

https://dspace.org/

The role of leader-member-exchange in mediating the relationship between work locus of control and job satisfaction.

Ntsebeza, Castro

2011-05-19
http://hdl.handle.net/10539/9831

Downloaded from a DSpace repository. https://dspace.org/

The role of leader-member-exchange in mediating the relationship between work locus of control and job satisfaction

CASTRO NTSEBEZA

SUPERVISOR: DR CALVIN GWANDURE

A dissertation submitted to the Department of Psychology, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, in partial fulfilment for a Masters Degree in Industrial Psychology

PLAGIARISM DECLARATION

MASTERS PROGRAMME - INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

(This declaration applies annually per course or per piece of submitted work).

I _____ (Student number: _____) am a student registered for _____ in the year _____. I hereby declare the following:

- **I am aware that plagiarism (the use of someone else's work without their permission and/or without acknowledging the original source) is wrong.**
- **I confirm that all work submitted for assessment for the above course is my own unaided work except where I have explicitly indicated otherwise. (This refers to all assessments for course work and the research report. In addition this refers to all 'drafts' submitted *before* final submission of an assessment and the research report as well as the 'final work' submitted).**
- **I acknowledge that I have read the University's Plagiarism Policy and I am fully aware of the required conventions in referencing the thoughts and ideas of others.**
- **I acknowledge that I have followed the required conventions in referencing the thoughts and ideas of others.**
- **I understand that the University of the Witwatersrand may take disciplinary action against me if there is a belief that this in not my own unaided work or that I have failed to acknowledge the source of the ideas or words in my writing.**

Signature: _____ Date: _____

Declaration

I declare that this research project is my own work. It has not been previously submitted for any other degree or examination at this or any other university

Sign: _____

Date: _____

Abstract

The aim of this study was to examine the relationship between work locus of control, the quality of exchanges between subordinates and leaders (leader-member exchange) and job satisfaction. The research design of this study was a non-experimental, cross-sectional mediator design. A biographical questionnaire was used to ascertain the demographic information for the participants. Work locus of control was assessed using Spector's (1988) work locus of control measure. Leader Member exchange was measured utilizing the member form of the leader member exchange scale LMX7. Job satisfaction of the employees was measured using The Warr 15-item Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS). The sample consisted of 115 employees from all levels of the organisation with the exception of members in top management. The sampling strategy that was utilised was non-probability sampling in which participants were recruited on the basis of their willingness to participate in the study. The study used correlations and regression analyses to analyse the data. The results of this study indicated that work locus of control had an inverse relationship with job satisfaction and leader member exchange. Mediation regression analysis indicated that leader member exchange partially mediated the relationship between work locus of control and job satisfaction. In view of the findings of this study, it is suggested that researchers on industrial relations could focus on ways in which South African organisations could improve employee-manager relations through the management of employee work locus of control, leader-member exchanges and workplace factors that contribute to employee job satisfaction

Keywords: leader-member exchange, work locus of control, job satisfaction, mediation

Acknowledgements

First, I must say thank you to my supervisor Dr Calvin Gwandure for all the time, effort, assistance and positive feedback that you have given me.

Secondly, thank you to all the participants who invested their time and effort in this study. Thirdly, thank you to my contemporary Kakarot aka Sifiso Mlilo for his assistance. Lastly, thank you to Jack Bauer for being available 24 hours a day; you were a consistent source of ideas and inspiration.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Cover Page	i
Declaration	ii
Abstract	iv
Acknowledgments	v
CHAPTER ONE	
Introduction	1
Rationale	2
CHAPTER TWO	
Literature Review	4
Theoretical and Conceptual framework/background	4
2.1.1. Leader Member Exchange Theory	4
2.1.2. Locus of Control	8
2.1.3. Social Learning Theory	12
2.1.4. Work Locus of Control	14
2.1.5. Job Satisfaction	19
2.1.6. Mediational effects of variables	22
2.1.7. Leader-Member Exchange and Locus of Control	23
2.1.8. Leader-Member Exchange & Job Satisfaction	25
CHAPTER THREE	
Methodology	27
3.1. Research Design	27
3.1.1. Participants	27
3.2. Measuring Instruments	27
3.2.1. Biographical Questionnaire	27
3.2.2. Work locus of control scale	28
3.2.3. Leader member exchange scale	28
3.2.4. Job satisfaction scale	29
3.4. Procedure	29
3.5. Statistical Analysis	30
3.7. Ethics	31

CHAPTER FOUR

Results 33

4.1. Descriptive Statistics 33

4.2. Reliability of the measuring instruments 37

4.3. Inferential Statistics 38

4.2.2. Mediated Multiple Regression 39

CHAPTER FIVE

Discussion 42

Limitations 45

Implications for future research 46

Conclusion 47

Reference List 49

Appendices

Appendix A: Organisation Access Letters 56

Appendix B: Participant Letter 60

Appendix C: Biographical Questionnaire 62

Appendix D: Work Locus of Control Scale 64

Appendix E: Leader-Member Exchange Scale (LMX7) 65

Appendix F: Job Satisfaction Scale 67

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

This study provides an introduction and a rationale for the study. The introduction examines the relationship between the variables in the study. Furthermore, the introduction outlines the aims of the study. This is followed with a rationale of the study which highlights the relationships between the variables as examined and outlined in previous research. These two sections of the study provide an insight into the understanding of work locus of control, and job satisfaction as mediated by leader-member-exchange in leader-member exchanges in the workplace.

The leader-member exchange theory is an approach to explaining and understanding leadership in the organisational context (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The theory focuses on the dyadic relationship between the manager and employee (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Furthermore, this approach maintains that the relationship between subordinate and leader impacts a wide variety of individual and organisational outcomes (Gerstner & Day, 1997). One such organisational outcome is job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is an important aspect of organisational functioning. Indeed, unsatisfied employees are less productive and more likely to leave an organisation. This in turn will have negative and damaging effects for the success and well-being of organisations. It can be argued that an understanding how leader-member exchanges affect employee job satisfaction is important for efficient organisational functioning. Moreover, understanding how leader-member exchanges mediate the relationship between locus of control and job satisfaction is vital for efficient organisational functioning.

Therefore, the aim of this research was to investigate the relationship between work locus of control, the quality of exchanges between subordinates and leaders, that is, leader-member exchange, and job satisfaction. Essentially, the idea behind this study was that individuals with an internal locus of control develop better quality relations with their manager and this in turn results in more favourable work related reactions. In order to accomplish this aim it must be shown that locus of control predicts leader-member exchange. Secondly, it is vital to show that (leader) locus of control determines job satisfaction. Thirdly, it must be shown that leader-member exchange predicts job satisfaction. Consequently, if these relationships are

found to occur then the research can examine whether or not leader-member exchange mediates the relationship between locus of control and job satisfaction.

Rationale

Most of the research conducted on leader-member exchange has focused on investigating the antecedent factors that determine leader member exchanges. Some of the studies have focused on investigating correlations between leader member exchanges and outcome factors (Martin, Thomas, Charles, Epitropaki, & McNamara, 2005). Conversely, there have been few studies that have looked at the mediating role that leader-member exchange has on antecedent factors and outcome factors (Martin et al., 2005). Additionally, research conducted on the relationship between antecedent factors and leader-member exchange, has hardly focused on examining the relationship between individual differences, such as personality, and leader-member exchange (Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997).

As mentioned earlier, this study investigated the relationship between the antecedent factor locus of control, and how leader-member exchange may mediate the relationship between locus of control and job satisfaction. Moreover, the study will be specifically examining the work locus of control variable as research has shown that Spector's domain- specific work locus of control scale generally predicts work behaviour more precisely than Rotter's more general locus of control scale (Spector, 1988).

It was established by Kinicki and Vecchio (1994) that leader-member exchange mediated the relationship between locus of control & and organisational commitment (Martin et al., 2005). However, for the purposes of their study, they utilised Rotter's more general locus of control measure, as opposed to Spector's work locus of control scale. Secondly, Kinicki and Vecchio only examined one outcome: organisational commitment (Martin et al., 2005). There are other outcomes, for instance, research has found that there is a statistically strong relationship between locus of control and job satisfaction (Martin et al., 2005). Thus, as previously stated, this research will explore the mediating role of leader-member exchange in the relationship between locus of control and job satisfaction.

Furthermore, research has shown that followers' behaviours can affect the leader-member exchange relationship (Deluga & Perry, 1991). Thus, it would be expected that individuals who believe they can control their working environment, and affect their interactions with others, should develop better quality relationships with their manager (Deluga & Perry,

1991). Individuals with an internal locus of control engage in more upward influencing tactics with their manager, that is, strategies to change their manager's behaviour and also use more task-oriented coping strategies compared to individuals with an external locus of control (Anderson, 1977). Therefore, internals may have the perception that that they are more in control of the quality of the relationship with their manager. Since they use more adaptive coping strategies, they are more likely to be perceived as more pro-active and better at dealing with stressful situations than individuals with an external locus of control (Anderson, 1977). Thus, it can be argued that internals would develop better quality relations with their manager than do externals which in turn will positively affect job satisfaction.

In order to achieve this aim of investigating the role of leader member exchange in mediating the relationship between work locus of control and job satisfaction, this study is structured according to chapters which address important aspects of the study. In chapter 2, the study reviews literature on locus of control, social learning theory, work locus of control, leader-member exchange theory, job satisfaction and the mediational effects of variables. Furthermore, chapter 2 highlights previous research that has looked at the relationship between locus of control and leader-member exchanges. Lastly, the chapter highlights the relationship between leader-member exchange and job satisfaction.

In Chapter 3, the study looks at the research methodology that was utilised in the study is illustrated and explained. Chapter 3 outlines the research design, measuring instruments, biographical questionnaire, work locus of control scale, leader-member exchange scale, job satisfaction scale, the participants, the procedure, and the statistical analysis. Lastly, this section highlights the ethical considerations that were observed in this study.

Chapter 4 contains the statistical results that were obtained in the research. The descriptive statistics as well as the inferential statistics are presented. The descriptive statistics were based on information that was obtained from the biographical questionnaire administered to participants. Inferential statistics were based on Pearson's product moment correlation, mediated regression, and the Sobel test.

In Chapter 5, the study presents a discussion of the results that were obtained. Furthermore, chapter 5 examines the limitations of the study and provides recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

This chapter presents the variables, theories and concepts that are relevant to the present study. This chapter includes an explanation of locus of control, social learning theory, work locus of control, leader-member exchange theory, job satisfaction, mediational effects of variables. Furthermore, this chapter highlights previous research that has looked at the relationship between locus of control and leader-member exchanges. Lastly, the chapter highlights the relationship between leader-member exchange and job satisfaction.

2.1. Theoretical and Conceptual framework/background

2.1.1. Leader Member Exchange Theory

The leader-member exchange theory is based upon the vertical dyad and relationship between the supervisor and the member in an organisation within this dyad (Dansreau, Graen, & Haga, 1975). A dyad is a relationship between the leader and the employee considered independently from the group (Dansreau et al., 1975) .Furthermore, each relationship between the leader and an employee will most likely differ. Thus, this theory explains the manner in which the leader can develop different exchange relationships over time with different subordinates (Dansreau et al., 1975).

The role theory of Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal (1964) was used by Graen (1976) as the basis of the of the leader-member exchange theory. Roles are behavioural patterns that that individuals use in a given functional relationship (Katz & Kahn, 1966). The goal of role theory is to determine how roles are defined and the manner in which an individual behaves in his or her work role (Burns & Otte, 1999). Furthermore, role theory attempts to ascertain how work roles are determined within organisations (Burns & Otte, 1999). Importantly, the role theory is useful in leader member exchanges because it indicates the basis of the leader-member exchange framework. According to Katz & Kahn (1966) the leader can have the greatest impact on role definition and formation because the leader can impose formal sanctions to validate his or her negotiations in formalising the role episodes with the subordinate (Burns & Otte, 1999). The role theory model consists of an initial stage where the leader outlines his or her expectations about how the group members should conduct themselves at work (Burns & Otte, 1999). This is called role expectation (Burns &

Otte, 1999). The second stage involves the members` interpretation of these roles, which may result in a modification of the members` behaviour (Burns & Otte, 1999). This step is called received role (Burns & Otte, 1999). Lastly, the subordinates` conduct relays feedback to the leader (Burns & Otte, 1999). This is called monitored behaviour (Burns & Otte, 1999). The following paragraph will illustrate how these concepts relate to leader-member exchange.

Similarly, the role episode in Graen's framework is a three-stage process of socialisation that deals with behaviours between the leader and subordinate over an undisclosed period of time (Burns & Otte, 1999). In the first stage, which is called role taking, the member joins the team and is evaluated by the leader (Graen, 1976). His role is then conveyed to him by the leader (Graen, 1976). In the second stage, which is called `` role making`` the interaction between the leader and member continues to form and both parties define and shape the role of the member (Graen, 1976). It is important to note that the development of trust is a vital aspect of this phase (Graen, 1976). This is because any incidences of betrayal, especially by the leader, can result in the member being demoted to the out-group (Graen, 1976). This stage deals with relationship factors as well as organisation and job elated issues (Graen, 1976). Generally, a member who is similar to the leader in a number of ways is more likely to succeed (Graen, 1976). This applies not only a personal level but also in terms of gender, culture and race. In the last phase, Role Routinization, the pattern and nature of the relationship between leader and member becomes established (Graen, 1976).

Similarly, Diensch & Liden (1986) maintain that a vital aspect in gaining a complete understanding of leader member exchange relationships is the notion of organisational roles. It is important to study the nature of roles within organisations and the manner in which the roles are defined and developed (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). However research has found that, generally, roles within an organisation are not fully explained and defined and they are normally explained in an ambiguous manner (Nunns, Ballantine, Burns, & King, 1990). Therefore, employees create the role definition by themselves (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). According to leader member exchange theory, managers place great importance in their employees' performance (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). Furthermore, managers often utilise formal sanctions to enforce role expectations (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). Thus, the role an employee will assume is in a large part determined by the interpersonal exchange between the employee and the manager (Dienesch & Liden, 1986).

There is usually an agreement that the manager and employee establish with regards to a wide range of aspects in terms of their relationship (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). For instance, consensus is reached in terms of the information shared between the employee and the manager (Nunns et al., 1990). Consensus is also reached with regards to employee influence in decision making as well as the manner of the tasks assigned to the employee (Nunns et al., 1990). Also, an agreement is reached, between the nature of trust and concern given by the manager to the employee (Nunns et al., 1990).

Another vital component of leader-member exchange theory is the negotiating latitude construct (Dansreau et al., 1975). Negotiating latitude refers to the amount of freedom a supervisor gives a subordinate in determining his own role development (Dansreau et al., 1975). Furthermore, negotiating latitude is a key factor in the development of the leader-member exchange (Dansreau et al., 1975). Negotiating latitude is measured in two ways. Firstly it is measured by a subordinate`s view of the leader's ability to allow the subordinate to define his or her work role (Dansreau et al., 1975). Secondly, it is measured by the extent to which the leader is willing to use formal authority to assist the member in his work (Dansreau et al., 1975). Being at the high end of the negotiating latitude continuum means that the leader will be more willing to assist the employee and give the employee greater freedom to define his or her work role (Burns & Otte, 1999). Conversely being at the low end of the negotiating latitude continuum means that the leader is unlikely to use formal authority to help the employee in his work (Burns & Otte, 1999). Additionally, the leader will give the employee very little latitude when it comes to role definition (Burns & Otte, 1999).

It has been suggested that due to the time constraints, the need for efficiency and high performance, the leader will only develop close relationships with a few vital members (Dansreau et al., 1975). These leader-member interactions are called leadership exchanges and result in leader-member exchanges where the leader does far more for the member than is required to do (Graen & Cashman, 1975). For instance, the leader provides key members with greater support, interaction, responsibility, respect and trust. On the other hand, when dealing with the rest of the work group, the leader will only do what is generally considered essential or necessary (Graen & Cashman, 1975). These types of leader-member interactions are called supervisory exchanges (Graen & Cashman, 1975). For instance, in these types of interactions the leader mainly utilises formal authority, rules and policies to ensure adequate performance (Graen & Cashman, 1975).

The leader member exchange theory postulates that the quality of leader member exchange is characterised by two fundamental aspects (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). This relationship is characterised by the ``in-group`` and the ``out-group``. The in-group is made up of employees who are favoured by the leader. The employees in the in-group have a high negotiating latitude whilst employees in the out-group have a low negotiating latitude (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). For instance, leader member exchange relationships within the in group are characterized by high trust, manager support and informal and formal rewards (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). On the other hand, leader member exchange relationships in the out-group are characterized by low mentor and leadership trust, low support and rewards (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). Essentially, leader member exchange theory maintains that leaders act differently towards subordinates in the ways illustrated above (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). Additionally, these groups form quickly and remain fairly stable over time (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). Indeed, a number of studies conducted in North America and parts of East Asia have supported the claims of leader member exchange theory (Scandura, Graen, & Novak, 1986).

A study conducted by Graen & Schiemann (1978) carried out research examining one hundred and nine leader member exchange relationships in order to relate performance issues to leader member exchange quality. A similar study was conducted by Liden and Graen (1980) and the results showed that were differences for most of the dyads that were examined. A high quality leader member exchange relationship was characterized leader sensitivity to the member`s job, attention, information and leader support (Graen & Schiemann, 1978). It was found that subordinates who had high quality leader-member relationships with their leaders had greater job responsibilities, contributed more to their work groups and were rated more highly (Liden & Graen, 1980).

Research has shown that leader-member exchanges can have an effect on promotion (Burns & Otte, 1999). A study conducted by Wakabayashi and Graen (1984) examined seventy-one college graduates during a thirteen year period in a multinational organisation. The career progress of the participants was measured by the speed at which they were promoted (Wakabayashi & Graen, 1984). The findings of the research suggest that quality of leader-member exchanges in the first three years of employment was positively related to career progress through the rest of the thirteen year period (Wakabayashi & Graen, 1984). Furthermore, the research also showed that in Japanese organisations, an individual can be

promoted either through having a high performance potential or engaging in high quality leader member exchanges (Wakabayashi & Graen, 1984).

A similar study was carried out by Scandura, Graen, & Novak (1986) which examined the relationship between leader-member exchanges and member and career outcomes. However, this research was conducted by assessing fifty-eight leader-member dyads in a manufacturing organisation in the United States of America (Scandura, Graen, & Novak, 1986). The findings of the research suggested that employees operated under the view that they could mitigate the effects of low leader-member exchanges by performing at high levels (Scandura, Graen, & Novak, 1986). Nevertheless, supervisors operated under the notion that employees must be high performers as well as maintaining high-quality leader-member exchanges (Scandura, Graen, & Novak, 1986).

There has also been research that has illustrated a relationship beteween leader member exchange and innovative behaviour (Burns & Otte, 1999). For instance Basu and Green (1997) examined leader-member exchange relationships in a manufacturing plant and found that innovative behaviour was linked to the leader-member exchange quality (Basu & Green, 1997). Indeed, workers that were most commited to the organisation and who had support from their supervisors were generally more innovative (Basu & Green, 1997).

There has also been support for the relationship between leader-member exchange and job satisfaction. Verily, high quality leader member exchanges correlated with high levels of employee job satisfaction and involvement (Graen, Liden, & Hoel, 1982). Similarly, MClane (1991) found that higher high-quality leader-member exchanges resulted in greater job satisfaction while working in a task group. Moreover, high leader member exchange is more effective at predicting turnover than other leadership style approaches (Graen et al., 1982). In the same vein, another study found that leader-member exchanges were significantly related to turnover, organisational commitment, intention to leave, and job satisfaction (Major, Kozlowski, Chao, & Gardner, 1995).

2.1.2. Locus of Control

Locus of control is the extent to which individuals believe that they have control over their own destiny (Thomas, Eby, & Sorensen, 2006). It is an aspect of personality that deals with individuals' s generalised expectancies that they can or cannot control reinforcements in their lives (O'Connell & Spector, 1994). In other words, locus of control refers to the

circumstances that individuals attribute their success and failures to (Forte, 2005). Locus of control has had far-reaching influences in many areas of psychology. The locus of control construct emerged from Social Learning theory with was developed by Rotter in 1966. The locus of control construct has two dimensions, which are, internal locus of control and external locus of control (Furnahm & Steele, 1993; Hyatt & Prawitt, 2001). Individuals with an internal locus of control believe that they are the masters of their destiny and, are therefore often confident, alert, and active in attempting to control their external environments (Thomas et al., 2006). Moreover, they tend to see a strong connection between their actions and the consequences of those actions (Thomas et al., 2006). Individuals with an external locus of control, however, believe that they do not have direct control of their destiny and see themselves in a passive role with regard to the external environment (Thomas et al., 2006). Thus, they often attribute personal outcomes to external factors or chance (Thomas et al., 2006).

There have been several research studies that have been conducted in order to relate locus of control to different work outcomes. For instance, Mitchell, Smyser, and Weed (1975) conducted a study in order to determine the relationship between locus of control and job satisfaction. The study was carried out with nine hundred employees of a public utility in a large metroploitan area and locus of control was measured using Rotters I-E Scale (Mitchell et al., 1975). The study also assessed a group of one-hundred and sixty-nine managers (Mitchell et al., 1975). The researchers suggested that individuals with an internal locus of control would have higher levels of job satisfaction than individuals with an external locus of control (Mitchell et al., 1975). The results of the study confirmed that individuals with an internal locus of control were more satisfied with their jobs than individuals with an external locus of control (Mitchell et al., 1975). Additionally, the researchers hypothesised that individuals with an internal locus of control and individuals with an external locus of control would differ in their evaluation of supervision depending on whether the management style was particaptory or directive (Mitchell et al., 1975). The findings of the study suggested that individuals with an internal locus of control reported higher levels of supervisor satisfaction when dealing with a participatory management style than individuals with an external locus of control. Converesely, individuals with an external locus of control were more satisfied with a directive mangement style than individuals with an internal locus of control (Mitchell et al., 1975).

Another study carried out by Hahn (1999) examined several ways in which locus of control was associated with job stress. The study examined employees` locus of control in relation to work-related situations such as exposure to stressful events, reaction to stressful events, coping choice and coping effectiveness. The sample consisted of eighty-six students from an introductory psychology course (Hahn, 1999). The sample consisted of forty males and forty-six females. The participants in the research study were selected from a big sample so that all the participants worked at least thirty hours per week and had been employed for a minimum of six months (Hahn, 1999). All participants were chosen so that they were representative of full-time instead of part time employment (Hahn, 1999). The average age of the sample was twenty-two and the participants worked in various jobs such as restaurant service, retail, administrative assistants, entry-level mental health providers, licensed practical nurses and hospital technicians (Hahn, 1999). The researcher found that there was no difference in terms of exposure to interpersonal conflict between individuals with an internal locus of control and individuals with an external locus of control (Hahn, 1999). This is contrary to previous research that suggested that individuals with an external locus of control reported more stressors than individuals with an internal locus of control (Hahn, 1999).

However, there was a substantial difference between individuals with an internal locus of control and individuals with an external locus of control in terms of the intensity of emotional reactions to stress (Hahn, 1999). It was found that there was a relationship between locus of control and the type of emotional outcome (Hahn, 1999). For instance, there was no difference between individuals with an external locus of control and individuals with an internal locus of control with regards to anxiety (Hahn, 1999). Nevertheless, individuals with an internal locus of control were shown to have higher levels of anger and low self-report healthy symptoms than individuals with an external locus of control (Hahn, 1999). The researcher suggested that internals reactivity can be explained by using a Person-Environment fit framework (Hahn, 1999). That is, the Person-Environment fit framework maintains that the incompatibility of personal control beliefs and situational control can lead to distress (Hahn, 1999). And in the study conducted by Hahn (1999) the sample was primarily made up of individuals in lower-level service occupations that generally have a low degree of control. Therefore, according to person-environment fit, individuals with an internal locus of control experience greater reactivity to conflict in jobs with low control (Hahn, 1999). But it is important to note that the findings of the research suggest that individuals with an external locus of control were more likely to react with depression

following a conflict than individuals with an internal locus of control (Hahn, 1999). The findings of the research also illustrated that individuals with an internal locus of control utilised more coping strategies than individuals with an external locus of control (Hahn, 1999). Furthermore, through the utilisation of these coping strategies it was found that individuals with an internal locus of control reported greater anger and lesser depression than individuals with an external locus of control (Hahn, 1999).

On the other hand, Forte (2005) carried out research that investigated the relationship between supervisors' locus of control and their moral reasoning. The participants of the study consisted of a random sample of 400 managerial and executive level workers at several different organisations in the United States (Forte, 2005). Rotter's I-E scale was used to examine the locus of control of the participants (Forte, 2005). The hypothesis that there would be a significant correlation between supervisor's internal locus of control and supervisor's moral reasoning was tested utilising Pearson's correlation Coefficient. The findings of the research illustrated that there was no significant relationship between a supervisors' locus of control and his/her moral reasoning (Forte, 2005).

Research has also been conducted with the purpose of determining the relationship between locus of control and job performance. A study carried out by Hyatt & Prawitt (2001) assessed how employee job performance was affected by the interaction between an individual auditors' locus of control and the extent to which the employing audit firm utilised structured audit technology. The participants of the study consisted of staff and senior level auditors of for major accounting firms (Hyatt & Prawitt, 2001). Of these auditors, one-hundred and eighty-four auditors were based in unstructured firms whilst one-hundred and ninety-one were based in structured firms (Hyatt & Prawitt, 2001). Rotter's I-E scale was used to examine the locus of control of the participants (Hyatt & Prawitt, 2001). The hypothesis that internals would perform better in unstructured firms and that externals would perform better at structured firms was tested using ANOVA (Hyatt & Prawitt, 2001). The results of the research indicated that individuals with an internal locus of control performed better at unstructured firms than individuals with an external locus of control at structured firms (Hyatt & Prawitt, 2001). On the other hand, the results also indicated that individuals with an external locus of control performed better at structured firms than individuals with an internal locus of control at unstructured firms (Hyatt & Prawitt, 2001). (Moreover) Overall, the findings suggest that locus of control influences an individual` s behaviour in structured and unstructured situations (Hyatt & Prawitt, 2001).

Locus of control is a personality construct that stems from social learning theory (Thomas et al., 2006). In order to have a an in-depth understanding of locus of control in the context of leader member exchanges, it is necessary to highlight the main components social learning theory as it relates to human behaviour in organisations (Rotter, 1976; Rotter, 1990).

2.1.3. Social Learning Theory

An individual` s personality is a reflection of their past meaningful experiences (Rotter, 1954). Indeed, according to social learning theory, when personality is examined, it cannot be examined as only internal to the individual. That is, personality cannot be examined as independent of the environment (Phares, 1976). Instead, Rotter maintains that in order to understand behaviour, it is important to take into account both the individual and the environment (Rotter, 1981). According to Rotter, personality essentially determines the manner in which individuals react to certain situations (Rotter, 1981). In other words, by changing the situation or changing the way a person thinks, their behaviour can be changed as well (Rotter, 1981). Therefore, both personality and behaviour are modifiable or changeable (Rotter, 1981). Additionally, the more a certain belief or behaviour is reinforced, the more likely that the same behaviour is repeated by the individual (Phares, 1976). It is posited in social learning theory that reinforcement strengthens an individual` s behaviour and beliefs (Phares, 1976).

There are four main components to the social learning theory for predicting behaviour (Rotter, 1975). The social learning theory principles that are used in predicting human behaviour are: behaviour potential, expectancies, reinforcement value and psychological situation (Rotter, 1954). Behaviour potential as it applies to social learning theory implies that every individual has the capacity to change their behaviour for the better. In an organisational setting, the concept denotes that employees are capable of learning good work habits through positive interaction with management or they could develop a negative attitude towards work if the leader member exchanges in the organisation are negative. Expectancy is the likelihood that a specific behaviour will lead to a certain outcome or a reinforcer (Rotter, 1981). An employee would have expectancy that the good work they do in an organisation will be noticed and rewarded by management. On the other hand, management would have the expectancy that employees would be loyal to them and take advice. In leader member exchange theory, this expectancy between employees and management could be spoiled by skewed managerial practices and preferential treatment of some favoured employees at the

cost of organisational interests. There are two types of expectancies; those that apply to a specific situation, that is, specific expectancies and those that apply to a number of instances. Expectancies that are generated in novel situations are called generalised expectancies (Phares, 1997). Generalised expectancies reflect learned experiences that are generalised across situations. Employees working for an organisation that they perceive to be unethical would show a generalised expectancy of low work productivity or non-payment of equitable salaries and bonuses. The probability of whether a specific behaviour will lead to a certain outcome is determined by whether a person has high or low expectancies (Rotter, 1981). However, it is important to remember that expectancy is subjective to each individual (Corcoran & Michels, 1998). Expectancies are learned and are based on the degree to which an individual has succeeded or failed in the past (Phares, 1976).

Reinforcement value is the degree of preference an individual places on an object or ideal (Rotter, 1975). The events that individuals expect to happen have a high reinforcement value (Rotter, 1975). Conversely, events that individuals do not expect to occur or deal with have low reinforcement value (Rotter, 1975). In addition, if the likelihood of achieving reinforcement is high the individuals will engage in the behaviour that is directed towards goal attainment. It is argued in social learning theory that individuals engage in behaviour with the greatest reinforcement value (Rotter, 1975). Social learning theorists argue that the ability to predict human behaviour in a social setting requires the researcher to know the reinforcement value participants place on an event or their work. Human behaviour does not occur in a vacuum; it occurs in a social space and time (Phares, 1976). Psychological situation refers to social stimuli that elicit human behaviour. An individual` s environment triggers behaviour that is goal directed. In social learning theory, the workplace represents the psychological situation that shapes employee behaviour through positive or negative reinforcement. That is, the any given psychological situation can affect expectancies and reinforcement value, which in turn affects behaviour potential (Phares, 1997)

In other words, for expectancies that involve a specific situation, there are cross-situational expectancies that are not specific to a given situation. An example of this, is the extent to which individuals believe that they have control over their own destiny, in other words, locus of control.

2.1.4. Work Locus of Control

Work locus of control is the extent to which employees believe that they have control over their own destiny in the workplace (Thomas et al. 2006). Specifically, work locus of control is related to rewards or outcomes within the organisational context such as promotions, bonuses, salary increases and job perks (Spector, 1982). Individuals with an internal work locus of control believe that there is a strong link between their actions and consequences (Thomas et al. 2006). Thus, they are more likely to believe that performing well at work will lead to positive work outcomes such as increased pay or promotion. On the other hand, individuals with an external work locus of control are more likely to attribute their success at work to external forces such as chance or fate (Muhonen & Torkelson, 2004). Researchers observe that an individual`s work locus of control plays an important role in the performance of duties at work (Thomas et al. 2006). For instance, it has been found that locus of control is related to various important work outcomes including job satisfaction and job performance (Thomas et al. 2006). A meta-analysis on work locus of control has found that there are significant correlations between perceived control and job stressors such as role conflict and role ambiguity (Thomas et al. 2006). Moreover, research has found that individuals with an internal work locus of control generally have lower levels of job stress and perform better (Chen & Silverthorne, 2008).

Furthermore it has been found that there is a strong relationship between perceived work control and certain job-related factors such as job satisfaction and emotional distress (O'Connell & Spector, 1994). From a theoretical perspective, individuals with an internal work locus of control are generally more satisfied with their jobs than individuals with an external work locus of control (Spector, 1982). Furthermore, individuals with an internal work locus of control see their supervisors as higher consideration and initiating structure (Spector, 1982). Also, they feel that they have more work autonomy and control and report less job role stress (Spector, 1982). Indeed, employees with an external work locus of control, do not believe that they can control important aspects of their work environment (O'Connell & Spector, 1994). Additionally, they generally find the work environment to be more threatening and stressful (O'Connell & Spector, 1994). That is, individuals with an external work locus of control are more likely to experience work strain (O'Connell & Spector, 1994).

There is empirical evidence to support the proposition that work locus of control correlates with job stress (Spector, 1982). It was reported by O'Connell & Spector (1994) in a study on

the relationship between personality variables and job stressor and strains that most job stressors and strains correlated with at least one personality variable. The study examined the role of personality variables, such as work locus of control, in predicting job stressors such as autonomy, role ambiguity, role conflict, workload, constraints and interpersonal conflict (O'Connell & Spector, 1994). Furthermore, the study examined the role of work locus of control in predicting job strains such as job satisfaction, work anxiety, frustration and somatic symptoms was also examined (O'Connell & Spector, 1994). It was hypothesised that the personality variables that were chosen would correlate to the job stressors and strains (O'Connell & Spector, 1994). Specifically, with regard to work locus of control, it was hypothesised that individuals with an external work locus of control would indicate higher levels of stressors and strains than individuals with an internal work locus of control (O'Connell & Spector, 1994).

The participants of the study consisted of one-hundred and nine alumina of a University in Florida, America (O'Connell & Spector, 1994). The participants were recruited for the study during the last semester of their undergraduate studies during which they completed the first series of questionnaires pertaining to the study (O'Connell & Spector, 1994).The subjects were then contacted again after twelve to fifteen months after they had graduated in order to complete the second and final questionnaire (O'Connell & Spector, 1994). In order to qualify for the study during the second series of questionnaires the participants had to have graduated and been working a full-time job that they had not yet begun until after graduation (O'Connell & Spector, 1994). The average age of the sample during the series of questionnaires was twenty-two. The sample consisted of seventy-seven females (O'Connell & Spector, 1994). During the second round of questionnaires the average job tenure was 6.6months (O'Connell & Spector, 1994). The participants worked in various blue and white collar jobs and managerial and non-managerial jobs (O'Connell & Spector, 1994). The types of jobs varied widely and included job titles such as teacher, nurse, engineer, assistant manager, salesperson, police officer, probation officer, assembler, laboratory technician, mental health worker and military officer (O'Connell & Spector, 1994).

The findings of the study indicated that personality related to reports of job stressors and strains over time (O'Connell & Spector, 1994). That is, with the exception of frustration, the study found that all job stressors such as autonomy, role ambiguity, role conflict, workload, constraints and interpersonal conflict and strains, such as job satisfaction, work anxiety,

frustration and somatic symptoms correlated with at least one personality variable (O'Connell & Spector, 1994). Specifically, work locus of control was found to significantly and strongly correlate with the job stressor of autonomy (O'Connell & Spector, 1994). Moreover, work locus of control was found to be related to role stressors and interpersonal conflict (O'Connell & Spector, 1994). The results also indicated that in all instances individuals with an internal work locus of control experienced lower levels of job stressors (O'Connell & Spector, 1994). Additionally, individuals with an internal work locus of control were more satisfied with their jobs than individuals with an external work locus of control (O'Connell & Spector, 1994). Furthermore, it was found that individuals with an internal work locus of control showed lower levels of work anxiety than individuals with an external work locus of control (O'Connell & Spector, 1994). Lastly, the findings of the study indicated that work locus of control was associated with job satisfaction and not negative affectivity (O'Connell & Spector, 1994).

Individuals with an external work locus of control are reported to have more symptoms of ill-health (Muhonen & Torkelson, 2004). Research conducted by Muhonen & Torkelson (2004) examined the impact of work locus of control on job satisfaction and health in the context of occupational stress. It was hypothesised that external work locus of control would positively correlate with stressors and symptoms of ill-health (Muhonen & Torkelson, 2004). Furthermore, it was also hypothesised that work locus of control would be negatively related to job satisfaction (Muhonen & Torkelson, 2004). The study assessed one sample that consisted of two-hundred and eighty-one participants at both managerial and non-managerial level in the sales division at a Swedish telecom organisation (Muhonen & Torkelson, 2004). Specifically the sample consisted of forty female managers, sixty male managers, ninety-four female non-managers and eighty-five male non-managers (Muhonen & Torkelson, 2004). Two participants chose not to specify their gender (Muhonen & Torkelson, 2004). The average age of the participants was forty-three and ninety-four percent of the participants were working full time (Muhonen & Torkelson, 2004). It is important to note that the study assessed women and men who had similar tasks and were at the same organisational level (Muhonen & Torkelson, 2004). This gave the researchers the ability to assess work locus of control from a gender perspective (Muhonen & Torkelson, 2004).

The findings of the study indicated that individuals with an external work locus of control reported a greater amount of work stress (Muhonen & Torkelson, 2004). Furthermore, it was

found that work locus of control was significantly and negatively related to job satisfaction (Muhonen & Torkelson, 2004). Moreover, there was a significant positive relationship between work locus of control and symptoms of ill-health (Muhonen & Torkelson, 2004). These relationships indicated that individuals with an external work locus of control reported lower levels of job satisfaction and more symptoms of ill-health (Muhonen & Torkelson, 2004). Multiple regression analyses also indicated that work locus of control was a significant predictor for both health and job satisfaction (Muhonen & Torkelson, 2004). However, this was only the case for women (Muhonen & Torkelson, 2004). That is, work locus of control was only a significant predictor in females for both health and job satisfaction (Muhonen & Torkelson, 2004).

The usefulness of work locus of control in explaining initiative versus compliant performance was also tested (Blau, 1993). Initiative performance means that the employee is working beyond their basic job requirements. On the other hand, compliant performance means that the employee is doing only what they are required to do (Blau, 1993). The researcher hypothesised that Spector's work locus of control has a stronger relationship to initiative and compliant performance than Rotter` s general locus of control (Blau, 1993). It was also hypothesised that work locus of control was positively correlated with compliant performance and negatively correlated with initiative performance (Blau, 1993).

The sample consisted of one-hundred and forty-six full-time bank tellers working for a large bank in the United States (Blau, 1993). Eighty-nine percent of the participants were female, the average age of the participants was thirty-eight years and the average organisational tenure was six years (Blau, 1993). The results of the study suggested that that the work locus of control construct was negatively related to initiative performance and positively related to compliant performance (Blau, 1993). Also, the findings of the study suggested that Spector's (1988) work locus of control scale had a stronger relationship to initiative versus compliant performance than Rotter's (1966) scale (Blau, 1993). The results of the study also indicated that work locus of control was significantly positively related to productivity and significantly negatively related to self-development (Blau, 1993). In other words, individuals with an internal work locus of control showed higher initiative performance and individuals with an external work locus of control showed higher compliant performance (Blau, 1993). Furthermore, individuals with an internal work locus of control had a stronger relationship to self-development than individuals with an external work locus of control (Blau, 1993).

Recent research conducted by Bosman, Buitendach, & Rothaman (2005) investigated the relationship between job insecurity, work locus of control and dispositional optimism of employees. The researchers hypothesised that higher levels of internal work locus of control are significantly associted with lower levels of job insecurity (Bostman et al., 2005). Additionally, Bostman et al (2005) hypothesised that work locus of control holds predictive value with regard to job insecurity. The study assessed two different samples of participants from two financial institutions in Gauteng, South Africa (Bostman et al., 2005). The first sample consisted of one-hundred and forty six participants and the second sample consisted of four-hundred and fifty-nine participants resulting in a total population of six-hundred and three participants (Bostman et al., 2005). The sample consisted of three-hundred and nine males and tw-hundred and eighty-eight females and six participants who chose to respond to the gender question (Bostman et al., 2005). The study found that there was a significant relationship between job insecurity and work locus of control (Bostman et al., 2005). The findings suggest that external work locus of control is related to increased levels of job insecurity (Bostman et al., 2005). On the other hand, internal work locus of control is related to decreased levels of job insecurity (Bostman et al., 2005). Moreover, regression analysis illustrated that work locus of control predicted thirteen percent of the variance in job insecurity (Bostman et al., 2005). The findings suggested that work locus of control holds predictive value with regard to job insecurity (Bostman et al., 2005).

Another study assessed the relationship between job insecurity and job satisfaction as well as to determine whether work locus of control had a mediating effect on job insecurity and job satisfaction (Labuschagne, Bosman, & Buitendach, 2005). It was predicted that work locus of control would mediate the relationship between job satisfaction and job insecurity (Labuschagne et al., 2005). The sample consisted of two-hundred and ninety-eight participants from a government organisation in Gauteng (Labuschagne et al., 2005). The sample had one-hundred and forty-five males and one-hundred and forty-two females (Labuschagne et al., 2005). The results from the research indicated that individuals with an internal work locus of control had higher levels of total job satisfaction as well as intrinsic job satisfaction (Labuschagne et al., 2005). Furthermore, there was a relationship between internal work locus of control and low levels of job insecurity (Labuschagne et al., 2005). Moreover, utilising a regression analysis, support was found for partial mediating effect of work locus of control on the relationship between job insecurity and job satisfaction (Labuschagne et al., 2005).

The aforementioned findings validated Spector's assertion that Rotter's (1966) locus of control scale was inadequate in the workplace setting. Indeed, Spector maintained that using Rotter's scale yielded a moderate correlation between locus of control and work related outcomes (Spector, 1988). Work locus of control correlates with other work-related variables such as job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is discussed in the next paragraph.

2.1.5. Job Satisfaction

There are a number of definitions and conceptions of job satisfaction. For instance, some theorists assert that job satisfaction is the measure of how much employees enjoy their work (Ellickson & Logsdon, 2002). Essentially, job satisfaction deals with an employee's state of mind in terms of his or her work (Wanous & Lawler, 1972). This state of mind can be affected in various ways such as through the relationship between the manager and employee, the physical environment, autonomy and sense of accomplishment with regards to an employee's work (Wanous & Lawler, 1972).

It was observed by Schermerhorn (1993) that various aspects of a job can elicit emotional responses in employees. Job satisfaction is one such emotional response. For instance, job satisfaction can be influenced by a number of work-related factors which include, job title or rank, quality of supervision, co-worker relationships, nature of the job, employee remuneration as well as extrinsic rewards and promotion opportunities (Schermerhorn, 1993). Additionally, the organisational structure and the workplace environment can also affect employee job satisfaction (Schermerhorn, 1993).

Nevertheless, some theorists have a slightly different conception of job satisfaction. Indeed, other theorists maintain that job satisfaction refers to an individual's view of the job (Rue & Byars, 1992). That is, an employee will display a positive attitude toward their job if they have high job satisfaction (Robbins, Odendaal, & Roodt, 2003). Inversely, employees will have negative attitudes about their jobs if they are dissatisfied with their jobs (Robbins et al., 2003). Furthermore, it is important to note that theorists differentiate between intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. Intrinsic job satisfaction deals with an employee's satisfaction with the job, such as recognition for good work and chance to utilise skills in the work setting (Martin et al., 2005). On the other hand, extrinsic job satisfaction deals with an employee's satisfaction at the organisational level, such as the work environment or amount of daily working hours (Martin et al., 2005)

The above views, opinions and definitions of job satisfaction are encompassed by two theoretical frameworks. The first framework attempts to explain satisfaction and motivation in the workplace. Hertzberg asserted that an employee's motivation to do work can be understood if the attitude of that individual is understood (Hertzbeg, Maunser, & Snyderman, 1959). In other words, it is possible to find and understand the most vital aspects of employee motivation and work satisfaction by probing and examining employee attitudes (Hertzbeg et al., 1959). Therefore, due to his investigation into the attitudes of employees, Hertzberg formulated two different lists of factors attitudes (Hertzbeg et al., 1959). One set of factors, motivators (job factors), lead to feelings of happiness or good attitude within the worker attitudes (Hertzbeg et al., 1959). This first group of factors were generally task-related factors such as recognition, achievement, work, advancement, responsibility and possibility of growth attitudes (Hertzbeg et al., 1959). The other set of factors, hygiene factors, lead to feelings lead to feelings of unhappiness or bad attitude attitudes (Hertzbeg et al., 1959). These hygiene factors or extra-job factors were not related to the job or work itself, but rather were related to the work environment (Hertzbeg et al., 1959). Hygiene factors consisted of factors such as salary, interpersonal relations with not just an employee's supervisors but also with his or her peers and subordinates attitudes (Hertzbeg et al., 1959). Moreover, technical supervision, working conditions, factors in personal life, status, job security and organisational culture were also factors that were important to take into account attitudes (Hertzbeg et al., 1959).

Thus, motivators deal with entities intrinsic within the job itself such as the recognition of a task completed attitudes (Hertzbeg et al., 1959). Inversely, hygiene factors generally deal with extrinsic factors such as relationships with co-workers which do not deal with the employee's actual work attitudes (Hertzbeg et al., 1959). The fundamental and vital aspect between the two factors outlined by Hertzberg is their relationship to satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Hertzbeg et al., 1959). That is, Hertzberg asserts that motivation and hygiene factors are related to job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction, respectively (Hertzbeg et al., 1959). In other words, if motivation deals with things that encourage action over time, then motivators are the factors that lead to long lasting attitudes and job satisfaction (Hertzbeg et al., 1959).

Hertzberg maintains that motivators lead to positive job attitudes because they lead to self-fulfilment, the person's ultimate goal (Hertzbeg et al., 1959). Nevertheless, although these motivators have the potential to create great job satisfaction, the absence of the motivators

does not lead to dissatisfaction (Hertzbeg et al., 1959). Instead, hygiene factors, which only encourage temporary action, have the potential to lead to high job dissatisfaction (Hertzbeg et al., 1959). However, similar to motivators, their absence does not lead to high levels of satisfaction (Hertzbeg et al., 1959). This relationship is based on the assertion that job satisfaction contains two different and independent aspects (Hertzbeg et al., 1959). According to Hertzberg, dissatisfaction is not the inverse of job satisfaction. Instead, the opposite of satisfaction is simply a lack of satisfaction. In the same vein, the inverse of job dissatisfaction is not satisfaction but rather the absence of dissatisfaction (Hertzbeg et al., 1959). For example, hygiene factors could refer to poor work conditions, low salary in the South African workplace.

In contrast, Locke's theory of job satisfaction is primarily based on the notion that satisfaction is determined by a disparity between an individual's needs and individuals values with regards to work (Locke, 1976). According to Locke, needs are innate and are the same for all individuals (Locke, 1976). Furthermore needs are objective, are imposed upon individuals and require action (Locke, 1976). On the other hand, values are acquired and are exclusive to a person. Moreover, they are subjective and they decide how an individual will react and behave (Locke, 1976). Locke maintains that values are also different from needs in that they have more in common with goals (Locke, 1970). He maintains that both values and goals deal with content and intensity (Locke, 1970). That is, content refers to what is being valued whereas intensity refers to how much is valued (Locke, 1970). Thus, in terms of job satisfaction, the employee who does his or her work well is the person who chooses to pursue his or her own values (Locke, 1970).

According to Locke there are two factors that are important when dealing with job satisfation. The first factor, an event, is the factor that causes an individual to feel satisfied (Locke, 1976). Events like success or failure or responsibility encourage workers and can lead to satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Locke, 1976). On the other hand, an agent is that which causes the event to occur (Locke, 1976). Thus, an agent such as a co-worker or a supervisor can cause an event which then leads to a feeling of satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Locke, 1976). Taking the above into account, Locke defines satisfaction as a positive emotional state that is caused by one's appraisal of one's job experiences (Locke, 1976). This satisfaction is determined by the discrepancy between what an individual wants in a job and what one has in a job (Locke, 1976). That is, satisfaction is determined by the degree to which an employee's work is congruent with one's values and expectations (Locke, 1976). Therefore, the closer an

individual can get to achieving one's values, the greater the job satisfaction (Locke, 1976). Additionally, agents such as co-workers and supervisors facilitate employee job satisfaction by acknowledging the employees values and aiding the employee in attaining his or her goals (Locke, 1976).

2.1.6. Mediational effects of variables

Mediation occurs when the independent variable must be is an antecedent factor with regards to the meditating variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Also, the dependent variable must be an outcome factor with regards to the mediating variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). A mediating variable is a variable that accounts for the relationship between the antecedent and the outcome (Baron & Kenny, 1986). An antecedent is a variable that causes or affects another variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). An outcome is a variable that is caused or affected by another initial variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Thus, in this research, work locus of control is the antecedent factor, job satisfaction is the outcome factor and leader member exchange is the mediating variable.

Limited research has been published examining the mediating effect of leader-member exchange. Nevertheless research carried out by Martin et al (2005) examined the relationship between locus of control, the quality of exchanges between leaders and members, and a variety of work related reactions. The researchers examined intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction, work-related well-being and organisational commitment (Martin et al., 2005). It was hypothesised that individuals with an internal locus of control would have better quality relationships with their supervisors (Martin et al., 2005). Furthermore, these better quality relationships would lead to more favourable work related outcomes (Martin et al., 2005). The study assessed two different samples of participants (Martin et al., 2005). The first sample had 404 employees who worked at a large financial services company in the United Kingdom (Martin et al., 2005). The average age of the sample was 31 and organisational tenure was 6.83 years. It was established that sixty-six percent of the participants were female (Martin et al., 2005). The second sample had fifty-one participants doing administrative work at a utilities company in South Wales (Martin et al., 2005). The average age of the sample was 36.8 and organisational tenure was 14.83 years. Of these, thirty-three percent of the participants were female (Martin et al., 2005). The participants in both samples worked in various administrative jobs, ranging from semi-skilled to senior management (Martin et al., 2005). The findings of the study indicated that leader-member exchange mediated the

relationship between locus of control and intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction, work-related well-being and organisational commitment (Martin et al., 2005). Furthermore, it was suggested that individuals with an internal locus of control had strongly believed that they had more control over their interactions with their supervisor (Martin et al., 2005). This enabled them to develop better leader member exchanges in the workplace (Martin et al., 2005). The conclusion of the study was that individuals with an internal locus of control were generally more adaptive in finding solutions to task-related problems. This adaptability allowed them to develop better leader-member exchanges in the workplace (Martin et al., 2005).

2.1.7. Leader Member Exchange and Locus of Control

There is evidence which maintains that work locus of control is an antecedent factor of leader member exchange (Graen & Cashman, 1975).The developmental model by Graen and Cashman (1975) maintains that individual characteristics are vital aspects of the exchange process. Essentially, consistency between a leader and member`s characteristics results in positive dyadic exchanges (Graen & Cashman, 1975). Research indicates that leaders favour and give preferential treatment to individuals who are competent and skilful. They also favour individuals who are trustworthy and do not require supervision (Graen & Cashman, 1975). Furthermore, leaders favour employees who take control and voluntarily assume greater responsibility within the work team (Graen & Cashman, 1975). Additionally, these favoured employees go above and beyond their delegated tasks and put the burden of task completion on their own shoulders (Graen & Cashman, 1975). Moreover, they focus on tasks that are essential to the success of the team unit (Graen & Cashman, 1975). Their managers in turn provide them with greater attention, support and sensitivity (Graen & Cashman, 1975). Similarly, individuals with an internal locus of control believe that they are the masters of their destiny and, are therefore often confident, alert, and active in attempting to control their external environments (Thomas et al., 2006). Moreover, they tend to see a strong connection between their actions and the consequences of those actions

In contrast, out-group members, those not chosen by mangers, interact with managers on a more formal level (Graen & Cashman, 1975). Furthermore, they usually perform boring, routine tasks (Graen & Cashman, 1975). In the same vein, Similarly, individuals with an external locus of control, believe that they do not have direct control of their destiny and see themselves in a passive role with regard to the external environment (Thomas et al., 2006).

That is, they are more likely to follow orders rather than question them. Additionally, since they believe that they do not have direct control over their destiny they are unlikely to go above and beyond their delegated tasks and put the burden of task completion on their own shoulders.

Additionally, it is important to note that individual differences are only one aspect that can potentially have an impact on leader-employee relations (Yukl, 1989). Research suggests that employees' internal or external locus of control correlates with in-group and out-group standing (Kinicki & Vecchio, 1994). That is, relative to individuals with an external locus of control, individuals with an internal locus of control have higher work motivation, effort, performance, job satisfaction, higher starting salaries and greater salary increases (Spector, 1982; Nystrom, 1983). This can be attributed to the fact that as individual's with an internal locus of control develop better quality relationships with their leaders. Therefore, they leader is more likely to promote them or assist them in getting a promotion. Moreover, research has shown that high employee job satisfaction was predicted by good-quality leader member exchanges as well as high intrinsic and extrinsic motivation factors (Mardanov et al., 2007).

An appropriate supervisor style stems a great deal from an employee's locus of control (Spector, 1982). Research shows that relative to individuals with an external locus of control, individuals with an internal locus of control more often take jobs that give them the opportunity to utilise their abilities and exercise personal influence in performing the job (Gable et al., 1986; Wertheim, et al., 1978). Also, relative to people with an external locus of control, people with an internal locus of control are more receptive and happier with managers that use participatory styles (Runyon, 1973). Moreover, with regards to locus of control it has been found that individuals with an internal locus of control are happier with work situations that give the chance to attain a degree of control over the work flow (Ganster & Fusilier, 1994). Thus, individuals with an internal locus of control are more likely to respond to the inducements offered by supervisors for greater commitment (Kinicki & Vecchio, 1994). In view of evidence provided in the studies on leader member exchange and locus of control, it can be proposed that an employee's locus of control can be an antecedent factor affecting the relationship between a manager and an employee (Kinicki & Vecchio, 1994).

2.1.8. Leader Member Exchange and Job Satisfaction

In a meta-analytic review done on leader-member exchanges it was found that there was a strong relationship between the nature of leader member exchanges and wide variety of psychological reactions (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Indeed, if an employee had a strong positive relationship with his or her manager it resulted in job satisfaction (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Similarly, Rosse and Kraut (1983) carried out a study which assessed 433 managerial dyads and found that a subordinate's negotiating latitude positively correlated with job satisfaction (Rosse & Kraut, 1983).

According to Tepper (2000), individuals who work in job environments where they have a poor supervisor or leader show lower job satisfaction. Similarly, other researchers showed that high employee job satisfaction was predicted by good-quality leader member exchanges as well as high intrinsic and extrinsic motivation factors (Mardanov et al., 2007). The study tested several sets of hypotheses relating to job satisfaction and leader-member exchanges (Mardanov, Sterrett, & Baker, 2007). The theorists hypothesised that the quality of the leader-member exchanges correlated with worker job satisfaction within the hospitality industry. The results of the study showed that a stronger relationship between supervisor and subordinates led to higher levels of job satisfaction among employees (Mardanov et al., 2007). Utilising simple regression analysis, support was found for a positive relationship between satisfaction with leader and member job satisfaction (Mardanov et al., 2007). Additionally, Mardanov et al (2007) found that poor quality leader-member exchanges had a detrimental effect on the employee` s wellbeing. In the same vein, a research study conducted by Mardanov, Heischmidt, and Henson (2007) found that a positive relationship between a supervisor and an employee had a significant effect on job satisfaction.

Aim of the study

The aim of the study was to examine the role of leader-member-exchange in mediating the relationship between work locus of control and job satisfaction.

Research Question

Do leader-member exchanges mediate the relationship between work locus of control and job satisfaction? In order to answer the above research question, the following hypotheses were tested:

Hypotheses

a) Work locus of control will correlate with leader-member exchange.

b) Work locus of control will correlate with job satisfaction.

c) Leader-member exchange will serve as a mediator of the relationship between work locus of control and job satisfaction.

CHAPTER THREE

Methodology

In this chapter, the research methodology that was utilised in the study is illustrated and explained. The following sections are covered: research design, measuring instruments, biographical questionnaire, work locus of control scale, leader-member exchange scale (LMX7), job satisfaction scale, the sample, the procedure, the statistical analysis, and descriptive statistics. Lastly, this section highlights the ethical considerations that were observed in this study.

3.1. Research Design

The research design of this study was a non-experimental, cross-sectional mediator design. This means that the measuring instruments were administered to one group in one place. There were no repeated measures. The study was non-experimental in nature, hence no manipulation of participants was made. The research design was correlational, hence no inferences about causal relationships between the variables were made. In other words, the study looked at associations between variables.

3.1.1 Participants

The research was distributed to 150 individuals of whom 115 responded. There were 43 women and 67 men and five participants chose not to disclose their gender. There were 52 Whites, 39 Africans, 13 Coloureds, 3 Indians and 3 participants that were Chinese/Japanese. The average age of the participants was 37.5 with a standard deviation of 10.26. The sample was drawn from an organisation specialising in industrial brand management. The sampling strategy that was utilised was non-probability sampling in which participants were recruited on the basis of their willingness to participate in the study (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991). The sample consisted of employees from all levels of the organisation. The majority of the participants in the study were clerks who worked in CD and DVD replication and duplication.

3.2 Measuring Instruments

3.2.1. Biographical Questionnaire

A biographical questionnaire was used to ascertain the demographic information of the participants. The questionnaire required participants to give their age, gender, race, home language, marital status, occupation, job title and level of education. The questionnaire also required participants to disclose if they had children. They were required to indicate the number of children they had. Demographic information was obtained because it helped the research accurately summarise the sample of the study, outlining descriptive statistics.

3.2. 2. Work Locus of Control Scale

In 1988 Spector developed a work locus of control scale. This scale is the only appropriate measure of locus of control in the work context at the present moment. Moreover, this scale differs to the original scale because locus of control is defined as a general expectancy and that rewards are controlled either by an individual` s internal locus of control or external locus of control (Rotter, 1966). The work locus of control scale has 16 items measuring locus of control orientation in relation to organisational outcomes (Spector, 1988). Furthermore, Spector (1988) found that a number of the work locus of control relationships were stronger than those found by the general locus of control scale. Indeed, Spector's scale was found to be more reliable in predicting work-related outcomes than Rotter's scale (Blau, 1993). Additionally, when researching locus of control in the organisational context, Spector's scale was more preferable to the general scales (Orpen, 1992). Indeed, Rotter's scale was criticised for lacking context specificity (Hodgkinson, 1992). Therefore, Spector asserts that the work locus of control scale is a more appropriate measure to use in the organisational context (Spector, 1988).

In this study, work locus of control was assessed by using Spector's (1988) work locus of control scale (See Appendix C). The scale is a 16 item measure of generalized control beliefs in work settings. The scores range from 1 (disagree very much) to 5 (agree very much). The work locus of control scale has a minimum score of 16 and a maximum score of 96 (Spector, 1988). Internal locus of control is indicated by a low score anything below 50. On the other hand, external locus of control is illustrated by high scores ranging anything below 96 and above 50 Spector, 1988). Spector found internal consistency, measured by Cronbach's alpha of .85, .80 and .75 for six independent samples (Spector, 1988). Similarly in research

conducted in South African organisations, Bosman et al (2005) found internal consistency for the work locus of control scale, measured by Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.82 for one sample. Moreover, in another study conducted in South African organisation, Labuschagne et al (2005) found an internal consistency for the scale, measured by Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.68.

Indeed, in his study Spector (1988) found that work locus of control correlated significantly with job satisfaction (r's = -.42, -.54, -.62, -6.8 and -.43). It was reported that other work outcomes such as intention of quitting, perceived influence at work, role stress and perceptions of supervisory style correlated with work locus of control. Furthermore, Orpen (1991) carried out a study in order to determine the validity of Spector's (1988) study on the work locus of control scale. Orpen, using both Spector's scale and the general scale of locus of control, found that six of the eight hypothesized relationships that Spector had put forward regarding work locus of control scale and work outcomes were significant (Orpen, 1991). On the other hand, with regards to the general locus of control scale only two of the eight hypothesised relationships between the general scale and work outcomes were significant (Orpen,1991).

3.2.3. Leader member exchange scale (LMX7)

Leader member exchange was measured utilising the member form of the leader member exchange scale LMX7 (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The scale consists of 7 items with scores ranging from (1) ``none`` to (5) ``very high``, with higher scores indicating higher levels of leader-member exchange. A number of theorists have carried out extensive investigation with regards to the psychometric properties of the member form of the leader member exchange scale (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Results from a number of different studies have shown that the internal consistency reliability of the scale was excellent with alpha co-efficients of .86 to .94 (Nunns et al., 1990).

3.2.4. Job satisfaction scale

Job satisfaction was measured using The Warr 15 item Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS) (Warr, Cook, & Wall, 1979). The measure was developed by Warr, Cook & Wall (1979). The instrument has 15 items rated on a 7-point Likert type scale (Warr et al., 1979). The scores range from (1) ``I'm extremely dissatisfied`` to ``I'm extremely satisfied`` (7) with higher scores indicating higher levels of job satisfaction. It has a test-retest correlation co-efficient of

0.63 (Warr et al., 1979). Similarly a study carried out by Morrison (2008) on the job satisfaction scale found an internal consistency of .73 Cronbach's alpha coefficient

3.4. Procedure

When permission was granted by the organisation each participant was given an email inviting them to participate in the study. There was a letter that explained the nature of the research as well as what was required of the participants. The questionnaires were distributed to each participant with full instructions for completion. To ensure confidentiality, participants were not required to give their name or any information that could identify them. Participants either placed the completed questionnaires in a sealed envelope that was collected by the researcher. They were also given the option of emailing their questionnaires as an attachment to the researcher. This attachment file had no information that could identify participants. Thus, anonymity was guaranteed.

3.5. Statistical Analysis

Descriptive statistics, such as means and standard deviations were determined and analysed for all variables. To test the aforementioned hypotheses this research used the statistical techniques of Pearson's correlation coefficient and mediated regression. This research examined one independent variable, one mediator variable, and one dependent variable. The variables were work locus of control, leader-member exchange and job satisfaction. Pearson's correlation coefficient was utilised to test the correlational hypotheses. Mediational regression was used to assess the role of leader-member exchange in mediating the relationship between work locus of control and job satisfaction. According to Baron & Kenny (1986) testing for mediation requires estimating a series of regression models. The first step in the mediation regression equation involves regressing the mediator on the independent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Secondly, regressing the dependent variable onto the independent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Lastly, regressing the dependent variable on both the independent variable and the mediator (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Thus, the first two regression equations used basic statistical regression. The third regression equation used the statistical technique of multiple regression. In this study, the mediator (leader member exchange) was first regressed onto the independent variable (work locus of control). Second, regressing the dependent variable (job satisfaction) onto the independent variable (work locus of control)

Baron & Kenny (1986) created a diagram for the purposes of describing and explaining statistical mediation.

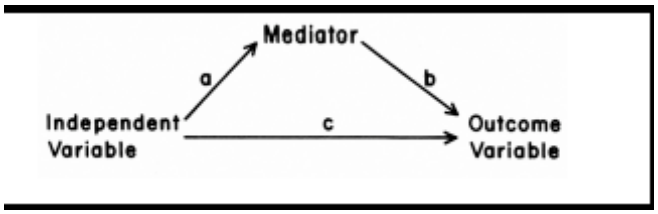


Figure 1.

In order to conclude that mediation has taken place, four conditions must be met (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Firstly, the independent variable (work locus of control) must affect the mediator (leader-member exchange) (Baron & Kenny, 1986). This is illustrated in Figure 1, path a. Secondly, the mediator must function as an antecedent on the dependent variable (job satisfaction) while controlling for the independent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). In Figure 1, this is represented as path b. The third condition that must be met is that the independent variable must function as an antecedent on the dependent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Lastly, when the mediator is controlled, the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable must be non-significant as seen in Figure 1, path c (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Nevertheless, it is important to remember that psychological concepts often have a number of interrelationships. Thus, with regards to the fourth condition it is more realistic to say that mediators significantly decrease rather than completely eliminate the relationship between the independent variable and dependent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Lastly, the Sobel test was used in this study in order to ascertain the degree of mediation (Sobel, 1982). In other words, the Sobel test was used to establish the statistical significance of the leader-member exchange in mediating the relationship between work locus of control and job satisfaction. Similarly, the Sobel test was used by Martin et al (2005) to establish the statistical significance of the role of leader-member exchanges in mediating the relationship between locus of control and work reactions.

3.7. Ethics

The study considered the following ethical principles: voluntary participation, confidentiality and informed consent. There were a number of ethical principles that were adhered to in this study. Participation in this study was completely voluntary. Individuals were not advantaged or disadvantaged in any way should they chose to complete the questionnaires or not. This

research was not intended to investigate any individuals but rather to establish general trends. As such, the participants' responses were only examined in relation to all other responses. In addition, to ensure confidentiality, participants were not required to give their name or any information that could identify them. Moreover, participants were allowed to opt out of the study at any given time. Lastly, with regards to informed consent, participants were informed that voluntary participation in the study after getting all the necessary information about the nature and purpose of the study and completion of the questionnaires was regarded as informed consent.

CHAPTER FOUR

Results

In this chapter the statistical results that were obtained in the research are presented. The descriptive statistics as well as the inferential statistics will be presented. In order to obtain these results, SAS, 9.1 software was used. The descriptive statistics were based on information that was obtained from the biographical questionnaire administered to participants. Inferential statistics were based on Pearson's product moment correlation, mediated regression, and the Sobel test.

In the biographical questionnaire the study looked at age, gender, race, home language, marital status, and highest level of education. The demographic characteristics of the study sample are represented in Table 1 below.

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

Table 1: Gender representation

Gender	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Female	43	39.09	43	39.09
Male	67	60.91	110	100.00

Frequency Missing = 5

Table 1 shows that 39.09% (N=43) of the sample were females while 60.91% (N=67) of the sample where males. The results showed that although there were slightly more males than females, the sample was still relatively balanced. Finally, it is worth noting that 5 participants chose not to respond to the questions.

Table 2: Racial composition of the study sample

Race	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
White	52	47.27	52	47.20
African	39	35.45	91	82.73
Coloured	13	11.82	104	94.55
Indian	3	2.73	107	97.27
Chinese/Japanese	3	2.73	110	100.00

Frequency Missing = 5

Table 2 illustrates the racial distribution of the sample. Fifty-two of the participants were White, thirty nine were African, thirteen were coloured, three were Asian and three were Indian. This sample's racial distribution was dominated by African and White participants, while there are a very small number of Coloured participants and especially Chinese/Japanese and Indian participants.

Table 3: Home Language (Hlang)

Hlang	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
English	40	35.40	40	35.40
Afrikaans	32	28.32	72	63.72
Sepedi	5	4.42	77	68.14
Zulu	10	8.85	87	76.99
Tswana	3	2.65	90	79.65
Other	23	20.35	113	100.00

Frequency Missing = 2

Table 3 indicates the home languages of the participants. English was the predominantly spoken Language 35.40% (N=40) followed by Afrikaans 28.32% (N=32). All the other languages took up a small portion of the languages spoken by participants.

Table 4: Marital Status (Mstatus)

Mstatus	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	19	17.12	19	17.12
2	22	19.82	41	36.94
3	62	55.86	103	92.79
4	8	7.21	111	100.00

Frequency Missing = 4

1 = Single

2 = In a relationship

3 = Married

4 = Divorced

Table 4 shows the marital status of the participants. The majority of the participants were married while the rest of the participants were either in a relationship or single. There were a few divorced participants.

Table 5: Level of Education (LEduc)

LEduc	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	5	4.39	5	4.39
2	52	44.74	57	49.12
3	32	28.07	89	77.19
4	25	21.93	114	99.12

Frequency Missing = 1

1 = Grade 10/11

2 = Matric

3 = Diploma

4 = Degree

Table 5 shows the level of education of the participants. The majority of the participants had matriculation qualification while a significant number also had a diploma or a degree. A very few number of participants had an education level lower than a matriculation qualification and one participant chose not to answer the question.

The average age of the participants was 37.5 with a standard deviation of 10.26

4.2. Reliability of the measuring instruments

The study tested the reliability coefficients of the measuring instruments. The internal consistency reliability coefficients, that is, Cronbach's co-efficient alphas were calculated for the variables used. A Summary of the reliability co-efficients that were found are outlined in Table 6.

Table 6: Cronbach's Coefficients Alpha

Work Locus of Control

Cronbach Coefficient Alpha	
Variables	**Alpha**
Raw	0.82
Standardized	0.80

Leader-Member Exchange

Cronbach Coefficient Alpha	
Variables	**Alpha**
Raw	0.88
Standardized	0.88

Job Satisfaction

Cronbach Coefficient Alpha	
Variables	**Alpha**
Raw	0.92
Standardized	0.92

4.3. Inferential Statistics

The results of the study showed that work locus of control had a significant correlation with job satisfaction (r = -.39). Work locus of control correlated with leader member exchange (r = -.30). Leader-Member exchange had a significant correlation with job satisfaction (r = .64)

Table 7: Correlations among Work locus of control, Leader-member exchange and Job satisfaction

	N	**Means**	**Standard Deviation**	**Work locus of control**	**Job satisfaction**	**Leader-member exchange**
Work locus of control	115	39.63	11.33		-.39	-.30

Job satisfaction	115	4.67	1.60	-.39		.64
Leader-member exchange	115	3.05	0.93	-.30	.64	

P < .01

4.2.2. Mediated Multiple Regression

A linear regression model examines the relationship between two variables (Baron & Kenny, 1986). A Simple linear regression involves one independent variable also known as the predictor variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Multiple regression is a linear regression equation that involves more than one predictor variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Mediated multiple regression takes into account the relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable. Mediated multiple regression also takes into account the effect of a mediator variable on the relationship between the independent variable and dependent variable. In this study simple linear regression and mediated multiple regression were used. Three linear regression equations and one multiple regression analysis procedure were used in this study. In the first regression equation, a simple linear regression analysis was performed to establish the relationship between the mediating variable, which was leader-member exchange and the independent variable, which was work locus of control. In the second regression equation, a simple linear regression analysis was computed. The dependent variable, which was job satisfaction, was regressed onto the independent variable, which was work locus of control. In the third regression equation, a simple linear regression, the dependent variable, which was job satisfaction, was regressed on to the mediating variable, which was leader-member exchange. In the multiple regression procedure the dependent variable, which was job satisfaction, was regressed on to both the mediating variable, leader-member exchange, and the independent variable, work locus of control. The results are represented in Tables, 8, 10, and 11 below.

Table 8: Work Locus of Control and Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction			
	N	Parameter Estimate	P-Value

Work Locus of Control	115	-0.39	<.0001

The results of this study showed that there was a significant relationship between work locus of control and job satisfaction (parameter estimate, 0.39, p< .01). This means that there was a significant negative relationship between work locus of control and job satisfaction. The results implied that when participants felt that they were not in control of their jobs, their job satisfaction was affected.

Table 9: Work Locus of Control and Leader Member Exchange

Leader Member Exchange			
	N	Parameter Estimate	P-Value
Work Locus of Control	115	-0.30	0.0010

The results of this study showed that there was a significant negative or inverse relationship between work locus of control and leader member exchange (parameter estimate, 0.30, p< .01.). This means that there is a significant negative relationship between work locus of control and leader member exchange. That is, participants who felt that they were not in control of their jobs reported lower quality leader-member exchanges than individuals who reported that they were in control of their work.

Table 10: Leader Member Exchange and Job Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction			
	N	Parameter Estimate	P-Value
Leader Member Exchange	115	0.64	<.0001

The results of this study showed that there was a significant relationship between leader member exchange and job satisfaction (parameter estimate, 0.64, p< .01). This means that there was a significant positive relationship between leader member exchange and job

satisfaction. High-quality leader-member exchanges were associated with employee job satisfaction.

Table 11: Mediated Multiple Regression

	N	Parameter Estimate	P-Value
Work Locus of Control	115	0.21	0.0042
Leader Member Exchange	115	0.58	<.0001

The relationship between work locus of control and job satisfaction was statistically significant (parameter estimate, .39, p< .01). After accounting for the mediator, the relationship between work locus of control and job satisfaction was still statistically significant but decreased (parameter estimate, 0.21, p< .01). That is, the mediator, leader member exchange, did mediate the relationship between work locus of control and job satisfaction at .01significance level. For complete mediation to occur, the direct relationship between work locus of control and job satisfaction should not be statistically significant. The results of this study showed that there was partial mediation. Further analysis using the Sobel test showed a Test statistic score (z-score) of 3.10 and a p-value of .01. The results indicated that there was significant mediation and that the mediating effect of leader member exchange on the relationship between work locus of control and job satisfaction was not random.

CHAPTER 5

Discussion

This section discusses the results that were obtained in the study. The last sections of the discussion look at the limitations of the study and recommendations for future research.

The findings of the study indicated that was there was a relationship between work locus of control and leader member exchange. This result confirmed the first hypothesis which predicted that work locus of control would correlate with leader-member exchange. Also, the findings validated the first requirement for establishing statistical mediation which entails that the independent variable must have an effect on the mediator (Baron & Kenny, 1986). The results of this study were in line with previous research findings that indicated that individual differences in personality are aspects that can potentially have an impact on leader-employee relations (Yukl, 1989). Similarly, Graen and Cashman (1975) maintain that individual characteristics are vital aspects of the leader member exchange process. Moreover, they also found that participants in the in group are selected based on criteria such as competence, skill and motivation to assume greater responsibility (Graen & Cashman, 1975). Additionally these factors have been shown to be assoicated with individuals with an internal locus of control (Spector, 1982).

In this study there was an inverse relationship between work locus of control and leader member exchange. An inverse relationship between work locus of control and leader member exchange indicated that low perceptions of work control were negatively associated with high levels of leader member exchange. Participants who felt that they were in the out-group showed low work control perceptions. The inverse relationship between work locus of control and leader member exchange could be related to situations in which participants with poor leader member exchanges being assigned to work on mundane, routine tasks that could have resulted in participants losing interest and thus impacting negatively on their job satisfaction.

Research shows that employees who perceive themselves as being in charge of their work consider their jobs as avenues in which they can demonstrate their abilities and exercise personal influence in the workplace (Gable et al., 1986; Wertheim, et al., 1978). Also, the development of work locus of control in individuals could result in individuals being more receptive and happier with their managers (Runyon, 1973). An improvement in work locus of control has been found to increase perceptions of work flow control (Ganster & Fusilier, 1994). Work locus of control in individuals is associated with positive response to inducements offered by the management to improve productivity. In this study participants expected management to treat them in a fair manner. When work locus of control is low, individuals tend to negatively evaluate their supervisors (Mitchell et al., 1975). The findings of this study indicated that individuals prefered participative managerial practices in which they consulted and interacted with management on a mutual basis.

The responses of the particpants in this study indicated that work locus of control was related to leader member exchanges. Positive relationships between an individual and a manager or supervisor was perceived to improve job performance and satisfaction. This is in line with research done by Mardanov et al (2007) which showed that high employee job satisfaction was predicted by good-quality leader member exchanges as well as high intrinsic and extrinsic motivation factors. In this study, some of the participants worked in environments where they had very little influence over their job tasks. Participants in this study reported that they usually worked in jobs that did not give them the initiative to decide on job tasks to be accomplished. Most of them were told what to do rather than engage in any participatory work relationship with their manager. Therefore, this could explain why the current study found an inverse relationship between work locus of control and leader-member exchange.

The study also indicated that there was a relationship between work locus of control and job satisfaction. This confirms previous findings of Mitchell, Smyser, & Weed (1975) on the relationship between work locus of control and job satisfaction. Also, the findings show that statistical mediation which entails that the independent variable must have an effect on the dependant variable. Additionally, the results are consistent with research that shows that an individual's work locus of control can play an important role at work, specifically in terms of work outcomes such as job satisfaction (Thomas, Eby, & Sorensen, 2006). Furthermore, work locus of control is associated with high consideration and initiating structure. The results indicated that participants in this study felt that they needed more work autonomy and they reported that job control was associated with job satisfaction. However, this study found

that there was an inverse relationship between work locus of control and job satisfaction. In other words, this study found that low levels of work locus of control were associated with high employee job dissatisfaction. Considering the characteristics of the study sample and the nature of work they were employed to do, it could be argued that most of the individuals had job positions that were not exciting. Most of the participants in this study reported that they worked in an environment where they had marginal work control. Lack of work initiative, decision making and control can result in high levels of job dissatisfaction and poor performance (Blau, 1993). Individuals with an internal locus of control would want to work in their own manner and would not be satisfied in a work environment where they had marginal work control.

Similarly, another research study found a moderate negative correlation between work locus of control and job satisfaction (Salazar, Hubbard, & Salazar, 2002). Consequently, it would seem that there are other factors that can explain the variance in individual job satisfaction. Bell & Straw (1989) maintain that in looking at antecedents of outcomes researchers should move away from traits and dispositions. They would rather examine and investigate the impact of the work situation and organisational climate that individuals find themselves in. In the same vein, other theorists have asserted that individual factors, the external wok environment, personal control perceptions and work outcome expectancy could affect an employee` s job satisfaction (Carver & Scheier, 1994). One such work situational characteristic that could affect an employee` s work locus of control and job satisfaction is lack of employee empowerment (Salazar, Hubbard, & Salazar, 2002). Empowerment, entails giving the employee the autonomy to accomplish what they want to and not telling employees what to do and how to do it (Whetten & Cameron, 1995). Furthermore, empowerment can be affected by the situation in which individuals find themselves (Whetten & Cameron, 1995). Therefore, considering the work situation that the majority of the participants where in, it could be argued that some of the participants in this study were not empowered to be in charge of their work.

The findings of this study have shown that there is a relationship between leader member exchange and job satisfaction. The findings confirm the third requirement for establishing statistical mediation which entails that the mediator variable must have an effect on the dependant variable. Additionally, the above results were in line with the view that there is a relationship between the quality of leader member exchanges and employee psychological well-being (Gerstner & Day, 1997). The results suggest that if an employee has a positive

relationship with his or her manager that could have a positive effect on organisational relations and employee job satisfaction (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Other researchers have shown that individuals who work in job environments where they are managed by a supervisor with poor leadership skills are more likely to have low job satisfaction than individuals who work in supportive work environments (Tepper, 2000). Similarly, high employee job satisfaction is associated with high quality leader member exchanges and the provision of job incentives or reinforcers to motivate employees (Mardanov, Sterrett, & Baker, 2007). In the same vein, some studies found a relationship between managerial ability and employee job satisfaction (Mardanov, Heischmidt, & Henson, 2008).

The results of this study have shown that when job satisfaction was regressed onto both work locus of control and leader-member exchange it was found that leader-member exchange had an effect on job satisfaction. This is in line with meditational requirement that maintains that the mediator must function as an antecedent on the dependent variable while controlling for the independent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Additionally, the findings of the study demonstrated that work locus of control had an affect on job satisfaction when leader-member exchange was controlled. The relationship between work locus of control and job satisfaction decreased after accounting for the mediator. This confirmed and validated the meditational requirement that the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable must be higher in the second equation than in the third equation. Moreover, complete statistical mediation occurs when the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable is no longer significant in the third equation (Baron & Kenny, 1986). However, it is important to remember that psychological concepts often have a number of causes. Thus, with regards to the final condition for mediation it is more realistic to argue that mediators significantly decrease rather than completely eliminate the relationship between the independent variable and dependent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Therefore, in the current study there was at least partial mediation. And the results of the Sobel test confirmed that there was significant mediation and that the mediating effect of leader member exchange on the relationship between work locus of control and job satisfaction was not by chance or random (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Also, the results confirmed the third hypothesis that predicted that leader-member exchange would serve as a mediator of the relationship between work locus of control and job satisfaction.

Limitations

Even though all of the hypotheses of the study were confirmed, this research had a number of constraints and limitations that will be illustrated in this section of the study. This section of the study will also suggest how the limitations of the research could inform future research in the same or similar studies. The current study used a non-experimental, cross-sectional mediator design which deals with the relationship between two variables at a specific point in time. The drawback with this design is that it does not allow for causal inferences or conclusions (Whitley, 2002).

Moreover, another limitation with the current study is that it used questionnaires that rely on self report responses. The problem with using such questionnaires is that they are based on the assumption that participants will respond to the questions in an honest and accurate manner. Nevertheless, it is not always the case that participants answer in an honest manner. This is because participants will often give answers that they believe to be socially desirable (Donaldson & Grant-Vallone, 2002).

Additionally, it is important to mention that the sample that was used was predominantly made up of Africans and Whites. There was very little representation of the Coloured, Asian and Indian populations. Consequently, it is difficult to generalise the findings of this study to the brand management industry in South Africa and abroad because of the underrepresentation of other racial groups in the study sample (Whitley, 2002). Furthermore, the absence of a control group, manipulation of participants and random assignment of participants limit the ability to draw causal conclusions that befit quasi-experimental and true experimental designs. Also, it is likely that there were extraneous variables that could have affected the behaviour of the participants in the study (Whitley, 2002).

Lastly, data analysis should have included the demographic characteristics of the participants. Personal characteristics such as age, gender, race, and level of education can influence the response of participants (Muhonen & Torkelson, 2004). Data analysis that incorporates demographic characteristics could be more informative in that it investigates potential human factors that could affect industrial relations and organisational performance (Muhonen & Torkelson, 2004).

Implications for future research

Researchers who are interested in this area should address the limitations of dealing with cross sectional correlational data. Experimental designs could be more effective in handling

meditational designs as the mediating effect of a variable between independent variables and the dependent variable can be easily measured in true experiments. The experimenter can directly manipulate the variables and empirically measure the responses. In such designs causal claims can be made. These could be direct or indirect causal claims.

Future researchers could use path analysis models in order to test causal relationships between variables (Whitley, 2002). Additionally, future researchers should focus more closely on finding ways to generalise their findings to the wider population. In order to accomplish this they should ensure that the research sample mirrors, as closely as possible, the population that they wish to generalize to. In this way they could avoid, reduce or eliminate threats to internal validity of the findings. Lastly, future researchers would be advised to utilise the Marlowe-Crowned Scale, in order to deal with issues of social desirability (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960).

The results of the study show that the quality of the relationship that people develop with their manager is vital and can have a significant impact on their job satisfaction. Therefore, employers should ensure that those in positions of leadership or management should be able to build meaningful and effective relationships with subordinates.

Conclusion

The research design of this study was a non-experimental, cross-sectional mediator design. The results of this study showed that there was a relationship between leader member exchange and job satisfaction. Additionally, the results showed that leader-member exchange partially mediated the relationship between locus of control and job satisfaction.

Taking into account the findings of this study, job satisfaction can be understood as an outcome of both work locus of control and leader member exchange. Job satisfaction has received a great deal of attention in industrial relations, employee retention and the management of incentives in organisations. It is associated with the reduction of negative work outcomes such as absenteeism, poor job performance, turnover intention and actual job turnover (Baker, 2004). These are important factors that influence efficient organisational functioning (Baker, 2004). Consequently, it could be deduced from the findings of this study that the concept of job satisfaction is a vital component that relates to work locus of control and leader member exchange. The current study illustrated that both work locus of control and leader-member exchange were predictor variables that were able to explain a significant

variation of job satisfaction as criterion variable. The results of this study illustrated the relevance and importance leader member exchange in mediating the relationship between work locus of control and job satisfaction. It is suggested that organisations in South Africa should seek to improve job satisfaction in employees through the management of work control perceptions and employee-supervisor relations.

Reference List

Anderson, C. R. (1977). Locus of control, coping behaviors, and performance in a stress setting. *Journal of Applied Psychology* , 62, 446-451.

Baker, K. W. (2004). Antecedents and consequences of job satisfacton: Testing a comprehensive model using integrated methodology. *Journal of Applied Business Research* , 20, 31-44.

Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable disctinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* , 50, 1173-1182.

Basu, R., & Green, S. (1997). Leader-member exchange and transformational leadership: An emprical examination of innovative behaviours in leader-member dyads. *Journal of Applied Social Psychhology* , 27, 477-499.

Battle, E., & Rotter, J. B. (1963). Childrens feelings of personal control as related to social class and ethnic groups. *Journal of Personality* , 31, 482-490.

Bell, N., & Straw, B. (1989). People as sculptors versus sculpture: The roles of personality and personal control in organizations. In J. Ott (Ed.), *Classic readings in organizatinal behavior* (pp. 365-378). Florida: Harcourt Brace & Company.

Blau, G. (1993). Testing the relationship of locus of control to different performance dimensions. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology* , 66, 125-138.

Bosman, J., Buitendach, J. H., & Rothaman, S. (2005). Work locus of control and dispositional optimism as antecedents to job insecurity. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology* , 31, 17-23.

Bryk, A. S., & Raudenbush, S. W. (1992). *Hierarchical linear models: Applications and data analysis methods.* Newbury Park: Sage Publications.

Burns, J.Z., & Otte, F. L. (1999). Implications of leader-member exchange theory and research for human resource development research. *Human Resource Development Quarterly* , 10, 225-248.

Carver, C., & Scheier, M. (1994). Optimism and health related cognition: What variables actually matter? *Psychology and health* , 9, 191-195.

Chen, J.-C., & Silverthorne, C. (2008). The impact of locus of control on job stress, job performance and job satisfaction in Taiwan. *Leadership & Organisation Development* , 29, 572--582.

Corcoran, K. J., & Michels, J. L. (1998). A prototype analysis of psychological situations through the lens of alcohol expectancies and gender. *Addictive Behaviours* , 23, 685-691.

Crowne, D. P., & Marlowe, D. (1960). A new scale of social desirability independent of psychopathology. *Journal of Consulting Psychology* , 24, 349-354.

Dansreau, F., Graen, G., & Haga, W. J. (1975). A vertical dyad linkage approach to leadership within formal organisations. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance* , 13, 46-78.

Daus, C. S., Weiss, H. M., & Nicholas, J. P. (1999). An examination of the joint effects of affective experiences and job beliefs on job satisfaction and variations in affective experiences over time. *Organizational Behavior & Human Decision Processes* , 78, 1-24.

Deluga, R. J., & Perry, J. T. (1991). The relationship of subordinate upward influencing behaviour, satisfaction and perceived superior effectiveness with leader member exchanges. *Journal of Occupational Psychology* , 64, 239-252.

Dienesch, R. M., & Liden, R. C. (1986). Leader member exchange model of leadership: A critique and further development. *Academy of Management Review* , 11, 618-634.

Donaldson, S. I., & Grant-Vallone, E. J. (2002). Understanding self-report bias in organizational behavior research. *Journal of Business and Psychology* , 17, 245-260.

Ellickson, M. C., & Logsdon, K. (2002). Determinants of job satisfaction of municipal government employees. *Public Personnel Management* , 31, 343-358.

Estrada, L., Dupoux, E., & Wolman, C. (2006). The relationship between locus of control and personal-emotional adjustment and social adjustment to college life in students with and without learning disabilities. *College Student Journal* , 40, 43-54.

Fisher, C. D. (2000). Mood and emotion while working: Missing pieces of job satisfaction. *Journal of Organizational Behavior* , 21, 185-202.

Fisher, C. D., & Ashkanasy, N. M. (2000). The emerging role of emotions in work life: an introduction. *Journal of Organizational Behavior* , 21, 123-239.

Forte, A. (2005). Locus of control and the moral reasoning of managers. *Journal of Business Ethics* , 58, 65-77.

Foster, D., & Louw-Potgieter, J. (1992). *Social psychology in South Africa.* Johannesburg: Lexicon Publishers.

Frijda, N. H. (1993). Moods, emotion episodes, and emotions. In M. Lewis, & I. M. Haviland (Eds.), *Handbook of emotions* (pp. 381–403). New York: Guilford Press.

Furnahm, A., & Steele, H. (1993). Measures of Locus of Control: A critique of children's, health and work-related locus of control questionnaires. *British Journal of Psychology* , 84, 443-79.

Gable, R. K., Thompson, D. L., & Glanstein, P. J. (1976). Perceptions of personal control and conformity of vocational development. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour* , 8, 259-267.

Ganster, D. C., & Fusilier, M. R. (1994). Control in the Workplace. In C. L. Cooper, & I. Robertson (Eds.), *International review of industrial and organisational psychology* (pp. 235-280). New York: Wiley & Sons.

Gerstner, C. R., & Day, D. V. (1997). Meta-analytic review of leader-member exchange theory: Correlates and construct issues. *Journal of Applied Psychology* , 82, 827-844.

Graen, G. B. (1976). Role making processes within complex organizations. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 1201-1245). Chicago: Rand McNally.

Graen, G. B., & Schiemann, W. (1978). Leader-member agreement: A vertical dyad linkage approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology* , 63, 206-212.

Graen, G. B., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Relationship based approach to leadership: Development of leader-member exchange(lmx) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspeective. *Leadership Quarterly* , 6, 219-247.

Graen, G., & Cashman, J. F. (1975). A role making model of leadership in formal organizations: A development approach. In J. G. Hunt, & L. L. Larson (Eds.), *Leadership Frontiers* (pp. 143-165). Kent: Kent State University Press.

Graen, G., Liden, R. C., & Hoel, W. (1982). Role of leadership in the employee withdrawal process. *Journal of Applied Psychology* , 70, 777-781.

Hahn, S. E. (1999). The effects of locus of control on daily exposure, coping and reactivity to work interpersonal stressors: a diary study. *Personality and Individual Differences* , 29, 729-748.

Hertzbeg, F., Maunser, B., & Snyderman, B. (1959). *The motivation to work.* New York: John Wiley and Sons Inc.

Hodgkinson, G. P. (1992). Development and validation of the strategic locus of control scale. *Strategic Management Journal* , 13, 311-317.

Hyatt, T. A., & Prawitt, D. F. (2001). Does congruence between audit structure and auditors' locus of control affect job. *The Accounting Review* , 76, 263-274.

Kahn, R. L., Wolfe, D. M., Quinn, R. P., Snoek, J. D., & Rosenthal, R. A. (1964). *Organization stress: Studies in role conflict and ambiguity.* New York: Wiley.

Katz, D., & Kahn, R. L. (1966). *The social psychology of organizations.* New York: Wiley.

Kinicki, A. J., & Vecchio, R. P. (1994). Influences on quality of superior-subordinate relations: The role of time pressure, organisational commitment, and locus of control. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour* , 15, 75-82.

Labuschagne, M., Bosman, J., & Buitendach, J. H. (2005). Job insecurity, job satisfaction and work locus of control of employees in a government organisation. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management* , 3, 26-35.

Lefcourt, H. M. (1982). *Locus of control: Current trends in theory and research (2nd Edition).* Hillsdale,NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Lefcourt, H., & Ladwig, G. W. (1965). The american negro: A problem in expectancies. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology* , 1, 377-380.

Liden, R. C., & Graen, G. B. (1980). Generalizability of the vertical dyad linkage model of leadership. *Academy of Management Journal* , 23, 451-465.

Liden, R. C., Sparrowe, R. T., & Wayne, S. J. (1997). Leader-member exchange theory: The past and potential for the future. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management* , 15, 47-119.

Locke, E. A. (1976). The nature and causes of job satisfaction. In M. D. Dunnette, *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology* (pp. 1297-1349). Chicago: Rand McNally.

Locke, E. A. (1970). The supervisor as 'motivator' his influence on employee performance and satisfaction. In B. Bass, & R. H. Cooper (Eds.), *Managing for Accomplishment* (pp. 57-67). Washington, DC: Heath and Company.

Major, D., Kozlowski, S., Chao, G., & Gardner, P. (1995). A longitudinal study on the early development of leader-member exchanges. *Journal of Applied Psychology* , 80, 418-431.

Mardanov, I. T., Heischmidt, K., & Henson, A. (2008). Leader-member exchange and job satisfaction bond and predicted employee turnover. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies* , 15, 159-175.

Mardanov, I., Sterrett, J., & Baker, J. (2007). Satisfaction with supervision and member job satisfaction in leader-member exchange: An empirical study in the restaurant industry. *The Journal of Applied Management and Entepreneurship* , 12, 37-56.

Martin, R., Thomas, G., Charles, K., Epitropaki, O., & McNamara, R. (2005). The role of leader-member exchanges in mediating the relationship between locus of control and work reactions. *Journal of Occupational and Organizatioanl Psychology* , 78, 141-147.

McClane, W. E. (1991). Implications of member role differentiation: Analysis of a key concept in the LMX model of leadership. *Group Organizational Studies* , 16, 102-113.

Mitchell, T. R., Smyser, C. M., & Weed, S. E. (1975). Locus of Control: Supervision and Work Satisfaction. *The Academy of Management Journal* , 18, 623-631.

Morrison, R. L. (2008). Negative relationships in the workplace: Associations with organisational commitment, cohesion, job satisfaction and intention to turnover. *Journal of Management and Organization* , 14, 330-344.

Muchinsky, P.M. (2000). Emotions in the workplace: The neglect of organizational nehavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior* , 21, 801-805.

Muhonen, T., & Torkelson, E. (2004). Work locus of control and its relationship to health and job satisfaction from gender perspective. *Stress and Health* , 20, 21-28.

Nunns, C., Ballantine, K., Burns, A., & King, S. (1990). Subordinate assessment of organisational leadership: Evaluation of the leader-member exchange scale. *Ergonomics SA* , 2, 46-53.

Nystrom, P. C. (1983). Managers salaries and their beliefs about reinforcement control. *Journal of Social Psychology* , 120, 291-292.

O'Connell, B., & Spector, P. (1994). The contribution of personality traits, negative affectivity, locus of control and Type A to the subsequent reports of job stressors and job strains. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology* , 67, 1-11.

Orpen, C. (1992). The work locus of control scale as a predictor of employee attitudes and behavior: A validity study. *Psychological Studies* , 36, 67-69.

Pedhazur, E. J. (1982). *Multiple regression in behavioural research.* New York: Rinehard and Winston.

Phares, E. J. (1997). *Introduction to Personality.* New York: Longman.

Phares, E. J. (1976). *Locus Of Control In Personality.* Morristown, NJ: General Learning Press.

Robbins, S. P., Odendaal, A., & Roodt, G. (2003). *Organisational behaviour.* Cape Town: Prentice-Hall International.

Rosenthal, R., & Rosnow, R. (1991). *Essentials of behavioural research: Methods and data analysis.* New York: McGraw-Hill Publishers.

Rosse, J. G., & Kraut, A. I. (1983). Reconsidering the vertical dyad linkage model of leadership. *Journal of Occupational Psychology* , 56, 63-71.

Rotter, J. B. (1966). Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. *Political Monographs* , 80, 1-28.

Rotter, J. B. (1990). Internal versus external control of reinforcement: A case history of a variable. *American Psychologist* , 45, 489-493.

Rotter, J. B. (1954). *Social learning and clinical psychology.* New York: Prentice- Hall.

Rotter, J. B. (1975). Some problems and misconceptions related to the construct of internal versus external control of reinforcement. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology* , 43, 55-66.

Rotter, J. B. (1982). *The development and applications of social learning theory.* New York: Praeger.

Rotter, J. B. (1981). The psychological situation in social learning theory. In D. Magnusson, *Toward a psychology of situations: An interactional perspective.* Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Rue, L. W., & Byars, L. L. (1992). *Management skills and application.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall International.

Runyon, K. E. (1973). Some interactions between personality variables and management styles. *Journal of Applied Psychology* , 57, 288-294.

Salazar, J., Hubbard, S., & Salazar, L. (2002). Locus of control and it's influence on hotel managers' job satisfaction. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism* , 1, 15-26.

Sandler, I. N., & Lakey, B. (2005). Locus of control as a stress moderator: the role of control perceptions and social support. *American Journal of Community Psychology* , 10, 65-80.

Scandura, T. A., Graen, G. B., & Novak, M. A. (1986). When managers decide not to decide autocratically: An investigation of leader member exchange and decision influence. *Journal of Applied Psychology* , 71, 579-584.

Schermerhorn, J. R. (1993). *Management for productivity* . Canada: John Wiley & Sons Inc.

Sobel, M. E. (1982). Asymptotic confidence intervals for indirect effects in structural equation models. In S. Leinhardt, *Sociological Methodology* (pp. 290-312). Washington DC: American Sociological Association.

Spector, P. E. (1982). Behaviour in organisations as a function of employees locus of control. *Psychological Bulletin* , 91, 482-497.

Spector, P. E. (1997). *Job Satisfaction: application, assessment, causes and consequences.* New York: Harper & Row.

Tan, H. H., Foo, M. D., Chong, C. L., & Ng, R. (2003). Situational and dispositional predictors of displays of positive emotions. *Journal of Organizational Behavior* , 24, 961-978.

Tepper, B. J. (2000). Consequences of abusive supervision. *Academy of Management Journal* , 43, 178-190.

Thomas, W., Eby, L., & Sorensen, K. (2006). Locus of control at work: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior* , 27, 1057–1087.

Wakabayashi, M., & Graen, G. B. (1984). The Japanese career progress study: A 7-year follow-up. *Journal of Applied Psychology* , 69, 603-614.

Wanous, J. P., & Lawler, E. E. (1972). Measurement and meaning of job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology* , 56, 95-102.

Warr, P., Cook, J., & Wall, T. (1979). Scales for the measurement of some work attitudes and aspects of psychological well-being. *Journal of Occupational Psychology* , 52, 129-148.

Wertheim, E. G., Widom, C. S., & Wortzel, L. N. (1978). Multivariate analysis of male and female professional careerchoice correlates. *Journal of Applied Psychology* , 63, 234-242.

Whetten, D., & Cameron, K. (1995). *Developing management skills.* New York: Harper Collins College Publishers.

Whitley, B. E. (2002). *Principles of research in behavioral science.* New York: Mc-Graw Hill.

Wright, T., & Bonett, D. (1997). The role of pleasantness and activation-based well-being in performance prediction. *Journal of occupational health psychology* , 2(3):212-9.

Yukl, G. (1989). Managerial leadership: A review of theory and research. *Journal of Management* , 15, 251-289.

Appendices

Appendix A: Organisation Access Letters

Psychology
School of Human & Community Development
University of the Witwatersrand
Private Bag 3, WITS, 2050
Tel: (011) 717 4500 Fax: (011) 717 4559

DATE: 21 /05/2010

Good Day

My name is Castro Ntsebeza and I would like to invite your organisation to participate in a research study that I am currently conducting for the purposes of obtaining my Masters in Industrial Psychology at the University of the Witwatersrand.

The aim of my study will be to examine the relationship between a personality trait work locus of control, the quality of exchanges between subordinates and leaders (leader-member exchange) and a work-related reaction specifically job satisfaction. Locus of control is the extent to which individuals believe that they have control over their own destiny. It is an aspect of personality that deals with individuals' generalized expectations of whether they can or cannot control external forces in their lives.

I would like to request your permission to allow certain of your employees to participate in my research study. I require a maximum of 150 employees to participate in my study and complete my questionnaire.

Participation in this research will involve completing the work locus of control questionnaire, leader-member exchange questionnaire and the job satisfaction questionnaire. It should take

approximately 20 minutes to complete. Participation in this study is completely voluntary. No one will be advantaged or disadvantaged in any way should they choose to complete their questionnaires or not. This research is not intended to investigate any individuals but rather to establish general trends. As such, each individual response will be only examined in relation to all other responses. In addition, one's completed questionnaire will not be seen by anyone but me and responses will be kept confidential.

Completion of the questionnaire is regarded as consent to participate in the study. Completed questionnaires are to be placed in a sealed box which will be placed in an area agreed upon by us. In doing so, no one will have access to your completed questionnaire but me. Feedback will be made available, by me, for any participant who requests it.

If you would like more information about this study please contact me, or my supervisor, Dr Calvin Gwandure.

I would like to extend my appreciation for your participation and support in my research.

Yours Sincerely,

Mr Castro Ntsebeza
Organisational Psychology Masters Student
011 788 7357

Dr Calvin Gwandure
Supervisor /Lecturer
011 717 4519

CDSA
ANTI-PIRACY CERTIFIED PLANT

C D T
COMPACT DISC TECHNOLOGIES

Date: 14/06/2010

ATTENTION: Mr C Ntsebeza

Dear Castro

Re: Research study

Your invite in having our company participate in your research study is acknowledged. This letter therefore serve as a confirmation that our organisation will indeed participate.

Please contact myself at 011 545 7739 should you require further information.

Yours sincerely

Matome Malatjie
HR Manager

SABS

Unit E Lanzerac Estate
Old Pretoria Road
PO Box 3495
Halfway House 1685
SOUTH AFRICA
Tel +27 11 315 4061
Fax +27 11 315 4404

COMPACT DISC TECHNOLOGIES (PTY) LTD Reg. No. 1990/00268/07
EXCO W Burnett WL Groenewald JC Habakkuk WF Herbst L Maguire MJ Malatjie
Directors PC Desai WF Herbst L Maguire

Barloworld
Leading brands

Barloworld Limited
180 Katherine Street Sandton
PO Box 782248 Sandton 2146 South Africa

Tel +27 (0)11 445 1000 Fax +27 (0)11 444 3643
www.barloworld.com

Reg No 1918/000095/06
Tyre Registration Number TPREG0063GAU

22nd June 2010

Att: Mr Calvin Gwandure
School of Human & Community Development
University of the Witwatersrand
Private Bag 3
WITS
2050

Dear Mr Gwandure,

ACCESS TO BARLOWORLD EMPLOYEES – RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE BY MR CASTRO NTSEBEZA

We hereby grant permission to Mr Castro Ntsebeza to have access to Barloworld employees for completion of his research questionnaire in support of his Masters in Organisational Psychology.

We will facilitate the process for him and send out the questionnaire to Barloworld employees through our Divisional Human Resource Directors. All responses will be directly to him.

Should you have any queries, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Yours sincerely

JANE WISH
EXECUTIVE: GLOBAL HUMAN RESOURCES

Directors DB Ntsebeza (Chairman) CB Thomson (Chief Executive) S Baqwa PJ Blackbeard PJ Bulterman AGK Hamilton* M Laubscher SS Mkhabela MJN Njeke SS Ntsaluba TH Nyasulu SB Pfeiffer** G Rodriguez de Castro De Los Rios*** OI Shongwe DG Wilson
Secretary: S Mngomezulu *(British) **(American) ***(Spanish)

Appendix B: Participant Letter

Dear Sir/Madam

My name is Castro Ntsebeza and I would like to invite you to participate in a research study that I am currently conducting for the purposes of obtaining my Masters in Organisational Psychology at the University of the Witwatersrand. The aim of my study will be to examine the relationship between a personality trait work locus of control, the quality of exchanges between subordinates and leaders (leader-member exchange) and a work-related reaction specifically job satisfaction. Locus of control is the extent to which individuals believe that they have control over their own destiny. It is an aspect of personality that deals with individuals' generalized expectations of whether they can or cannot control external forces in their lives.

Participation in this research will involve completing the work locus of control questionnaire, leader-member exchange questionnaire and the job satisfaction questionnaire. It should take approximately 20 minutes to complete. Participation in this study is completely voluntary. You will not be advantaged or disadvantaged in any way should you choose to complete the questionnaires or not. This research is not intended to investigate any individuals but rather to establish general trends. As such, your responses will be only examined in relation to all other responses. In addition, your completed questionnaire will not be seen by anyone but me and responses will be kept confidential.

If you fulfil the criteria for participation in this study and are willing to participate, please complete the attached questionnaire as honestly and carefully as possible. Completion of the questionnaire is regarded as consent to participate in the study. Once you have completed the questionnaire, please place it in the envelope provided. Seal the envelope and place it in the sealed box placed in your reception area. In doing so, no one will have access to your completed questionnaire but me. Feedback will be made available, by me, for any participant who requests it.

If you would like more information about this study please contact me, or my supervisor, Dr Calvin Gwandure.

I would like to extend my appreciation for your participation and support in my research.

Yours Sincerely,

Castro Ntsebeza	Dr Calvin Gwandure
011 788 7357	011 717 4519
Organisational Psychology Masters Student	Supervisor / Lecturer

Appendix C: Biographical Questionnaire

Biographical Questionnaire

By completing this questionnaire I consent to participating in a study of emotions in relation to various organisational aspects. I understand that:

• Participation is voluntary.

• No information that may identify me will be included in the research report, and my responses will remain confidential.

PLEASE ANSWER **ALL** THE QUESTIONS: Details are required for descriptive purposes only and anonymity is guaranteed.

1. Age ☐

2. Gender male/ female

3. What race are you?

_____

4. What is your home language?

_____

5. What is your current marital status?

Single ☐ In a relationship ☐ Married ☐ Divorced ☐

6. Do you have children? If Yes, how many?

_____

7. What is your highest level of education?

Grade 10- Grade 11 ☐ Matric ☐ Diploma ☐ Degree ☐

Other (specify):
_____

8. What is your occupation?
_____

9. What is your job title? _____

Appendix D: Work Locus of Control Scale

Work Locus of Control Scale Copyright Paul E. Spector, All rights reserved, 1988						
The following questions concern your beliefs about jobs in general. They do not refer only to your present job. Please Circle one of the numbers (1-6) per question.	Disagree very	Disagree	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
1. A job is what you make of it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. On most jobs, individuals can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. If employees are unhappy with a decision made by their boss, they should do something about it	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Making money is primarily a matter of good fortune	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Most individuals are capable of doing their jobs well if they make the effort	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. In order to get a really good job, you need to have family members or friends in high places	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. When it comes to landing a really good job, who you know is more important than what you know	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. To make a lot of money you have to know the right individuals	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. It takes a lot of luck to be an outstanding employee on most jobs	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Most employees have more influence on their supervisors than they think they do	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. The main difference between individuals who make a lot of money and individuals who make a little money is luck	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix E: Leader Member Exchange Scale (LMX7)

Please Circle **one** of the numbers (1-5) per question.

1. Do you know where you stand with your leader... do you usually know how satisfied your leader is with what you do?

1	2	3	4	5
Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Very Often

2. How well does your leader understand your job problems and needs?

1	2	3	4	5
Not a bit	A little	A Fair Amount	Quite a Bit	A Great Deal

3. How well does your leader recognize your potential?

1	2	3	4	5
Not at All	A Little	Moderately	Mostly	Fully

4. Regardless of how much formal authority he/she has built into his/her position, what are the chances that your leader would use his/her power to help you solve problems in your work?

1	2	3	4	5
None	Small	Moderate	High	Very High

5. Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your leader has, what are the chances that he/she would "bail you out" at his/her expense?

1	2	3	4	5
None	Small	Moderate	High	Very High

6. I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his/her decision if he/she were not present to do so

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly				

Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

7. How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader?

1	2	3	4	5
Extremely Ineffective	Worse Than Average	Average	Better Than Average	Extremely Effective

Appendix F: Job Satisfaction Scale

Job Satisfaction Scale Copyright Peter Warr, John Cook, Toby Wall, All rights reserved 1979							
The next set of items deals with various aspects of your job. I would like you to tell me how satisfied or dissatisfied you feel with each of these features of your present job. Each item names some aspect of your present hob. Just indicate how satisfied or dissatisfied you are with it by using the scale on the right of the questions. Please Circle **one** of the numbers (1-7) per question.	I'm extremely dissatisfied	I'm very dissatisfied	I'm moderately dissatisfied	I'm not sure	I'm moderately satisfied	I'm very satisfied	I'm extremely satisfied
1. The physical work conditions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. The freedom to choose your own method of working	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Your fellow workers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. The recognition you get for good work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Your immediate boss	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. The amount of responsibility you are given	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Your rate of pay	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.Your opportunity to use your abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Industrial relations between management and workers in your firm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Your chance of promotion	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. The way your firm is managed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. The attention paid to suggestions you make	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Your hours of work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. The amount of variety in your job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Your job security	1	2	3	4	5	6	7