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BEHAVIORAL TENDENCIES OF HIGH FEAR OF FAILURE INDIVIDUALS IN VARIABLE SITUATIONAL CONDITIONS

by

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THE CITY UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK

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Chapter 1: Introduction

In contemporary Western society, nearly everyone has the experience of choosing a job. This decision process reflects one's motivation, knowledge, personality, and ability (Holland, 1973, 1985). As with other human decision- making processes, job choice is not merely a rational path for self-fulfillment. It needs to be considered in the context of the possibly irrational, debilitating, and anxiety-producing personality characteristics of the individual making the choice.

In this study, I examine the effects of one such anxiety-generating variable, namely fear of failure, on decisions made concerning choice of a job or choice of a career path.

McClelland, Atkinson, Clark and Lowell (1953) described fear of failure as an avoidant motive which is aroused by debilitating anxiety. Individuals in whom this motive is strong attach painful consequences to the experience of failure. They can therefore be expected to try to avoid situations in which they perceive that failure, for which they may be blamed, is likely. Individuals may vary in the extent to which they possess this characteristic, with some individuals experiencing more anxiety than others (Atkinson, 1958).

How a high fear-of-failure (FOF) individual reacts depends on the situation. Major theoretical efforts in this area by Atkinson, (1958, 1964) and Birney, Burdick, and Teevan (1969) suggested that behavioral differences between high and low FOF individuals become particularly apparent in achievement situations. That is, factors in the achievement situation itself are responsible for arousing the fear motivation, which is manifested in the specific behavioral tendencies of the individual.

Since it is multidimensional, an achievement situation can be defined or operationalized in a variety of ways. In laboratory and field studies in the area of fear of failure, however, researchers have usually operationalized achievement situations in a unidimensional manner. These operationalizations include problem-solving (Geen, 1985), career-planning (Saltoun, 1980), and participating in an experiment (Feij, 1975). Achievement situations such as test-taking, however, may have many definitions. For example, the test could be a comprehensive exam of a doctoral student or a final exam in a three-credit course for an undergraduate student; the test could determine 100% of the final class grade of the students taking it, or only 20% of that grade.

A study by Geen (1985) examined different types of evaluation processes in problem-solving situations. While

subjects worked alone on a task, they were either observed passively or in the presence of an evaluator. Differences in levels of fear of failure were found to be related to changes in the evaluation aspect of the situation. It is likely, though, that behavioral tendencies are also contingent on situation-specific variables that cause the achievement situation to be more or less fear-arousing.

In the achievement-oriented culture of the Western World, many situations that are achievement-related occur in organizational settings. It is therefore important for organizations to be able to predict the behavior of individuals with specific personality dispositions in these situations. Understanding such behavior and its origins might also help work organizations control situational conditions and create an environment that enables employees to feel competent and perform without threat. At the same time, it is also important that individuals in the work force understand their own reactions to these situations. The ability to characterize the setting that best suits their personality characteristics, attitudes and needs will allow them to perform at their best.

In the present study, I attempt to demonstrate that in order to understand the behavior of high FOF individuals in an achievement situation, one must utilize

a contingency model that takes into account different aspects of the situation in which the behavior occurs. Furthermore, I argue that motivation alone is not a good predictor of behavior. On the contrary, in certain situations, motivation in and of itself cannot serve as a predictor at all.

This study adopts a mechanistic interaction approach (Weiss & Adler, 1984). Interactionism views the behavior of individuals as a product of both personal characteristics and situational factors (Blass, 1991). Early proponents of this theory include Lewin (1936) and Allport (1937), who said that "traits are often aroused in one type of situation and not in another" (1937, p. 331). Historically, interactionist approaches were seen as mediating the conflict between trait theories and behavioral theories. Today, they are considered to represent the resolution of this debate, and are widely accepted among personality and social psychologists (Blass, 1984). From the interactionist perspective, both the person's behavioral tendencies and the situation play a role in the resultant behavior (Schneider, 1983); in addition, the interaction of these variables accounts for most of the variance in the resultant behavior. For example, Korman (1970) maintained that people tend to

avoid certain situations that are incompatible with their perceived personality characteristics.

In this study, I attempt to show that an individual's behavior can be predicted from the expected interaction of personality characteristics and situational factors. Additionally, using the model I developed, I argue that defensive reactions, which characterize fear-arousal in high FOF individuals in achievement situations, can be altered by changing the extent of fear-arousing conditions. Furthermore, I claim that arousal conditions can be set in such a way that the defensive reaction will not appear at all.

The model is developed and tested with an orientation towards occupational settings. Review of the literature reveals that the number of studies addressing the behavior of FOF individuals in occupational settings is rather limited. Even though a vast amount of research describes the behavior of high vs. low FOF personalities in different laboratory settings, the behavior of individuals in work organizations has rarely been studied in this context. Most studies that examined fear of failure in work environments concentrated mainly on the individual in the work setting, neglecting the environment and its possible effects. Such research has generally investigated vocational behaviors (Stevens, 1986) such as occupational

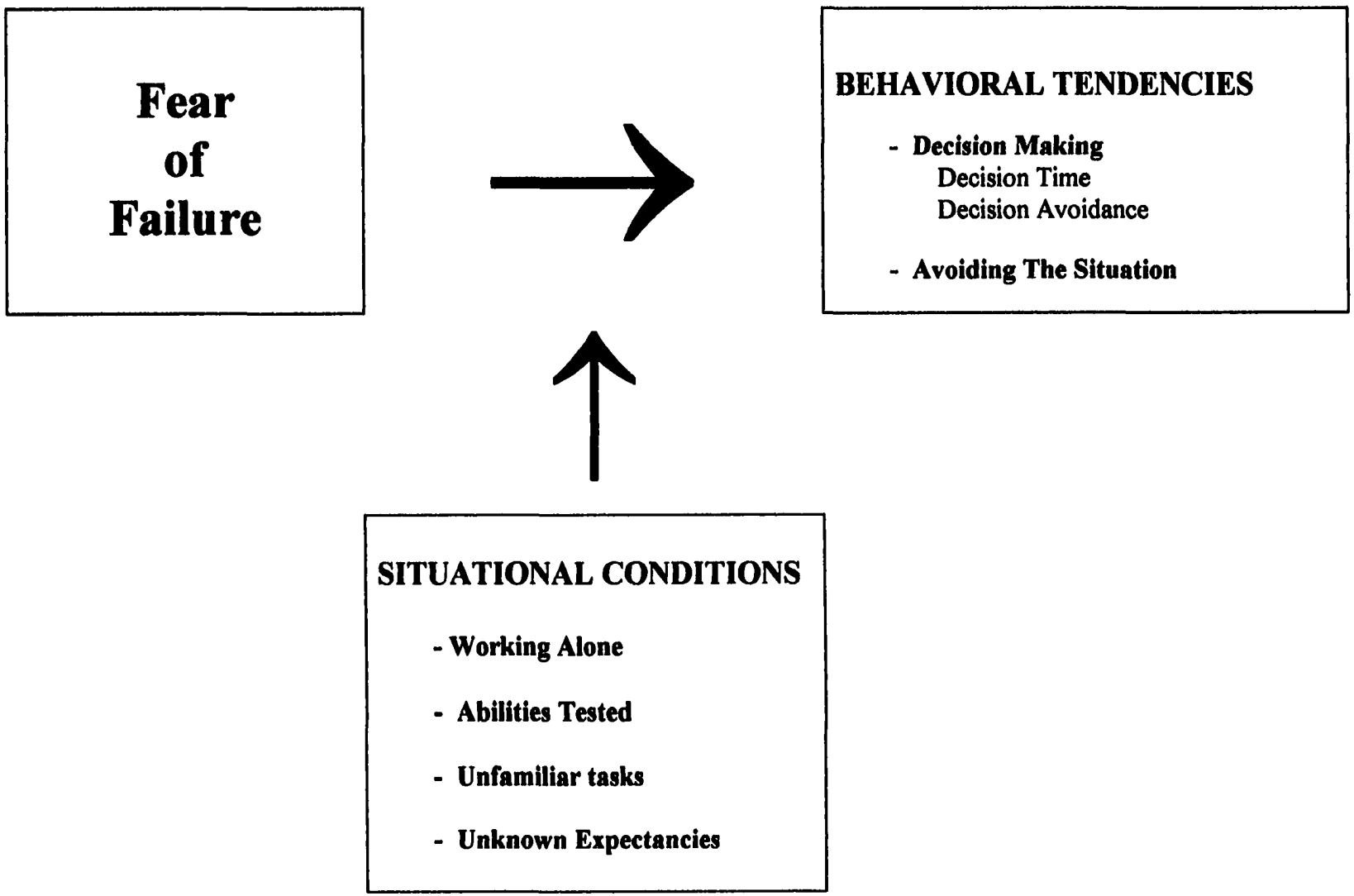
choice (Burnstein, 1963; Mahone, 1960; Morris, 1966; Tseng & Carter, 1970) or career-planning (Saltoun, 1980; Trope, 1975) by high vs. low FOF individuals. The studies generally concluded that high FOF individuals tended to choose unrealistic or less prestigious occupations, and are more willing to settle for a less satisfying occupation. These individuals were also less vocationally mature and tended to avoid occupations with at least an intermediate degree of risk. Such research is limited in that most of the subjects were students, and there was no connection to the work setting. Rothblum (1990) stated that the reactions of adults in work settings were likely to be different than those of students and should therefore be studied separately.

The model I developed (Figure 1) predicts that individuals' behavioral tendencies will result from the interaction between their level of fear of failure and certain characteristics of the job they are expected to perform.

In order to test this model, an achievement scenario with varied situational conditions is developed. These conditions are derived from descriptions in empirical literature relating to fear of failure and will be presented in job simulations. The differences in the

reaction tendencies of high vs. low FOF individuals to these situational conditions is then examined.

Figure 1: The model



Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Fear of Failure

The concept of fear of failure has its roots in studies of level of aspiration. It started with Hoppe (1930) and Dembo (1931) who studied the effect of level of aspiration on feelings of success and failure. However, individual differences in setting the level of aspiration were taken into account only later by Hausmann (1933) and Frank (1935, 1938) who supported the theory using questionnaire data, and by Gardner (1940). These studies demonstrated that some individuals had a tendency to set a low level of aspiration after an experience of failure, and they concluded that these individuals were afraid of failure.

McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, and Lowell (1953) took the second major step toward the development of a theory of fear of failure. They investigated the achievement motive and realized that some subjects reacted to arousal treatments with a fear of failure. In their view, FOF individuals were low achievers who, contrary to high achievers, were motivated to avoid achievement-related situations. Fear of failure was treated in those early studies as a personality dimension which negatively correlates with hope of success (McClelland, Atkinson,

Clark & Lowell, 1953). The two dimensions, fear of failure and hope of success, were considered opposites on a unidimensional continuum. It was suggested that hope of success is an approach- and growth-type motive, involving anticipation of success and reward, while fear of failure is an avoidance- and deficiency-type motive involving anticipation of failure and punishment.

Atkinson (1958) and later Birney et al. (1969) worked to refine the concept of fear of failure. They viewed fear of failure as being independent of achievement motivation and created different tools to measure each of the constructs. Their studies also presented an extensive review of research in the area using these measurements. Their main assertion was that fear of failure and need for achievement are two separate measurements and that fear of failure does not wholly depend on nAch theory (Birney et al. 1969). They based their claim on earlier studies which demonstrated that individuals with high need for achievement could also have intense fear of failure (Gould, 1939) and cn studies in which researchers concluded the existence of two different achievement motivations (Atkinson, 1953; McClelland & Liberman, 1949; McClelland, 1951).

Atkinson viewed fear of failure as a disposition which, due to expectations of penalty of pain from the

environment, inhibits one's striving for achievement. Atkinson assumed that the motive to achieve success and the motive to avoid failure are both aroused when the individual is confronted with an achievement task. Furthermore, the individual's behavior is a function of the difference between the tendency to approach success and the tendency to avoid failure. Individuals whose motive to achieve success exceeds their motive to avoid failure are said to have achievement-oriented personalities, whereas, if the opposite is true, they are said to have failure-threatened personalities.

Birney et al. (1969) developed a theory and a measurement based on this conceptualization. Birney, Burdick, and Teevan's fear of failure was not entirely independent of Atkinson's; however, they advocated the separation of the two concepts and recommended treating hope of success and fear of failure as two independent dispositions. They based their conceptualization on earlier studies of level of aspiration (Hausmann, 1933; Sears, 1940; Sears, 1941) and later studies which concluded the existence of different kinds of achievement motivations (Cooper & Howell, 1961; McClelland, 1951).

Empirical investigations of fear of failure have covered a variety of behaviors that are affected by, or correlated with, the level of this personality

characteristic in the individual. Researchers have found, mainly in general laboratory settings, a wide range of reactions that are significantly correlated with the individual's level of fear of failure. Some of these studies have covered behaviors like task or test performance (Atkinson, 1957; Geen, 1985; Griffore, 1977; Karabenick & Marshall, 1974; Karabenick, Marshall, & Karabenick, 1976), risk-taking (Atkinson, 1957; Hancock & Teevan, 1964; Lerch, 1977), volunteering for public achievement situations (Teevan & Yalof, 1979; Teevan & Greenfeld, 1985), type A behaviors (Gastorf & Teevan, 1980; Houston & Kelly, 1987), drinking (Johnson, 1989), persistency (Teevan, Zarrillo, & Greenfeld, 1983), response-withholding (Geen, 1985), and goal-setting (Atkinson, Bastian, Earl, & Litwin, 1960). The results of these studies are presented in Table 1. These studies provide additional support for the earlier suggestions that fear of failure should be thought of as an independent construct when investigating human behavior. Generally, the authors of these studies asserted that high FOF individuals behave differently than low FOF individuals in certain situations. Whenever high FOF individuals expect a failure that can be attributed to them, they tend to maneuver to avoid that situation or to avoid the attribution of failure.

The literature describes the high FOF individual as a person who perceives the environment to be hostile and who is overly concerned with its reaction in case of failure. Birney et al. (1969) described three different fears. The first fear is fear of loss in self-estimation. Individuals with this fear are concerned that they have overestimated their abilities. The other two fears, fear of punishment and fear of loss of social value, are both anxieties about negative reactions from the environment. Therefore, the individual with high levels of these fears is expected to scan a given situation and respond to cues about failure and its ramifications.

In conceptualizing his theory, Atkinson developed a theoretical treatment of achievement motivation that stresses the importance of both interpersonal and situational factors in determining the behavior of individuals in any achievement situation. According to Atkinson, strength of performance in a situation is a consequence of the individual's motivation, which is the product of both the individual's motive strength and his or her perception of the situational variables. The perceived situational variables serve as an interpersonal component in the theory. These variables are connected to the beliefs of the individual concerning expected interactions with the environment in case of failure. This

component is therefore internal to individuals and solely determined by them according to their perception of the environment and their perception of the situation in which they are expected to act. Birney et al. (1969) also acknowledged the primary importance of the interpersonal factor. They claimed that the high FOF individual "may well be a person who is simply fearful of losing value in the eyes of others" (1969, p. 4). They described the fear of failure as "fear of being a failure in the eyes of others according to their standards" (1969, p. 172).

In the same way, Dapra, Zarrillo, Carlson, and Teevan (1985) concluded that for the individual who fears failure, concern with the opinion of others, the need to submit in order to gain approval, and the fear of disapproval have a much greater influence than the individual's desire for power. They claimed that such an individual's fear of responsibility may well stem from a fear of social disapproval for personal actions and suggested that such an individual will refrain from taking an initiative out of concern for peer opinion.

The second component of the theory is the situational factors. This component contains a combination of internal and external variables: variables that depend on perceptual processes that are internal to the individual and variables that are external to the individual and are

determined solely by the environment. The external variables, although determined by the environment, are subject to the perceptual evaluations of the individual.

Atkinson's model includes two situational factors central to determining the strength of FOF motivation. The first is the individual's expectations of success or failure at the task at hand. Atkinson claimed that the relative frequency of success or failure in similar situations in the past provides the chief basis for estimating the likelihood of success in the immediate situation. Moreover, to the extent that individuals have experienced success or failure in similar past situations, they should perceive any task confronting them to be more or less difficult - the higher the perceived probability of success, the less difficult the task; the lower the perceived probability of success, the more difficult the task. The second situational factor is termed "incentive value" and is described as the degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction that the individual attaches to the achievement or non-achievement of a particular goal.

Atkinson's situational factors are both determined by the individual according to his or her perception of the situation, based on past experiences and attitudes. Atkinson, even when dealing with situational factors, concentrates on the internal dynamic of the process. He

concentrates on the experience of failure isolated from the external situation in which it is experienced. On the other hand, Birney, Burdick and Teevan's situational inputs are a combination of external factors which are determined by others and situational factors that are internal to and determined by the individual. The internal factors are the attached probability of outcome and the expected outcome, which include social evaluation and nonego consequences. The external factors are the perceived task requirements, which include ability, experience, and effort. These external factors determine how the design of the situation can promote or diminish the arousal of fear. Design factors can be used by the individual when searching for failure cues in the environment. While they do not necessarily affect the success or failure itself, they can affect the amount of fear attached to an expected failure.

What I claim in this study is that the perception of the conditions of the situation are important for determining the subsequent behavior and that an achievement situation in and of itself is not enough to differentiate between the behaviors of high vs. low FOF individuals. It is the perception of the specific characteristics of the situation which determine the differences between the behaviors. In this study I

concentrate on the expected interaction between external and internal factors, the latter being those well-studied fears of failure, and the former, the perception of those situational elements which constitute the threat in an achievement situation. I assume that the behavior of the individual is determined by the interaction between the perceived factors in the environment and forces in the individual. I attempt to identify situational conditions that affect the failure perception of the high FOF individuals. Then I investigate how these perceptions, in turn, affect the behavioral tendencies of these individuals, as opposed to the behavioral tendencies of low FOF individuals.

In the next chapter I present various situations that, in previous investigations and theoretical developments, were shown to affect the perception of failure or the arousal of fears in the high FOF individual. I then select four treatments to be used in this study and manipulate them with varying degrees of threat, ranging from low threat to high threat.

2.2 Situational Conditions

McClelland (1961, 1962), in his theoretical developments of achievement motivation theory, specified situational conditions under which the motivation of high nAch individuals tends to increase. He noted three conditions: situations in which the individual can take personal responsibility, situations with intermediate levels of difficulty and risk, and situations in which there is clear and unambiguous feedback. On the other hand, as was previously claimed, theoretical developments of the fear of failure concept tend to neglect the specific situational conditions under which this motive could be expected to increase. In empirical investigations of fear of failure, the situation which is expected to arouse the fear motivation is usually generically described as an achievement situation, and operationalized as test-taking, school-attending, problem- or task-solving, etc. For example, Fiej (1975) operationalized achievement situations as situations in which the individual is evaluated, such as when he or she takes examinations or tests. Some researchers simply operationalize it as an achievement task. Teevan (1963, cited in Birney et al, 1969, p. 127) described the task for the participants as "an achievement task in which you

will have the chance to find out how good you are at throwing darts." Saltoun (1980) used a bogus IQ test without any achievement-oriented instructions, and Teevan and Smith (1975) gave participants a task, instructing them that it was important for them to do their best on the task.

In some empirical investigations researchers did include a situational condition in their investigation of fear of failure. Harris, Snyder, Higgins, and Schrag (1986) used either high or low evaluative conditions in the process of test-taking or while working on a specific task as situational conditions which are expected to correlate with the reaction of high FOF individuals. Geen (1985) required participants to perform a difficult anagrams task either alone, while being passively observed, or in the presence of an experimenter who both observed and evaluated the subjects' performance. Karabenick and Marshall (1974) varied the type of opponent against which a task was performed: male, female, or no opponent. Studying the situational preferences of high FOF individuals, Britt and Teevan (1989) concluded that high FOF individuals would prefer working for companies where advancement is gradual and where responsibility is less individual.

The literature includes descriptions of different situational conditions under which the high FOF individual will tend to feel more or less comfortable. That is, situations are described in which the high FOF individual is more or less likely to sense failure cues in the environment which warrant a self-protective reaction. Atkinson and Feather (1966) defined the motivation-arousing situation for the high FOF individual as a situation in which there is uncertainty about the outcome. Birney et al. (1969), on the other hand, presented several examples of situations which demonstrated the effect of the situational conditions on the arousal of fear of failure. In such situations, there was an increased likelihood that the person could fail or that, in case of failure, the individual could be blamed for it. According to the studies they presented in their book, high FOF individuals prefer situations where they perform within incomparable groups, situations where they work on easy or difficult tasks, situations where they have privacy, or situations where they work on a task with low achievement standards. They also prefer situations with imprecise and unreliable performance measures, situations with vague achievement standards, situations where they do not have responsibility for the results and situations that are

considered "practice" and "games", rather than the "real thing".

Overall, the picture presented is of situational conditions in which individuals high in FOF perceive, to a greater or a lesser extent, the threat that they will suffer in case of failure (Birney et al. 1969; Britt & Teevan, 1989; Teevan & Hartsough, 1963). Individuals who are threatened by exposure of their ability level would be expected to prefer not to make a public display of their ability. A person afraid of being punished for a failure would be expected to prefer a task with low achievement standards as a way of increasing the chance of performing successfully and thereby avoiding punishment. We would also expect high FOF individuals to prefer imprecise and unreliable performance measures, since when an objective measure is used as an indicator of the underlying skill, they run the risk of discovering that they are less able than they had previously thought. In areas where the measure of performance is ambiguous, the individual is able to maintain a satisfying self-evaluation.

Following these theoretical and empirical developments, four situational conditions were chosen for testing in this study. These situations are based on conclusions drawn from the survey of research results presented by Birney, Burdick and Teevan (1969):

(1) Britt and Teevan (1989) showed that high FOF individuals feel less threatened working as part of a team than when working alone on a task. When working with a team, a person does not have to take individual responsibility for the results. Because individual efforts cannot be isolated from the group effort, there is no risk of individual performance being evaluated and abilities being judged poorer than previously thought. Thus, working alone on a task would be perceived as possibly threatening in terms of having abilities tested, while working with a group would decrease the threat and allow the individual to feel less vulnerable, even in an achievement situation.

(2) High FOF individuals prefer to work on tasks with which they are already very familiar. Working on an unfamiliar task again exposes such individuals to the risk of discovering that their abilities are poorer than they had thought. On the other hand, while working on a familiar task, there is no threat of self-devaluation, since the task was performed and evaluated before, and abilities are well-known to both the individual and to others in the environment.

(3) Another preference of high FOF individuals is working in an environment where they know exactly what is expected of them. When individuals know what is expected of them, they can work hard to attain the standards;

however, when expectancies are not clear, individuals are left without strategies to avoid the threat of failure and therefore run the risk of failing and showing their abilities to be lacking.

(4) The last situational condition to be dealt with here is a situation where FOF individuals face a new "audience" which will necessarily evaluate them. We would expect individuals who are fearful of having their abilities tested and their self-estimate possibly lowered to feel less threatened in a situation where the "audience" knows their abilities and where the FOF individuals would not expect to be evaluated again.

Thus, the four situational conditions which function as threatening conditions for high FOF individuals are: working alone on a task, working on an unfamiliar task, working where expectancies are not known, and working with a new "audience" that will evaluate their abilities. When high FOF individuals encounter a situation where they recognize one of these threatening conditicns they are expected to use a behavioral strategy that will protect them from the threat in the situation. These threatening conditions are expected to affect the individual in a cumulative way. A combination of these conditions in the situation is expected to pose an increasing threat of failure and therefore to affect the tendency to use

protective behaviors. On the other hand, given proper conditions (that is, situations where the conditions do not pose any threat to self-value), we would expect the high FOF individual to feel more comfortable and therefore not to resort to any protective strategies.

In the next chapter, I describe the protective behaviors found to be commonly used by high FOF individuals in failure-threatening situations. I then study how some of these behaviors are used when a threat is perceived in a situation. I also argue that the use of these behavioral strategies increases cumulatively as the threat in the environment increases.

2.3 Behavioral tendencies

When high FOF individuals encounter achievement situations, their fears drive them to try to protect themselves from the various painful effects of expected failure. For example, Atkinson (1953) showed that individuals with high fear of failure tend to set themselves unrealistic, defensive goals. By aspiring to unchallenging goals, the high FOF individual avoids failure due to the ease of the task. On the other hand, by setting extremely demanding goals, the individual avoids criticism by blaming potential failure on the difficulty of the task.

High FOF individuals can use several different strategies to avoid the failure experience: they can forget tasks which they failed to complete (Atkinson, 1953; Mischell, Ebbesen, & Zeiss, 1976; Moot, Teevan, & Greenfeld, 1988; Reitman, 1961), attribute performance responsibility to external sources (Hunt & Schroder, 1958; Teevan & Fischer, 1966), choose extremely high or extremely low levels of difficulty so that effort is irrelevant to performance (Atkinson, 1953; Hancock & Teevan, 1964), choose tasks which yield the least amount of information about ability level (Trope, 1975), devalue the importance of the task (Teevan & Thomas, 1964), argue that the performance is an inadequate indicator of the

underlying skill (Birney et al, 1969) or avoid the task (Feij, 1975).

Three defensive behaviors are studied here as the three dependent variables of the model. The three represent variations of reactions to an aroused fear, and it is hypothesized that they are affected by the level of fear of failure in the individual.

When faced with an achievement situation, the first thing the individual must do is decide upon a behavioral reaction. In this study, I investigate and compare the processes of decision-making in high and low FOF individuals, and the effects of the different situational conditions presented above on both the process of decision-making and the actual decision. Three variables are studied here; the first relates to the decision itself and the other two relate to the process of making the decision.

2.3.1 Decision Product

The investigation of the first variable - the actual decision made - will focus on the decision to avoid a situation. Studies which deal with fear of failure in achievement situations are mainly concerned with its effect on performance. Researchers have claimed that if the individual can afford to leave the field, the

resulting behavior is predictable; however, if he or she is forced to remain in a competitive achievement situation, the behavioral reactions are varied. In this case, it is hard to predict which path the individual will choose. However, the predicted behavioral reaction of a majority of high FOF individuals - protecting themselves by avoiding the situation - is not dealt with. Researchers have dealt mainly with situations where the person is forced to choose among behavioral possibilities once within the achievement situation. Totally neglected is the option of choosing to avoid the situation, which is manifested by simply rejecting the opportunity to enter the situation.

Atkinson (1958, 1964) described fear of failure as an avoidance motive. Birney, Burdick and Teevan (1969) claimed that, in an achievement situation, the first decision that a person must make is whether to get involved in the situation or to avoid it completely . The high FOF person is inclined to avoid failure. Since as long as one does not participate, one cannot fail, such a person would tend to avoid the situation (the FOF person is often described as achievement avoidant). The best way to protect what one believes is not to have it tested.

The individual who is afraid of failure is expected, in an achievement situation, to behave in a way which will

enable escape from the failure experience. Given the opportunity to quit an activity that entails evaluation of performance, the FOF individual will do so with little hesitation (Atkinson and Feather, 1966). Remaining consistent with their perception of the environment as hostile, such individuals are expected to try to avoid any situations which would put them in the position of being evaluated by others in the environment. In this study I will investigate the tendencies of high vs. low FOF individuals to decide to avoid situations in which the conditions increase the threat of a painful outcome in case of failure.

When offered a task to perform, the more fearful person can either perform the task or avoid it altogether. When high FOF individuals are presented with achievement situations in which the conditions accommodate their fears, we do not expect any significant differences between their behavioral tendencies and the behavioral tendencies of low FOF individuals:

Hypothesis 1a: There will be no significant differences between the tendency of high FOF vs. low FOF individuals to decline to enter a situation which contains no threat conditions.

However, when a threat condition is introduced into the situation, high FOF individuals will tend more to

protect themselves by choosing to avoid the situation: [Here the situational conditions will be tested separately.]

Hypothesis 1b: High FOF individuals will tend significantly more than low FOF individuals to decline to enter a situation in which the individual will be required to work alone.

Hypothesis 1c: High FOF individuals will tend significantly more than low FOF individuals to decline to enter a situation in which the individual will be required to work on an unfamiliar task.

Hypothesis 1d: High FOF individuals will tend significantly more than low FOF individuals to decline to enter a situation in which they will be required to have their abilities tested.

Hypothesis 1e: High FOF individuals will tend significantly more than low FOF individuals to decline to enter a situation in which the expectancies are not known.

In addition, the cumulative effect will be presented here. In this hypothesis, individuals' scores on one situation (low-threat situation) will be compared to their scores on other situations (high threat situations):

hypothesis 1f: High FOF individuals will tend significantly more to decline to enter a situation which contains four threat

conditions than a situation which contains only one threat condition.

2.3.2 Decision process

Studies on the effects of personality on decision-making processes and on the product of this process are very scant (Hunt, Krzystofiak, Meindl, & Yousry, 1989); however, its importance has been acknowledged (Taylor, 1984). Janis and Mann (1977) claimed that one way individuals can protect themselves from making decisions which they expect will have a painful result is to avoid making the decision. Another way they expect people to defend themselves is by procrastinating about making the decision.

Procrastination is treated in the literature as a self-defeating irrational behavior (Burka & Yuen, 1983; Ellis & Knaus, 1977). Since fear of failure is considered to be an avoidant motive that could lead individuals to various kinds of self-defeating behaviors (Korman, 1977), procrastination is expected to be one of the behavioral manifestations of fear of failure(Schoouwenburg, 1995).

Janis and Mann (1977) predicted that a decisional conflict ("simultaneous opposing tendencies within the individual to accept and reject a given course of action" p. 52) would result in hesitation and vacillation. Thus, their theory suggests two possible courses of action,

among other reactions, which are relevant here: taking a longer time to make the decision, or trying to avoid making the decision.

2.3.2.1 Decision time

High FOF individuals were found to be indecisive and very cautious in their decision-making (Flett, Hewitt, Blankstein, & Mosher, 1991; Rothblum, Solomon, & Murkami, 1986; Solomon & Rothblum, 1984). Research in the area of procrastination indicates that procrastination is mainly a motivational problem. Senecal, Koestner and Vallerand (1995) claimed that the tendency to delay performance is related more to motivational tendencies than to other variables like time management or laziness. Therefore, in considering an offer to participate in an achievement situation which contains threatening conditions, I expect high FOF individuals to tend to take longer to choose their response. The different situational conditions will obviously have an effect on the decision time.

When situational conditions do not arouse any threat of increased exposure to failure by accommodating those fears and by helping the individual avoid evaluation, I do not expect to find any differences between the behavioral tendencies of high and low FOF individuals:

Hypothesis 2a: There will be no significant differences between the decision time of high FOF vs. low FOF individuals in a situation that contains no threat conditions.

However, when a situational condition which contains some threat is added to the situation, I expect the fears to have some significant effect on the behavior:

Hypothesis 2b: The decision time of high FOF individuals will be significantly longer than the decision time of low FOF individuals, in a situation that contains one threat condition.

As I proposed earlier, the situational conditions will have a cumulative effect on the behavior, and therefore behavioral tendencies will be magnified as the amount of threat in the situation increases. For this purpose, I will again conduct a comparison within individuals:

Hypothesis 2c: The decision time of high FOF individuals in a situation which contains four threatening conditions will be significantly longer than the decision time of these individuals in a situation which contains only one threat condition.

2.3.2.2 Decision avoidance

Feij (1975) showed that high FOF individuals tend to avoid making decisions. Ferrari (1991) found that

decisional procrastination is related to high trait anxiety and to a tendency to avoid evaluative information. We would therefore expect these individuals to refrain from making a decision, or to decide not to make a decision if not forced to make one. Here again we do not expect any significant differences in the behavioral tendencies of high and low FOF individuals when the situation itself protects the high FOF individual from being exposed to a threat condition:

Hypothesis 3a: There will be no significant differences between the tendency to avoid making the decision by high FOF vs. low FOF individuals in a situation that contains no threat conditions.

However, when a threat does appear in the situation and high FOF individuals are given the chance to avoid the decision, they are expected to do so:

Hypothesis 3b: High FOF individuals will tend significantly more than low FOF individuals to avoid making a decision in a situation that contains one threat condition.

This tendency to avoid the decision will increase as the number of threat conditions in the offer increases. A comparison will be conducted to indicate the differences between responses, by the same individual, in different situations:

Hypothesis 3c: High FOF individuals will tend significantly more to avoid making a decision in a situation that contains four threat conditions than in a situation which contains only one threat condition.

Chapter 3: Method

In order to answer the research questions I conducted two parallel studies. Each study answered different research questions. In each study I presented subjects with similar experimental manipulations and asked them to respond to the same questionnaire; however, a different instrument was used for each study. In the first study, I administered a paper-and-pencil questionnaire, and in the second study, subjects responded to the questionnaire through an interactive computer program. Figures 2 and 3 describe the designs of the studies.

I divided all subjects into two categories according to their level of fear of failure (high vs. low FOF) as determined by their responses to a fear of failure questionnaire.

The experimental manipulation consisted of presenting six different job descriptions to the subjects as job offers. Subjects were asked to react to each job offer independently, as if it had been offered to them that day. The achievement situation was created by describing the organization making the job offer as an organization in which candidates would have better advancement opportunities than in the organization in which they were currently working. After each manipulation, the

Figure 2
Experimental design for the Decision Time and Decision Avoidance studies
(Presentation order of manipulations varied for different subjects)

	Manipulation "0" (Zero-threat variables)	Zero-threat variables observation	Manipulation '11', '12', '13' or '14' (One threat variable)	One-threat variable observation	Manipulation '4' (Four threat variables)	Four threat variables observation
Low Fear of Failure	X_0	$O_{0\text{-Low}}$	X_1	$O_{1\text{-Low}}$	X_4	$O_{4\text{-Low}}$
High Fear of Failure	X_0	$O_{0\text{-High}}$	X_1	$O_{1\text{-High}}$	X_4	$O_{4\text{-High}}$

Planned Comparisons:

1) $O_{0\text{-High}}$ --- $O_{0\text{-Low}}$

2) $O_{1\text{-High}}$ --- $O_{1\text{-Low}}$

3) $O_{4\text{-High}}$ --- $O_{1\text{-High}}$

Figure 3
Experimental design for the Situation Avoidance study
(Presentation order of manipulations varied for different subjects)

	Manip-ulation '0'	Zero threat variables observation	Manip-ulation '11'	One threat variable observation	Manip-ulation '12'	One threat variable observation	Manip-ulation '13'	One threat variable observation	Manip-ulation '14'	One threat variable observation	Manip-ulation '4'	Four threat variable observation
Low Fear of Failure	X_0	$O_{o\text{-Low}}$	X_{11}	$O_{11\text{-Low}}$	X_{12}	$O_{12\text{-Low}}$	X_{13}	$O_{13\text{-Low}}$	X_{14}	$O_{14\text{-Low}}$	X_4	$O_{4\text{-Low}}$
High Fear of Failure	X_0	$O_{o\text{-High}}$	X_{11}	$O_{11\text{-High}}$	X_{12}	$O_{12\text{-High}}$	X_{13}	$O_{13\text{-High}}$	X_{14}	$O_{14\text{-High}}$	X_4	$O_{4\text{-High}}$

Planned Comparisons:

1) $O_{0\text{-High}}$ --- $O_{0\text{-Low}}$
2) $O_{11\text{-High}}$ --- $O_{11\text{-Low}}$
3) $O_{12\text{-High}}$ --- $O_{12\text{-Low}}$
4) $O_{13\text{-High}}$ --- $O_{13\text{-Low}}$
5) $O_{14\text{-High}}$ --- $O_{14\text{-Low}}$
6) $O_{4\text{-High}}$ --- $O_{1\text{-High}}$

respondents were asked to evaluate, on a five-point scale (ranging from very high likelihood to very low likelihood), the degree of likelihood that they would accept each job offer as described (a sample questionnaire is presented in Appendix A).

To test the reliability of the scenarios presented to each subject, I conducted four pretest studies. The main goal of these studies was to determine the extent to which subjects accurately perceived the differences between the six job offers presented to them. In addition to assessing the likelihood that they would accept each of the job offers, subjects were also asked to evaluate the extent to which each of the jobs described would require them to work alone, work on unfamiliar tasks, and work without knowing exactly what is expected of them as well as the extent to which they expected that the supervisor's opinion of their ability would be influenced by the knowledge of their past job performance. In each subsequent pretest, the phrasing of the scenarios was changed according to the subjects' evaluations.

Questionnaires were administered through two different instruments: a pencil-and-paper instrument and a computerized one. The main reason for the computerized administration was that it afforded a way to easily measure participants' decision time. The equivalence

between pencil-and-paper questionnaires and computerized administration of questionnaires has been questioned in the literature in the past decade, and has also been considered by the American Educational Research Association and the National Council on Measurement in Education in their Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing (1985).

The results of studies testing the differences between the two modes of administration are equivocal (Honaker, 1988; Space, 1981). Many studies did not find any significant differences in results for personality tests (Bartram & Bayliss, 1984; Holden & Hickman, 1987; Merten & Ruch, 1996; Vansickle, Kimmel, & Kapes, 1989) using either a between-subjects design (Holden, & Hickman, 1987; Honaker, Harrel, & Buffaloe, 1988; Lambert, Andrews, Rylee, & Skinner, 1987; Simola & Holden, 1992) or a within-subjects design (French & Beaumont, 1989; Honaker, Harrel, & Buffaloe, 1988; Sanitioso & Reynolds, 1992). No differences were found for other test scales, like personnel testing (Huba, 1988; Kantor, 1991), achievement tests (Olsen, Maynes, Slawson, & Ho, 1989; Ward, Hooper, & Hannafin, 1989; Wise & Wise, 1987), clinical tests (Erdman, Klien, & Greist, 1985; Kobak, Reynolds, Rosenfeld, & Greist, 1990; Kobak, Reynolds & Greist, 1993; Neal, Busuttil, Herapath, & Strike, 1994; Rosenfeld, Dar,

Anderson, & Kobak, 1992), attitude tests (Cates, 1993; Kiesler & Sproull, 1986; Skinner & Allen, 1983; Synodinos, Papacostas, & Okimoto, 1994) or career guidance tests (Reardon & Loughead, 1988; Vansickle & Kapes, 1993).

On the other hand, some studies did find significant differences between modes of administration and personality scales (George, Lankford, & Wilson, 1992; Van de Vijver & Harsveld, 1994; Hofer & Green, 1985; Lankford, Bell, & Elias, 1994), perceptual motor tests (Levy & Barowsky, 1986), achievement tests (Chin, Donn, & Conny, 1991) and attitude tests (Rosenfeld, Giacalone, Knouse, Doherty, Vicino, Kantor, & Greaves, 1991).

One major implication of the different results found in the literature is that the equivalence of the two modes of administration should not be taken for granted and should therefore be investigated independently for each study (Van de Vijver & Harsveld, 1994).

Chapter 4: Sample

The subjects were 187 students enrolled in different programs of study at Baruch College who also worked at least part-time on a regular basis at the time the experiment was conducted. Although Atkinson and Litwin (1960) claimed that a range restriction might exist among college student populations because they include a smaller than representative proportion of high FOF individuals, Hancock and Teevan (1964) demonstrated that high FOF individuals do exist in this environment.

The minimum required sample size for each of the studies was determined according to the specific analysis needed. Two parallel studies were conducted. The data from each study was subject to an a priori multiple comparisons analysis. Using such an analysis usually requires a bigger sample size than normally required, depending on the number of comparisons conducted (Dunn, 1961; Klockars & Sax, 1986). The required sample size was determined assuming a standard deviation of 1.0 and a medium effect size (i.e., 0.50) (Cohen, 1988) for the difference between means. The minimum N for the first study (in which I conducted six comparisons) was 85 for an alpha of .05 and a beta of .2. The second study involved three multiple comparisons and therefore required fewer subjects: a

minimum of 72 respondents for an alpha of .05 and a beta of .2.

One hundred and six students participated in the first study, using the pencil-and-paper questionnaire. Fifty-eight percent of the participants were females and forty-two percent were males. The mean age was 25.8. Subjects had been employed at their current job for an average of 3 years and were at the time working an average of 29.8 hours a week.

Eighty-one students participated in the second study, using the computerized version of the questionnaire. Fifty-six percent of the participants were females and forty-four percent were males. The mean age was 26.1. Subjects had been employed at their current job for an average of 3.3 years and were at the time working an average of 31.0 hours a week.

Chapter 5: Measurements

5.1 Independent variables

Herman's (1987) Fear of Failure Scale (FOF) was used to measure the level of fear of failure of each individual. This scale consists of 27 survey items embedded in a 55 item scale. Each question contains a positive or an avoidance statement and requires a yes/no response. A high score on the scale means a high level of fear of failure.

The scale was constructed following Atkinson's (1983) descriptions of the FOF personality and Weiner's (1974) attributional components of the achievement motivation theory. It is based on seven probable components of achievement motivation (Herman, 1987, 1990):

1. Risk-taking
2. Goal-setting
3. Task-completion or persistence
4. Effort
5. Self-image
6. Intrinsic/extrinsic motivation
7. Attribution, which more specifically relates to: after-success experience, after-failure experience, explanation for failure and resultant behavior.

In validating this scale, Herman (1990) found a negative correlation with test achievement (-.41) and college GPA (-.36) and a positive correlation with emotionality (.32) and worry (.37) which were identified as components of test anxiety. In a subsequent partial correlation analysis, Herman concluded that the three constructs were distinct from one another. With a modified version of this questionnaire, using only 10 of the 27 items, Herman (1992, personal correspondence) also found FOF to correlate negatively (-.36) with school achievement.

The reliability of the 27 items of the FOF measurement used in this study was found to be .7890 for the pencil-and-paper questionnaire and .8213 for the computerized questionnaire (see Appendix B). This reliability level resembles a .74 reliability level found in an earlier study performed by the designer of the scale (Herman, 1990) and levels of .84 and .86 in studies done by other researchers (Elliot & Church, 1997).

Subjects were divided into two groups of high vs. low FOF (using the median split method) according to their score on the Fear of Failure Scale. The median split method is widely used in psychological research; however, its use is sometimes questioned in the literature. Studies have demonstrated that the use of different methods of

data classification may change not only the actual results of the study (Downing, 1979; Handal & Salit, 1985) but also other dimensions of the constructs being evaluated, like reliability and sensitivity (Yarnold, 1994; Holmes, Kertay, Adamson, & Holland, 1993). Roe and Prange (1982) demonstrated that classification may cause loss of information and imprecision, and Sedney (1981) showed that the data classification may lead to different interpretations of the data. Maxwell and Delaney (1993) argued that when a single predictor is involved, the use of a dichotomized continuous variable may lead researchers to underestimate the strength of the relationship investigated and increase Type II errors.

On the other hand, in other studies, researchers were able to demonstrate that the predictive ability of measurements using the median split method is at least as good as other methods (Dale & D'Alessandro, 1994). However, it is always recommended to compare the data with previous studies (Baumeister, 1990).

To examine the validity of the FOF scale used in this study, two additional scales were included. Each scale measures a construct which was found to correlate with fear of failure in earlier studies. The first scale, the Need Achievement Scale (nAch) includes those items on the FOF scale which contain positive statements. A high score

on this scale means a high level of need for achievement. The second scale is Rosenberg's (1965) self-esteem questionnaire. A score of "0" on this scale reflects a high self-esteem response on all scale items. A high score on this scale means a low level of self-esteem.

The reliability on the need achievement scale was .7377 for the pencil-and-paper questionnaire and .7480 for the computerized questionnaire (see Appendix C) and the reliability for the self-esteem scale was .5949 for the paper-and-pencil questionnaire and .6304 for the computerized questionnaire (see Appendix D).

As expected, significant correlations were found between the FOF scale and the nAch and self-esteem measurements (r=-.4542; p=.000 and r=.3056; p=.001, respectively, for the paper-and-pencil questionnaire and r=-.4806; p=.000 and r=.3719; p=.000, respectively, for the computerized questionnaire) (Table 2).

No significant correlations were found between levels of FOF and nAch, self-esteem and age (r=-.1001; p=.181 / r=.0268; p=.404 / r=.1236; p=.130, respectively, for the paper-and-pencil questionnaire and r=-.0139; p=.452 / r=.1419; p=.106 / r=.1276; p=.244, respectively, for the computerized questionnaire). Also, no significant differences were found in the level of FOF, nAch and self-esteem between males and females (t=.-.13; p=.893 /

t=-.78; p=.439 / t=1.49; p=.140, respectively, for the paper-and-pencil questionnaire and t=.51; p=.612 / t=-1.52; p=.133 / t=-.42; p=.673, respectively, for the computerized questionnaire).

The nAch and the self-esteem measurements were also divided into high and low groups to allow the examination of differences between behaviors of group members. In order to assign individuals to the high and low nAch groups, I followed the same rationale that was used in dividing individuals into the high and low FOF groups. Individuals with the median score and higher were included in the high nAch group, individuals with scores lower than the median were included in the low nAch group. In assigning participants into the low and high self-esteem groups, participants who scored "0" on this scale were assigned to the high self-esteem (33.5% of the sample) and participants who scored higher than "0" were assigned to the low self-esteem group.

Another scale that was used in this study is the N-F Scale, suggested by Atkinson (1958, 1964). He argued that the best predictor of achievement could be found by subtracting the nAch score from the FOF score. This idea was also implemented by other researchers (Feather, 1963; Littig, 1963; Mehrabian 1968; Merhrabian, 1969 and Mehrabian & Bank 1978) who combined both the nAch and the

FOF constructs into a single motivation construct with which to predict performance. For example, if the individual's score on the nAch scale was 26 and his score on the FOF scale was 11, his score on the N-F scale was calculated as 15 (26-11=15).

Since the scale is built from the FOF score and the nAch score, it correlated highly with both (r=-.8791; p=.000 and r=.8239; p=.000, respectively, for the paper-and-pencil questionnaire and r=-.9027; p=.000 and r=.8112; p=.000, respectively, for the computerized questionnaire).

No significant differences were found between the response pattern on the paper-and-pencil questionnaire and the response pattern on the computerized questionnaire (M(*computerized*)=10.52, M(*paper-and-pencil*)= 9.27; t=.087) with respect to the independent variables. No significant differences were found between the scores on the nAch and the self-esteem scales on the paper-and-pencil questionnaire and the computerized questionnaire. Apparently, the mode of presentation did not affect the way individuals responded to the questionnaire.

Though no significant differences were apparent between individuals' scores on these measures, one should be cautious in comparing the results because of apparent differences in the settings of the two studies:

1. The setting in which the questionnaire was administered. The paper-and-pencil questionnaire was given to the whole population while they sat in a lecture hall; the computerized questionnaire was administered in a separate setting to respondents who came to the computer room individually. Since respondents to the paper-and-pencil questionnaire were seated among their classmates, and respondents to the computerized questionnaire were not exposed to others, it is possible that the presence of peers could have increased the stress level of the paper-and-pencil population and also the social desirability of the responses.
2. The mode of presentation of the questionnaire. The use of the computer to administer the questionnaire may have introduced another anxiety source (computer anxiety) which could have exacerbated the anxiety that already existed in the situations.

Some researchers have proposed that computer anxiety is comparable to test anxiety as a situational manifestation of the general anxiety construct (Hedl, O'Neil, & Hansen, 1973; Cambre & Cook, 1985).

Much has been written in the literature about computer anxiety (Maurer, 1994); however, there is no agreed-upon construct for the phenomenon (Gholamreza &

Irma, 1992) and very few empirical studies have been published (Howard & Smith, 1986; Igbaria & Chakrabati, 1990; Nelson & Kletke, 1990). One definition proposed in the literature describes computer anxiety as "the fear of impending interaction with a computer that is disproportionate to the actual threat presented by the computer" (Howard, 1986, p. 57).

Research in this area revealed that computer anxiety may: reduce initiative in the work place (Zuboff, 1982), increase work stress (Agervold, 1983; Sainfort, 1990), decrease job satisfaction (Calhoun, 1981), and cause individuals to avoid using computers (Elder, Gardner & Ruth, 1987).

Computer anxiety was also found to correlate with math anxiety (Cambre & Cook, 1985), age (Elder et al., 1987; Gilroy & Desai, 1986; Little, 1985; Lewis, 1988; Weinberg, English & Mond, 1981; Zemke, 1984) and especially with experience with computers (Loyd, Loyd, & Gressard, 1987; Pop-Davis & Twing, 1991; Rosen & Maguire, 1990). Levels of computer anxiety have also been found to differ with gender (Clarke & Chambers, 1989; Dambrott, Watkins-Maleek, Silling, Marshall & Graver, 1985; Elder et al., 1987; Gilroy & Desai, 1986; Howard & Smith, 1986; Igbaria, 1990; Igbaria & Chakrabati, 1990; Lewis, 1988; Themes, 1982). Anderson (1996) showed that computer

anxiety affects computer performance involving programming and Szajna (1994) demonstrated the effect of computer anxiety on computer performance involving non-programming tasks.

Test results comparing computerized and non-computerized achievement are not consistent (Chinn, Donn, & Conroy, 1991; Johnson & Johnson, 1981; Llabre, Clements, Fitzhugh, Lancelotta, Mazzagatti, & Quinones, 1987; Shermis & Lombard, 1987). In analyzing the results of this study, attention should be paid to this intervening factor.

5.2 Dependent variables

5.2.1 Acceptance/rejection of the job offer

Acceptance or rejection of the job offer was measured according to the respondents' reaction to each scenario. Following each scenario, respondents were asked to indicate on a 5-point scale the likelihood that they would accept the job offer described in the scenario.

Significant differences were found in the tendency to reject the job offers between individuals who participated in the paper-and-pencil mode and individuals who participated in the computerized mode. Compared to individuals using the computerized questionnaires, individuals in the paper-and-pencil mode more frequently chose the options of 'very high likelihood' and 'high likelihood' that they would accept the job offer, especially in the high-threat conditions: working on unfamiliar tasks ($t=-1.84$; $p=.068$), having your abilities tested ($t=-2.43$; $p=.016$), and when all variables were in the threat mode ($t=-1.96$; $p=.051$).

Among those respondents who participated in the computerized mode, significant differences were found between the tendency of males as compared to females to accept or reject the job offers. In this mode, on the average, males tended more than females to reject the job

offers (t=-2.15; p=.034), in particular the job offer which was presented with no variable in the threat mode (t=-3.54; p=.001) and the one in which the job offer was presented with unknown performance standards (t=-2.54; p=.013). No significant differences were found between the average tendency of males as compared to females to accept or reject job offers in the paper-and-pencil mode of administration.

5.2.2 Decision time

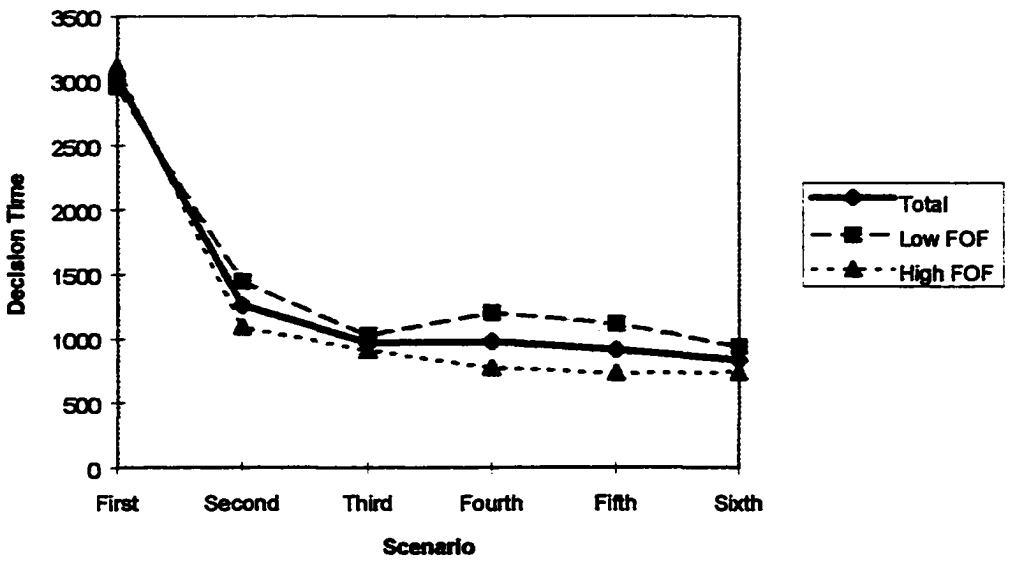
Decision time was measured only for those respondents who took the computerized questionnaire. Respondents were presented with a scenario. After reading the scenario, the respondent was asked to press the space bar and the question appeared on the screen. The computer was programmed to measure the time it took the respondent to click an answer from the time the question appeared on the screen.

To nullify the effect of differences in reading time, the reading time of the introductory screen was also measured for each respondent. No significant differences were found between the reading time of low FOF individuals and that of high FOF individuals (t=1.39 p=.168), between the reading time of low nAch individuals and high nAch individuals (t=-.39 p=.695) or between the reading time of

low self-esteem and high self-esteem individuals (t=-.59 p=.558). Also, no differences were found between the reading time of males and the reading time of females (t=1.07 p=.286).

A significant learning effect was evident in calculating the time that respondents spent on making the decision, as can be seen in Figure 4. No significant differences were found between the learning curve of high FOF individuals and the learning curve of low FOF individuals. To prevent the learning effect from affecting the conclusions of the study, I decided to eliminate the responses to those scenarios before the learning curve reached an asymptote.

Figure 4: Average decision time for each scenario



As can be seen in figure 4 and in Table 3, until the third scenario, there are significant differences between the average decision time between scenarios. Beginning with the third scenario, there are no significant differences between the average decision time of the respondents. The first two scenarios, for each respondent, were therefore eliminated from the analysis.

5.2.3 Decision avoidance

Decision avoidance was operationalized by adding a sixth option to the 5-point answer scale by which respondents could indicate that they could not make a decision at that point. Selecting this option would indicate decision avoidance while choosing any of the other options would indicate a definite decision.

Chapter 6: Experimental manipulations

The four different situational conditions which were identified earlier as threatening for high FOF individuals (i.e., working alone vs. working with a group, the extent to which an individual's abilities are tested, familiarity of the task, and knowledge of expectancies) were manipulated. Each condition was presented either in a threatening or non-threatening mode. In all, six experimental manipulations were presented as different combinations of these conditions in the threatening and non-threatening mode. For the baseline observation, subjects evaluated the likelihood that they would accept a job offer that did not pose any threat (manipulation "0"). That is, all four conditions were presented in the non-threatening mode. The experimental manipulation consisted of five job descriptions. In one description all four conditions were described in the threatening mode (manipulation "4"). In the remaining four manipulations, each condition was presented once in the threatening mode while the other conditions were presented in the non-threatening mode (manipulations "11", "12", "13", and "14"). The assignment of threat variables to the different manipulations is presented in Figure 3.

Each subject was exposed to the same six manipulations. To control for order effect, six different versions of the questionnaire were developed. In each version the order of the manipulations was randomly determined. Assignment of subjects to versions was also randomly determined.

Chapter 7: Procedure

All measurements were combined into one questionnaire. In the paper-and-pencil version, subjects were given the written questionnaire during a class meeting and were asked to respond to it voluntarily.

In the interactive computer program mode, subjects were asked to come to one of the computer rooms in their school voluntarily and respond to the questionnaire via the computer. When subjects arrived to take the questionnaire, an assistant brought up the first screen on the computer. This screen instructed the subjects about how to use the computer for the purpose of the study and presented the general instructions for the study as written on the paper-and-pencil questionnaire.

The computerized questionnaire presented each subject with one question at a time. Once the answer was keyed in, the subject was presented with the next question and was not able to return to any previous questions. A script of the computerized questionnaire is presented in Appendix E.

NOTE TO USERS

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Chapter 8: Analysis

Means, standard deviations and correlations for all questions in both questionnaires are presented in Appendix F.

Subjects' scores on the FOF questionnaire were the sum of their 'yes' responses to the avoidance items on the scale. To divide the sample into two groups of high and low FOF individuals, I used the median split method (as mentioned earlier). The cut-off score was determined according to the frequency distribution in this study. The level '9' was determined as the point of division since 52.4% of the individuals in the two samples combined were below this level (low FOF individuals) and 47.6% of them were above it (high FOF individuals). In order to test the hypotheses, t-test analyses were performed to examine the behavioral differences between high and low FOF individuals.

One drawback in the use of an analysis which compares low vs. high groups is the question of what the middle group predicts. Therefore I decided to examine further, for each hypothesis, the extent to which we can also expect linear relationships between the level of FOF and the tendency to perform the expected behavior. A correlational analysis was conducted for that purpose.

For the purposes of this study, and in order to apply conservative measures for the rejection of the null hypotheses which indicate a significant difference between two groups of individuals on the same measure or within individuals on two different measures, I assumed an alpha level of .05 and an expected medium effect size as suggested by Cohen (1988). The medium effect size was determined to be the most suitable for this study since the existence of small effect size, as defined by Cohen (1988), did not seem meaningful enough for the prediction of any noticeable change in behavior. The power level for this test was found to be .85, a high enough probability to safely accept the null hypothesis using Cohen's (1992) .80 specification level.

However, as Cohen (1988) claimed, these conservative terms apply only to decisions concerning H_1 and not to the null hypothesis. Cohen (1988) claimed that in a case where the researcher fails to support H_1, the only conclusion that can be made is a failure to accept H_1. The researcher cannot conclude in this case that the null hypothesis is true. Under these conditions there is a high risk error of 15% of the researcher's wrongfully accepting the null hypothesis. When the researcher's goal is primarily to accept the null hypothesis, this level of risk is too high in terms of the conservatism required in science.

Therefore, in this case, in order to adhere to the principle of conservatism in science, the researcher should lower the type II error.

Julnes and Mohr (1989) suggested an alternative procedure for cases like this. They proposed that the researcher should set two criterion levels, one to conclude difference (accepting H_1) and one to conclude no-difference (accepting H_0). Setting the two criterion levels demarcates three zones which include a middle zone in which, they suggested, the researcher should suspend any decision. In this zone the study cannot reach any conclusive results. Thus while we determine alpha at the .05 level for rejecting the null hypothesis, for accepting the null hypothesis the alpha level will be determined by setting beta at .05, that is, running only a 5% chance of error in wrongfully accepting the null hypothesis. The alpha level for these tests will be determined according to this level of beta.

In the first study, the paper-and pencil study, which included 106 respondents, the alpha level for rejecting the null hypothesis is .05 (as is usually acceptable). The alpha level for accepting the null hypotheses is .19, which means that for any alpha smaller than that, the hypothesis cannot be supported.

The third zone for this test is when alpha is more than .05 and less than .19. For any alpha within this range, the study cannot reach a definitive conclusion.

For the second study, the computerized questionnaire study which included 81 respondents, the null hypothesis will be rejected if alpha is .05 or less, and will be accepted if alpha is .27 or more. The no decision zone is set for this study at alpha levels between .05 and .27.

The following hypotheses were tested using the data from the paper-and-pencil questionnaire.

8.1 Tendency to avoid situations which contain no threatening conditions.

In **hypothesis 1a,** it was hypothesized that there would be no significant differences between the tendency of high FOF vs. low FOF individuals to decline to enter a situation which contains **no threatening conditions.** The results show, as expected, no significant difference between the low and high FOF individuals in accepting or rejecting the job offer in the scenario in which all conditions were presented in the low FOF mode ($t=-1.22$, $p=.225$) (see Table 4). I also found a non-significant correlation of .0508 ($p=.304$) between the level of FOF in the individual and his or her tendency to reject this job offer (as shown in Table 5).

The same results were found for low vs. high self-esteem individuals (see Tables 5 and 6).

For low vs. high nAch individuals, H_0 can be accepted (see Table 7); however, the correlation between level of nAch and tendency to reject the offer was small but significant ($r=-.164$, $p=.04$).

Considering individuals with low scores on the N-F scale vs. those with high scores H_0 can neither be accepted nor rejected (see Tables 5 and 8) since the criterion level on both tests is in the no decision zone ($t=1.38$, $p=.17$; $r=-.12$, $p=.11$).

8.2 Tendency to avoid situations which contain one variable in the threat mode

Hypotheses 1b-1e each deal with the hypothesized differences between high and low FOF individuals when confronted with situations in which one of the four variables is presented in the threat mode. It was hypothesized that high FOF individuals would tend significantly more than low FOF individuals to decline to enter a situation in which one of the variables is in the threat mode.

In **hypothesis 1b,** the threat condition to which the individual is exposed is that the individual will be required to **work alone.** The results show, as expected, that high FOF individuals tend significantly more than low FOF individuals to reject the job offer in the scenario in which the condition of working alone or with a group was in the threat mode (see Table 4). This tendency is also evident in the correlation coefficient analysis which reveals a small but positive significant correlation of .2057 (p=.018) between the level of FOF and the tendency to reject the job offer (see Table 5).

When analyzing the results of the three other explanatory variables used in this study to understand the behavior of subjects when presented with a job offer in

which the individual was required to work alone, it was found that both the scores on the N-F scale and on the nAch scale predicted the behavior as expected. No significant differences were found between the mean acceptance rate of low vs. high nAch individuals (see Table 6). However, a negative significant correlation ($r=-.2301$; $p=.009$) was found between level of nAch and tendency to accept or reject that job offer (see Table 5). The significant correlation may indicate that there is a weak linear relationship between the two variables and it is possible that the dichotomization used was the cause of the hidden relationship.

The analysis of the behavior of individuals with low vs. high scores on the N-F scale also revealed significant differences as hypothesized. It seems that the mean tendency of individuals with low scores on the N-F scale to reject this job offer is significantly higher than that of individuals with high scores on the N-F scale (see Table 8). Also, a significant negative correlation was found between the score on this scale and the tendency to reject this job offer (see Table 5).

Non-significant results were found when analyzing the behavior of high vs. low self-esteem individuals (see Tables 5 and 7).

In **hypothesis 1c,** the threat condition was **working on an unfamiliar task.** It was hypothesized that high FOF individuals would tend significantly more than low FOF individuals to decline to enter a situation in which the individual would be required to work on an unfamiliar task and the results bore that out (see Table 4). A significant positive relationship of .2487 (p=.005) was found between the level of FOF and the tendency to reject this job offer (see Table 5).

Similar results for hypothesis 1b were found for the other three explanatory variables. No significant differences were found between mean tendencies of high vs. low nAch individuals (see Table 6) but a significant negative correlation is evident (r=-.2645; p=.003) (see Table 7). The self-esteem measurement is also no help in predicting behavior when confronted with this situation (see Tables 7 and 5).

Here again, the score on the N-F scale does seem to predict the behavior as hypothesized (see Tables 5 and 8).

In **hypothesis 1d,** the threat condition was **having the employee's abilities tested.** It was hypothesized that high FOF individuals would tend significantly more than low FOF individuals to decline to enter a situation in which individuals would be required to have their abilities

tested. The results show, as expected, that high FOF individuals tend significantly more than low FOF individuals to reject the job offer in the scenario in which the condition of abilities being tested is in the threat mode (see Table 4). The results also show a significant but very weak relationship ($r=.1670$, $p=.044$) between the level of FOF and the tendency to reject this job offer (see Table 5). However, this relationship is stronger than the relationship derived when the situation included no threatening conditions.

Here again, level of self-esteem does not seem to predict the behavior as expected (see Tables 5 and 7). However, significant differences were found between the tendencies of high vs. low nAch individuals (see Table 6) and individuals with high N-F scores vs. those with low scores to reject this job offer (see Table 8). Significant correlations were also found between individuals' scores on these two scales and their tendency to reject this job offer (see Table 5).

In **hypothesis 1e**, the threat condition was **working with unknown expectancies**. It was hypothesized that high FOF individuals would tend significantly more than low FOF individuals to decline to enter a situation in which expectancies were not known.

The results show that high FOF individuals tend significantly more than low FOF individuals to reject the job offer in the scenario in which the condition of knowing what is expected of you is in the threat mode. The results also show a positive significant correlation of .2836 (p=.002) between the level of fear of failure and the tendency to reject this job offer.

Here again, level of self-esteem does not seem to predict the behavior as expected (see Tables 5 and 7). However, significant differences were found between the tendencies of high vs. low nAch individuals and individuals with high N-F scores vs. those with low scores to reject this job offer (see Tables 6 and 8, respectively). Significant correlations were also found between individuals' scores on these two scales and their tendency to reject this job offer (see Table 5).

8.3 Tendency to avoid situations which contain four variables in the threat mode

It was also hypothesized that high FOF individuals would tend significantly more to decline to enter a situation which contains four threat conditions than to enter a situation that contains only one threat condition (**hypothesis 1f**).

To test this hypothesis, I conducted a paired t-test analysis for the tendency to accept or reject a job offer which contains four variables in the threat mode vs. the tendency to accept/reject each of the job offers which contain only one variable in the threat mode.

Results show that high FOF individuals do tend significantly more to reject a job offer that contains the four variables in the threat mode than any of the job offers with one variable in the threat mode only. However, this is true also for low FOF individuals (see Table 9). In this situation, both high and low FOF individuals will tend significantly more to reject the offer which contains all four variables in the threat mode.

To test whether this difference is higher for high FOF individuals than for low FOF individuals, I computed the difference between the two responses (the response to the high threat situation minus the response to the low threat situation). I then tested whether this response

difference was higher for high FOF individuals than for low FOF individuals. Only in two of the conditions were there significant variances between the difference scores of high and low FOF individuals - in the situation in which individuals would be requested to work alone ($t=-2.07$, $p=.041$; $r=.17$, $p=.041$) and in the task in which individuals' abilities would be tested ($t=-1.70$, $p=.092$; however $r=.17$, $p=.037$).

No significant differences were found between high and low self-esteem individuals (see Table 10), between high and low need-achievement individuals (see Table 11) or between individuals scoring high on the N-F scale and those scoring low on that scale (see Table 12). No significant differences were found between high-scoring and low-scoring individuals on any of these three personality variables regarding their tendency to reject the high threat situation more than any of the one threat situations.

8.4 Decision time when making decisions concerning situations with varying degrees of threat

The rest of the hypotheses were tested using the results in the computerized questionnaire only.

In hypothesis **2a**, it was hypothesized that there would be no significant differences between the decision time of high FOF vs. low FOF individuals in a situation that contains no threat conditions. The results show, as expected, no significant differences ($t=.54$, $p=.592$) between the average decision time of low FOF respondents vs. high FOF respondents when making a decision concerning a job offer in which all variables were presented in the low threat mode (see Table 13). I also found a non-significant correlation of .0892 ($p=.273$) between level of FOF and decision time when the situation contained no threatening conditions (see Table 14).

Similar results were found in relation to level of nAch (see Tables 14 and 15) and score on the N-F scale (see Tables 14 and 17). For level of self-esteem the results for the correlational test are inconclusive ($.05<p<.27$); however, the results of the t-test allow us to accept the null hypothesis ($t=.50$, $p=.617$) and to conclude that there are no significant differences (see Tables 14 and 16).

In hypothesis **2b,** it was hypothesized that the decision time of high FOF individuals would be significantly longer than the decision time of low FOF individuals, in a situation that contains one threat condition. Overall, mean decision time was found to be higher for the low FOF group than for the high FOF group, but these differences were not significant (see table 13). The results show non-significant differences or differences that are significant but in the opposite direction than was hypothesized. Significant differences were found when individuals were presented with a situation in which they were required to work on unfamiliar tasks. Under these conditions, contrary to what was hypothesized, low FOF individuals' decision time was significantly longer than the decision time of high FOF individuals ($t=2.03$, $p=.048$).

No significant differences were found between mean decision time when the job offered involved the requirement to work alone, when the job offer involved working with unknown expectancies or when the job offer involved working while your abilities are tested. The correlational analysis shows non-significant relationships with each of the four conditions (see Table 14).

No significant differences were found between decision time and either levels of self-esteem (see Table

16) or score on the N-F scale (see Table 17). The correlational analyses also reveal non-significant relationships (see table 14).

Significant differences were found between low and high nAch individuals' decision time when the job offer involved working with unknown expectancies (t=-2.27, p=.026). However, this difference is also in the opposite direction from that which was hypothesized. The results indicate that decision time for low nAch individuals was significantly shorter than the decision time of high nAch individuals. In two other situational conditions, having to work alone and having to work on an unfamiliar task, mean decision time of low nAch was shorter, though not significantly, than mean decision time of high nAch individuals (see table 15).

In hypothesis **2c**, it was hypothesized that the decision time of high FOF individuals in a situation which contains four threatening conditions would be significantly longer than the decision time of these individuals in a situation which contains only one threat condition. The results do not support this hypothesis. No significant differences were found between the decision time of high FOF individuals in the job offer in which all four variables were presented in the threat mode and in the decision time of any of the job offers in which one of

the variables was in the threat mode (see Table 18): working alone (t=-.74, p=.486), working with unknown expectancies (t=.48, p=639), working on an unfamiliar task (t=.60, p=.557), and having the employee's abilities tested (t=-.04, p=.969).

The same pattern was found for the behavior of low self-esteem individuals (see Table 19), for those individuals who had a low score on the N-F scale (see Table 20) and for low need-achievement individuals (see Table 21).

8.5 Tendency to avoid making a decision concerning situations which contain varying degrees of threat

Three hypotheses in my study dealt with tendencies to avoid the situation. In the first, hypothesis **3a**, I hypothesized that there would be no significant differences between low vs. high FOF individuals regarding the tendency to avoid the situation. In the second, hypothesis **3b**, I hypothesized that high FOF individuals would tend significantly more than low FOF individuals to avoid making a decision in a situation that contains one threat condition. In the third, hypothesis **3c**, I hypothesized that high FOF individuals would tend significantly more to avoid making a decision in a situation that contains four threat conditions as opposed to a situation which contains only one threat condition. However, it was impossible to test these hypotheses in this sample since only two respondents selected the option to avoid making a decision for one of the scenarios presented to them.

9. Discussion

The results of this study partially support the hypotheses about the interactive effects of defensive tendencies of individuals with varying degrees of fear of failure (FOF) level and the situational conditions in which these individuals are placed.

Three defensive behaviors were tested. Two of these behaviors, decision time and decision avoidance, belong to the decision process; the third was the decision product. Decision avoidance and decision time were studied using the computerized questionnaire. The decision product was tested using the paper-and-pencil questionnaire. Only the hypotheses tested by the paper-and-pencil questionnaire were supported by this study.

Paper-and-pencil study

The hypotheses concerning the decision product (the decision to enter or reject entering the achievement situation) which were tested by the paper-and-pencil questionnaire were all supported in this study.

No significant differences were found in the tendency to reject entering an achievement situation in which all variables were presented in a non-threatening mode,

between individuals with higher levels of fear of failure and individuals with lower levels of fear of failure.

These results demonstrate that fear of failure is a personality characteristic which does not necessarily dominate the individual's entire behavior. Rather, in certain situations, when high fear of failure individuals do not perceive any threat their behavior is not different than the behavior of low FOF individuals.

Differences in behavior did appear, as hypothesized, in the second situational condition, where the job offers were presented with one of the four variables in the threat mode (medium-level threat). Under these conditions, individuals with higher levels of fear of failure rejected entering each of the situations to a significantly greater degree than individuals with lower levels of fear of failure. A correlational relationship was also found in each of the four threat conditions. It was found that in situations in which individuals were required to work alone, to work on unfamiliar tasks, to accept a job in which expectancies were unknown, or when individuals had to have their abilities tested, the higher the levels of fear of failure in the individual, the higher the tendency to reject entering the situation.

The results of this study indicate that under medium-level threat conditions we can expect high FOF individuals

to try to protect themselves by avoiding the situation more than low FOF individuals. The one protective behavior studied here was avoiding the situation. Further research should involve other protective behaviors that can be taken by these individuals under these threat conditions, like willingness to take responsibility or level of job commitment.

The third situational condition was the one most highly loaded with threat. As predicted, the higher degree of threat in the situation caused high FOF individuals to react more defensively. However, the results here indicate that all individuals, no matter what their level of fear of failure, were significantly more likely to reject entering a situation which contained four threat conditions than situations which contained only one of the four conditions in the threat mode. In this situation, individuals were presented with a job offer in which all variables were in the threat mode. This tendency was found to be significantly stronger among individuals with higher levels of FOF than in low FOF individuals only in the case where individuals were requested to work alone. It seems that in high threat conditions the behavioral differences disappear again, this time not because high FOF individuals do not feel the need to protect themselves but apparently it is because all individuals tended to protect

themselves more than they did under the medium threat conditions, by avoiding the situation.

While testing the behavior of individuals under the same variable conditions but categorizing the individual according to self-esteem, it was found that level of FOF predicts the expected behavior better than level of self-esteem. The two other personality dimensions tested, nAch and the N-F value, seemed to predict as well as the FOF measure the decision products expected when the situation involved a medium level of threat (one of four variables in the threat mode). However, in the two extreme conditions, when the situation contained no or only low threat conditions (all four variables in the non-threatening mode) and when the situation was presented in the high threat mode (all four variables together in the high threat mode) FOF was a better predictor of the expected behavior.

From these results it seems that fear of failure is a personality characteristic that has some effect on individuals' behavior, but only in situations in which these individuals perceive some threat. In achievement situations where no threat is apparent, one should not expect any differences between low and high FOF individuals. That is, fear of failure is a personality characteristic that does not always dominate the behavior

of the individual in achievement situations, rather it has an effect only in certain situations, when individuals feel the need to protect themselves.

This study demonstrates the application of interactionist psychology theories (Schneider, 1983) to on-the-job behaviors and career-related decision processes. It is shown that people are active in choosing to enter a situation and in accepting or rejecting a job offer, according to their perception of the situation, the job, and according to their personality characteristics (level of fear of failure in this study). Future studies should involve other neurotic or avoidant characteristics like fear of success to better understand individuals' behavior in the workplace and should also investigate other protective behaviors that are used by these individuals.

Since the study further asserts that the apparent behavioral tendencies might be controlled by controlling variables in the situation, in terms of the amount of threat contained in them, it is necessary to expose other personality characteristics and other situational conditions that interact and affect the resultant protective behavior.

This study also supports earlier studies which asserted that FOF should be treated as a separate

construct from nAch (McClelland & Liberman, 1949; McClelland, 1951; Atkinson, 1953; Birney et al., 1969). The ability of the FOF measure to better predict individuals' behavior in extreme stress situations further supports this assertion.

Computerized study

The rest of the hypotheses, those concerning decision avoidance and decision time, were tested using the computerized questionnaire.

Most of the hypotheses concerning this behavior were not supported in this study. The hypotheses concerning decision avoidance could not be tested because almost no individuals chose this option in any of the six decisions made by each participant. A better operationalization of this variable is necessary in future studies in order to allow for it to be tested.

As predicted, no differences in decision time were found between high and low FOF individuals in the first situational condition in which all variables were presented in the non-threat mode. The second hypothesis, tested with the second situational condition in which one of the four variables was presented in the threat mode, was not supported either. Moreover, in one of the situations, under the condition of working on an

unfamiliar task, the observed differences were significant but in the opposite direction than that hypothesized. Contrary to what was expected, decision time of low FOF individuals in this situation was found to be longer than the decision time of high FOF individuals. Also no significant differences in decision time were found in the third situational condition in which all four variables were presented in the threat mode.

The results of this study indicate that, contrary to what was hypothesized, decision time does not differ significantly between high and low FOF individuals while making a decision to enter a variable-threat work setting. Decision time is not a protective behavior used by high FOF individuals in threat situations like those presented to them in this study.

The claim that I made earlier, that high FOF individuals tend more to delay performance and to procrastinate, does not seem to have an effect on the time they take to make a decision. A number of explanations can be proposed for these results. It is possible that the expected behavior was not present in the situation because of the way in which the behavior was measured. Filling out a questionnaire on a computer in the presence of the test administrator is a situation that does not lend itself to procrastination or delaying performance. Clearly, it is

not a real-life situation in which the individual has more personal freedom to procrastinate.

It is also possible that not taking a long time for making the decision is a kind of protective behavior in the same way that choosing very difficult or very easy performance goals are (Atkinson et al. 1960; Hancock & Teevan, 1964; Teevan & Smith, 1975). While taking a long time to make a decision might mean that you thoroughly weighed your alternatives and carefully made your choice, a short time may allow you later to protect yourself from being blamed for the bad decision by justifying it as not having been considered seriously (in the same way that preference for a very difficult or risky task reduces risk of attribution of blame for failure).

The administration method should also be considered in this context. The literature proposes some possible inherent differences between the administration of tests using paper-and-pencil questionnaires and those using computers.

These differences might be at least partially responsible for the inability to support the hypotheses which were tested using the computerized questionnaire. Researchers who studied the differences between modes of questionnaire administration suggested social desirability as one of the major causes of some apparent differences

(Finegan & Allen, 1994; Booth-Kewly & Rosenfeld, 1992; Kiesler & Sproull, 1986; Martin & Nagao, 1989). They claimed that, in these situations, subjects might perceive the computer as relatively more impersonal and non-judgmental and tend to respond more freely about sensitive questions than they would with paper-and-pencil questionnaires. In this case, we should expect that responses on the computerized questionnaire will be more honest and less affected by biases like social desirability. In this study, it is possible that the perception of a non-judgmental situation counteracted the threats presented in the scenarios. High FOF individuals did not feel as threatened because it was harder for them to consider the situation an authentic one under these conditions, and therefore did not feel the need to protect themselves.

On the other hand, other studies in the literature do propose that computerized questionnaires might cause an increase in state anxiety among participants (Lushene, O'Neil, & Dunn, 1974; O'Neil, 1972). A rise in state anxiety could make a difference in reaction, especially when the activity studied involves anxiety. These results may give us another indication of the limitation of using computerized questionnaires, especially when the researcher is trying to simulate a real-life situation.

Future research should develop better simulation or be done in a real-life setting in order to overcome this problem.

The use of a computerized test allowed me to measure decision time. However, because of the unexpected learning curve in using the computer, the size of the sample usable for the study was limited, which had an effect on the power of the study to detect any actual differences in the observed behavior. In order to overcome this problem, I propose that in future studies researchers repeat this intervention by presenting three dummy scenarios first, followed by the six experimental scenarios. Moreover, the use of computerized tests still needs to be studied in terms of the effect of technology on the attitude or behavior being tested.

Findings from both studies have some implications for both individuals and organizations functioning in the job market. From the organizational point of view, it seems clear that the design of the job and its description may have a detrimental effect on the decision of the job candidate. It seems clear that in certain situations (i.e., when all four variables are in the threat mode) this is true not only for high FOF individuals but also for those who scored low on this personality dimension. Organizations should pay attention to the way they

describe and design jobs in order to prevent potential applicants from declining the job just because it presented too much threat. Obviously, only a few variables were presented in this study and further studies in this direction are necessary.

The job characteristics theory (Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Hackman & Oldham, 1976, 1980) emphasizes the importance of fit between characteristics of the job and characteristics of the job-holder. When there is a match, job characteristics theory predicts desirable outcomes for both the employee and the organization. This study provides some additional information for both the individual and the organization involved in the recruitment process about variables that are involved in constituting a proper individual-job offer fit. Realistically, asking organizations or managers to change job descriptions is difficult, not financially sound and probably will come at the expense of recruiting high-achieving employees who might be motivated by these elements in the job. However, organizations should realize the extent to which these variables have an effect on individuals' decision behavior and therefore emphasize only those threatening elements that are important to the job process, avoiding other threatening elements which

might be less crucial in terms of their impact on the work process.

I think that the major implications of this study lie in the domain of the individual and in the area of career counseling. The current unstable job market in the Western world (Jones, 1996) indicates that most people will be required to change jobs several times during their working life. This study provides some indication that in the process of decision-making concerning a job change, individuals are constrained by their personality dispositions, specifically their level of fear of failure. The apparent avoidance behavior while facing certain threatening situations should assist vocational counselors in guiding individuals to understand their behavior and their initial tendency to reject some jobs and search for those elements in the job which might affect their decisions and consequently their behavior on the job.

Three design factors of this study should also be considered since they might pose some validity concerns in this study. The first one is the use of expected behaviors instead of actual behavior. The second one, which is related to the first, is the observation of the expected behavior not in authentic situations but rather as a response to a written scenario in which not all the variables encountered in real- life are presented to the

subject. The third factor is the use of a rather limited sample of young college students, even though all of them had had some work experience. However, since the manipulations were actually proven to make a difference, it is obvious that the study has internal validity, which is a basic minimum for the interpretation of the results (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). The external validity, the ability to generalize the results of the study to other settings and to other populations, may be questionable and further studies should be taken to allow both researchers and practitioners to gain better understanding of the phenomenon and better generalizability of the observed behaviors.

10. Summary

This study used an interactionist perspective to study the impact of individual-job fit on individuals' employment decisions. As noted by Turban and Keon (1993), this area of research may help researchers and practitioners in understanding individuals' decision-making processes concerning organizational entry. Their study investigated two personality characteristics, self-esteem and nAch.

This study contributes to our understanding in two major areas: it contributes to our understanding of individuals' behavior in the workplace, at the point of entry to the organization, and it demonstrates the importance of fear of failure as a personality characteristic which bears some apparent impact on individuals' behavior.

The results of the study indicate that given certain conditions, individuals with higher levels of fear of failure will behave differently than individuals with lower levels of fear of failure. One main condition for the behavior is that the situation is an achievement situation. However, what this study has shown is that each situation can be composed of varying degrees of threat for the individual and that the extent of threat determines whether fear of failure will affect the resultant

behavior. The extent to which high FOF individuals behave differently than low FOF individuals depends to some degree on the amount of threat in the situation. In low threat situations FOF does not have any effect on individuals' behavior. In high threat situations all individuals are inclined to leave the situation. In medium threat situations high FOF individuals tend more to leave the situation.

It is proposed, therefore, that in order to overcome defensive behaviors, one should alter those conditions in the situation which might be conceived as threatening to the high FOF individual.

Two other defensive behaviors studied here, taking a long time to make the decision and avoiding the decision, did not seem to be used by high FOF individuals.

It is proposed that further studies be conducted to learn more about the impact of FOF levels on other behaviors in the workplace which occur in achievement situations.

Tables

Table 1 : Research results on Fear of Failure

Citation	Sample	Results	Dependent variable
Atkinson, Bastian, Earl & Litwin (1960)	Undergraduate students	High FOF individuals tend more to avoid intermediate risk and prefer high or very low risk	Risk taking behavior
Britt & Teevan (1989)	Undergraduate students	Significant correlation between level of FOF and GNS	Growth need strength Job characteristics model
Burnstein (1963)	Male undergraduates	High FOF individuals tend to choose less prestigious occupations, are more willing to settle for a less satisfying occupation and are more likely to perceive occupations with low probability for attainment to be within their reach.	Occupational choice
Cohen & Teevan (1974)	Male undergraduates	High FOF individuals tended more to take advantage of an opportunity to manage a favorable impression	Impression management
Crawford (1978)	College students	High FOF's performance scores decreased with an increase in difficulty. Results for low FOFs were the opposite	Performance on ability tests
Dapra, Zarrillo, Deidre, Carlson & Teevan (1985)	Male college seniors enrolled in the Reserve Officers' Training Corps	Negative correlations between FOF and the variables of initiative and structure	Leadership style
Feij (1975)	Male undergraduates	Significant positive relationship between level of FOF and measure of reluctance	Reluctancy to participate in psychological research
Feij (1976)	Female undergraduates	No significant differences in tendency to participate in a psychological research	Reluctancy to participate in psychological research
Gastorf & Teevan (1980)	Male undergraduates	Higher levels of FOF among Type A individuals	Type A behaviors
Geen (1985)	Male undergraduates	High FOF individuals attempted fewer tasks and had fewer correct solutions	Task or test performance Response withholding

Citation	Sample	Results	Dependent variable
Goldberg (1973)	Male undergraduates	High FOF individuals had more negative attitude toward college	Attitudes about academic pursuits
Griffore (1977)	Graduate-professional students	No significant differences between high and low FOF individuals	Task or test performance
Hancock & Teevan (1964)	Male high school students	High FOF tended more to choose the most difficult task and made more irrational moves	Risk taking behavior
Harris, Snyder, Higgins & Shrag (1986)	College women	High levels of FOF were related to women's self-handicapping attributions	Self-handicapping
Herman (1990)	Undergraduate students	FOF trait predicts academic performance better than state test anxiety	Academic performance
Houston & Kelly (1987)	Housewives	Higher levels of FOF among Type A individuals	Type A behaviors
Johnson (1989)	Female college students	Heavy drinkers had higher levels of FOF	Drinking
Karabenick & Marshall (1974)	Female undergraduates	Low FOF individuals improved more after failure than after success while high FOF individuals improved more following success than failure	Type of feedback
Mahone (1960)	Male college students	high FOF individuals chose more unrealistic occupations	Occupational choice
Moot, Teevan & Greenfeld (1988)	Male undergraduates	Increase in percent of incompleted tasks recalled as FOF level increases	The Zeigarnik effect
Morris (1966)	Male high school seniors	High FOF individuals avoided more choosing occupations with intermediate degree of risk	Occupational choice
Reitman (1961)	Male college students	High FOF tended more to recall success and irrelevant stories with low recall of failure stories	Recall of meaningful material

Citation	Sample	Results	Dependent variable
Saltoun (1980)	White male community college students	level of FOF adversely affected vocational maturity and the process of career planning	Career planning
Schouenburg (1992)	University students	No covariation with procrastination	Procrastination
Senecal, Koestner & Vallerand (1995)	Junior college students	FOF related to higher levels of procrastination	Academic procrastination
Skeen & Zacchera (1974)	Undergraduate students	Negative correlation between level of FOF and GPR	Academic achievement
Steinberg, Teevan & Grrenfeld (1983)	Female college students	No significant differences between high FOF traditional and nontraditional females in setting defensive goals	Sex role orientations
Taylor, Daniel, Leith & Burke (1990)	Soccer officials	Indirect effect, through burnout, on turnover intentions	Turnover intentions
Teevan & Greenfeld (1985)	Golfers	Golfers were found to have lower levels of FOF than the general population	Volunteering for public situations
Teevan & Smith (1975)	Male college students	High FOF set a wider confirming interval and set their goals relatively lower than their observed performance	Setting a level of aspiration
Teevan & Yalof (1979)	Football players	Football players had lower levels of FOF than a control group	Volunteering for achievement situations
Teevan, Zarrilo & Greenfeld (1983)	Undergraduate students	Subjects with high FOF showed either short-time or long-time persistence at a task compared to low FOF individuals who fell in the middle.	Persistence at a task
Tseng & Cater (1970)	Male high school students	High FOFs had less accurate perceptions of occupational prestige and lower occupational aspirations	Occupational choice
Waters & Waters (1976)	College males students	Significant correlation between GPA and level of FOF	Academic performance

Table 2
Correlations between independent variables in both samples

	FOF	NACH	N-F Scale	Self-Esteem	Age
FOF	1.0000	-.4806	.9027	.3719	-.0139
	(0)	(81)	(81)	(81)	(79)
	P= .	P= .000	P= .000	P= .000	P= .452
NACH	-.4542	1.0000	.8112	-.1069	.1419
	(106)	(0)	(81)	(81)	(79)
	P= .000	P= .	P= .000	P= .171	P= .106
N-F Scale	-.8791	.8239	1.0000	-.3004	.0790
	(106)	(106)	(0)	(81)	(79)
	P= .000	P= .000	P= .	P= .003	P= .244
Self-Esteem	.3056	-.2899	.4120	1.000	.1276
	(106)	(106)	(86)	(0)	(79)
	P= .001	P= .001	P= .000	P= .	P= .244
Age	-.1001	.0268	.0777	. 1236	1.000
	(85)	(85)	(85)	(85)	(0)
	P= .181	P= .404	P= .240	P= .130	P= .

Note. Correlations for the computerized version of the questionnaire are above the diagonal; Correlations for the paper-and-pencil version of the questionnaire are below the diagonal.

Table 3
Differences between decision time between scenarios

Scenario:	First	Second	Third	Fourth	Fifth	Sixth
Second	t=11.98 P=.000	***				
Third	t=13.68 P=.000	t=2.08 P=.041	***			
Fourth	t=11.22 P=.000	t=2.02 P=.047	t=-.08 P=.936	***		
Fifth	t=11.06 P=.000	t=2.36 P=.021	t=.32 P=.747	t=.43 P=.667	***	
Sixth	t=14.28 P=.000	t=3.51 P=.001	t=.98 P=.329	t=1.06 P=.291	t=.74 P=	***

Table 4
T-test for mean differences in tendencies to reject job offer between high and low fear of failure individuals

	Mean Low FOF	Mean High FOF	d	t-value	Degrees of Freedom	2-tail Prob.	Confidence Interval
No variables in the threat mode	1.58	1.77	.23	-1.22	103	.225	.50 - -.12
One variable in the threat mode:							
Working alone	1.42	1.71	.51	-1.99	103	.049	.57 - .001
Unknown expectancies	1.69	2.21	.61	-3.23	104	.002	.84 - .20
Unfamiliar task	2.00	2.48	.51	-2.84	104	.005	.81 - .15
Abilities tested	1.76	2.12	.41	-2.17	104	.032	.69 - .03
4 variables in the threat mode	2.29	3.06	.81	-4.32	104	.000	1.12 - .42

Table 5
Correlation of personality measurements with tendencies to reject a job offer under variable conditions

	No variables in the threat mode	Working alone	Unknown excpec.	Unfamiliar tasks	Abilities tested	4 variables in the threat mode
FOF	.0508	.2057	.2836	.2487	.1670	.3650
	(105)	(105)	(106)	(106)	(106)	(106)
	P= .304	P= .018	P= .002	P= .005	P=.044	P= .000
NACH	-.1644	-.2301	-.2922	-.2645	-.2795	-.1791
	(105)	(105)	(106)	(106)	(106)	(106)
	P= .047	P= .009	P= .001	P= .003	P=.002	P= .033
Self-esteem	-.0333	-.0730	.1533	.1042	.0476	.0309
	(86)	(85)	(86)	(86)	(86)	(86)
	P= .380	P= .253	P= .079	P= .170	P=.332	P= .389
N-F scale	-.1208	-.2543	-.3368	-.2997	-.2558	-.3280
	(105)	(105)	(106)	(106)	(106)	(106)
	P= .110	P= .004	P= .000	P= .001	P=.004	P= .000

Table 6
T-test for mean differences in tendencies to reject job offer between high and low need-achievement individuals

	Mean Low nAch	Mean High nAch	d	t-value	Degrees of Freedom	2-tail Prob.	Confidence Interval
No variables in the threat mode	1.74	1.60	.14	.81	103	.421	.45 - -.17
One variable in the threat mode:							
Working alone	1.65	1.44	.26	1.48	103	.142	.49 - -.07
Unknown expectancies	2.11	1.73	.43	2.35	104	.021	.69 - .03
Unfamiliar task	2.31	2.12	.21	1.10	104	.273	.54 - -.16
Abilities tested	2.09	1.75	.40	2.05	104	.043	.67 - .01
4 variables in the threat mode	2.82	2.45	.35	1.94	104	.055	.74 - -.003

Table 7
T-test for mean differences in tendencies to reject job offer between high and low self-esteem individuals

	Mean Low Self-Esteem	Mean High Self-Esteem	d	t-value	Degrees of Freedom	2-tail Prob.	Confidence Interval
No variables in the threat mode	1.74	1.59	.16	-.80	84	.429	.56 - -.26
One variable in the threat mode:							
Working alone	1.69	1.56	.16	.73	84	.469	.49 - -.23
Unknown expectancies	1.85	2.05	.22	-.96	84	.338	.22 - -.62
Unfamiliar task	2.00	2.34	.36	-1.61	84	.124	.07 - -.75
Abilities tested	1.74	2.07	.34	-1.55	84	.124	.10 - -.76
4 variables in the threat mode	2.48	2.76	.27	-1.22	84	.228	.17 - -.73

Table 8
T-test for mean differences in tendencies to reject job offer between individuals with high and low score on the N-F scale

	Mean Low N-F Value	Mean High N-F Value	d	t-value	Degrees of Freedom	2-tail Prob.	Confidence Interval
No variables in the threat mode	1.77	1.55	.25	1.38	103	.170	.53 - -.09
One variable in the threat mode:							
Working alone	1.68	1.42	.32	1.78	104	.079	.55 - -.02
Unknown expectancies	2.15	1.69	.52	2.80	104	.006	.78 - .14
Unfamiliar task	2.45	1.98	.52	2.80	104	.006	.80 - .14
Abilities tested	2.09	1.75	.38	2.01	104	.047	.67 - .005
4 variables in the threat mode	2.98	2.30	.70	3.76	104	.000	1.04 - .32

Table 9

Paired t-test for differences between the tendency to avoid accepting a job offer which contain zero or one variables in threat mode vs. this tendency when there are four variables in the threat mode, among low and high FOF individuals

Low Fear of Failure

	Mean tendency with low threat	Mean tendency with high threat	d	t Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	Confidence Interval	
No variables in the threat mode	1.58	2.32	.58	-4.4	56	.000	-1.07	-.39
Variable in the threat mode:								
Working alone	1.42	2.30	.78	-5.9	56	.000	-1.17	-.58
Unknown expectancies	1.69	2.29	.56	-4.3	57	.000	-.88	-.32
Unfamiliar tasks	2.00	2.29	.26	-2.0	57	.052	-.59	-.00
Abilities tested	1.76	2.29	.42	-3.2	57	.002	-.86	-.20

High Fear of Failure

	Mean tendency with low threat	Mean tendency with high threat	d	t Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	Confidence Interval	
No variables in the threat mode	1.77	3.06	1.1	-7.6	47	.000	-1.63	-.95
Variable in the threat mode:								
Working alone	1.71	3.06	1.4	-7.5	47	.000	-1.72	-.99
Unknown expectancies	2.21	3.06	.68	-4.7	47	.000	-1.22	-.49
Unfamiliar tasks	2.48	3.06	.55	-3.8	47	.000	-.89	-.27
Abilities tested	2.12	3.06	.82	-5.1	47	.000	-1.26	-.60

Table 10

Paired t-test for differences between the tendency to avoid accepting a job offer which contain zero or one variables in threat mode vs. this tendency when there are four variables in the threat mode, among low and high self-esteem individuals

Low Self-esteem

	Mean tendency with low threat	Mean tendency with high threat	d	t Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	Confidence Interval	
No variables in the threat mode	1.74	2.48	.52	-2.7	26	.011	-1.29	-.18
Variable in the threat mode:								
Working alone	1.69	2.50	.86	-4.4	25	.000	-1.18	-.43
Unknown expectancies	1.85	2.48	.51	-2.6	26	.014	-1.12	-.14
Unfamiliar tasks	2.00	2.48	.43	-2.2	26	.035	-.92	-.03
Abilities tested	1.74	2.48	.52	-2.7	26	.012	-1.30	-.17

High Self-esteem

	Mean tendency with low threat	Mean tendency with high threat	d	t Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	Confidence Interval	
No variables in the threat mode	1.59	2.76	1.0	-7.9	58	.000	-1.46	-.87
Variable in the threat mode:								
Working alone	1.56	2.76	.92	-7.1	58	.000	-1.54	-.86
Unknown expectancies	2.05	2.76	.60	-4.6	58	.000	-1.02	-.40
Unfamiliar tasks	2.33	2.76	.38	-2.9	58	.005	-.71	-.13
Abilities tested	2.07	2.76	.61	-4.7	58	.000	-.99	-.39

Table 11

Paired t-test for differences between the tendency to avoid accepting a job offer which contain zero or one variables in threat mode vs. this tendency when there are four variables in the threat mode, among low and high need-achievement individuals

Low nAch

	Mean tendency with low threat	Mean tendency with high threat	d	t Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	Confidence Interval	
No variables in the threat mode	1.73	2.82	.86	-6.4	45	.000	-1.43	-.74
Variable in the threat mode:								
Working alone	1.65	2.81	.91	-6.8	45	.000	-1.51	-.82
Unknown expectancies	2.10	2.82	.60	-4.5	45	.000	-1.03	-.39
Unfamiliar tasks	2.31	2.82	.47	-3.5	45	.001	-.80	-.21
Abilities tested	2.09	2.82	.61	-4.5	45	.000	-1.05	-.40

High nAch

	Mean tendency with low threat	Mean tendency with high threat	d	t Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	Confidence Interval	
No variables in the threat mode	1.60	2.48	.70	-5.0	49	.000	-1.24	-.52
Variable in the threat mode:								
Working alone	1.44	2.46	.91	-6.5	49	.000	-1.34	-.70
Unknown expectancies	1.73	2.45	.63	-4.5	50	.000	-1.04	-.40
Unfamiliar tasks	2.12	2.45	.30	-2.1	50	.039	-.65	-.01
Abilities tested	1.75	2.45	.56	-4.0	50	.000	-1.06	-.35

Table 12

Paired t-test for differences between the tendency to avoid accepting a job offer which contain zero or one variables in threat mode vs. this tendency when there are four variables in the threat mode, among individuals with low and high score on the N-F scale

Low N-F scale

	Mean tendency with low threat	Mean tendency with high threat	d	t Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	Confidence Interval	
No variables in the threat mode	1.56	2.32	.61	-4.4	51	.000	-1.12	-.41
Variable in the threat mode:								
Working alone	1.42	2.31	.87	-6.2	51	.000	-1.17	-.59
Unknown expectancies	1.70	2.30	.54	-3.9	52	.000	-.91	-.29
Unfamiliar tasks	1.98	2.30	.28	-2.0	52	.049	-.64	-.00
Abilities tested	1.75	2.30	.43	-3.2	52	.003	-.89	-.19

High N-F scale

	Mean tendency with low threat	Mean tendency with high threat	d	t Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	Confidence Interval	
No variables in the threat mode	1.77	2.98	.98	-7.2	52	.000	-1.54	-.86
Variable in the threat mode:								
Working alone	1.68	2.98	.98	-7.2	52	.000	-1.66	-.93
Unknown expectancies	2.15	2.98	.69	-5.0	52	.000	-1.16	-.49
Unfamiliar tasks	2.45	2.98	.50	-3.7	52	.001	-.81	-.23
Abilities tested	2.09	2.98	.76	-5.5	52	.000	-1.20	-.56

Table 13
T-test for mean differences between decision time under variable conditions between high and low fear of failure individuals

	Mean Low FOF	Mean High FOF	d	t-value	Degrees of Freedom	2-tail Prob.	Confidence Interval	
No variables in the threat mode	747	627	.14	.54	46	.592	323	-563
One variable in the threat mode:								
Working alone	1145	626	.55	1.86	31	.072	80	-1118
Unknown expectancies	1087	948	.08	.39	63	.695	581	-860
Unfamiliar task	1464	667	.46	2.03	47	.048	87	-1681
Abilities tested	1044	745	.24	1.09	63	.279	240	-838

Table 14
Correlation of personality measurements with decision time under variable conditions

	No variables in the threat mode	Working Alone	Unknown Expectancies	Unfamiliar Tasks	Abilities Tested
FOF	.0892	-.2430	.0200	-.1392	-.0182
	(48)	(33)	(65)	(49)	(65)
	P= .273	P= .086	P= .437	P= .170	P= .443
NACH	.0552	.2146	.1883	-.1746	-.0732
	(48)	(33)	(65)	(49)	(65)
	P= .355	P= .115	P= .067	P= .115	P= .281
Self-esteem	-.1129	-.1626	.0270	-.0156	.0241
	(48)	(33)	(65)	(49)	(65)
	P= .222	P= .183	P= .416	P= .458	P= .425
N-F scale	-.0856	.2732	.0985	.1835	-.0501
	(48)	(33)	(65)	(49)	(65)
	P= .281	P= .062	P= .217	P= .103	P= .346

Table 15
T-test for mean differences between decision time under variable conditions between high and low need for achievement individuals

	Mean Low nAch	Mean High nAch	d	t-value	Degrees of Freedom	2-tail Prob.	Confidence Interval	
No variables in the threat mode	658	701	.05	-.17	46	.865	482	-482
One variable in the threat mode								
Working alone	647	1058	.45	-1.46	31	.154	988	-167
Unknown expectancies	475	1287	.50	-2.27	63	.026	1352	271
Unfamiliar task	690	1190	.30	-1.26	47	.213	1233	-233
Abilities tested	1017	824	.14	.69	63	.496	410	-796

Table 16
T-test for mean differences between decision time under variable conditions between high and low self-esteem individuals

	Mean Low Self-esteem	Mean High self-esteem	d	t-value	Degrees of Freedom	2-tail Prob.	Confidence Interval	
No variables in the threat mode	762	646	.12	.50	46	.617	619	-387
One variable in the threat mode:								
Working alone	808	865	.06	-.19	31	.854	608	-721
Unknown expectancies	1029	1003	.02	.07	63	.944	736	-684
Unfamiliar task	979	974	.00	.01	47	.992	867	-856
Abilities tested	707	1023	.28	-1.12	63	.266	235	-867

Table 17
T-test for mean differences between decision time under variable conditions between individuals with high and low score on the N-F scale

	Mean Low N-F scale	Mean High N-F scale	d	t-value	Degrees of Freedom	2-tail Prob.	Confidence Interval	
No variables in the threat mode	680	698	.02	-.08	46	.935	463	-427
One variable in the threat mode:								
Working alone	638	1129	.52	-1.75	31	.090	1091	-109
Unknown expectancies	939	1093	.10	-.44	63	.664	866	-558
Unfamiliar task	723	1342	.36	-1.57	47	.124	1490	-252
Abilities tested	907	896	.01	.04	63	.970	540	-562

Table 18

Paired t-test for difference between decision time when four variables are in the threat mode vs. decision time when one variable is in the threat mode for high FOF individuals

	Mean time with low threat	Mean time with high threat	d	t-value	Degrees of Freedom	2-tail Prob.	Confidence Interval	
One variable in the threat mode								
Working alone	1091	784	.28	-.74	6	.486	-1287	672
Unknown expectancies	926	1064	.10	.48	22	.639	-464	742
Unfamiliar task	822	1016	.14	.60	17	.557	-486	874
Abilities tested	915	903	.01	-.04	18	.969	-611	589

Table 19

Paired t-test for difference between decision time when four variables are in the threat mode vs. decision time when one variable is in the threat mode for low self-esteem individuals

	Mean time with low threat	Mean time with high threat	d	t-value	Degrees of Freedom	2-tail Prob.	Confidence Interval	
One variable in the threat mode								
Working alone	1049	1881	.38	1.24	10	.242	-639	2302
Unknown expectancies	1051	803	.14	-.75	29	.457	-918	423
Unfamiliar task	1194	1221	.02	.10	22	.919	-513	567
Abilities tested	1156	1289	.09	.47	28	.640	-441	707

Table 20

Paired t-test for difference between decision time when four variables are in the threat mode vs. decision time when one variable is in the threat mode for low individuals with low score on the N-F scale

	Mean time with low threat	Mean time with high threat	d	t-value	Degrees of Freedom	2-tail Prob.	Confidence Interval	
One variable in the threat mode								
Working alone	1021	738	.24	-.68	7	.520	-1245	679
Unknown expectancies	934	1096	.12	.55	22	.586	-443	767
Unfamiliar task	888	1005	.08	.36	17	.724	-567	801
Abilities tested	1160	901	.18	-.85	20	.520	-893	376

Table 21

Paired t-test for difference between decision time when four variables are in the threat mode vs. decision time when one variable is in the threat mode for low NACH individuals

	Mean time with low threat	Mean time with high threat	d	t-value	Degrees of Freedom	2-tail Prob.	Confidence Interval	
One variable in the threat mode								
Working alone	1432	951	.21	.60	7	.565	-1355	2318
Unknown expectancies	987	175	.56	2.01	12	.068	-43	1200
Unfamiliar task	1290	1304	.28	.97	11	.354	-297	773
Abilities tested	1103	865	.01	-.05	16	.963	-640	612

Appendix A

Dear Participant

Thank you for participating in the Career Decision Making study.
This questionnaire represents an attempt to study the way people make career-related decisions.

The questionnaire consists of four parts in which you will be asked to make some career-related decisions and to describe some of your individual and demographic characteristics.

Your responses will be totally confidential. Only the researcher will have access to the data which will be combined statistically.

(1) You got a job offer from a supervisor with whom you have worked in the past, and who has considered you a good performer. He now works for a different company and gives you an offer to join a new group that he will be supervising. This group will perform, as a team, tasks which you worked on with this supervisor in the past, and which you are familiar. He described to you exactly what must be done in order for the team to successfully achieve its goals.
What is the likelihood that you will accept this offer?

(Please circle your answer)

1. Very high likelihood
2. Considerable likelihood
3. Some likelihood
4. Little likelihood
5. No likelihood
6. I don't know

(2) You got a job offer from a supervisor with whom you have worked in the past, and who has considered you a good performer. He now works for a different company and gives you an offer to join the department that he will be supervising. You will be working on your own projects and will be responsible for the completion of tasks which you worked on with this supervisor in the past, and which you are familiar. He described to you exactly what you will need to done in order to successfully achieve your performance goals. What is the likelihood that you will accept this offer?

(Please circle your answer)

1. Very high likelihood
2. Considerable likelihood
3. Some likelihood
4. Little likelihood
5. No likelihood
6. I don't know

(3) You got a job offer from a supervisor with whom you have worked n the past, and who has considered you a good performer. He now works for a different company and gives you an offer to join a new group that he will be supervising. This group will perform, as a team, tasks which you have never performed. However, the supervisor has told you exactly what must be done in order for the team to successfully achieve its goals.

What is the likelihood that you will accept this offer?

(Please circle your answer)

1. Very high likelihood
2. Considerable likelihood
3. Some likelihood
4. Little likelihood
5. No likelihood
6. I don't know

(4) You got a job offer from a supervisor with whom you have worked in the past, and who has considered you a good performer. He now works for a different company and gives you an offer to join a new team that he will be supervising. This team will be responsible for performing new tasks in that organization. You have performed these tasks with this supervisor in the past, and you are familiar with them. However, since these tasks were never performed in the past in this organization, it is still unclear what the team must do to successfully achieve its goal.

What is the likelihood that you will accept this offer?

(Please circle your answer)

1. Very high likelihood
2. Considerable likelihood
3. Some likelihood
4. Little likelihood
5. No likelihood
6. I don't know

(5) A supervisor, from another organization, whom you recently met in a work related meeting has offered you a job. He suggests that you join the new team that he will be supervising. The team will be working together on tasks that you have worked on in the past, and with which you are familiar. He described to you exactly what must be done in order for the team to successfully achieve its goals.

What is the likelihood that you will accept this offer?

(Please circle your answer)

1. Very high likelihood
2. Considerable likelihood
3. Some likelihood
4. Little likelihood
5. No likelihood
6. I don't know

(6) a supervisor, who is from another organization and who heard about you, suggests that you come and work with him. He is starting a new department in his organization, and suggests that you work on projects which include tasks that you have never performed in the past. You will be responsible for the successful completion of these projects. As it is a new department, it is unclear what must be done in order to achieve successfully your department goals.

What is the likelihood that you will accept this offer?

(Please circle your answer)

1. Very high likelihood
2. Considerable likelihood
3. Some likelihood
4. Little likelihood
5. No likelihood
6. I don't know

In this part of the questionnaire You will find 55 questions regarding possible attitudes you may have. Check either the box marked with YES or a NO depending on your agreement or disagreement with the statement or situation. Make sure that you respond to every question as honestly as possible.

[y] [N] (1) I usually try my best at a given task, even if others are not going to be aware of my performance.

[y] [N] (2) If given a choice, I have a tendency to select a moderately difficult task, even though I know there is a chance I may not succeed.

[y] [N] (3) When I start doing poorly on a task, I feel like Giving up.

[y] [N] (4) When I find myself in a situation where I am under great pressure, I try even harder and find that I often do an outstanding job.

[y] [N] (5) If given a choice, I have a tendency to select a relatively easy task rather than risk failure.

[y] [N] (6) I do my best only when I know that someone will evaluate my efforts.

[y] [N] (7) I find that I usually do very well when I compete against others.

[y] [N] (8) I work hard at a task in order to achieve success so I can gain recognition and respect from others.

[y] [N] (9) I like to try my very best to complete a task. When I do finish the task I always know that I have given my best effort.

[y] [N] (10) When I fail at a task, I am ever more certain that I lack the ability to perform the task.

[y] [N] (11) I find that my failure is often due to bad luck.

[y] [N] (12) I have a tendency to work long and hard at a task even when difficulty is encountered.

[y] [N] (13) I tend to put forth a great deal of effort into a task, but I often know that this effort is of poor quality.

[y] [N] (14) I try to avoid failure at all costs.

[y] [N] (15) I often have difficulty understanding why I failed.

[y] [N] (16) When I fail, I often fail to ask myself why I . failed

[y] [N] (17) I like to compete against my own best efforts.

[y] [N] (18) Sometimes I think that it is better not to have tried at all, than to have tried and failed.

[y] [N] (19) I find that I do more poorly on a task when it is really important. If I am not under so much pressure, I find that I can do better.

[y] [N] (20) When I am tackling a challenging task, I find that I am reminded of my own previous failures.

[y] [N] (21) I prefer games of skill to games of chance.

[y] [N] (22) I usually desire to be in control of a situation.

[y] [N] (23) I often avoid a task because I am afraid that I will make mistakes.

[y] [N] (24) I know my own strengths and weaknesses very well.

[y] [N] (25) I like to try my very best to complete a task. When I do finish the task, I know that I have given my best effort.

[y] [N] (26) I tend to begin an important task with great enthusiasm, but other less important tasks or more enjoyable events distract me

[y] [N] (27) I find that my failure is usually due to my lack of ability.

[y] [N] (28) I seem to be good at many tasks.

[y] [N] (29) I feel that the origins of my success are controllable.

[y] [N] (30) I find that success at a task leads to greater risk taking.

[y] [N] (31) In order to succeed at a challenging task, I take great risks where there is little or no chance of success.

[y] [N] (32) In order to succeed at a challenging task, I find that I must possess confidence in my abilities and think of my previous successful experiences.

[y] [N] (33) I find that I can learn to perform a task very well, but I "crack" under the pressure of the situation an often do not perform anywhere close to my potential.

[y] [N] (34) I sometimes put forth only a small amount of effort toward accomplishing an important task, even though I know success is possible.

[y] [N] (35) When I do fail at a task, I have the desire to learn why I failed. I it is important, I then can later try to achieve success.

[y] [N] (36) I often find that I am well prepared for success on a task, but I do perform that task well under pressure.

[y] [N] (37) I will persist at a task until it is clear that I do not have realistic chance of success.

[y] [N] (38) I find that I take great pride in completing a task before moving on other tasks.

[y] [N] (39) When I am interrupted in an important task, I find that I easily forget about the project I was working on.

[y] [N] (40) When I am interrupted in an important task, I find that my mind constantly returns to the task until I return to the task and complete the project.

[y] [N] (41) I find that I can be patient and wait to be rewarded for the completion of a long-term project.

[y] [N] (42) I find that I must carefully plan my strategies in order to experience success.

[y] [N] (43) I tend to strive for success in order to achieve money, recognition, and respect from others.

[y] [N] (44) When I experience success I expect to be rewarded by someone.

[y] [N] (45) I am very realistic in my expectations of success.

[y] [N] (46) When I experience failure I expect to receive punishment from someone.

[y] [N] (47) I strive more for excellence than prestige or rewards.

[y] [N] (48) When setting a goal I concentrate on my chances of success rather than my chances of failure.

[y] [N] (49) I usually find that I am well prepared for success on a task, but I do not perform the task well under pressure.

[y] [N] (50) I work hard at a task even when I feel that I have a low chance of success.

[y] [N] (51) I usually rely heavily upon feedback from others when I attempt to determine if a task is easy or hard.

[y] [N] (52) I persist longer at a task when I first believe the task to be hard rather than easy.

[y] [N] (53) I am usually very good at estimating my chances of success/failure.

[y] [N] (54) I find I have little or no choice in selecting tasks in life which have various degrees of difficulty (easy, moderate, hard).

[y] [N] (55) I am usually very accurate in my assessments of "why" I experience success or failure

This part of the questionnaire contains 10 questions regarding attitudes you might have toward yourself. You are asked to indicate whether you strongly agree, agree, disagree or strongly disagree with each statement.

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1.	On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	1	2	3	4
2.	At times I think I am no good at all.	1	2	3	4
3.	I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	1	2	3	4
4.	I am able to do things as well as most other people.	1	2	3	4
5.	I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	1	2	3	4
6.	I certainly feel useless at times.	1	2	3	4
7.	I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.	1	2	3	4
8.	I wish I could have more respect for myself.	1	2	3	4
9.	All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.	1	2	3	4
10.	I take a positive attitude toward myself.	1	2	3	4

The last part consists of several questions about you and about the job that you currently hold.

1. Are you currently employed?
   1. Yes
   2. No (Please go to question 5).

2. What is your current job title? _____

3. How many hours do you work per week? _____ hours.

4. How long have you been employed at your current job? ____ years.

5. How old are you? _____ years.

6. Are you
   1. Female
   2. Male

Do you have any questions concerning this questionnaire?

_____

_____

_____

If you are interested in receiving any further information concerning this study please leave your name and address with the instructor.

Thank you again for your cooperation.

Appendix B

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L L)

FEAR OF FAILURE SCALE

ITEM-TOTAL STATISTICS

	SCALE MEAN IF ITEM DELETED	SCALE VARIANCE IF ITEM DELETED	CORRECTED ITEM-TOTAL CORRELATION	ALPHA IF ITEM DELETED
FOF3	8.8679	20.6300	.3556	.7802
FOF5	8.8113	20.4974	.3790	.7789
FOF6	9.0660	21.0146	.3444	.7811
FOF8	8.5283	22.0992	.0429	.7951
FOF10	9.0377	20.7605	.3923	.7788
FOF11	9.0849	21.2594	.2906	.7836
FOF13	9.1887	21.5069	.3395	.7828
FOF14	8.6321	21.7967	.0975	.7936
FOF15	9.0566	21.0253	.3345	.7816
FOF16	8.9811	21.3901	.2054	.7878
FOF18	9.0849	20.6499	.4654	.7760
FOF19	8.9528	20.6549	.3736	.7794
FOF20	8.9434	20.4349	.4235	.7767
FOF23	9.0094	20.3904	.4701	.7748
FOF26	8.8302	21.0757	.2493	.7860
FOF27	9.0566	21.5777	.1866	.7882
FOF31	9.0377	22.5509	-.0656	.7995
FOF33	8.9717	19.8944	.5736	.7690
FOF34	9.0189	20.8377	.3598	.7802
FOF36	8.9151	20.2880	.4486	.7753
FOF39	9.0943	21.3243	.2794	.7841
FOF43	8.5755	21.0085	.2947	.7834
FOF44	8.7170	20.2239	.4442	.7753
FOF46	9.0755	21.2895	.2753	.7842
FOF49	8.9528	20.5978	.3875	.7786
FOF51	8.7453	20.9535	.2749	.7846
FOF54	8.8774	21.3467	.1936	.7889

RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS

N OF CASES = 106.0 N OF ITEMS = 27

ALPHA = .7890

Appendix C

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L L)

NEED ACHIEVEMENT SCALE

ITEM-TOTAL STATISTICS

	SCALE MEAN IF ITEM DELETED	SCALE VARIANCE IF ITEM DELETED	CORRECTED ITEM-TOTAL CORRELATION	ALPHA IF ITEM DELETED
FOF1	21.0755	15.0990	.3473	.7280
FOF2	21.4434	14.9730	.1718	.7378
FOF4	21.1981	14.6556	.3489	.7250
FOF7	21.2830	14.7001	.2826	.7290
FOF9	21.1604	14.6883	.3756	.7239
FOF12	21.2264	14.1959	.4775	.7160
FOF17	21.2642	14.9010	.2306	.7326
FOF21	21.2736	15.6863	-.0004	.7482
FOF22	21.0849	15.5642	.1100	.7378
FOF24	21.1981	15.1889	.1718	.7360
FOF25	21.1226	14.5848	.4736	.7197
FOF28	21.1604	15.0883	.2309	.7323
FOF29	21.1887	15.4117	.1035	.7399
FOF30	21.2170	15.4858	.0701	.7425
FOF32	21.1604	15.6217	.0440	.7427
FOF35	21.0943	15.0767	.3169	.7286
FOF37	21.2736	14.8863	.2311	.7326
FOF38	21.1698	15.1899	.1882	.7347
FOF40	21.2358	14.7915	.2781	.7293
FOF41	21.2453	14.6631	.3128	.7270
FOF42	21.2264	15.0340	.2070	.7340
FOF45	21.2075	14.4518	.4093	.7209
FOF47	21.3019	14.4032	.3627	.7232
FOF48	21.1604	14.6693	.3826	.7235
FOF50	21.3585	14.2512	.3855	.7213
FOF52	21.2453	14.7774	.2772	.7294
FOF53	21.2358	14.9248	.2364	.7321
FOF55	21.1887	14.6498	.3594	.7244

RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS

N OF CASES = 106.0 N OF ITEMS = 28

ALPHA = .7377

Appendix D

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L L)

SELF-ESTEEM SCALE

ITEM-TOTAL STATISTICS

	SCALE MEAN IF ITEM DELETED	SCALE VARIANCE IF ITEM DELETED	CORRECTED ITEM-TOTAL CORRELATION	ALPHA IF ITEM DELETED
SE1	27.1176	11.6765	.5758	.4532
SE2	25.6000	17.9571	.1719	.1081
SE3	28.1529	17.6073	.3481	.2455
SE4	27.7294	15.7473	.3576	.2604
SE5	25.7529	19.4501	-.0081	.2275
SE6	25.4706	17.7759	.2084	.1454
SE7	27.8235	16.0280	.3048	.2592
SE8	25.4353	17.4630	.2651	.1624
SE9	25.8353	20.3535	-.1619	.1690
SE10	27.5882	13.8403	.4806	.3798

RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS 10 ITEMS

ALPHA = .5949 STANDARDIZED ITEM ALPHA = .5252

Appendix E

1st screen

Thank you for participating in the Career Decision Making study.
This questionnaire represents an attempt to study the way people make career-related decisions.

The questionnaire consists of four parts in which you will be asked to make some career-related decisions and to describe some of your individual and demographic characteristics.

Your responses will be totally confidential. Only the researcher will have access to the data which will be combined statistically.

Press ENTER to continue.

2nd screen

The computer program will present you with a series of questions which you will be asked to answer. Whenever a question is presented, you will also be presented with a list of possible answers. Next to each answer you will find a number. Once you decide which answer you would like to choose, press the number found next to the answer on the screen. That number will then flash on the screen and you will be asked to confirm it by pressing the ENTER key. You can change your answer any time before pressing ENTER just by hitting the number corresponding to the answer you want to give. The computer will accept your answer after you made the choice and pressed ENTER.

Press ENTER to continue

3rd screen

If at any point you have any questions please call the instructor.
If you are ready to begin.....

Press ENTER to continue

4th screen

In this part of the questionnaire you will be presented with six job offers. As you complete it, you should project yourself into the situation presented. Assume that you are being offered a job which you are qualified to fill, and you are in the process of evaluating that offer. The organization offering these jobs are known to have better advancement opportunities than the organization you are currently working for. All job offers are like each other in the usual attributes, such as pay, benefits, etc. These jobs differ only in regard to the information presented to you.

You are asked to read these job offers carefully, and then evaluate the likelihood that you will accept each of them separately, if they were presented to you today.

Press ENTER to continue

5th screen

(1) You got a job offer from a supervisor with whom you have worked in the past, and who has considered you a good performer. He now works for a different company and gives you an offer to join a new group that he will be supervising. This group will perform, as a team, tasks which you worked on with this supervisor in the past, and which you are familiar. He described to you exactly what must be done in order for the team to successfully achieve its goals.

Press ENTER to continue

6th screen

(1) You got a job offer from a supervisor with whom you have worked in the past, and who has considered you a good performer. He now works for a different company and gives you an offer to join a new group that he will be supervising. This group will perform, as a team, tasks which you worked on with this supervisor in the past, and which you are familiar. He described to you exactly what must be done in order for the team to successfully achieve its goals.

Question:
What is the likelihood that you will accept this offer?

1. Very high likelihood
2. Considerable likelihood
3. Some likelihood
4. Little likelihood
5. No likelihood
6. I don't know

Choose ANSWER from 1 to 6 and then PRESS ENTER ----->

7th screen

(2) You got a job offer from a supervisor with whom you have worked in the past, and who has considered you a good performer. He now works for a different company and gives you an offer to join the department that he will be supervising. You will be working on your own projects and will be responsible for the completion of tasks which you worked on with this supervisor in the past, and which you are familiar. He described to you exactly what you will need to done in order to successfully achieve your performance goals.

Press ENTER to continue

8th screen

(2) You got a job offer from a supervisor with whom you have worked in the past, and who has considered you a good performer. He now works for a different company and gives you an offer to join the department that he will be supervising. You will be working on your own projects and will be responsible for the completion of tasks which you worked on with this supervisor in the past, and which you are familiar. He described to you exactly what you will need to done in order to successfully achieve your performance goals.

Question:
What is the likelihood that you will accept this offer?

1. Very high likelihood
2. Considerable likelihood
3. Some likelihood
4. Little likelihood
5. No likelihood
6. I don't know

Choose ANSWER from 1 to 6 and then PRESS ENTER ----->

9th screen

(3) You got a job offer from a supervisor with whom you have worked in the past, and who has considered you a good performer. He now works for a different company and gives you an offer to join a new group that he will be supervising. This group will perform, as a team, tasks which you have never performed. However, the supervisor has told you exactly what must be done in order for the team to successfully achieve its goals.

Press ENTER to continue.

10th screen

(3) You got a job offer from a supervisor with whom you have worked in the past, and who has considered you a good performer. He now works for a different company and gives you an offer to join a new group that he will be supervising. This group will perform, as a team, tasks which you have never performed. However, the supervisor has told you exactly what must be done in order for the team to successfully achieve its goals.

Question:
What is the likelihood that you will accept this offer?

1. Very high likelihood
2. Considerable likelihood
3. Some likelihood
4. Little likelihood
5. No likelihood
6. I don't know

Choose ANSWER from 1 to 6 and then PRESS ENTER ----->

11th screen

(4) You got a job offer from a supervisor with whom you have worked in the past, and who has considered you a good performer. He now works for a different company and gives you an offer to join a new team that he will be supervising. This team will be responsible for performing new tasks in that organization. You have performed these tasks with this supervisor in the past, and you are familiar with them. However, since these tasks were never performed in the past in this organization, it is still unclear what the team must do to successfully achieve its goal.

Press ENTER to continue

12th screen

(4) You got a job offer from a supervisor with whom you have worked in the past, and who has considered you a good performer. He now works for a different company and gives you an offer to join a new team that he will be supervising. This team will be responsible for performing new tasks in that organization. You have performed these tasks with this supervisor in the past, and you are familiar with them. However, since these tasks were never performed in the past in this organization, it is still unclear what the team must do to successfully achieve its goal.

Question:
What is the likelihood that you will accept this offer?

1. Very high likelihood
2. Considerable likelihood
3. Some likelihood
4. Little likelihood
5. No likelihood
6. I don't know

Choose ANSWER from 1 to 6 and then PRESS ENTER ----->

13th screen

(5) A supervisor, from another organization, whom you recently met in a work related meeting has offered you a job. He suggests that you join the new team that he will be supervising. The team will be working together on tasks that you have worked on in the past, and with which you are familiar. He described to you exactly what must be done in order for the team to successfully achieve its goals.

Press ENTER to continue

14th screen

(5) A supervisor, from another organization, whom you recently met in a work related meeting has offered you a job. He suggests that you join the new team that he will be supervising. The team will be working together on tasks that you have worked on in the past, and with which you are familiar. He described to you exactly what must be done in order for the team to successfully achieve its goals.

Question:
What is the likelihood that you will accept this offer?

1. Very high likelihood
2. Considerable likelihood
3. Some likelihood
4. Little likelihood
5. No likelihood
6. I don't know

Choose ANSWER from 1 to 6 and then PRESS ENTER ----->

15th screen

(6) a supervisor, who is from another organization and who heard
about you, suggests that you come and work with him. He is starting a new department in his organization, and suggests that you work on projects which include tasks that you have never performed in the past.
You will be responsible for the successful completion of these projects. As it is a new department, it is unclear what must be done in order to achieve successfully your department goals.

Press ENTER to continue

16th screen

(6) a supervisor, who is from another organization and who heard about you, suggests that you come and work with him. He is starting a new department in his organization, and suggests that you work on projects which include tasks that you have never performed in the past.
You will be responsible for the successful completion of these projects. As it is a new department, it is unclear what must be done in order to achieve successfully your department goals.

Question:
What is the likelihood that you will accept this offer?

1. Very high likelihood
2. Considerable likelihood
3. Some likelihood
4. Little likelihood
5. No likelihood
6. I don't know

Choose ANSWER from 1 to 6 and then PRESS ENTER ----->

17th screen

This part of the questionnaire consists of 55 statements regarding possible attitudes you may have. Please press 'y' for 'YES' or 'n' for 'NO' depending on your agreement or disagreement with the statement or situation.

Make sure that you respond to every question as honestly as possible.

Press ENTER to continue

18th screen

(1) I usually try my best at a given task, even if others are not going to be aware of my performance.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

19th screen

(2) If given a choice, I have a tendency to select a moderately difficult task, even though I know there is a chance I may not succeed.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

20th screen

(3) When I start doing poorly on a task, I feel like giving up.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

21st screen

(4) When I find myself in a situation where I am under great pressure, I try even harder and find that I often do an outstanding job.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

22nd screen

(5) If given a choice, I have a tendency to select a relative easy task rather than risk failure.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

23rd screen

(6) I do my best only when I know that someone will evaluate my efforts.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

24th screen

(7) I find that I usually do very well when I compete against others.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

25th screen

(8) I work hard at a task in order to achieve success so I can gain recognition and respect from others.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

26th screen

(9) I like to try my very best to complete a task. When I do finish the task I always know that I have given my best effort.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

27th screen

(10) When I fail at a task, I am ever more certain that I lack the ability to perform the task.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

28th screen

(11) I find that my failure is often due to bad luck.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

29th screen

(12) I have a tendency to work long and hard at a task even when difficulty is encountered.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

30th screen

(13) I tend to put forth a great deal of effort into a task, but I often know that this effort is of poor quality.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

31st screen

(14) I try to avoid failure at all costs.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

32nd screen

(15) I often have difficulty understanding why I failed.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

33rd screen

(16) When I fail, I often fail to ask myself why I failed.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->.

34th screen

(17) I like to compete against my own best efforts.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

35th screen

(18) Sometimes I think that it is better not to have tried at all, than to have tried and failed.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

36th screen

(19) I find that I do more poorly on a task when it is really important. If I am not under so much pressure, I find that I can do better.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

37th screen

(20) When I am tackling a challenging task, I find that I am reminded of my own previous failures.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

38th screen

(21) I prefer games of skill to games of chance.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

39th screen

(22) I usually desire to be in control of a situation.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

40th screen

(23) I often avoid a task because I am afraid that I will make mistakes.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

41st screen

(24) I know my own strengths and weaknesses very well.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

42nd screen

(25) I like to try my very best to complete a task. When I do finish the task, I know that I have given my best effort.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

43rd screen

(26) I tend to begin an important task with great enthusiasm, but other less important tasks or more enjoyable events distract me.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

44th screen

(27) I find that my failure is usually due to my lack of ability.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

45th screen

(28) I seem to be good at many tasks.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

46th screen

(29) I feel that the origins of my success are controllable.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

47th screen

(30) I find that success at a task leads to greater risk taking.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

48th screen

(31) In order to succeed at a challenging task, I take great risks where there is little or no chance of success.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

49th screen

(32) In order to succeed at a challenging task, I find that I must possess confidence in my abilities and think of my previous successful experiences.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

50th screen

(33) I find that I can learn to perform a task very well, but I "crack" under the pressure of the situation an often do not perform anywhere close to my potential.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

51st screen

(34) I sometimes put forth only a small amount of effort toward accomplishing an important task, even though I know success is possible.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

52nd screen

(35) When I do fail at a task, I have the desire to learn why I failed. I it is important, I then can later try to achieve success.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

53rd screen

(36) I often find that I am well prepared for success on a task, but I do perform that task well under pressure.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

54th screen

(37) I will persist at a task until it is clear that I do not have a realistic chance of success.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

55th screen

(38) I find that I take great pride in completing a task before moving on other tasks.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

56th screen

(39) When I am interrupted in an important task, I find that I easily forget about the project I was working on.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

57th screen

(40) When I am interrupted in an important task, I find that my mind constantly returns to the task until I return to the task and complete the project.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

58th screen

(41) I find that I can be patient and wait to be rewarded for the completion of a long-term project.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

59th screen

(42) I find that I must carefully plan my strategies in order to experience success.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

60th screen

(43) I tend to strive for success in order to achieve money, recognition, and respect from others.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

61st screen

(44) When I experience success I expect to be rewarded by someone.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

62nd screen

(45) I am very realistic in my expectations of success.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

63rd screen

(46) When I experience failure I expect to receive punishment from someone.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

64th screen

(47) I strive more for excellence than prestige or rewards.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

65th screen

(48) When setting a goal I concentrate on my chances of success rather than my chances of failure.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

66th screen

(49) I usually find that I am well prepared for success on a task, but I do not perform the task well under pressure.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

67th screen

(50) I work hard at a task even when I feel that I have a low chance of success.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

68th screen

(51) I usually rely heavily upon feedback from others when I attempt to determine if a task is easy or hard.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

69th screen

(52) I persist longer at a task when I first believe the task to be hard rather than easy.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

70th screen

(53) I am usually very good at estimating my chances of success/failure.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

71st screen

(54) I find I have little or no choice in selecting tasks in life which have various degrees of difficulty (easy, moderate, hard).

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

72nd screen

(55) I am usually very accurate in my assessments of "why" I experience success or failure.

Type "y" or "n" (YES or NO) and then
PRESS ENTER ---->

73rd screen

This part of the questionnaire contains 10 questions regarding attitudes you might have toward yourself. You are asked to indicate whether you strongly agree, agree, disagree or strongly disagree with each statement.

Press ENTER to continue

74th screen

1. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Disagree
4. Strongly disagree

Choose ANSWER from 1 to 4 and then PRESS ENTER

75th screen

2. At times I think I am no good at all.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Disagree
4. Strongly disagree

Choose ANSWER from 1 to 4 and then PRESS ENTER

76th screen

```
3.  I feel that I have a number of good qualities.

          1.  Strongly agree
          2.  Agree
          3.  Disagree
          4.  Strongly disagree

Choose ANSWER from 1 to 4 and then PRESS ENTER
```

77th screen

```
4.  I am able to do things as well as most other people.

          1.  Strongly agree
          2.  Agree
          3.  Disagree
          4.  Strongly disagree

Choose ANSWER from 1 to 4 and then PRESS ENTER
```

78th screen

```
5.  I feel I do not have much to be proud of.

          1.  Strongly agree
          2.  Agree
          3.  Disagree
          4.  Strongly disagree

Choose ANSWER from 1 to 4 and then PRESS ENTER
```

79th screen

```
6.  I certainly feel useless at times.

          1.  Strongly agree
          2.  Agree
          3.  Disagree
          4.  Strongly disagree

Choose ANSWER from 1 to 4 and then PRESS ENTER
```

80th screen

```
7.  I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal
    plane with others.

          1.  Strongly agree
          2.  Agree
          3.  Disagree
          4.  Strongly disagree

Choose ANSWER from 1 to 4 and then PRESS ENTER
```

81st screen

```
8.  I wish I could have more respect for myself.

          1.  Strongly agree
          2.  Agree
          3.  Disagree
          4.  Strongly disagree

Choose ANSWER from 1 to 4 and then PRESS ENTER
```

82nd screen

```
9.  All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.

          1.  Strongly agree
          2.  Agree
          3.  Disagree
          4.  Strongly disagree

Choose ANSWER from 1 to 4 and then PRESS ENTER
```

83rd screen

```
10. I take a positive attitude toward myself.

          1.  Strongly agree
          2.  Agree
          3.  Disagree
          4.  Strongly disagree

Choose ANSWER from 1 to 4 and then PRESS ENTER
```

84th screen

```
The last part consists of several questions about you and
about the job that you currently hold.

                    Press ENTER to continue
```

85th screen

```
Are you currently employed?

    Type 'y' or 'n' (YES or NO) and then PRESS ENTER ----->
```

86th screen

What is your current job title?

Press ENTER to record answer

87th screen

How many hours do you work per week?

Press ENTER to record answer

88th screen

How long have you been employed at your current job?

Press ENTER to record answer

89th screen

How old are you?

Press ENTER to record answer

90th screen

```
Are you  1. Female      2.  Male

Press ENTER to record answer
```

91st screen

```
Thank you very much for your cooperation.

If you are interested in receiving any further information
concerning this study please leave your name and address with
the instructor



<a:\>
```

APPENDIX F

Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations of all variables in the study

Paper-and-Pencil Mode

	mean	SD	Fear of Failure	NACH	Self-Esteem	N-F Value	Low Threat	Wrking Alone	Unknown Expect.	Unfamiliar Tasks	Abilities Tested
Fear of Failure	9.27	4.74									
NACH	22.00	3.99	-.4542								
Self-Esteem	1.53	1.52	.3678	-.3404							
N-F Value	12.73	7.45	-.8791	.8239	-.4120						
Low Threat	1.67	.80	.0508	-.1644	-.0333	-.1208					
Working Alone	1.55	.75	.2057	-.2301	-.0730	-.2543	.3374				
Unknown Expectancies	1.92	.86	.2836	-.2922	.1533	-.3368	.5526	.2882			
Unfamiliar Tasks	2.22	.89	.2487	-.2645	.1042	-.2997	.3891	.2401	.4060		
Abilities Tested	1.92	.88	.1670	-.2795	.0476	-.2558	.5658	.2646	.4586	.5047	
High Threat	2.64	.99	.3650	-.1791	.0309	-.3280	.0122	.0707	.2149	.3153	.1439

Computerized Mode

	mean	SD	Fear of Failure	NACH	Self-Esteem	N-F Value	Low Threat	Working Alone	Unknown Expect	Unfamiliar Tasks	Abilities Tested	High Threat	Decision Time: Low Threat	Decision Time: Working Alone	Decision Time: Unknown Expect	Decision Time: Unfamiliar Tasks	Decision Time: Abilities Tested
Fear of Failure	10.52	5.09															
NACH	22.83	3.75	-.4806														
Self-Esteem	1.21	1.28	.3719	-.1069													
N-F Value	12.31	7.64	-.9027	.8112	-.3004												
Low Threat	1.68	.85	.0563	.0766	.0857	.0000											
Working Alone	1.67	.79	.1801	-.3024	-.0535	-.2685	.1552										
Unknown Expect.	2.14	.92	.0649	.0105	.1029	-.0381	.5535	.0631									
Unfamiliar Tasks	2.48	1.07	-.0462	-.0163	.0347	.0228	.4048	.1178	.3258								
Abilities Tested	2.26	1.00	.1972	-.1551	.0254	-.2076	.2915	.3964	.1521	.0921							
High Threat	2.98	1.34	.1812	-.1575	.0394	-.1981	-.0400	.1807	.3477	.0865	.1263						
decision time:																	
Low Threat	690	762	.0892	-.0552	-.1129	-.0856	-.0728	.1538	-.1745	.0919	.0745	.0195					
Working Alone	846	821	-.2430	.2146	-.1626	.2732	-.0620	.3051	.0037	-.0822	-.2228	.0189					
Unknown Expect.	1012	1407	-.0182	.1883	.0270	.0985	-.0473	.0442	-.1225	.0885	-.1756	-.1211	.3972	.2012			
Unfamiliar Tasks	976	1379	-.1392	.1746	-.0156	.1835	-.0088	-.0846	-.1140	.0624	-.1657	-.2362	.8431	.5247	.7093		
Abilities Tested	901	1104	.0200	-.0732	.0241	-.0501	.1880	.0356	.2635	.2436	-.0900	-.0163	.1504	.3422	.1010	.6430	
High Threat	1037	1398	.0701	-.0788	-.0672	-.0869	-.0010	.0372	-.0361	.1502	.0528	-.0792	.5461	.3939	.2555	.6997	.4898

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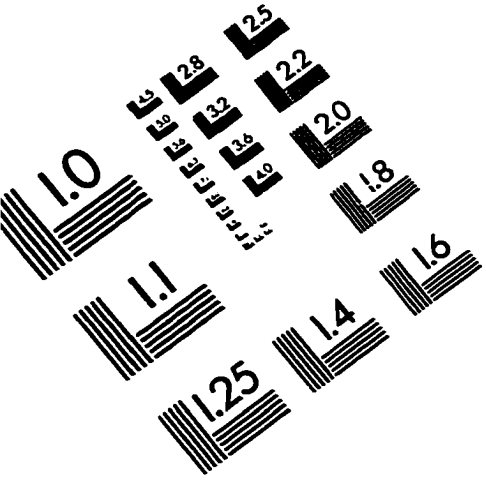
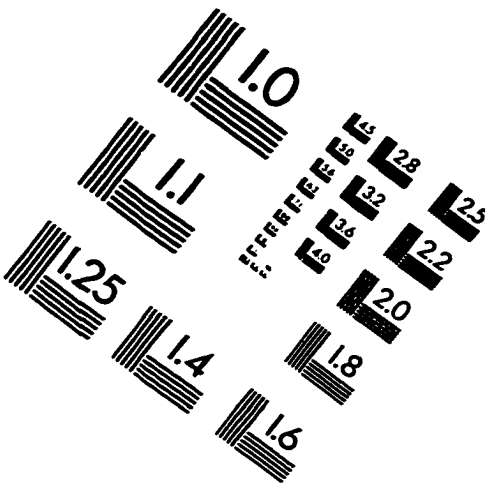
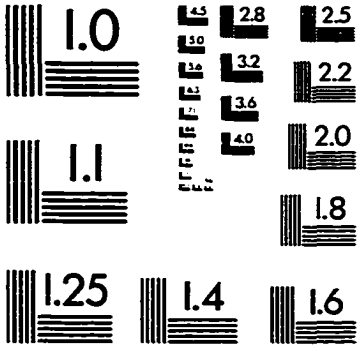
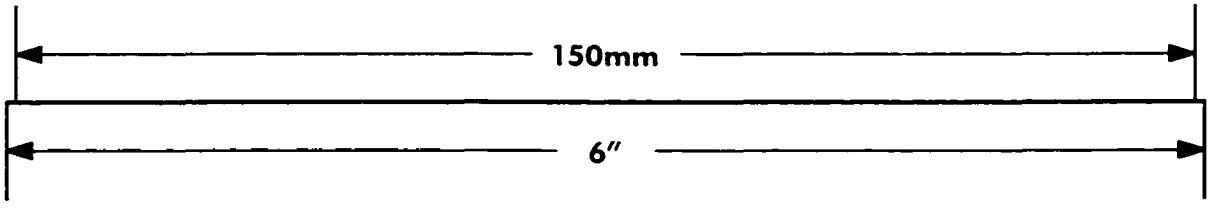
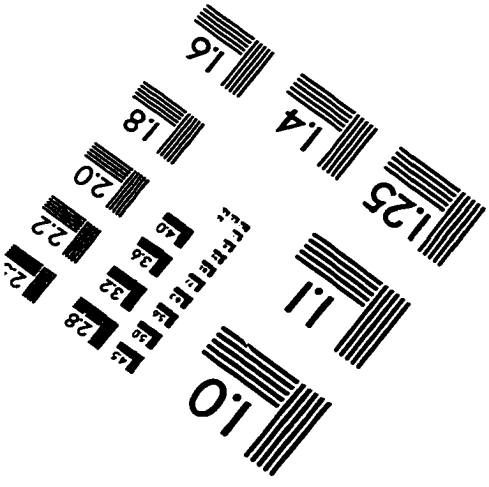
IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (QA-3)











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