819311	0,833603
t33	146,04	189,9983978	13,78399086	0,406155109	0,835736
t34	147,26	183,1324158	13,53264236	0,4973059	0,831949
t35	147,79	193,0458832	13,89409542	0,159817532	0,840542
t36	145,79	191,0258942	13,82121181	0,282120675	0,837733
t37	146,24	187,9624023	13,70993805	0,307518691	0,837154
t38	146,48	192,3695984	13,86973667	0,155010357	0,841189
t39	145,68	189,7975922	13,77670479	0,360414058	0,836214
t40	145,76	189,0824127	13,75072384	0,393956542	0,83553
t41	146,41	188,0018921	13,7113781	0,367497861	0,835687
t42	147,65	192,0074921	13,85667706	0,163283542	0,841067