

Quitting a Workplace that Discourages Achievement Motivation: Do Individual Differences Matter?

Anne C. Rundle-Gardiner

Stuart C. Carr

Massey University, Albany

Personal success at work can attract hostility from others, but does the achiever's own personality influence how well they cope with that hostility? In a first exploratory study of core individual differences, 114 work-experienced Aucklanders completed measures of self-efficacy (Sherer et al's General Self-Efficacy Scale), the big five (Goldberg's International Personality Item Pool), achievement motivation (Cassidy and Lynn's Achievement Motivation Questionnaire), and Rundle-Gardiner's (2003) Tolerance Threshold measure of what proportion of discouraging bosses, peers, and subordinates they would tolerate before deciding to quit a job. Tolerance thresholds for discouragement of achievement motivation, or negative 'motivational gravity', bore little relationship to the personality of the participants, who preferred instead to stress emotion- and problem-focused coping skills. This emphasis on skills is both consistent with motivational gravity theory and suggestive of a role in managing career development for personalised coaching.

Just as gravity draws individuals toward bodies of greater mass than themselves, so too can tall poppy syndrome, and other attitudes towards individual achievement motivation, influence the behaviour of an achiever herself. Motivational gravity theory proposes that gravity at work will emanate from different directions in the organizational structure, and will range in the valence of their intention from negative through to positive. This multi-directionality and range are depicted in Figure 1.

From Figure 1, attitudes toward achievement motivation can emanate from bosses and supervisors, who can either push down on, or help to pull up, the promising high achiever - through discouragement or encouragement, respectively. Also from Figure 1, peers and subordinates, in the organisational structure, can choose to either push up (encourage) or pull down (discourage) their higher achieving colleagues. The Motivational Gravity, 'MG Grid' thereby envisages four key cultures of achievement motivation: Pull Up/Push Up (++) ; Push Down/Push Up (- +); Push Down/Pull Down (--); and Pull Up/Pull Down (+ -). In a review of the extant literature on achievement at work, each of these climates of achievement motivation has been linked to psychological factors in supervisors and colleagues, who in turn are caricatured in each quadrant in the grid, above and below the central character or achiever (Carr & MacLachlan, 1997; see also, Carr, 2004).

Examples of these linkages, between (i) quadrants in the grid and (ii)

Whether we are discussing performance management, boundary-less careers, learning organisations, or employers of choice, a central underlying concern, at work today, is the enhancement of personal achievement. Achievement motivation itself however has a long history of being studied within psychology in general, and I/O psychology in particular (e.g., Murray, 1938; to McClelland, 1987; to Cromie, 2000). In New Zealand, achievement motivation has been studied in regard to labour mobility (Hines, 1973), and is arguably relevant to the development of small to medium sized enterprises that characterise our economy (Friese, 2003). Of particular relevance locally, may be tall poppy syndrome, or a desire to chop achievers down to size (Harrington & Liu, 2002). Yet whilst attitudes against tall poppies have been studied extensively (Feather, 1994), their impact on the achiever herself; and especially individual differences in

that impact, have been virtually ignored (Chidgey, 1998). This project addresses that imbalance, by exploring empirically whether reactions to discouragement of achievement motivation at work are linked to individual differences in personality. Tests of personal impact like this are important (see below), because of their inherent implications for performance management, career development, and organisational turnover (Rundle-Gardiner, 2003).

Motivational Gravity and Achievement Motivation

Discouraging achievement motivation at work can take multiple forms. A taxonomy of these forms has however been proposed in the literature, under the rubric of 'motivational gravity' (Carr & MacLachlan, 1997). According to Carr and MacLachlan, motivational gravity is a useful metaphor for understanding attitudes and intentions towards individual achievement in organisations.

observable influences in the workplace, would include, for instance: Pull Up/ Push Up encouragement provided by the inculcation of traditional family metaphors for working together in some Japanese companies (Kashima & Calln, 1994); the Push Down/Push Up dynamics experienced by high-achieving women as part of the 'glass ceiling' (Afro-centric Alliance, 2003; see also Ashkanasy, 1994); the Push Down/ Pull Down work climate that can fuel workplace bullying and organisational 'mobbing' (Einarsen, 2000); and the Pull Up/Pull Down work environments that celebrate the so-called 'Quiet Achiever'

who is urged to achieve for their boss but to remain humble in front of their peers (Carr & MacLachlan, 1997). More recently, longitudinal behavioural systems analyses of these diverse workplace climates for achievement motivation have revealed how, if left unmanaged, they can progressively escalate into workplace conflict, violence, and turnover (Carr, 2004).

The above examples each focus on the psychology of exerting gravity rather than actually *experiencing* it directly. From the perspective of an achiever per se, research has been much more restricted – namely to examining

group differences, specifically gender and nationality (Carr, 2004). In their principal statement of the theory, Carr and MacLachlan (1997) imply that the role of individual differences may be marginal, due to the inherently situational nature of motivational gravity - conceptualised in Figure 1 as a series of social force fields. Yet as Field Theory actually reminds us, social force fields interact with personal dispositions (Lewin, 1947). Thus, it remains to be seen whether reactions to Pull Down and Push Down – the two intentions requiring most management by achievers themselves – are as invariant as Figure 1 implies.

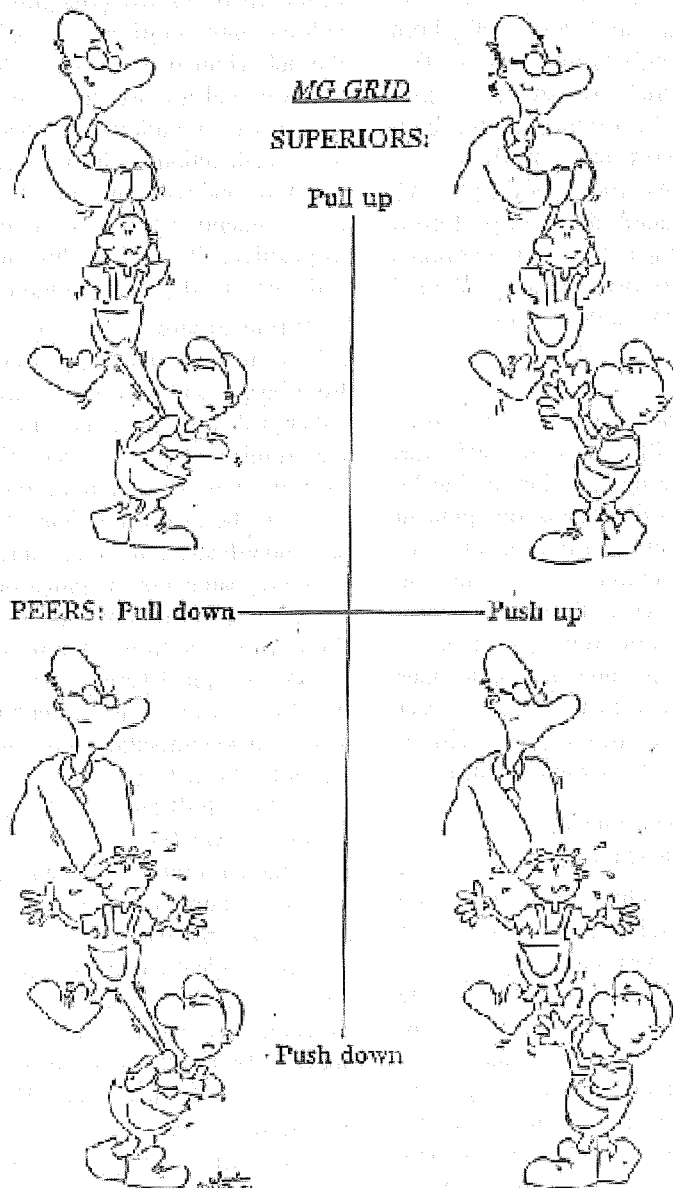
Which Individual Differences?

When psychologists have studied achievement motivation, they tend to have focused either on the individual motives of the achievers themselves (McClelland, 1987), or on the motives of persons reacting 'to' the achievements of others (Feather, 1994). Far less attention has been paid to individual differences in how the achiever and the would-be achiever *respond to the reactions of their colleagues* (Carr, 2004). Yet as Carr's review implies, such reactions are potentially critical for employee wellbeing and organisational performance.

Theoretically, a range of individual differences will potentially influence responses to the experience of motivational gravity. These would include for instance self-esteem, locus of control, and emotional resilience. Given the dearth of evidence on this broad area however, and the exploratory nature of our research, we were obliged to focus on a limited number of potentially salient variables. One of the hopes in this paper is precisely that it helps to stimulate others to expand on the list of individual difference variables being linked, or not, to reactions to the discouragement of achievement motivation at work. Thus the list below is not by any means envisaged to be exhaustive.

Self-Efficacy. This is normally defined as believing in one's own ability to be successful at a task, or in reaching a pre-determined goal (Bandura, 1997). Self-efficacy has been linked to workplace performance, specifically to overcoming challenges (Maddux, 1995). Logically,

Figure 1. The Diverse Cultures of Achievement
Source: Carr & MacLachlan (1997)



greater self-efficacy may either enhance ability to tolerate negative gravity, or it may increase the ability to seek a job elsewhere. Thus, it might be associated with thresholds either positively or negatively.

The Big Five. One of the currently prominent taxonomies of personality at work is the model known as OCEAN (Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Neuroticism). According for instance to McCrae and Allik (2002), the OCEAN model is cross-culturally robust and reliable. In a context of motivational gravity, each of these big five could – on a priori conceptual and theoretical grounds alone – either enhance or reduce tolerance thresholds for negative gravity. Openness to new experience for instance may foster a capacity to absorb discouragement, or to seek a challenge elsewhere; Conscientiousness could – theoretically – enhance intentions to remain with an organization that was not particularly encouraging of achievement motivation, or, alternatively, could equally help to drive the person to be conscientious elsewhere; Extraverts may be equally at ease using their sociability to compensate for motivational gravity, or at trying to find a more receptive workplace in which to express it; Agreeableness (with, for example, an individual's predisposition for good naturedness, co-operation, and flexibility) could prompt either absorption, or flight from hurt; and Neuroticism (or emotional instability, especially feelings of anger, worry, or insecurity) could equally prompt fight, or flight.

Achievement Motivation. Classically defined by McClelland and others as seeking success in competition with a standard of excellence, achievement motivation has been linked with both persistence at a task and readiness to quit a task whenever the goal is unrealistically high (Reeve, 1992). Thus once again, we can expect individual differences to either raise, or lower, the threshold for tolerating negative motivational gravity.

Hypotheses

Personality can be expected to co-vary with threshold for negative gravity.

The direction of the relationship however remains open to empirical exploration. As we have seen, there is conceptual ambiguity surrounding the capacity of theory to predict a firm direction in which certain individual differences will influence responses to motivational gravity. Given this theoretical uncertainty, and the dearth of empirical evidence on the field itself, an empirical test of the role of individual differences, and their influences on responses to the discouragement of individual achievement in a work setting, is warranted. That empirical test in turn is required to focus on measuring both individual differences and tolerance for motivational gravity.

As Figure 1 already implies, motivational gravity is not necessarily negative in valence. It can be both negative (Push Down and Pull Down) and positive (Pull Up and Push Up). In this preliminary study, we decided to focus on negative motivational gravity. Although positive motivational gravity is clearly an important feature of organisational and occupational success, understanding negative motivational gravity may be a necessary condition for positive gravity to become optimally salient. Thus we have focused, in this first instance of study, on an arguably more fundamental concern in an acutely neglected field of study – negative motivational gravity as a metaphor for the discouragement of individual achievement at work.

Method

We are studying individual differences in responses to negative motivational gravity. We chose to study this question through a questionnaire method. We chose the questionnaire approach because motivational gravity is primarily a subjective experience, and questionnaires are designed to capture precisely such experiences (Carr, 2004).

Participants

To enhance organisational representativeness, and to represent individuals with prospects for achievement motivation at work, we used a sample of university students who all reported on the research

questionnaire having one year or more work-experience (15% reported 1-4 years work experience; 31% reported 5-9 years work experience; 15% reported 10-14 years work experience; and the remaining 39% 15 years plus work experience). Through a variety of student classes at Massey University in Auckland, 275 questionnaires were distributed, with 114 being voluntarily completed and returned (return rate = 42%). These participants' mean age was 33 years (range = 18-61 years) and they were predominantly women (72%), who principally self-reported their ethnicity as European/Pākeha (79%).

Materials

Tolerance threshold. Part one of the questionnaire focused on thresholds for leaving a discouraging workplace. In three rotated job scenarios, the participants were asked to report what percentage of discouraging (i) bosses, (ii) peers, and (iii) subordinates, they would tolerate before seriously planning to leave an employer. In order to standardise the measure and reduce social desirability effects, we asked the participants to imagine that the job in question was a general office position within a large organization (see Ayca, Kanungo, & Sinha, 1999; Carr, 2004; Robinson & Clore, 2001). Included in this measure we asked, for each scenario, 'why' they had chosen the threshold they did.

Self-Efficacy. We used the 17-item General Self-Efficacy Scale developed by Sherer, Maddux, Mercandante, Prentice-Dunn, Jacobs, & Rogers (1982). This instrument is scored on a likert scale of 7, ranging from 'very strongly disagree' to 'very strongly agree', with some items reverse scored. The scale has been used before with students in New Zealand (St. George, 1997).

OCEAN. To measure the big five, we chose Goldberg's (1999) International Personality Item Pool (IPIP) measure (<http://ipip.ori/ipip>). This is a 50-item research instrument, derived from an original item pool of 1252 items, and is scored on a likert scale where 1 is 'very inaccurate' and 5 is 'very accurate'. The scale includes some negatively keyed items.

Achievement Motivation. The best-known and most comprehensive measure of achievement motivation is the so-called Lynn Questionnaire (Lynn, 1969). The Achievement Motivation Questionnaire (AMQ) is derived from this original measure, and contains 49 items, reflecting seven factors: Work Ethic; Material Acquisitiveness; Dominance; Excellence; Competitiveness; Status Aspiration; and Mastery (Cassidy & Lynn, 1989). In this research the participants were asked to respond to the questions as a forced choice, Yes or No. Some of the items were reverse scored. Again, this measure has been used before with student populations (Cassidy, 2000).

Social Desirability. As a double precaution against socially desirable responding (in addition to using scenario scales as above), we included the Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding, or BIDR (Version 6 – Form 40, Paulus, 1991). The BIDR measures both impression management and self-deception, and can be used to screen out participants with abnormally high scores on either factor.

Demography. In addition to the standard demographic questions (Participants above), we also asked respondents whether they had actually ever left an organization because of discouragement of their own achievement momentum by other employees.

Procedure

After pilot testing and seeking ethical approval, the survey was conducted in classrooms at Massey University, under conditions of informed consent and confidentiality. Completed questionnaires were returned in a sealed and anonymous envelope to the School of Psychology. Some questionnaires (approx 20) were handed directly to students outside of class on campus, accompanied by the standard pre-briefing Information Sheet.

Statistical Analysis

Our approach to data analysis was broadly speaking exploratory. Given the fact that this is a new and at best emergent field, and particularly so in New Zealand, we employed a combination of Exploratory Factor Analysis, quantitative and qualitative

questions, and post hoc testing for discerning coherent and interpretable patterns of findings within the dataset as a whole. Under such conditions, researchers are often concerned more with detecting possible relationships between variables and keeping open a potentially fruitful and useful research area (Grimm, 1993).

Results

Criterion measure

As regards the three scenarios measuring threshold against negative motivational gravity, the mean threshold rose progressively and significantly from bosses (41%) to peers (49%) ($t = -4.30$, $df = 113$, $p < .01$, 2-tailed) and peers to subordinates (57%) ($t = -3.63$, $df = 113$, $p < .01$, 2-tailed). These increments are what we would expect if the instrument is genuinely sensitive to organisational power (Rundle-Gardiner, 2003). In that same vein, we also found that approximately half of our sample had actually left an organisation due to a perceived abuse of power by supervisors of some kind (for details, Rundle-Gardiner, 2003). A one-way analysis of variance with this factor as an independent variable showed that having experienced this reason for leaving a job (versus not) did not vary significantly with personal threshold for tolerance of negative motivational gravity from supervisors/bosses. Thus the instrument may be somewhat more sensitive to individual differences (and enduring dispositions) than to specific situational experiences like encountering an abusive supervisor. Following Paulus (1991), we used extreme scores on the BIDR (>2 standard deviations above the mean) to screen out cases that may have been

faking good on one or more of the domains of the instrument ($n=13$).

Links between Individual Differences and Thresholds

Exploratory tests of correlation were conducted using Pearson's 'r.' Self-efficacy was not associated with any of the three threshold levels (i.e., motivational gravity from bosses, peers, or subordinates). Similarly, there was an absence of associative links between the IPIP and threshold for negative motivational gravity. Achievement motivation was associated, marginally - with thresholds for gravity from bosses being predicted from scores on the sub-dimension of the subscale Mastery ($F(6,88) = 2.93$, $p < .05$, 18% of variance, default 'enter' regression model).

As a post hoc check of the interconnectedness of our three criterion measures, which all reflect motivational gravity, we ran a test of correlation between each scenario (bosses, peers, subordinates). These three scores were significantly related to each other ($r_{\text{boss/peer}} = .59$, $r_{\text{boss/sub}} = .48$, $r_{\text{peer/sub}} = .50$). Hence, and as a precaution against unwanted noise in our single item measures of motivational gravity, we combined these variables into one composite index, 'sensitivity to gravity'. This tolerance threshold reflects sensitivity to the discouragement of achievement, rather than discouragement in a more general sense. The stronger linkages between this composite variable and our various measures of individual difference are presented in Table 1.

From Table 1, several of the coefficients of correlation have probabilities that border on statistical significance. We have not applied a Bonferroni correction to control for

Table 1. Correlations (Pearson's 'r') between Personality; Achievement Motivation; and Threshold for Gravity

Trait	Instrument	Correlation	2-tail Prob.
Agreeableness	IPIP	-.19	.056
Extraversion		.15	.150
Status	AMQ	.20	.048
Dominance		.20	.052
Mastery		.16	.120
Acquisitiveness		.15	.138
Achievement (total)		.23	.028

Type I error on the grounds that this research is highly exploratory (Grimm, 1993). Table 1 also includes, on the advice of Orpen (1995), a composite measure for achievement motivation, summed over the six factors used (on the advice from Cassidy we dropped the excellence subscale as it was subject to ceiling effects). This measure is moderately linked to threshold tolerance. Overall therefore, Table 1 suggests that individual differences have a marginal link to tolerance of negative motivational gravity.

Work History

When asked whether they had actually left a workplace due to discouragement of achievement from other employees, nine percent of our sample reported having left because of Pull Down from peers, and four percent had left because of Pull Down from Subordinates. But a much larger proportion, 41 percent of participants, had left a workplace already due to negative motivational gravity from bosses (i.e., Push Down). When we split the sample on the basis of the latter variable, and focused only on those participants who had actually left a job, the overall pattern of correlations between variables (as shown in Table 1) did not improve. Thus, whilst motivational gravity might be destructive for the individuals it targets, personality consistently fails to provide clear indicators of either theoretical or actual thresholds (see Appendix, Table i & ii).

Qualitative Data

If reactions to motivational gravity are not particularly predictable from individual differences, what does help to predict them? To answer this question, we can turn to the explanations that individuals gave for the thresholds they reported. Initially, the explanations were inspected across all three scenarios simultaneously by the first author (Rundle-Gardiner) and an independent observer. These observers judged the data to contain four principal themes, which were relatively reliably coded for each scenario (Kappa = .90 for bosses scenario; .88 for peers scenario; and .89 for subordinates scenario). The four themes were labelled Rationalist; Strategist; Environmentalist; and Emotionalist.

The first three of these themes each comprised a focus on problem-based coping. Rationalists for example frequently stated that the threshold they had chosen would be the maximum that would enable them 'still to get the job done'. Strategists too focused on achieving work goals, but tended instead to stress managing the issue, for example by not reacting to (and thereby allowing to ignore) hostility from juniors, and working 'around' envious peers (strategist tactics were most commonly reported in response to the discouraging subordinates scenario). Environmentalism was a more radical form of problem-focused coping, insofar as the threshold was deemed to be the point beyond which a workplace itself would become pointless to work within (for more on this kind of thinking as a way of managing envy at work, Bedeian, 1995). Finally, the theme of emotionalism focused on feeling stressed, unhappy, or depressed, with the most salient underlying concern being threat to mental health and wellbeing.

To sum up, personal and individual explanations for thresholds did include different reasons for 'drawing the line' where it was but, rather than being individual differences per se, these were more like problem-versus emotion-focused orientations (Folkman, Lazarus, & Dunkel-Scheller, 2000). The respondents in our study did not self-report that they would react as they did because they were 'efficacious'/confident, 'open' to new experiences elsewhere, or 'focused on achievement.' Instead, their key themes seemed to be comprised more of different coping skills.

Discussion

Résumé of Findings

The central finding in this exploratory study of the perspective of achievers at work is that reactions to discouragement from others had little to do with individual differences in personality. Central constructs of relevance to motivational gravity, drawn from the leading literature on personality and motivational needs, proved relatively uninformative in predicting variance in thresholds for negative motivational gravity at work. Instead, the participants

themselves chose to emphasise the salience of coping orientations, either problem-focused or emotion-focused. This particular finding had not been anticipated a priori, and some of its emerging implications are discussed below.

Relevance for Theory

In its original (1997) form, motivational gravity theory was arguably more social psychological than being concerned with individual differences. Gravity tends to affect us, as different individuals, more-or-less equally. What matters more perhaps is the *type* of gravity it is, i.e., whether it consists of Push Down or Pull Up, and Push Up or Pull Down. The results of the present study, exploratory though they are, are partly consistent with this suggestion. We did not find solid or clear evidence that individual differences are predictors of thresholds. Although this finding does not permit us to rule out a future role for individual differences, it does nonetheless suggest that the original, situational emphasis of motivational gravity theory was well placed. Post hoc we checked whether the reasons for leaving varied systematically with tolerance threshold, and there was no obvious relationship evident – however the power of our *n* is too low in this study for any further conclusions to be drawn at this stage.

Limitations and Improvements

This is an exploratory, i.e., relatively small-scale study. A larger-scale project might have provided a fuller test of a potential role for individual differences. Our measure of thresholds, too, could be enlarged. Multiple-item measures for each of boss, peer and subordinate discouragement might enable each component of motivational gravity, as in Figure 1, to be tested with less measurement error and noise. Mitigating against these shortfalls however, our constructs were at the forefront of personality theory, and our instruments measuring them shaped up well psychometrically, retaining good factor structure and enabling us to reduce the data to manageable levels. As well, our criterion measure did show sensitivity to organisational power, which was operationally defined in terms of boss/peer/subordinate status.

Of course, personality may still turn out to predict actual turnover, in response to gravity, better than the conative measures we used – but it seems inherently unlikely that a construct which proves less than informative at a self-report level will somehow re-attain predictive power with respect to actual behaviour.

Our findings, highlighting the relevance of emotion- and problem-focused coping, suggested some interesting directions for future research. For example, it would be relevant to examine precisely ‘how’ each of these approaches attempts to cope with negative motivational gravity. Our questionnaire did not address this relatively behavioural issue, choosing instead to focus on the motivational question of ‘why’ the individual drew the line (threshold) where they did. A further interesting possibility would be to explore whether, and how, the skills-based approach found in Folkman et al (2000) is applicable to the exertion of, and responses to, a motivational gravity that is ‘positive’ in kind. For example, does encouragement ever tend to foster feelings of humility, and/or motives to perform at-task more fervently and directly?

A further question that is raised indirectly by this kind of research is, *How*, precisely, are achieving people pulled and pushed down? For example, is it just a lack of support that constitutes demotivation, as the behaviourist concept of extinction for instance implies? Alternatively, perhaps gravity becomes far more pointed, and influential, when it comprises a more active and proactive form of career sabotage by jealous and envious rivals? Questions of valence like this can be argued to be particularly important directions for new research, on the motivational gravity concept, to follow (Afro-centric Alliance, 2003).

Implications

A tentative study of this kind has to be especially careful about drawing definite implications for the world of practice. Nonetheless, our qualitative data are suggestive of at least one alternative literature that may prove useful for developing a psychology of reactions to tall poppy syndromes at work. The literature on skills in general, and life skills in particular, is gaining currency in

the world of work. The findings in this study are broadly consistent with that developing interest – and of possibly extending it to help individuals to deal with negative motivational gravity. Coping with such negativity can take different forms, and the most effective management of negative gravity may depend more on one than on the other. Thus coaches may begin to think about teaching these skills, and learning how they apply under different situational contingencies.

Conclusion

This study marks a modest beginning towards charting a better understanding of how achievers react to attempts to slow them down, and how best to manage those reactions for greater personal and organisational efficaciousness. Whilst traditional individual differences might still play some kind of role in this emerging field, their relative importance could in the end be minimal. As we suggested at the outset of the paper, each of the major personality traits can push us in either direction, towards approach or avoidance of negative gravity fields. Equivocal valences like this create space for other factors to intervene and make systematic differences to what people do when faced with discouragement at work. In the final analysis therefore, skills in general, and the coaching of skills in particular, may be a more promising avenue to pursue.

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Address for correspondence:

Anne Rundle-Gardiner
 School of Psychology/Te Kura
 Hinengaro Tangata
 Massey University, Albany
 PB 102 904, North Shore MSC
 Auckland, New Zealand/Aotearoa
 Email: idco@xtra.co.nz

APPENDIX A: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations (continues on page 156)

Table i Descriptive Statistics for General Self-efficacy, Achievement Motivation, Personality and Threshold for Gravity

Instrument	Trait	No. of Items	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev	Alpha
GSE	GSE	17	100	60	114	86.8	11.6	0.86
AMQ	WE	5	100	0	5	3.9	1.4	0.69
	ACQ	5	97	0	5	2.5	1.7	0.69
	DOM	5	99	0	5	3.4	1.6	0.72
	COM	5	98	0	5	1.6	1.4	0.67
	SA	5	97	0	5	3.7	1.5	0.73
	MA	3	97	0	3	1.6	1.2	0.55
IPIP	EXTRA	10	99	16	49	34.2	6.8	0.87
	AGREE	8	100	20	40	33.4	4.1	0.79
	CONSC	9	99	19	43	31.3	5.3	0.77
	NEUR	10	99	11	50	31.3	7.2	0.87
	OPEN	9	100	20	45	34.2	5.2	0.81
Threshold for Gravity	Boss %	1	101	0	95	40.2	22.6	N/A
	Peer %	1	101	0	95	47.6	24.3	N/A
	Sub %	1	101	0	100	56.0	26.0	N/A

Legend: [For Tables i and ii]

GSE = General Self-Efficacy
 WE = Work Ethic
 ACQ = Acquisitiveness
 DOM = Dominance
 SA = Status Aspiration
 MA = Mastery
 EXTRA = Extraversion
 AGREE = Agreeableness

CONS = Conscientiousness
 NEUR = Neuroticism
 OPEN = Openness to experience
 Boss % = proportion of discouraging bosses tolerated before deciding to quit a job
 Peer % = proportion of discouraging peers tolerated before deciding to quit a job
 Sub % = proportion of discouraging subordinates tolerated before deciding to quit a job

Table ii. Correlations (Pearson's 'r') between General Self-efficacy, Achievement Motivation, Personality and Threshold for Gravity

Scale	Trait		GSE	WE	ACQ	DOM	COM	SA	MA	EXTRA	AGREE	CONS	NEUR	OPEN	Boss	Peer	Sub %	
GSE	GSE	Correlation	1.000															
		Sig. (2-tail)	.															
		Covariance	134.80															
		N	100															
AMQ	WE	Correlation	0.396**	1.000														
		Sig. (2-tail)	0.000															
		Covariance	6.50	1.97														
		N	99	100														
	ACQ	Correlation	-0.001	0.057	1.000													
		Sig. (2-tail)	0.992	0.579														
		Covariance	-0.02	0.13	2.75													
		N	96	97	97													
	DOM	Correlation	0.339**	0.175	0.189	1.000												
		Sig. (2-tail)	0.001	0.085	0.064													
		Covariance	6.11	0.37	0.50	2.52												
		N	98	98	97	99												
COM	Correlation	-0.079	0.001	0.213*	0.184	1.000												
	Sig. (2-tail)	0.441	0.995	0.038	0.072													
	Covariance	-1.28	0.00	0.50	0.40	2.01												
	N	97	97	95	97	98												
SA	Correlation	0.040	0.003	0.386**	0.430**	0.178	1.000											
	Sig. (2-tail)	0.699	0.979	0.000	0.000	0.087												
	Covariance	0.66	0.01	0.94	1.01	0.36	2.16											
	N	96	96	94	95	94	97											
MA	Correlation	0.294**	0.292**	0.084	0.144	-0.093	0.136	1.000										
	Sig. (2-tail)	0.004	0.004	0.421	0.162	0.372	0.194											
	Covariance	4.20	0.51	0.17	0.29	-0.16	0.25	1.54										
	N	96	96	94	96	94	93	97										
IPIP	EXTRA	Correlation	0.257*	0.053	0.255*	0.526**	0.011	0.390**	0.153	1.000								
		Sig. (2-tail)	0.010	0.606	0.013	0.000	0.919	0.000	0.139									
		Covariance	20.41	0.50	2.88	5.65	0.10	3.92	1.28	45.62								
		N	98	98	95	97	96	95	95	99								
	AGREE	Correlation	0.064	0.018	-0.281**	-0.067	-0.253*	-0.010	0.080	0.221*	1.000							
		Sig. (2-tail)	0.527	0.860	0.006	0.511	0.013	0.921	0.436	0.029								
		Covariance	3.08	0.10	-1.95	-0.44	-1.47	-0.06	0.41	6.14	16.75							
		N	99	99	96	98	97	96	96	98	100							
	CONS	Correlation	0.271**	0.223*	-0.074	0.263**	0.204*	-0.066	0.016	0.117	0.004	1.000						
		Sig. (2-tail)	0.007	0.027	0.474	0.009	0.047	0.526	0.877	0.254	0.972							
		Covariance	16.50	1.67	-0.65	2.18	1.52	-0.53	0.11	4.23	0.08	28.20						
		N	98	98	95	97	96	95	96	97	98	99						
NEUR	Correlation	0.445**	0.035	-0.003	0.164	-0.135	0.050	0.065	0.138	-0.084	0.022	1.000						
	Sig. (2-tail)	0.000	0.735	0.978	0.108	0.188	0.631	0.530	0.177	0.409	0.832							
	Covariance	37.72	0.35	-0.03	1.91	-1.40	0.54	0.58	6.77	-2.53	0.84	52.38						
	N	98	98	95	97	96	95	95	98	98	97	99						
OPEN	Correlation	0.304**	0.099	0.064	0.414**	0.163	0.282**	0.049	0.331**	0.193	0.145	0.017	1.000					
	Sig. (2-tail)	0.002	0.328	0.535	0.000	0.110	0.005	0.634	0.001	0.056	0.153	0.870						
	Covariance	18.26	0.71	0.55	3.36	1.20	2.19	0.31	11.26	4.13	4.06	0.63	27.00					
	N	99	99	96	98	97	96	96	98	99	98	98	100					
Threshold For Gravity	Boss %	Correlation	-0.035	0.103	0.159	0.158	0.023	0.130	-0.062	0.050	-0.211*	0.010	0.009	0.100	1.000			
		Sig. (2-tail)	0.726	0.307	0.119	0.118	0.820	0.203	0.547	0.622	0.035	0.920	0.928	0.322				
		Covariance	-9.29	3.26	5.92	5.63	0.74	4.36	-1.67	7.69	-19.54	1.20	1.49	11.78	508.69			
		N	100	100	97	99	98	97	97	99	100	99	99	100	101			
	Peer %	Correlation	0.122	0.107	0.123	0.077	0.102	0.164	0.122	0.099	-0.148	-0.079	0.102	0.050	0.590**	1.000		
		Sig. (2-tail)	0.226	0.287	0.231	0.448	0.320	0.108	0.233	0.328	0.141	0.436	0.314	0.624	0.000			
		Covariance	34.53	3.66	4.86	2.95	3.49	5.86	3.63	16.25	-14.78	-10.08	18.03	6.27	322.61	588.31		
		N	100	100	97	99	98	97	97	99	100	99	99	100	101	101		
	Sub %	Correlation	0.068	0.071	0.097	0.241*	0.082	0.201*	0.299**	0.202*	-0.124	0.000	0.048	0.081	0.480**	0.501**	1.000	
		Sig. (2-tail)	0.503	0.486	0.344	0.016	0.420	0.049	0.003	0.045	0.218	0.999	0.640	0.426	0.000	0.000		
		Covariance	20.44	2.57	4.16	9.88	3.01	7.77	9.46	35.67	-13.23	0.02	8.94	10.91	281.24	315.55	675.16	
		N	100	100	97	99	98	97	97	99	100	99	99	100	101	101	101	

** = Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)
 * = Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)