THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONALITY TYPES AND PSYCHOLOGICAL CAREER RESOURCES OF MANAGERS IN THE FAST-FOOD INDUSTRY IN THE WESTERN CAPE

by

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DECLARATION

I, Christiaan Kotze, student number 37303619, declare that this dissertation of limited scope entitled, **"The relationship between personality types and psychological career resources of managers in the fast food-industry in the Western Cape",** is my own work, and that all the sources that I have used or quoted from have been indicated and acknowledge by means of complete references.

I further declare that ethical clearance to conduct the research has been obtained from the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, University of South Africa, as well as from participating organisations.

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Christiaan Kotze
December 2013

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SUMMARY

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONALITY TYPES AND PSYCHOLOGICAL CAREER RESOURCES OF MANAGERS IN THE FAST FOOD INDUSTRY IN THE WESTERN CAPE

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DEPARTMENT: Industrial and Organisational Psychology

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The objective of the study was to determine the relationship between personality preference types (as measured by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator [MBTI]) Form M and psychological career resources (as measured by the Psychological Career Resource Inventory [PCRI]) of managers in the fast-food industry and whether groups from different races, ages and gender differ significantly regarding personality types and psychological career resources. A quantity survey was conducted on a sample (N = 81) of managers in the fast food industry in the Western Cape.

The extraversion, sensing, feeling, judging (ESFJ) and the introversion, sensing, feeling, judging (ISFJ) personality types were the dominant ones in the study. Personality type preferences were significantly related to psychological career resources. The personality types differed significantly regarding the following PCRI variables: variety/creativity (career preference), growth/development (career value), self/other skills (career enabler) and social connectivity (career harmoniser). Significant differences between personality types, psychological career resources and age, gender and race were also established.

KEY TERMS

MBTI, PCRI, introvert (I), extrovert (E) sensing (S), intuition (N), thinking (T), feeling (F), judging (J), perceiving (P), career preferences, career values, career enablers, career drivers, career harmonisers.

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CHAPTER 1

1. BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH

The hospitality industry is one of the world's largest employers and is considered as any business serving people outside the private home (Zhong, 2006). While businesses in the rest of industry, such as retail, manufacturing, and financial services, are cutting jobs, the food sector is increasing employment levels on both the hourly paid and management levels (DeSorbo, 2011). According to Olivia (2001), the service sector represents 70% of the US economy, providing three out of four jobs in the United States of America (USA). In South Africa the hospitality, food and beverage sector comprises restaurants, coffee shops, fast-food outlets and other catering providers. The wholesale and retail segment in South Africa, which includes the hotel and restaurant sector, employs the largest section of managers and shows the biggest employment growth (Maumbe, 2008). Studies show that the hospitality industry is the largest employer, employing 63% of the employees in the tourism, hospitality and culture industry (Theta, 2011).

Olivia (2001) distinguishes between the service industry and an industry such as manufacturing, pointing out that employees in the service industry serve customers; therefore they are serving humans with psychological attributes, perceptions and expectations. Olivia (2001) also states that when these employees are working under pressure, it may have an impact on the quality of the service they provide, the overall profitability for the company and their own job satisfaction. According to Miller and Madsen (2003), service employees have a negative perception of the hospitality industry, as they feel it can be quite a humiliating, insulting and demeaning industry. If employees in this industry do not find dignity and pride in their work, they tend to leave the organisation, while those who do not find alternatives stay and deliver poor service and low quality workmanship (Miller & Madsen, 2003). The perception also exists that the fast-food industry creates work that is dangerous, gives a misleading impression of one's career prospects, has no value as a résumé entry, affects people's long-term view of employment and jeopardises aspects of their life-long happiness (Gould, 2005; Ukandu, 2011). The opposite view is that it does add value to an individual's résumé and long-term career prospects. The reason given is that the opportunity to be employed at a store could be a huge career advantage for some young people (Gould, 2005).

According to Welsh and Raven (2007), the role of people in the future of the business world has been emphasised and has risen in importance. It has become clear that people are the

integral component that other business factors depend upon. The human side indeed determines the competitive edge for many companies. Human resources are always the key ingredient in organisational success. If the success of people is based on the calibre of people employed, then it is crucial that they be managed effectively, therefore successful managers pay attention to the factors that drive profitability in the service paradigm: investment in people, technology that supports frontline workers, recruiting and training practices, and compensation linked to performance (Heskett, Jones, Loveman, Sasser & Schlessinger, 1994).

Working in the harsh environment of the quick-service restaurant industry may require a certain personality type and psychological meta-competencies to survive the demands of this fast-moving, low-paid industry. The focus of this research is to assess the personality type profile of a sample of people employed in quick-service restaurants and how their personality type preferences relate to their psychological career resources.

2. PROBLEM STATEMENT

According to Smit (2008), South Africa is facing a serious shortage in management skills. The shortage of skills not only has a negative impact on large corporations, but also inhibits the efficiency of micro, small and medium enterprises. The quick-service restaurant industry has become increasingly global and highly competitive (Maumbe, 2008, Parza, 1993, Schertz & Duft 1997). For many young people it is difficult to access the job market and the fast-food industry is a viable entry point (Allen et al., 2002). Fast-food employment may provide employees with career paths. For some it is possible to rise through the hierarchy without conventional forms of education or a diverse work history (Cantalupo, 2003). Mike and Slocum (2003) point out that the bottom layer of management represents the bulk of the organisation. Most of these managers were not top of their class, most probably did not complete a degree or diploma, but they love the fast-food industry, starting as cooks and working themselves through the ranks to become supervisors and managers, building experience and mastering the operational side of the business.

It is clear that the fast-food industry is a challenging environment and that certain personality types may thrive better in this environment than others. There seems to be a paucity of research on how people's personality preferences relate to their psychological career resources. This research therefore attempts to address a gap in the research literature by investigating this relationship.

Career counsellors and industrial psychologists may benefit from the study by understanding how different personality types differ in terms of their psychological career resource profiles. Helping clients to become aware of how their personality type preferences influence their expression and the development of their psychological career resources may be useful in helping them to cope better in the quick-service restaurant industry. It will be of great benefit to determine the link between personality types and psychological career resources to find out which personality types will be suitable and grow in the fast-food industry.

2.2.1 Research questions with regard to literature review

Against the preceding background, the general research questions that require further research are the following:

What is the relationship between personality types and psychological career resources of managers in the fast-food industry? Do managers from different gender, race and age groups differ regarding their personality preferences and psychological career resources?

2.2.2 Research questions with regard to the research

In terms of the literature study, the following specific research questions will be addressed in this research paper:

- How is personality type conceptualised in the literature?
- How is psychological career resources conceptualised in the literature?
- Does a theoretical relationship exist between the personality types and psychological career resources of managers in the fast-food industry?

In terms of the empirical study, the following specific research questions will be addressed:

- Does an empirical relationship exist between personality types and psychological career resources of managers in the fast-food industry in the Western Cape?
- Do managers from different gender, race and age groups differ significantly regarding their personality types and psychological career resources?
- What recommendations can be formulated for the practice of Industrial and Organisational Psychology and for further research based on the findings of this study?

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From the above research questions, the following aims are formulated:

1.3   AIMS

A more in-depth discussion with regard to general and specific aims will be conducted.

1.3.1   General aims

The aim of the study was to determine the relationship between personality preference types (as measured by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator [MBTI] Form M) and psychological career resources (as measured by the Psychological Career Resources Inventory [PCRI]). The study also aimed to assess whether gender, race and age groups differ significantly regarding their personality preferences and psychological career resources.

1.3.2   Specific aims

When specific aims are dealt with, the difference between literature aims and empirical aims will be discussed.

1.3.2.1   Literature Review

In terms of the literature review, the specific aims are:

- To conceptualise personality type from the literature;
- To conceptualise psychological career resources from the literature; and
- To conceptualise the relationship between personality type and psychological career resources from the literature.

1.3.2.2   Empirical Study

Research aim1: To assess the empirical relationship between personality types and psychological career resources of a sample of managers in the fast-food industry in the Western Cape.

Research aim 2: To assess whether managers from different gender, race and age groups differ significantly regarding their personality types and psychological career resources.

Research aim 3: To formulate recommendations for the practice of Industrial and Organisational Psychology and for further research based on the findings of this study.

1.4   THE PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE

The study falls within the Industrial Psychology perspective of Psychology, within various Industrial and Organisational Psychology sub-fields and paradigms.

1.4.1   Industrial and Organisational Psychology sub-fields

The sub-fields of Industrial and Organisational Psychology will be discussed in more detail.

1.4.1.1   *Industrial and Organisational Psychology*

The study falls within the field of Industrial and Organisational psychology. Industrial psychology is the study of human behaviour in the work environment (Louw & Edwards, 2005). Industrial organisation is seen as the process whereby an individual's efficiency can be improved in the working environment by aligning the individual's skills and knowledge with the specific job (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt, 2006).

1.4.1.2   *Career psychology and counselling*

Career psychology focuses on career development and career behaviour as part of human development (Greenhause, Callahan & Godschalk, 2000). Coetzee and Roythorne-Jacobs (2007) describe career counselling as a service to the client that focuses on facilitating self-reflection and cognitive restructuring in clients who need to develop career competency, career maturity and career self-efficacy.

1.4.1.3   *Psychological assessments*

Psychological testing refers to the selection, administration and scoring of tests of abilities, interests, values and personal traits. The purpose of testing is to obtain information about individuals and groups (Stead & Watson, 2009). According to Foxcroft and Roodt (2007) psychological assessment is the process-orientated activity aimed at gathering information by using assessment measures or tests and information from other sources.

1.4.1.4 Personnel psychology

Personality is the constantly changing but relatively stable organisation of all physical, psychological and spiritual characteristics of the individual that determine the behaviour of the individual in a specific context (Meyer, Moore & Viljoen, 2003). Personality is therefore the study of individual differences between human beings to determine how they behave and think and what motivates them (Louw & Edwards, 2005).

1.4.2 Relevant paradigms

The following paradigms will be discussed in more detail:

1.4.2.1 Humanistic paradigm

The humanistic approach focuses on the actualisation of the individual and the achievement of one's potential and therefore the humanistic paradigm focuses on the positive (Meyer, Moore & Viljoen, 2003). Roger states that the individual strives for self-actualisation and describes it as follows: "the inherent tendency of the organism to develop all its capacities in ways which serve to maintain or enhance the organism". Therefore it includes not only physiological needs, but also growth and development (Prochaska & Norcross, 1999).

1.4.2.2 Behavioural paradigm

The study of behaviour can be viewed in three main disciplines: Psychology, Sociology and Anthropology. In Psychology the psychologist is concerned with the study of human behaviour. The focus of attention is on the individual as a whole person, or what can be termed the personality system (Mullins, 2005). According to Meyer, Moore and Viljoen (2003), behaviour can be related to learning and influence from the environment. Scientists therefore study the environment to determine why individuals behave in a certain way. The assumption is therefore made that current behaviour is determined by behaviour that took place in the past (Taylor, Peplau & Sears, 2006).

1.4.2.3 Psychodynamic paradigm

The psychodynamic paradigm argues that much mental activity occurs outside of mental awareness. Therefore the psychodynamic paradigm is concerned with basic, general principles that can account for a variety of behaviour in which people are capable of engaging. The psychodynamic approach touches on the understanding of human behaviour

based on childhood experiences that determine personality and personality types and the view that personality tends towards constructive development and growth (Bergh & Theron, 2009; Meyer et al, 2003).

1.4.3 Applicable constructs and concepts

The following constructs and concepts will be discussed in more detail.

1.4.3.1 Career

Relevant learning and experience related to an individual's professional life, competencies and accomplishments through roles and assignments in a job (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2007).

1.4.3.2 Career enablers

Career enablers are transferable skills, such as practical or creative skills and self-management or relationship skills, which form people's ability to help them succeed in their careers (Coetzee & Esterhuizen, 2010; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009).

1.4.3.3 Career drivers

Career drivers are people's sense of career purpose, career directedness and a career-venturing attitude. Career drivers are therefore the attitudes that energise people and motivate them to experiment with career and employment possibilities based on their perception of themselves and what they can become in future (Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee & Esterhuizen, 2010).

1.4.3.4 Career harmonisers

Coetzee and Esterhuizen (2010) refer to psychological attributes as career harmonisers, e.g. people's self-esteem, behavioural adaptability, emotional literacy and social connectivity that not only act as promoters of flexibility and resiliency, but also as controls to keep the career drivers in balance so that people do not go overboard in the process of pursuing or reinventing their careers (Coetzee, 2008).

1.4.3.5   Career preferences and values

Career preferences and values are people's unique view about the paths their careers should follow, guiding their career decisions (Coetzee & Esterhuizen, 2010).

1.4.3.6   Personality

Personality is an individual's behavioural and emotional characteristics, generally found to be stable over time and in a variety of circumstances (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2007) and according to Meyer et al. (2003) personality is the constantly changing but relatively stable organisation of all physical, psychological and spiritual characteristics of the individual, which determine the individual's behaviour.

1.4.3.7   Personality types

Personality type refers to a personality pattern that involves certain psychological processes that determine the individual's orientation to life. Individuals vary according to different combinations of the processes that constitute their types (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2007; Jung, 1921). Based on the work of Myers and Briggs, these are opposite behavioural patterns that people display in similar or different situations. These are behavioural patterns such as introvert-extrovert, intuition-sensing, perceiving-judging, and thinking-feeling (Meyers, McCauly, Quenk & Hammer, 2003).

1.4.3.8   Psychological career resources

Psychological career resources can be described as a set of career-related orientations, values, attitudes, abilities and attributes that lead to self-empowering career behaviour and promote general employability (Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007).

1.4.3.9   Central hypothesis

The central hypothesis is formulated as follow:
A relationship exists between personality types and psychological career resources. Moreover, individuals from different race, gender and age groups differ significantly in terms of personality types and psychological career resources.

1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), a research design is a framework that sets out a plan on how the researcher is going to sample participants and collect and analyse data in order to address the problem under investigation.

1.5.1 Validity and reliability

The central aim of research design is to establish a relationship between the independent and dependent variables. The potential of a design to achieve this aim is referred to as validity (Bless, Higson-Smith & Kagee, 2006). Both internal and external validity are significant for the quality and meaningfulness of a research design. Internal validity examines the extent to which a particular research design has excluded all other hypotheses which could explain the variation of the dependent variable. For research to be internally valid, the constructs must be measured in a valid manner and the data measured must be accurate and reliable. Moreover, the analysis should be relevant to the type of data collected, and the final solutions must be adequately supported by the data. Internal validity will be ensured by minimising selection bias (targeting the population of individuals working in the fast-food industry in the Western Cape). As large as possible a sample will be chosen to offset the effects of extraneous variables. The questionnaire will also include standard instructions and information to all participants. External validity examines the extent to which the result of the study can be generalised (Bless et al., 2006). According to Mouton and Marais (1996), the central consideration of validity relating to collecting data is that of reliability and its significance in the application of a valid measuring instrument applied to different groups in different circumstances but producing the same observations. However, a non-probability sample will be utilised here, and generalising to the general population will therefore be limited.

1.5.2 Research approach

Psychological assessments will be used to determine the correct choice with regard to the individual (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2007). Therefore the study will relate to the relationship between personality types and psychological career resources.

1.5.3　Research method

The following methods will be discussed in more detail: research participants, measuring instruments, research procedure and statistical analysis. The research method consists of two phases.

1.5.4　Research participants

Store managers from supervisory level to restaurant general manager level in the fast-food industry will be used for primary data collection in this study. The total sample of managers should constitute 100 individuals. It is expected that the larger part of the sample will consist of coloured females, followed by white males. It is expected that the educational level of the sample will be Grade 12. All the participants will be employed full-time by the respective organisations.

1.5.5　Measuring instruments

The measuring instruments that will be used are the PCRI (Coetzee, 2008) and the MBTI Form M (Myers & Myers, 1998).

1.5.5.1　*The Psychological Career Resource Inventory*

The PCRI of Coetzee (2008) contains 64 items and five sub-scales consisting of career preferences, career values, career drivers, career enablers and career harmonisers. The PCRI is a self-rated multi-factorial measure that measures 15 constructs in total. The PCRI also contains two additional questions relating to the participants' self-evaluation of their future career prospects and employability. (Coetzee, 2008).

1.5.5.2　*The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator Form M*

The MBTI Form M of Myers and Myers (1998) is a self-reporting instrument. The MBTI is a questionnaire-style instrument consisting of items arranged in a forced-choice format. For each item the subject is offered a choice between two responses. The objective of the MBTI is to classify an individual into one of 16 personality types (Martins & Coetzee, 2007; Myers et al., 2003; Myers & Myers, 1998).

1.5.6   Research procedure

The procedure for data collection will entail using the MBTI and PCRI by administrating these tests to willing participants in a suitable venue. Participants will be asked to complete the questionnaires and hand them in. There will be an introductory note concerning informed consent, confidentiality of the findings and a feedback session.

1.5.7   Statistical analysis

The MBTI classifies participants into 16 personality types, which are then categorised as E-I, S-N, T-F or J-P (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2007). The PCRI categorises individuals into career preferences, career values, career enablers, career drivers and career harmonisers. Descriptive statistics will be used to describe the variables and correlation will be used to determine the relationship between variables. Multiple regressions will be used to determine if the independent variable (personality) can be used to predict the dependent variable (PCRI). To compare all 16 personality types and the 15 PCRI dimensions, analysis of variance (ANOVA) will be used.

The analysis of the data will be done using the SPSS program. A stepwise regression will be carried out to identify the MBTI variables that provide the best explanation of the dependant variable. Means and standard deviation will be used to determine the most significant predictors of PCRI.

1.6   RESEARCH METHOD

In the current study, the research method is divided into two phases, which address the literature review and the empirical study respectively.

a)   Phase one: Literature review

In terms of the literature review, the specific aims are:

- To conceptualise personality type from the literature;
- To conceptualise psychological career resources from the literature; and
- To conceptualise the relationship between personality type and psychological career resources from the literature.

b)   Phase two: Empirical study

The empirical study is presented in the form of a research article in chapter 3 of this dissertation. The research article outlines the core focus of the study, the background to the study, relevant trends identified from the research literature, the potential value added by the study, the research design (research approach and research method), the results of the empirical study, a discussion of the results, conclusions and limitations of the study and recommendations for practice and future research. Figure 1.1 outlines the various steps followed to ensure the systematic and rigorous execution of the empirical study.
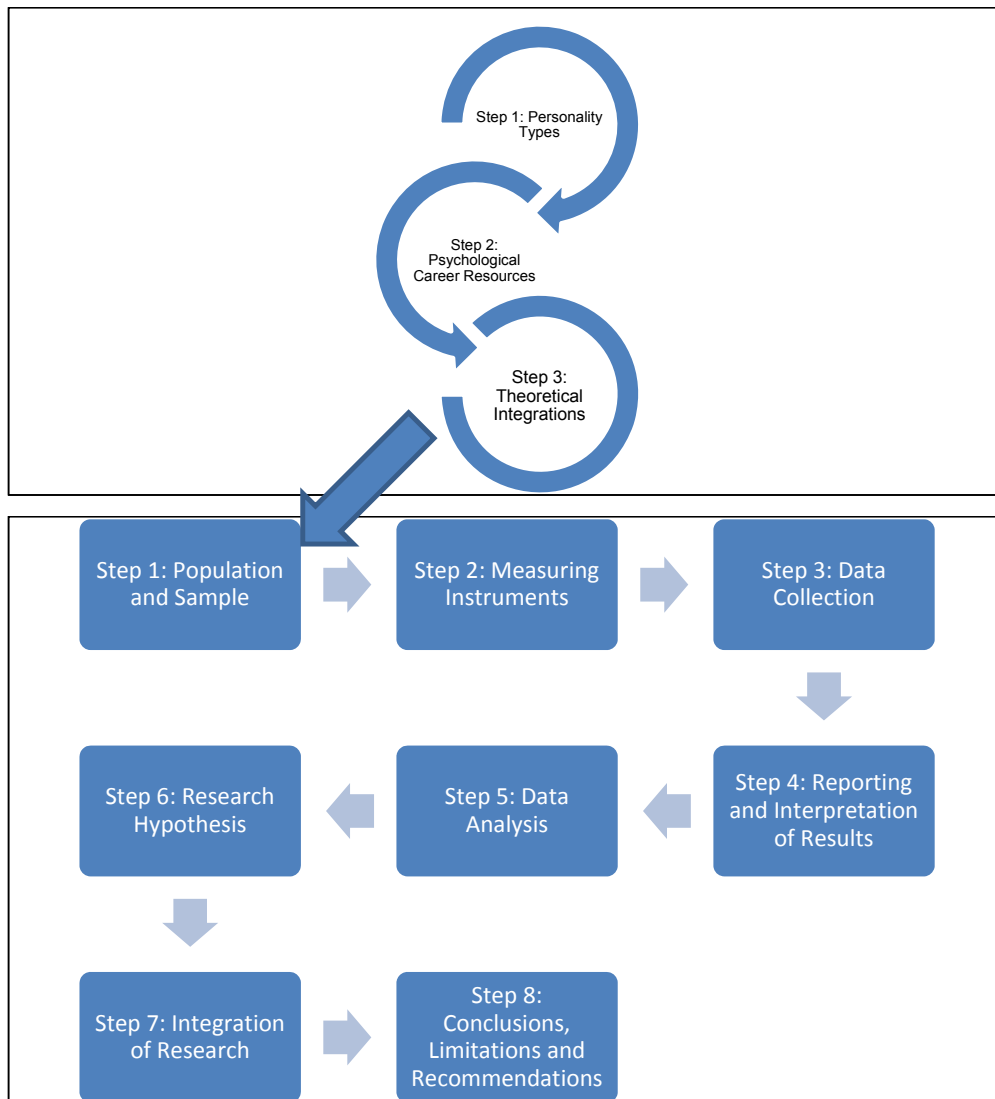
Figure 1.1: Flowchart of research model

1.7 CHAPTER LAYOUT

The chapters will be presented in the following manner:

Chapter 2 Literature Review: Personality types and psychological career resources

The following two constructs will be discussed in chapter 2:

Personality type

The construct of personality type will be conceptualised. Personality will be discussed from the perspectives of Jung (1921) and Myers and Briggs (Myers, 2003). The various personality types will be compared and discussed.

Psychological career resources

The construct of psychological career resources will be conceptualised. Psychological career resources will be discussed from Coetzee's (2008) perspective. The various psychological career resource constructs will be discussed.

Chapter 3 Empirical Study (Research Article)

The empirical study will be presented in the form of a research article. This article outlines the core focus of the study, the background to the study, trends from the research literature, the potential value added by the study, the research design (research approach and research method), the results, a discussion of the results, and the conclusions.

Chapter 4 Conclusions, Limitations and Recommendations

This is the final chapter in which the results are integrated and conclusions are reached. The limitations of the study are explained and recommendations are made for the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology.

CHAPTER 2

PERSONALITY TYPES AND PSYCHOLOGICAL CAREER RESOURCES

Chapter 2 conceptualises the construct of personality types and psychological career resources. This chapter includes the integration of existing literature to explain the relationship between personality types and psychological career resources. The final section of this chapter reviews the biographical variables (age, gender and race).

What follows is a discussion of personality types and psychological career resources.

2.1   Personality types

The concept of personality type is defined and discussed in more detail in this section.

2.2   Conceptualisation

Personality types will be discussed from the perspective of Jung's (1921) theory of personality and Myers-Briggs's personality type theory (Myers, McCaulley, Quenck & Hammer, 2003). The discussion is aimed at exploring personality in terms of overview, definitions, paradigms, Jung's (1921) theory of personality type, the MBTI (Myers et al., 2003) as the measure of personality types, application in the workplace and variables influencing personality.

2.2.1   Overview of personality type

The human personality is one of the most fascinating topics to study; however, people looking for clear-cut answers will be disappointed. There is as yet no one best theory of personality and various great psychologists who studied this topic have different views (Ewen, 2010).   This chapter reviews personality from the analytical psychological perspective of Jung (1921) and as measured by the MBTI (Myers et al., 2003).

2.2.2   Definitions of personality

According to Jung (1921), personality type preferences represent certain psychological types, which are intrinsically preferred motivational forces that are formed before consciousness manifests, and, in spite of later consciousness, pursue their inherent goals. Personality type is pre-dispositioned within human beings and is a universal attribute (Jung,

1921). The theory of personality type provides a framework for understanding personality differences in cognitive and perceptual style, values and motives (Jung, 1990). According to Jung (1990) each personality may be divided into one of various personality types in terms of two constructs, namely attitudes and functions (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2002). Jung's (1990) theory of personality types is concerned with the conscious use of the functions, of perceptions and decision-making. The personality theory of Jung (1990) also accepts that apart from the dominant attitude, each person has a specific way of observing the world and assigning meaning to personal experiences.

Burger (2011) and Ewen (2010) describe personality as behaviour patterns that are consistent and intrapersonal processes originating within the individual and personality is therefore considered to be important and stable aspects of behaviour. Pervin and Cervone (2010: 8) define personality as "psychological qualities that contribute to an individual's enduring and distinctive patterns of feeling, thinking, and behaving". Personality therefore relates to the studying of differences between individuals and the fact that personality contains psychological qualities that contribute to aspects of human behaviour (Bergh & Theron 2011; Pervin & Cervone, 2010).

Some personality psychologists argue that personality deals with a wide range of human behaviour, and is considered to be virtually everything about a person, consisting of mental, emotional, social and physical aspects (Ewen, 2010). Ewen (2010, p. 9) defines personality as "long-lasting and important characteristics within an individual, ones that continue to exert a strong influence on behaviour. Aspects of personality may be observable or unobservable, and conscious or unconscious".

Pervine and Cervone (2010) refer in their definition to the enduring and distinctive and explain the two constructs as follows: Enduring is when a person's quality of personality characteristics is at least somewhat consistent across time in different situations. Therefore the individual style of functioning is stable. However, people do change over time and do behave differently in different situations. An example would be the introvert who behaves as an introvert in an unknown situation, but as an extrovert in familiar situations. By distinctive Pervine and Cervone (2010) mean that personality addresses psychological features that differentiate people from one another. Burger (2011) further distinguishes between two parts of personality. The first part entails the consistent pattern of behaviour and is referred to as individual differences. Personality is therefore considered as consistent, and people act in a consistent way. The second part is referred to as intrapersonal processes. These processes

include all the emotional, motivational and cognitive processes that affect how the individual may act and feel.

2.2.3 Personality development over the lifespan

According to Super (1980), people tend to play a variety of roles as they mature. Some of these roles may even start in the early beginning of life. Others begin late in life. Jung (1969) believed that personality develops through a series of stages and that personality development is a dynamic process that takes place throughout life. Jung (1969) identified four stages, namely childhood, youth, middle life and old age.

Childhood

Jung (1969) established three stages, namely anarchic, monarchic and dualistic. In the anarchic phase chaotic and sporadic consciousness is experienced and the monarchic phase is characterised by the development of the ego and verbal logical thinking (Jung, 1969). The division of the ego into the subjective and objective as perceivers arises in the dualistic phase (Jung, 1969).

Youth

This is the stage in which people strive to gain physical and psychic independence from their parents. This stage can stretch from puberty up to the age of 35 years. This stage also entails the finding of a life partner, raising a family and settling down (Jung, 1969).

Middle Life

The middle life phase stretches from around the age of 35 to 40 up to 60 years and is characterised by the expansion of the conscious, which occurs through the acquisition of new knowledge and experiences (Jung, 1969). Jung (1969) postulated that the focus changes to the unconscious and individuals start to focus their attention on the inner aspects of themselves of which they were previously not aware.

Old age

Jung (1969) postulated that this is the stage where the persona has the opportunity for individualisation and this is also the stage where balance and harmony are gained from life-long experiences.

Previous researchers have ignored the influence of personality on career success (Siebert, Grant & Kraimer, 1999). The authors postulate that career success is a cumulative outcome, the product of behaviours that have been collected over a long period of time. Personality is the factor that determines the accumulative outcome, such as career success, rather than any single act or behavioural measure. Personality will therefore be more likely to influence behaviour in a weak situation than a strong situation with a degree of structure. The authors argue that personality should therefore be included in the career success models.

Super (1990) postulated that choosing an occupation is a choice of lifestyle in which the total personality has to find expression to as great an extent as possible. Personality, which encompasses a person's values, drives, preferences and needs, is perceived to be an important determinant of career choice. Choosing a career facilitates the self-expression of personality. Individuals will seek a working environment in which they can exercise their preferences, skills and abilities (Super, 1990).

2.2.4   Jung's theory of psychological types

The aim of this discussion is to establish a broader understanding of the construct personality type from the perspective of Jung.

The foundation for the MBTI was laid by Carl Gustav Jung. To understand the MBTI, Jung's personality type theory will be discussed briefly, as it forms the basis of the MBTI. Jung (1921) developed a theory of personality that postulates psychological type as a major construct through which personality can be understood.

Jung's (1971) approach is called the analytical approach and regarded as highly complex. It incorporates and develops some basic Freudian principles. Jung's view of the person and the psyche of the person is complex. It appears to be both optimistic and pessimistic, both deterministic and teleological. Jung considers human beings to be very complex and dynamic organisms, which are made up of opposing factors that may drive them into taking action either consciously or unconsciously (Jung, 1971; Myers et al., 2003).

Jung (1971) applies the casual approach in determining the role of the personal unconsciousness (complex) and the collective unconsciousness (archetypes) in causing behaviour. He also adds the teleological future perspective to determine behaviour. According to Jung, individual's behaviour is not only the outcome of past forces that drive the

individual's action, but also the individual's psyche striving for completeness and wholeness through the attainment of the self. A third dimension of the causal and goal-directed principle was added, called synchronicity, underlying the dynamics of behaviour. In synchronicity behaviour is not sought in the past or the future, but between events (Jung, 1971; Meyer et al., 2003).

According to Jung (1971), life consists of opposites, day and night, birth and death, good and evil, introversion and extraversion, thinking and feeling and so forth. Jung states that such contradictory, ideas, emotions and instincts exist at the same time in the psyche, therefore producing tension, which results in the creation of psychic energy and enables life to exist. Jung therefore argues that when an extreme is conscious, the unconscious compensates by emphasising the other extreme. The psyche is a closed system, so the libido withdrawing from one aspect of personality will appear somewhere else; this is called the principle of equivalence. The libido flows from a more intense to a less intense component. This is known as the principle of entropy. This will result in the overloaded component releasing energy to its undervalued counterpart, thus the unconscious opposite will emerge in the course of time, referred to as enantiodromia. An example would be where intense love gives way to hate. The principle of opposite and enantiodromia implies that no personality is ever truly one-sided (Ewen, 2010; Jung, 1971).

2.2.4.1   Attitudes of the psyche

According to Jung, every individual can be characterised by being orientated primarily inwardly or primarily outwardly, according to the primary channelling of physic energy (Engler, 2009; Meyer et al., 2003; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2007). Jung insisted that each person has both attitudes; the one is in the conscious while the other one is in the unconscious (Feist & Feist, 2009; Jung, 1971). The conscious consists of the ego and the persona. The centre of the consciousness is called the ego, and the persona is the mask that the individual adopts in the outside world (Jung, 1971). The unconsciousness is a unique and rich part of the psyche that consists of the individual's personal experiences and interaction with the world.

a)   Introversion

Introversion is described as the inner directedness of physic energy based on the subjective experience of the ego. According to Jung, an introvert is preoccupied with emotions and experience; introverts focus their physic energy on subjective factors within themselves, and

can be perceived as reserved or asocial. It is an attitude in which the psyche is orientated inward to the subjective world and the introvert is considered to be more comfortable with the inner world of concepts and ideas (Jung, 1971).

b)   *Extraversion*

Extraversion is directed to the external, people, objects and events outside the ego. Extraverts therefore divulge a lively interest in the world around them and appear highly sociable. Extraverts think, feel and relate to an object in a direct and observable fashion. The psyche is orientated outward to the objective world, and the extravert tends to be more comfortable with the outer world of people and things (Jung, 1971).

Jung observed that individuals tend to focus their energy and be energised more by the external world of people, experience, and activity or more by the internal world of ideas, memories, and emotions (Myers, 1998). Figure 2.1 gives a holistic picture of the attitudinal orientations of personality.
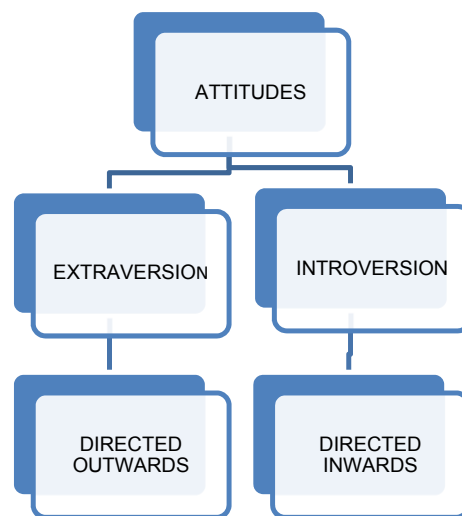
Figure 2.1: Attitudes of Personality (Jung, 1971; Myers, 1998)

2.2.4.2   Functions of the psyche

According to Jung, the psyche also has four functions, namely sensation, intuition, thinking and feeling. Sensation and intuition are classified into irrational functions. The rational function consists of thinking and feeling (Jung, 1971; Meyer et al., 2003). The four functions are grouped in opposite pairs (Engler, 2009). The four functions in brief can be defined as follow: Sensing tells the individual that something exists, thinking enables him or her to

recognise its meaning, feeling tells the individual its value or worth, and intuition allows the individual to know about it, without knowing how he or she knows (Feist & Feist, 2009; Jung 1971).

a)   Irrational functions

According to Jung, the irrational function determines the way in which the psyche collects information and relates to the outer reality, as well as how it reacts to stimulation directly without rational consideration coming into play (Engler, 2009; Jung, 1971; Meyer et al., 2003):

i)   Sensation

Sensation is all about how the psyche experiences external impulses by making use of the senses (Myers et al., 2003).   Senses consist of sight, hearing, smell, taste and touch (Myers et al., 2003). According to Jung (1971) and Schreuder and Coetzee (2007), sensing refers to the perceptual mode mediated by the sense and body organs. The senses perceive the present moment, leading to experience that is present, visible and concrete.

ii)   Intuition

Intuition refers to the unconscious perception or subliminal level. This means the psyche is elevated beyond the bodily confines of time and space. Intuition is not based on facts, but involves an instinctive kind of apprehension beyond the visible (Jung, 1971; Myers et al., 2003, Schreuder & Coetzee, 2007).

b)   Rational functions

Meyer, Moore and Viljoen (2003) indicate that rational functions according to Jung are the indirect way of processing information and the indirect way of reacting to a rational decision process (Jung, 1960).

i)   Thinking

Thinking is referred to as the logical structuring of functions directed at the way the individual explains and understands the world; it is related to the way the individual understands things and links ideas by means of concepts. It can therefore be intentional or unintentional (Jung, 1960; Meyer et al., 2003; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2007).

ii)   *Feeling*

Feeling is the opposite of thinking and refers to the way the individual accept or rejects things or ideas, because of the pleasant or unpleasant feelings they evoke. Feeling therefore judges information as good or bad, right or wrong, positive or negative. Feeling forms the basis for the individual's experience of feelings of pleasure, sadness, anger or love (Jung, 1958; Meyer et al., 2003; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2007).

Jung (1971) observed that when people's minds are active, they are involved in one of two mental activities: Taking in information, perceiving or organising that information and coming to conclusions, judging. Figure 2.2 gives a holistic picture of the mental functions of personality.
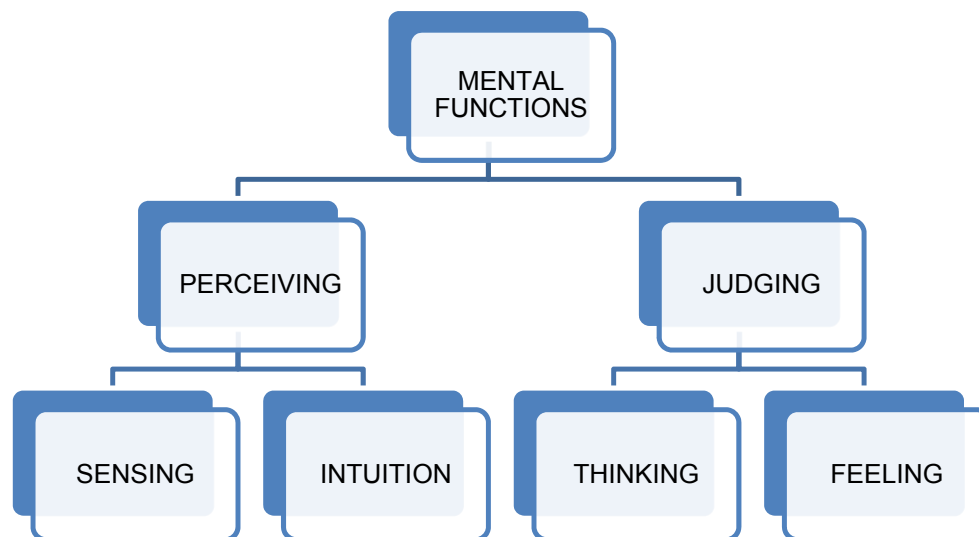
Figure 2: Mental functions of Personality (Jung, 1971; Myers, 1998)

2.2.5   The Myer-Briggs personality type theory

An important aspect of Jung's type theory is that it focuses on the development of personality throughout the life span (Myers et al., 2003). Jung's (1921/1971) type theory developed over time and the amount of detail provided about its various elements varied considerably. Jung (1921/1971) described eight preference types, focusing on the dominant function of each and the attitude (E or I). Jung's personality theory was taken into account in the development of the MBTI. The MBTI was developed in the 1920s by Briggs and her daughter, Isabel Myers-Briggs, and was based on Jung's theoretical constructs with two

additional dimensions of styles of living, consisting of a fourth scale that measures perceiving and judging (Meyer et al., 2003; Mullins, 2005, Schreuder & Coetzee, 2007).

The principles of Jung's theory have been incorporated into the MBTI, as well as the addition of the judging-perception dichotomy, which was undeveloped in Jung's personality theory, resulting in the MBTI being designed to measure 16 personality types: ISTJ (introversion, sensing, thinking, judging), ISFJ (introversion, sensing, feeling, judging), INFJ (introversion, intuition, feeling, judging), INTJ (introversion, intuition, thinking, judging), ISTP (introversion, sensing, thinking, perceiving), ISFP (introversion, sensing, feeling, perceiving), INFP (introversion, intuition, feeling, perceiving), INTP (introversion, intuition, thinking, perceiving), ESTP (extraversion, sensing, thinking, perceiving), ESFP (extraversion, sensing, feeling, perceiving), ENFP (extraversion, intuition, feeling, perceiving), ENTP (extraversion, intuition, thinking, perceiving), ESTJ (extraversion, sensing, thinking, judging), ESFJ (extraversion, sensing, feeling, judging), ENFJ (extraversion, intuition, feeling, judging) and ENTJ (extraversion, intuition, thinking, judging) (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2010; Myers et al., 2003).

Table 2.2.1 indicates the psychological types with their dominant and auxiliary functions.

Table 2.1: *Sixteen different personality types (Bergh & Theron, 2011; Sharf 2010)*

	SENSING(S)		INTUITIVE(N)	
INTROVERT(I)	ISTJ	ISFJ	INFJ	INTJ
DOMINANT/AUXILIARY	SI/TE	SI/FE	NI/FE	NI/TE
INTROVERT(I)	ISTP	ISFP	INFP	INTP
DOMINANT/AUXILIARY	TI/SE	FI/SE	FI/NE	TI/NE
EXTRAVERT(E)	ESTP	ESFP	ENFP	ENTP
DOMINANT/AUXILIARY	SE/TI	SE/FI	NE/FI	NE/TI
EXTRAVERT(E)	ESTJ	ESFJ	ENFJ	ENTJ
DOMINANT/AUXILIARY	TE/SI	FE/SI	FE/NI	TE/NI
	THINKING(T)	**FEELING(F)**	**FEELING(F)**	**THINKING(T)**

The MBTI yields 16 personality types with their dominant and auxiliary functions, as indicated in table 2.1, from the four scales where judging and perceiving are measured as a distinct rather than implicit part of a personality pattern (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2007). The MBTI aims to categorise people into one of the 16 personality types based on their scores for the four bi-polar scales. The assumption is that people sharing the same personality type also share the same personality characteristics and that they differ from individuals belonging to another personality type. Furthermore, it is assumed that different personality

types are suitable for different occupations and that a correlation between personality type, occupation and management style exists (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2007; Mullins, 2005).

Within the MBTI the most basic concepts are perception-judgement and extraversion-introversion. In perception-judgement the individual observes his or her surroundings and then makes a judgement or decision about what was identified. This can be related to the person's perception or view of the world, either focusing on the outer world or the inner world (extraversion-introversion). This is classified as preference patterns and different ways in which the individual prefers to make choices or decisions (Myers et al., 2003; Sharf, 2010). Individuals perceive and observe their world and make decisions based on their perceptions or observations. The first step is perception, becoming aware of things, objects or ideas. Individuals must then make a decision based on their perception or observation of things, objects or ideas. In doing so they are judging what has been perceived. There are two modes of perceiving and two modes of judging (Myers et al., 2003; Sharf, 2010).

2.2.5.1   Two ways of perceiving

The dominant perception style is associated with complexity, flexibility, adaptability and autonomy. It also seems to be related to change-as-a-challenge, being spontaneous, being happy-go-lucky, keeping options open for alterations of plans, often avoiding making any decisions, disliking to follow lists or plans, diagnosing rather than concluding, being concerned with knowing but not controlling, and trusting one's own resourcefulness (Jooste, 2006).

Perceiving is all about the way people perceive or absorb information about experience. Experience is perceived in two contrasting ways, by sensing through the senses or by intuition, which is indirect association and relationship in experience. Perceiving is divided into two contrasting ways of perceiving, as sensing and intuition. Sensing is taking in information by making use of visual and auditory processes combining smell, taste and touch. Intuition, on the other hand, uses the unconscious. Intuition is indirect and adds ideas to external perceptions. Individuals who use sensing make use of hearing, vision and touch. Their focus is on the immediate, what is happening around them. They often have a good memory and they are able to make clear observations. Intuition is the use of insight on how an individual may perceive meaning and relationships in an event. Intuition takes visible and auditory information as a basis and goes beyond it. The focus is not on the current event but on the future event. Therefore intuition is considered to be abstract, imaginative and creative (Ellis, 2006; Myers et al., 2003; Opt & Loffredo, 2000; Sharf, 2010).

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2.2.5.2   Two ways of judging

A dominant judgement style is associated with self-control, strict moral behaviour, rule-boundness and well-organised action. This style also performs best when planning or following a plan. People who follow it are deadline-orientated, like clarity and order in activities, are purposeful and take decisions very quickly. This type is also satisfied when one reaches a judgement or makes a decision. The judging type is very much concerned with the implementation of a decision, avoiding time pressure and disliking interruptions in a project or a change in plan (Jooste, 2006).

Judging is the process through which people come to conclusions about what they have perceived (Opt & Loffredo, 2000). According to Sharf (2010), judging consist of thinking and feeling. After perceiving an event, an individual will act in one of two ways, either thinking or feeling. Thinking is the analysis of the event and being objective about the observation. Feeling is a subjective reaction, often based on one's values. Use of thinking judgment leads to the individual being concerned with logic or analysis. The individual may be concerned with judging the event or idea fairly and making use of objective criticism to analyse his or her perception. A feeling judgement is based on the individual's value; in making a feeling judgement the individual is concerned with the impact of his or her judgement. This type of person will be more interested in the human being as opposed to technical problems (Du Toit, 1983; Ellis, 2006; Sharf, 2010).

2.2.5.3   Combination of perceiving and judging

There are four combinations of perceiving and judging that may occur (Meyer et al., 2003; Sharf, 2010):

a)   Sensing and thinking

Individuals of this type will focus on the collection of facts that can be verified by their observations. They want to see or hear what is happening. This type of individual is quite practical and pragmatic. When making a career decision they will use a rational decision-making process based on the information they have acquired through occupational literature and talking with others (Meyer et al., 2003; Sharf, 2010).

b)   Sensing and feeling

Although individuals of this type still rely on vision, hearing and other senses, they make their decisions based on their feeling. They base their decisions on the importance of feelings to themselves and others. They are likely to be more interested in observations about people than about objects. They will focus on information about people and occupations and are aware of how they will feel doing a certain kind of work on a daily basis (Meyer et al., 2003; Sharf, 2010).

c)   Intuition and feeling

Individuals of this type will be more concerned about future possibilities. Their feeling involvement is likely to be personal, warm and inspired. They will take a creative approach in meeting human needs and they are less concerned about objects. In making a career decision, they will make use of hunches based on what is best for them. Their emphasis is on feelings about observations rather than weighing the observations themselves (Meyer et al., 2003; Sharf, 2010).

d)   Intuition and thinking

Individuals of this type use intuition and thinking to make decisions based on analysis that uses hunches and projections about the future. They tend to enjoy solving problems, particularly those of a theoretical nature. In making a career decision they are likely to project themselves into the future, thinking of what type of work would offer a particular opportunity. However, their decision-making would be logical and clear to them, despite making use of future projections (Meyer et al., 2003; Sharf, 2010).

e)   Extraversion and introversion

Sharf (2010) adds that introversion and extraversion also have an impact on how individuals use perception and judgment. The meaning of introvert and extrovert for Jung and Myer relates to how the individual sees the world (Meyer et al., 2003; Sharf, 2010).

Introversion therefore refers to how the individual makes perceptions and judgments based on one's inner world. For the introvert, the inner world, consisting of concepts and ideas, is important. Introverts prefer to think, they like to think before taking action. They prefer activity where there is time for thinking. Extraversion refers to using perception and judgment in the

outer world. For the extrovert, the outer world, concerned with other individuals and entities, is significant. Extroverts prefer to take action, speaking to people rather than writing. Extraverts tend to like activity that provides contact with people (Sharf, 2010).

In the MBTI the different ways of judging and perceiving, the preference for judgement or perception and the preference for introversion or extraversion act with one another, resulting in the 16 personality types shown in table 2.2 (Myers et al., 2003):

Table 2.2: *Contribution made by each preference to each type (Myers et al., 2003, p. 38).*

		SENSING TYPE		INTUITIVE TYPE	
		With thinking	With feeling	With feeling	With thinking
INTROVERT		**ISTJ** **I**-Depth of concentration **S**-Reliance on facts **T**-Logic and analysis **J**-Organising and planning	**ISFJ** **I**-Depth of concentration **S**-Reliance on facts **F**-Warmth and empathy **J**-Organising and planning	**INFJ** **I**-Depth of concentration **N**-Grasp of possibilities **F**-Warmth and empathy **J**-Organising and planning	**INTJ** **I**-Depth of concentration **N**-Grasp of possibilities **T**-Logic and analysis **J**-Organising and planning
		ISTP **I**-Depth of concentration **S**-Reliance on facts **T**-Logic and analysis **P**-Adaptability	**ISFP** **I**-Depth of concentration **S**-Reliance on facts **F**-Warmth and empathy **P**-Adaptability	**INFP** **I**-Depth of concentration **N**-Grasp of possibilities **F**-Warmth and empathy **P**-Adaptability	**INTP** **I**-Depth of concentration **N**-Grasp of possibilities **T**-Logic and analysis **P**-Adaptability
EXTRAVERT		**ESTP** **E**-Breadth of interests **S**-Reliance on facts **T**-Logic and analysis **P**-Adaptability	**ESFP** **E**-Breadth of interests **S**-Reliance on facts **F**-Warmth and empathy **P**-Adaptability	**ENFP** **E**-Breadth of interests **N**-Grasp of possibilities **F**-Warmth and empathy **P**-Adaptability	**ENTP** **E**-Breadth of interests **N**-Grasp of possibilities **T**-Logic and analysis **P**-Adaptability

SENSING TYPE		INTUITIVE TYPE	
With thinking	With feeling	With feeling	With thinking
ESTJ	**ESFJ**	**ENFJ**	**ENTJ**
E-Breadth of interests	**E**-Breadth of interests	**E**-Breadth of interests	**E**-Breadth of interests
S-Reliance on facts	**S**-Reliance on facts	**N**-Grasp of possibilities	**N**-Grasp of possibilities
T-Logic and analysis	**F**-Warmth and empathy	**F**-Warmth and empathy	**T**-Logic and analysis
J-Organising and planning	**J**-Organising and planning	**J**-Organising and planning	**J**-Organising and planning

Jung's identified differences between individuals in terms of their libidinal energy, which could flow outwards to the external world (extravert) or inwards to their inner world (introvert). Personality would further manifest through differing cognitive functions of thinking, feeling, sensation and intuition. The MBTI is based on the theoretical construct with the additional dimension of style of living (Mullins, 2005). The personality types are shown in table 2.3.

Table 2.3: *Characteristics frequently associated with each type (Myers, 1998, p. 13).*

	SENSING TYPE		INTUITIVE TYPE	
	With thinking	With feeling	With feeling	With thinking
INTROVERT	**ISTJ** The ISTJ individual is considered to be quiet and serious. This type of individual earns success by being thorough and dependable. They are practical and matter-of-fact. ISTJ individuals show responsibility and they are realistic; they can decide logically what should be done and work slowly towards achieving it, regardless of any distractions. They find pleasure in making everything orderly and organised in their home, work and their life. They also value traditions and loyalty.	**ISFJ** The personality type ISFJ is a quiet, friendly, responsible, conscientious and loyal individual. They are committed and steady in meeting their obligations. They tend to be thorough, painstaking and accurate. The ISFJ is considered to notice and remember specifics about people who are important to them. They are also concerned with how others feel. They strive to create an orderly and harmonious environment at work and at home.	**INFJ** The INFJ personality type is the type of individual who seeks meaning and connection in ideas, relationships and material possessions. They want to understand what motivates people and are insightful about others. They are also conscientious and committed to their firm values. They have developed a clear vision on how to serve the common good. They are also well-organised and decisive in implementing their vision.	**INTJ** The INTJ personality type has an original mind and has a great drive to implement their ideas and achieve their goals. They are quick to see patterns in external events and can develop a long-range explanatory perspective. When they are committed to a job, they will organise the job and carry it through. They tend to be sceptical and independent and expect high standards of competence and performance, not only from themselves but also from others.
	ISTP The ISTP personality is the type that is tolerant and flexible and will observe quietly until a problem appears. They will then act swiftly to find a suitable and workable solution. They will analyse large amounts of data to determine what makes things work and will isolate the core of the practical problem. They are interested in cause and effect and organise facts using logical principles.	**ISFP** The ISFP individual is the type that is quiet, friendly, sensitive and kind. They enjoy the present moment and what is going on around them. They also like to have their own space and work within their own time frame. They are loyal and committed to their values and to people who are important to them. They dislike disagreements and conflicts. They also do not force their opinions or values onto others.	**INFP** This type of individual is idealistic, loyal to their values and to people who are important to them. They strive for an external life that is congruent with their values. They are very curious and are quick to see possibilities. They are a catalyst for implementing ideas. The INFP individual seeks to understand people and to help them fulfil their potential. They are furthermore quite adaptable, flexible and accepting, unless their values are threatened.	**INTP** The individual with the INTP type of personality tends to seek to develop logical explanations for everything that interests them. The theoretical and abstract interest them more than social interactions. They seem to be quiet, contained, flexible and adaptable. They have an unusual ability to focus in depth to solve problems in their areas of interest. They also tend to be very sceptical, critical and always analytical.

	SENSING TYPE		INTUITIVE TYPE	
	With thinking	With feeling	With feeling	With thinking
EXTRAVERT	**ESTP** The ESTP type of individual is flexible, spontaneous and tolerant. They adopt a pragmatic approach and focus on immediate results. They tend to be bored by theories and conceptual explanations. They want to act in an energetic way to resolve the problem. They focus on the here-and-now and enjoy each moment that they can be active with others. They enjoy the materialistic side of life, comfort and style. They also learn best through doing.	**ESFP** The ESFP personality tends to be outgoing, flexible, spontaneous, friendly and accepting. They are lovers of life, people and material comfort. They enjoy working with others and making things happen. They also bring common sense and a realistic approach to their work. This results in making work fun. They adapt easily to new people and new environments and learn best by trying a new skill with other people.	**ENFP** The ENFP type is considered to be a warm, imaginative and enthusiastic individual. They see life as full of possibilities. They are able to make a connection between events and information very quickly, and to proceed confidently based on the patterns they see. They seek a lot of affirmation from others but are also willing to give appreciation and support. They are spontaneous and flexible and often rely on their ability to improvise and their verbal fluency.	**ENTP** The ENTP personality type is considered to be quick, ingenious, stimulating, alert and outspoken. They are also resourceful in solving new and challenging problems. They are adept at generating conceptual possibilities and then analysing them strategically. They are also good at 'reading' other people. They tend to become bored by routine and will seldom do the same thing the same way. They tend to turn from one new interest to another.
	ESTJ The ESTJ again is practical, realistic and matter-of-fact. They tend to be decisive and quick to implement decisions. They organise projects and people to get things done; they focus on getting results in the most efficient way possible. They also take care of routine and details. They have a clear set of logical standards, systematically following them and wanting others to follow them as well. They are forceful in implementing their plans.	**ESFJ** This type of individual is loyal, warm-hearted, conscientious and cooperative. They want harmony in their environment and will work with determination to establish it. They like working with others in order to complete tasks accurately and on time. They follow through even on small matters, and they notice what others need in their day-to-day lives and try to provide it. They also want to be recognised for who they are and what they contribute.	**ENFJ** The ENFJ is considered to be warm, empathetic, responsive, loyal and responsible. They are highly attuned to the emotions, needs and motivations of others. They find potential in everyone, want to help others fulfil their potential. They may also act as a catalyst for individual and group growth. They are responsive to praise and criticism. They are sociable and facilitate others in a group, providing inspiring leadership.	**ENTJ** They tend to be frank and decisive and will assume leadership readily. They are able to spot illogical and inefficient procedures and policies. They will developed and implement comprehensive systems to solve organisational problems. They also enjoy long-term planning and goal-setting. They are usually well-informed and well-read, and they enjoy expanding their knowledge and passing it on to others. They tend to be forceful in presenting their ideas.

2.2.6 Preferences for work situations

Type preferences are likely to affect activities in the work environment that people find energising and satisfying. The following likes and dislikes in the working environment, as identified by Myers et al. (2003), will be discussed in more detail:

2.2.6.1 Extraversion-introversion in work situations

a) Extraverts

Extraverts like variety and action and they tend to be faster. They are interested in the activities of their jobs. They want to get the job done and they are interested in how other people do it. They do not mind interruptions, like having people around them, and they usually communicate freely. They dislike complicated procedures and often show impatience with long, slow jobs they have to do alone. They often react quickly, sometimes without thinking it through (Myers et al., 2003).

b) Introverts

Introverts prefer quietness to concentrate, they tend to be careful with details and do not mind working on one project for a long time. They show interest in the detail and the ideas behind the job. They tend to think a lot before they act, sometimes without acting; they dislike interruptions and dislike sweeping statements. They work alone and sometimes have problems communicating with others, since everything is in their heads (Myers et al., 2003).

2.2.6.2 Sensing-intuition in work situations

a) Sensing

The sensing type likes to focus on the here and now and reality. They rely on the standard way to solve problems and they enjoy perfecting skills already learned. They work more steadily when they have a realistic view of how long it will take and reach a conclusion step by step. They show patience for routine details and seldom make factual errors. They tend to be good at precise work and create something new by adapting something that exists. They tend to be impatient when situations become complicated. They are also not often inspired and rarely trust the inspiration when they are. They dislike problems if they cannot rely on a standard way to solve the problem (Myers et al., 2003).

b)   Intuition

This type tends to focus on the future and what might be and like to solve problems in unusual ways. They also like to learn new skills more rather than using them. They work in bursts of energy, powered by enthusiasm, with slack periods in between. They also tend to be patient in complex situations and reach an understanding quickly. They follow their inspiration, good or bad, regardless of data and create something new through a personal insight. However, they dislike doing the same thing repeatedly and taking time for precision and frequently make errors of fact (Myers et al., 2003).

2.2.6.3   Thinking-feeling in work situations

a)   Thinking

Thinking types like to analyse and put things into logical order; they are more analytically oriented, responding more easily to people's thoughts. They can reprimand people impersonally, although they might not like doing so. They want to be treated fairly in accordance with prevailing standards. They can get along without harmony, they are firm-minded, do not show emotion and are uncomfortable dealing with people's feelings. They may even hurt people's feelings without knowing it. When they make decisions they do it impersonally, sometimes paying insufficient attention to people's wishes (Myers et al., 2003).

b)   Feeling

The feeling type likes harmony; such people tend to be sympathetic and very much aware of other people and their feelings. They enjoy pleasing people, even in unimportant things, and they are more people-oriented and respond more easily to people's values. Their work efficiency may be badly disrupted by office feuds and they often let decisions be influenced by their own or other people's personal likes and dislikes. They dislike telling people unpleasant things. They need praise and personal attention (Myers et al., 2003).

2.2.6.4   Judging-perceiving in work situations

a)   Judging

Judging types tend to work best when they can plan their work and follow a plan. Therefore they like to get things settled and done and only need the bare essentials to begin their work.

They seem to be satisfied once they reach a judgment on a thing, situation or person. They may decide things too quickly and may not notice new things to be done in their desire to complete what they are doing, resulting in unwillingness to be interrupted on a current project for a more urgent project (Myers et al., 2003).

b)   Perceiving

Perceiving types adapt well to changing situations and prefer to leave things open for alteration. They want to know everything about a new job and they tend to be curious and welcome a new light on a thing, situation, or person. They may unduly postpone decisions and they may start too many projects and have difficulty in finishing them. They may postpone unpleasant jobs while finding other things more interesting at the moment (Myers et al., 2003).

2.2.7   Variables influencing personality

Sullivan (1999) adds that individual characteristics such as a person's age, gender, race, marital status and personality could have an influence on outcomes such as career success and career development, which in turn also influence an individual's employability.
According to personality psychologists there are certain factors that have an influence on the development of personality (Pervine & Cervone, 2010):

2.2.7.1   Genetic determinants

Genetic factors contribute strongly to the individual's personality and differences between individuals, since genetic factors contribute to the brain's development and allow the personality psychologist to understand links from genes to the biological system with regard to behaving in a certain way (Smidt, Fox, Rubbin, Stella & Hammer, 2002).

2.2.7.2   Environmental determinants

It has been established that the environment plays a critical role in the development of personalities (Pervine & Cervone, 2010). Individuals' concepts of self, goals in life and values that guide them are developed in the social world. The environmental determinants are culture, social class, family and peers.

a)   Culture

Each culture has its own patterns of learned behaviour, rituals and beliefs. Cultural practices that reflect long-standing religious and philosophical convictions provide people with answers to significant questions. Culture may therefore influence an individual's personality and the culture in which the individual lives defines the needs and means to satisfy them and determines how the individual experiences different emotions and the manner of expressing feelings (Pervine & Cervone, 2010). Culture includes the attitudes, traditions, art, value and belief systems that groups of people understand and share. Culture defines the way people think and the way in which they behave as part of a group and distinguish people from other groups (Kleynhans, Markham, Meyer & Van Aswegen, 2007).

According to Burger (2011), psychologists have come to see that people and their personalities exist in a cultural context. A major distinction can be made between individualistic cultures and collectivist cultures.

Individualistic cultures emphasise greater focus on autonomy, freedom of expression and an individual's own internal thoughts, emotions and experiences. The USA and most Western European countries are very individualistic and the culture focuses on the individual. Collectivistic cultures, on the other hand, seem to be more socially oriented and place emphasis on the group and the importance of the relationship between members of the group. The welfare of the group is more important than the individual's needs and desires and the culture focuses on group performance and working in a team to achieve goals. Typical collectivistic cultures are those from Africa and Asia (Kleynhans et al., 2007; Compton, 2005).

b)   Social class

Although patterns of behaviour may develop in a certain culture, other behaviour may develop as a result of membership of a certain class in a given culture. Social class therefore helps determine the status of individuals, the roles they perform, the duties by which they are bound and the privileges they enjoy. Social class factors influence people's capability and tendencies.

c)   Family

One of the most important factors to be considered for personality development is family. Parent's behaviour affects the personality development of the child. Parents influence their children in three ways, namely through:

- Their own behaviour;
- Serving as role models; and
- Selectively rewarding behaviour.

d)   Peers

The individual's experience with members of his/her peer group is an environmental feature outside family life. Peer groups socialise the individual into acceptance of new rules of behaviour.

2.3   PSYCHOLOGICAL CAREER RESOURCES

Below is the literacy review on the construct of psychological career resources. It is aimed at exploring career in terms of definitions and psychological career resources.

2.3.1   Conceptualisation of psychological career resources

Career is a term that refers to how individuals see themselves in relation to what they do (Sharf, 2010). Career refers to the lifetime pursuit of the individual (Sharf, 2010). Psychologists and sociologists refer to the boundaryless career as a career that may be pursued with multiple employers, and a career that is characterised by the 21st century. This allows the individual to build on experiences and learning in a variety of work environments (Coetzee, 2006; Hodson & Sullivan, 2008).

Schreuder and Coetzee (2007: 346) define career as "significant learning and experiences that identify an individual's professional life, direction, competencies, and accomplishments through positions, jobs, roles, and assignments". Stead and Watson (2009, p. xiii) define career as "the meaning of work-related experiences in relation to the individual's life roles across his or her lifespan".

The new career consists of a greater frequency of lateral moves and employer changes; it is expected that careers will become more individualised and transactional (King, 2003). The result is that employees need to focus on employability and take responsibility for planning and managing their careers, as many organisations rely on the individual's willingness to learn, adapt and explore (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2012; King, 2003).

In the context of this study the psychological career resources model developed by Coetzee (2008) is used as a career model framework. Psychological career resources are resources the individual uses to adapt to changing career circumstances and to adapt to these circumstances in order to achieve success within his or her own career. Psychological career resources assist in organising the individual's experience, identifying long-term contributions and determining measures for success. Psychological career resources also help the individual to understand the reason for the choice of a specific occupation (Ferreira, Basson & Coetzee, 2010; Coetzee & Bergh, 2009). Psychological career resources further reflect the individual's career awareness and career-related cognition. This includes perception, attentiveness and self-evaluation of the individual's calling preferences, attitudes, ideals, skills and behaviours that are identified and understood by the individual as an important factor in determining career and job satisfaction (Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee & Bergh, 2009; Ferreira, Basson & Coetzee, 2010; Gunz & Heslin, 2005).

Career enablers

(Transferable skills that help people succeed in their careers)
Practical/Creative skills
Self/Other skills

Career drivers

(Attitudes that energise people and motivate them to experiment with career and employment possibilities)
Career purpose
Career directedness
Career venturing

Career harmonisers

(Psychological attributes that act as promoters of flexibility and resilience and as control for the career drivers)
Self-esteem
Behavioural adaptability
Emotional literacy
Social connectivity

People's unique view about the paths their careers should follow

Career preferences

(cognitive structures underlying the meaning of career and guiding people's career moves)
Stability/expertise
Managerial
Variety/Creativity
Freedom/autonomy

Career values

(Motivation for a particular career preference)
Growth/development
Authority/influence

Figure 2.3: Theoretical framework of the construct psychological career resources (Ferreira, Basson & Coetzee, 2010)

As depicted in Figure 2.3, career decisions are guided by the individual's career preference and career values. The career drivers are considered to be the attitudes that provide individual with the energy and motivation to experiment with possible careers. This in return provides a viewpoint of the possible self they could become and the possible working roles they could experience. The role of career enablers is to assist the individual to be successful in his or her career by having the required skills and abilities. The career harmonisers provide control by keeping the career drivers in balance, preventing people from going overboard or pursuing and reinventing their careers. The career harmonisers further act as promoters of flexibility and resilience. The individual's psychological career resources therefore reflect the career consciousness of the individual (Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee & Bergh, 2009; Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007). Coetzee (2008: 10) defines psychological career resources as "the set of career-related orientations, values, attitudes, abilities and attributes that lead to self-empowering career behaviour and promote general employability."

Psychological career resources are therefore a useful theoretical framework for the reason that they help people understand the importance of developing their internal career resources and tapping into these psychological resources to improve their attributes and skills to create an opportunity for employment (Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee, 2006).

2.3.1.1   Career preferences and career values

Career preferences and career values therefore assist individuals in determining the directions their careers should take and assisting them in their career choices. Career preferences and career values are thus also considered as the cognitive structure forming the basis of the thoughts about careers that makes the career meaningful to the individual. Career preferences and values therefore assist the individual in determining long-term career choices. Career preferences direct the individual's career move and career values indicate a specific career preference (Brousseau, 1990; Coetzee, 2008; Ferreira, Basson & Coetzee, 2010; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2009).

Coetzee (2007) has identified four career preferences, namely stability/expertise, managerial, creativity/variety and autonomy/independence, based on the career orientation models of Driver and Brousseau (Coetzee, 2008; Driver & Brousseau, 1990). The career preference consisting of stability/expertise relates to the person orientation towards a specific occupation that will offer stability and the development of expertise in this specific occupation (Coetzee, 2009; Driver & Brousseau, 1990). The individual who views upward

mobility to positions of greater influence, authority and responsibility as important has a managerial career preference. On the other hand, individuals with autonomy/independence as a career preference regard freedom and independence from external interruptions as the preferred working environment (Coetzee, 2008). Coetzee has (2007) established that both managerial and autonomy/independence career preferences are associated with the need for authority and influence as career motivation (Coetzee, 2008). The creativity/variety career preference is linked to individuals' careers allowing them to work on a variety of different tasks that require them to use and develop a range of skills, abilities and knowledge in a creative and innovative way (Coetzee, 2008; Driver & Brousseau, 1990).

Values can be described as the enduring belief that certain conduct is personally and socially acceptable. Values contain a judgmental element in that an individual has a preconceived idea of what is right, good or desirable (Bergh & Theron, 2010; Robbins, Judge, Odendaal & Roodt, 2011). According to Maree (2010), values are really things that matter in one's life and career. Values have an impact on many areas of life and are therefore very important. Values lead to a sense of direction and purpose in life. Although values may sometimes be unclear, they still influence behaviour, decisions and actions. It is important that the individual should recognise his or her values and incorporate his or her top values in his or her work to avoid career-related problems (Maree, 2010). Maree (2010) states that it is important to notice that individuals will be more satisfied and fulfilled in their jobs if their values are accommodated.

Individual's long-term career goals may be influenced by the way they value their career (Ferreira, Basson & Coetzee, 2010).

2.3.1.2 Career drivers

Career drivers are considered to be those attitudes that energise people and lead to motivation so that people are willing to experiment with career and employment possibilities, based on the perception of their abilities and what they are capable of for present and future work roles. These drivers are people's career motivation, career commitment, career maturity and life purpose (Coetzee, 2006; Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee & Bergh, 2009). Career drivers consist of career purpose, career directedness and career-venturing attitudes (Coetzee, 2008).

Coetzee (2008) describes the concept of career purpose in career drivers as the individual's sense of having a career passion. Coetzee (2008) elaborates further on career purpose as

individuals' self-belief and personal conviction that they have the capability to fulfil their career goals.

Coetzee (2008) describes the concept of career directedness as the individual's sense of clarity on future career guidance and targets. Furthermore, it provides the individual with understanding of how and where support could be resourced to achieve targets or to find fresh career opportunities. This means that the individual will invest in career directedness once clear goals and targets have been established. The individual will then strive to achieve these goals or targets using his or her strengths and abilities (Coetzee, 2008; Ferreira, Basson & Coetzee, 2010).

The last concept, career venturing, refers to individuals' willingness to take risks. In order to take a risk the individual needs to explore new and fresh career opportunities. When individuals are satisfied with their careers, they need help in upholding their career satisfaction. The development of new skills will help them maintain career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2008; Ferreira, Basson & Coetzee, 2010).

2.3.1.3   Career enablers

Career enablers are those transferable skills and talents, self-knowledge and intentions that help people to succeed in their careers (Coetzee, 2006). Career enablers consist of two constructs, namely practical/creative skills and self/other skills.

According to Coetzee (2008), practical/creative skills include skills such as applying existing theoretical constructs in practice, in a manner that is innovative, leading to doing things in a new way. Self/other skills refer to career enablers as the individual's convenience skills, such as their practical or artistic skills, and their self-management and relationship skills. This will provide the necessary abilities that will help the individual in creating a successful career (Coetzee, 2008).

2.3.1.4   Career harmonisers

Career harmonisers refer to the mental attributes to keep the drivers in balance so that people do not burn themselves out in the process of pursuing a career. Career harmonisers include concepts such as emotional literacy, social connectivity, self-esteem and behavioural adaptability. Individuals' self-esteem, emotional literacy and social connectivity promote their

behavioural adaptability and help them to gain self-confidence in their ability to perform a task successfully (Coetzee, 2006; Coetzee, 2008).

Emotional literacy refers to the degree to which an individual is able to accept and express a range of emotions. In order to display adaptive career behaviour in the career decision-making process, a number of emotional responses must be facilitated (Emmerling & Cherniss, 2003). Emotional literacy refers to the non-cognitive skills, capabilities and competence that influence the individual's ability to cope with the demands and pressures of the environment. If individuals understand and know their emotions and are good at reading others' emotions, they may be more effective in their jobs (Robbins et al., 2006).

Social connectivity describes the ability to connect with others and the ability to develop and maintain mutually satisfying relationships (Emmerling & Cherniss, 2003). It is the ability of the individual to build and preserve healthy and mutual relationships (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009).

According to Taylor et al. (2006), self-esteem is the evaluation people tend to make of themselves; they are concerned not only with what they are like but also with how they value these qualities. People measure whether they are fundamentally good or bad, talented or not and so forth. Luthans (2005) refers to self-esteem as individuals' attempt to understand themselves; this is called the self-concept in personality theory. The self is the personality viewed from within and is a unique product made up of various interacting parts (Luthans, 2005). Coetzee and Bergh (2009) describe self-esteem as individuals' self-assessment regarding their own competence, value and efficacy in comparison to others and their standards.

Behavioural adaptability is the person's ability to determine his or her traits that are necessary to perform and make the necessary changes to achieve his or her career-related desires (Coetzee, 2008; Ferreira, Basson & Coetzee, 2010). Behavioural adaptability includes individuals' capability to clearly identify qualities that would be needed in order to be successful in the future, and the ability to take note of those personal changes needed to meet their career demands (Hall, 2002). Thus the individual with high behavioural adaptability would have the capacity to engage pro-actively in setting goals, initiating effort and achieving success (Hall & Chandler, 2005).

It is important to note that career preferences and values, career drivers, career enablers and career harmonisers have to be in a state of equilibrium to allow development of the

individual as a whole. If any of the psychological career resources are out of balance, none of the other components can function at its maximum potential. Balanced and optimal functioning of psychological career resources is an indication of conscious, self-directed career behaviour that is internally driven and guided by a person's career preferences, career values, career drivers and career harmonisers (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009; Coetzee, 2008; Ferreira, Basson & Coetzee, 2010).

People's psychological career resources assist them in being self-directed learners and pro-active in the management of their own careers. Psychological career resources include career motives and interest, skills such as career planning and management, career self-management and interpersonal skills. They also include inner-value capital attributes such as behavioural adaptability, self-esteem and sense of purpose, as well as emotional and social literacy (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2012; Coetzee, 2008; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011).

2.4 THEORETICAL INTEGRATION OF PERSONALITY TYPES AND PSYCHOLOGICAL CAREER RESOURCES

Many managers in Western industrial settings have been identified as extraverted, sensing, thinking and judging and the majority of South African managers prefer the combination of thinking and judging (Coetzee, Martins, Basson & Muller, 2006; Flannes, 1998; Hammer, 1996; Martins & Coetzee, 2007). According to Hammer (1996), sensing, thinking and judging are the dominant preferences in upper management. However, there is increasing selection of intuition when moving up the ranks (Hammer, 1996). Extraverts have a more positive sense of well-being that may help them to manage stress better than introverts. Satava (1997) established that extraverts prefer interaction with others and prefer to engage in conversations with others (Rothmann, 2001). Higgs (2001) also established that intuition (and the associated MBTI profiles) is related to higher levels of emotional intelligence, as did Rothmann, Scholtz, Sipsma and Sipsma (2002), who established a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and extraversion, intuition, feeling and perception. Extraversion and emotional stability were related to general management and introversion was related to job security and technical competence (Van Rensburg, Rothmann & Rothmann, 2003). Engstrom, Boozer, Maddox and Forte (2010) determined that extraverted and thinking types scored higher on emotional intelligence and job satisfaction than introverts and feeling types.

Coetzee and Esterhuizen (2010) established in their research study that the participants had a strong preference for stability/expertise and growth and development, implying a strong need for steady and stable employment that will allow them to developed expertise in an area of interest, as well as to improve their skills and knowledge in a particular field. According to the findings of Coetzee and Bergh (2009), individuals who regard work as a valuable activity also have a stronger sense of career purpose and Coetzee and Schreuder (2009) determined in their research study that managers and supervisors seem to have a strong sense of career purpose, meaning that they appear to have a calling towards their careers and tend to work for the fulfilment their jobs and careers offer. Participants who showed a strong need to manage others also appeared to be driven by a strong need to venture out in search of new, different and challenging assignments (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009). According to Coetzee and Schreuder (2009) the participants appeared to have positive self-regard and confidence in their ability to achieve their career goals. It was determined that participants who perceived themselves as able to connect and get along with others were also inclined to form supportive social networks (Coetzee & Esterhuizen, 2010). Coetzee and Bergh (2009) also found that positive self-esteem positively predicts life satisfaction and happiness. Behavioural adaptability is considered as a positive predictor of job satisfaction and work is perceived as a valuable activity (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009).

Individuals seek environments that allow them to express their interest, skills, attitudes and values and to take on interesting problems and agreeable roles. Therefore individuals display varying priorities, attitudes and interests, once in a job. This results in the work environments becoming populated by individuals with related occupational personality types. Personal values, such as freedom, growth and self-determination, play an important role in any career decision that an individual makes. Work experience is likely to be influenced by expectations of work, which derive from people's upbringing, as well as by the skills and abilities with which their physique, intellect and social milieu endow them. The individuals' feelings about their jobs depend not only on the nature of the work, but also on the background, values and needs they bring to the job. The expectations that individuals bring to their job arise from their prior experiences and expectations (Hodson & Sullivan, 2008; Rothman & Cooper, 2008; Watson, 2003).

Personality, which encompasses a person's values, drives, preferences and needs, is perceived as an important determinant of career choice. The choice of a career is therefore a lifestyle in which the total personality has to find expression and people will choose a career where they can express themselves and will seek an environment where they can exercise their preferences, abilities and skills. Individuals' career choice is an expression of

their personalities (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007; Langley, Stead & Watson, 1999; Stead & Watson, 2009).

In table 2.4 a possible integration between personality type and psychological career resources is established.

Table: 2.4: *Integration of personality type and psychological career resources*

	Personality Type	Psychological Career Resources
Conceptualisation (Definitions)	Jung (1990) divided personality types in terms of two constructs, namely attitude and functions. Psychological types refer to a personality pattern that involves certain psychological processes that determine a person's orientation to life (Jung, 1921; Myers et al, 2003).	According to Coetzee (2008) psychological career resources can be defined "as the set of career related preferences, values, attitudes, abilities and attributes that lead to self-empowering, pro-active career behaviour that promotes general employability" (Coetzee & Esterhuizen, 2010; Coetzee, 2008).
Core Constructs	16 Personality Types ISTJ, ISFJ, INFJ, INTJ, ISTP, ISFP, INFP, INTP, ESTP, ESFP, ENFP, ENTP, ESTJ, ESFJ, ENFJ, ENTJ Career types: ST, SF, NT, NF	Career preferences, career values, career enablers, career drivers, career harmonisers
Sub Constructs		Stability/expertise, managerial, Variety/creativity, growth/development. Authority/influence, practical/creative skills, self/other skills, career purpose, career directedness, career

	Personality Type	Psychological Career Resources
Implications	• Research on type and coping suggests that introverts have fewer coping resources than extravert types (Hammer, 1996). Introverts displayed significantly higher work stress than extraverts (Myers et al., 2003), • Types relying on sensing displayed significantly higher work stress than those preferring intuition (Myers et al., 2003). • Feeling types displayed significantly higher work stress than thinking types (Briggs-Myers, 2003). • Perceiving types displayed higher stress associated with work compared to types preferring judging (Myers et al., 2003).	venturing, self-esteem, behavioural adaptability, emotional literacy, social connectivity • Strong career drivers promote health-promoting behaviours that lead to an increase in the individual's physical and emotional well-being and an optimistic view towards the self and one's life in general (Coetzee & Esterhuizen, 2010). • Career drivers relate to having a sense of calling or higher purpose and goal-directed intentionality towards one's career development (Coetzee, 2008). • Career enablers and career harmonisers positively predict individual's career resilience (Symington, 2012).

	Personality Type	Psychological Career Resources
	• The sensing-feeling types are likely to rate a number of areas stressful and that is true regardless of their preference for introversion or extraversion (Myers et al, 2003). • Extroverts prefer managerial careers while introverts prefer more technical careers (Van Rensburg, Rothman & Rothman, 2003; Garden, 1997). • Feeling types prefer various challenging projects rather than promotion, compared to their thinking counterparts (Van Rensburg, Rothman & Rothman, 2003; Garden, 1997).	• Career enablers and career preferences positively predict individual's openness to change and proactivity and career enablers and career values appear to be strong predictors of individuals' generalised self-efficacy (Symington, 2012). • Managers have a stronger sense of career purpose, they appear to feel called to their careers and tend to work for fulfilment (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2010). They also have a preference for a steady career and career security (Coetzee & Ferreira, 2010). • The individual's planning of his or her career will be affected by his or her career preferences for a managerial position (Ferreira, 2012).

	Personality Type	Psychological Career Resources
	- Judging types prefer managerial positions compared to the perceiving type that prefers the route of an entrepreneur (Van Rensburg, Rothman & Rothman, 2003; Garden, 1997). - The thinking type prefers challenges and the sensing and judging type prefers stability and security (Van Rensburg, Rothman & Rothman, 2003; Rothman, 2001). - Coetzee and Schreuder (2002) establish that the ST career type prefer security, stability and autonomy. The ST types want to improve their competence, their expertise and quest to be achievers. Personal growth, recognition and prestige also seem important to them.	- Managers look for employment that gives them the opportunity to apply their expertise in a specific field. They therefore have a lower need to venture out in search of new opportunities and possibilities (Coetzee & Schreuder 2010) - Compared to males, females venture more out and experiment with possible career opportunities (Coetzee & Ferreira, 2010). - Females tend to be much more socially connected than their male counterparts (Coetzee & Ferreira, 2010) - Younger individuals have higher confidence in their social ability compared to older age groups (Coetzee & Ferreira, 2010)

	Personality Type	Psychological Career Resources
	• The NT career type looks for personal growth, creativity, prestige, recognition, variety, independence, involvement, achievement and developing others (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2002).	
Gender	• Men are encouraged more towards thinking and woman towards feeling activities (Briggs Myer et al., 2003; Gratias, 1997)	
Age	• Sensing seems to occur more in the younger and older age , while thinking tends to be found more often in the middle age group (Gratias, 1997; Cumming, 1995)	• Individuals in the age group 26 – 40 are looking for more growth and development opportunities (Coetzee & Ferreira, 2010; Coetzee, 2008)
Race	• Whites are more introverted and slightly less sensing and thinking compared to African-Americans, who are more thinking and sensing (Gratias, 1997; Hammer & Mitchell, 1996)	• Whites have lower self-esteem compared to their African counterparts (Coetzee & Ferreira, 2010). • Africans have higher self-esteem (Coetzee & Ferreira, 2010; Coetzee & Bergh, 2009; Coetzee, 2008) Africans have a stronger need for managerial positions (Coetzee & Ferreira, 2010).

2.5   CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the researcher's literature study, which incorporates the personality type and psychological career resources. An overview of the theories of Freud and Jung was provided, with a more in-depth discussion of Jung's analytical theory and personality types. The next section dealt with the MBTI its constructs and 16 personality types. Subsequently an in-depth discussion on the different psychological career resources was conducted. The chapter ended with the integration of personality types and psychological career resources.

CHAPTER 3

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONALITY TYPES AND PSYCHOLOGICAL CAREER RESOURCES OF MANAGERS IN THE FAST-FOOD INDUSTRY IN THE WESTERN CAPE

ABSTRACT

Orientation: Working in the harsh environment of the quick-service restaurant industry may require a certain personality type with career meta-competencies to survive the demands of this fast-moving, low-paid industry.

Research purpose: The aim of the study was to determine the relationship between personality preference types (as measured by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator [MBTI] Form M) and psychological career resources (as measured by the Psychological Career Resources Inventory [PCRI]). The study also aimed to assess whether gender, race and age groups differ significantly regarding their personality preferences and psychological career resources.

Motivation for study: There appears to be a need to understand how personality type preferences relate to the individual's psychological career resources. Such information may assist in coaching individuals in the quick-service restaurant industry to cope better with their work environment.

Research design, approach and method: A cross-sectional survey approach was used to involve a non-probability sample of 81 managers employed in the fast-food industry. Descriptive, correlational and inferential statistical analyses were performed. A cross-sectional survey was used to involve a non-probability sample of 81 participants employed in the quick-service restaurant industry.

Main findings/result: The extraversion, sensing, feeling, judging (ESFJ) and the introversion, sensing, feeling, judging (ISFJ) personality types were the dominant ones in the study. Personality type preferences were significantly related to psychological career resources. The personality types differed significantly regarding the following PCRI variables: variety/creativity (career preference), growth/development (career value), self/other skills (career enabler) and social connectivity (career harmoniser). Significant differences between personality types, psychological career resources and age, gender and race were also established.

Contribution: The findings may be useful to career counsellors and industrial psychologists in coaching and supporting individuals in a fast-paced industry to cope better with the demands of their work environment and to improve personal job satisfaction.

Keywords: MBTI, PCRI, introvert (I), extrovert (E) sensing (S), intuition (N), thinking (T), feeling (F), judging (J), perceiving (P), career preferences, career values, career enablers, career drivers, career harmonisers.

3.1   INTRODUCTION

The hospitality industry is one of the world's largest employers and is considered to be similar to any business serving people outside the private home (Zhong, 2006). While other industries such as retail, manufacturing, and financial services are cutting jobs, the food sector is increasing employment levels on both the hourly paid and management levels (DeSorbo, 2011). In South Africa the hospitality, food and beverage sector comprises restaurants, coffee shops, fast-food outlets and other catering providers. Studies show that the hospitality industry is the largest employer, employing 63% of the employees in the tourism, hospitality and culture industry (Theta, 2011).

Working under pressure has an impact on service quality, employee satisfaction and overall profitability (Olivia, 2001). Olivia (2001) distinguishes between the service industry and an industry such as manufacturing, pointing out that employees serve customers, therefore serving humans with psychological attributes, perceptions and expectations. According to Welsh and Raven (2011), the role of people in the future of the business has been emphasised and has risen in importance. It has become clear that people are the integral component on which other business factors depend. The human side indeed determines the competitive edge for many companies. Human resources are always the key ingredient in organisational success. If the success of companies is based on the calibre of people employed, then it is crucial that they be managed effectively, therefore successful managers pay attention to the factors that drive profitability in the service paradigm: investment in people, technology that supports frontline workers, recruiting and training practices, and compensation linked to performance (Heskett, Jones, Loveman, Sasser & Schlessinger, 1994).

Working in the harsh environment of the quick-service restaurant industry may require a certain personality type and psychological meta-competencies to survive the demands of this fast-moving, low-paid industry. The focus of this research is on assessing the personality

type profile of a sample of people employed in quick-service restaurants and how their personality type preferences relate to their psychological career resources. Several career scholars (Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009; Myers et al., 2003) have pointed out the importance of helping people in unstable, chaotic and high-stress environments to develop a certain set of psychological career meta-competencies to cope with and adapt to their work environments. Becoming an active career agent in managing one's career development by adapting to one's environment has become important in the contemporary work world (Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009).

Psychological career resources are a set of career-related orientations, values, attitudes, abilities and attributes leading to self-empowering career behaviour and promoting general employability (Coetzee, 2008). Psychological career resources can therefore also be considered to be individuals' inherent resources or meta-competencies, which enable them to adapt to changing career situations and assist them in adapting to the changing environment in order to achieve success in a particular social-cultural context (Coetzee, 2008). Knowledge of personality type preferences improves individuals' self-understanding and development, stress management, interpersonal communication, problem-solving and decision-making (Coetzee, 2005; Coetzee, Martins, Basson & Muller, 2006). It seems that different types will define experience and react to stress in different ways, making use of different coping strategies in dealing with life problems, and may find different environments more or less hospitable to their natural typological characteristics (Myers et al., 2003). Different personality preferences react differently and use different kinds of coping resources. Different types have also indicated a different orientation towards the support they need in time of stress (Coetzee, Jansen & Muller, 2009).

3.2   RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

The objective of this study is to assess the relationship between individuals' personality type preferences and their psychological career resources. The study also aims to assess whether gender, race and age groups differ significantly regarding their personality preferences and psychological career resources.

There seems to be a paucity of research on how people's personality preferences relate to their psychological career resources. This research therefore attempts to address a gap in the research literature by investigating this relationship. Career counsellors and industrial psychologists may benefit from the study by understanding how different personality types differ in terms of their psychological career resources profiles. Helping clients to become

aware of how their personality type preferences influence their expression and the development of their psychological career resources may be useful in helping them to cope better in the quick-service restaurant industry. It will be of great benefit to determine the link between personality types and psychological career resources to determine the personality type that will be suitable and will grow in the fast-food industry.

3.3   PERSONALITY TYPES

The personality type theory of Myers, McCaulley, Quenk and Hammer (2003) and the measurement of personality types by means of the MBTI are of relevance to this study. For the purpose of this study, personality is the constantly changing but relatively stable organisation of all physical, psychological and spiritual characteristics of the individual, which determine the individual's behaviour (Myers et al., 2003). According to Robbins, Odendaal and Roodt (2006), personality is the sum of ways in which individuals react to and interact with others. Personality differences could also manifest through different cognitive functions of thinking, feeling, sensation and intuition. Jung's (1921) theory of psychological types explains that predictable differences in individuals are caused by differences in the way people prefer to use their minds to take in information, organise that information and reach conclusions. The purpose of the MBTI is to measure people's personality types. The MBTI sorts individuals according to their type preference on the four dichotomies scales than rather measuring personality (Myers et al., 2003; Van Zyl & Taylor, 2012). The MBTI is based on Jung's ideas about how different ways of perceiving and judging, in combination with different attitudes, describe different types of people (Myers et al., 2003).

The MBTI (Myers et al., 2003) aims to categorise people into one of 16 personality types based on their scores for the four bi-polar scales (introversion/extraversion, sensing/intuition, thinking/feeling and judging/perception). The assumption is that people sharing the same personality type also shares the same personality characteristics and that they differ from individuals belonging to another personality type. Furthermore, it is assumed that different personality types are suitable for different occupations and that a correlation between personality type, occupation, coping style and management style exists (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2007; Mullins, 2005; Myers et al., 2003).

Within the MBTI (Myers et al., 2003) the most basic concepts are perception-judgement and extraversion-introversion. In perception-judgement the individual perceives what occurs and then makes a judgement or decision about what was observed. This can be related to the person's perception or view of the world, either focusing on the outer world or the inner world

(extraversion-introversion). This is classified as preference patterns and different ways in which the individual prefers to make choices or decisions (Myers et al., 2003).

Individuals perceive and observe their world and make decisions based on perceptions or observations. The first step is perception, becoming aware of things, objects or ideas. Individuals must then make a decision based on their perception or observation of things, objects or ideas. In doing so, the individual is judging what has been perceived. There are two modes of perceiving (sensing and intuition) and two modes of judging (thinking and feeling) (Myers et al., 2003).

3.3.1 Sensing and thinking

Sensing-thinking (ST) types will focus on the collection of facts that can be verified by their observations. They want to see or hear what is happening. This type of individual is quite practical and pragmatic. When making a career decision, they will use a rational decision-making process based on the information they have acquired through occupational literature and talking with others (Myers et al., 2003).

ST types seem to lose perspective when experiencing high levels of stress and they tend to find it difficult to express their emotions when feeling stressed. The ST type reports high levels of stress in work, but low stress levels related to finances, children, intimate relationships, school, health, caring for aging parents, balancing home and work. The ST type's method of coping with stress involves getting upset or angry and showing it. Another coping mechanism is to watch television (Myers et al., 2003).

3.3.2 Sensing and feeling

Although sensing-feeling (SF) individuals still rely on vision, hearing and other senses, they make their decisions based on their feelings. They base their decisions on the importance of feelings to themselves and others. They are likely to be more interested in observations about people than about objects. They will focus on information about people and occupations and will be aware of how they will feel doing certain kinds of work on a daily basis (Myers et al., 2003).

The SF type seems to lose perspective when experiencing high levels of stress and seeks approval and affirmation in times of stress. These individuals report high levels of stress connected to finances, children, intimate relationships, school, health, caring for aging

parents and balancing home and work. From research it seems that the SF types apply various methods to cope with stress. These methods entail avoiding stressful situations, talking to someone close, relying on religious beliefs, getting upset or angry but not showing it, getting upset or angry indeed showing it, sleeping or just watching television (Myers et al., 2003).

3.3.3   Intuition and feeling

Intuition-feeling (NF) types of people will be more concerned about future possibilities. Their feeling involvement is likely to be personal, warm and inspired. They will take a creative approach in meeting human needs and are less concerned about objects. In making a career decision, they will make use of hunches based on what is best for them. Their emphasis is on feelings about observations rather than weighing the observations themselves (Myers et al., 2003).

When experiencing stress the NF type tends to experience profound emotions of personal distress and emotional outbursts and these people seek approval and affirmation in time of stress. The NF type reports high levels of stress related to work, finances, intimate relationships, school, and balancing home and work, but low stress levels relating to children and health. The NF types rely on different coping methods, such as confronting the problem, talking to someone close, talking to a professional, relying on their religious beliefs, either getting upset but not showing it or alternatively showing it or by exercising (Myers et al., 2003).

3.3.4   Intuition and thinking

The intuition-thinking (NT) types use intuition and thinking to make decisions based on analysis that uses hunches and projections about the future. They tend to enjoy solving problems, particularly those of a theoretical nature. In making a career decision they are likely to project themselves into the future, thinking of what type of work would offer particular opportunities; however, their decision-making would be logical and clear to them, despite making use of future projections (Myers et al., 2003).

When experiencing stress the NT type tends to experience profound emotions of personal distress and emotional outbursts and they tend to find it difficult to express their emotions when feeling stressed. The NT type reports high levels of stress related to work, finances, children, intimate relationships, and school, but low stress levels related to health, caring for

aging parents, balancing home and work. The coping methods of the NT type involve confronting the problem or talking to a professional. A preferred coping method for the NT type is thinking of alternative options. They seem to get upset or angry but not to show it. Other coping methods involve sleeping and exercising (Myers et al., 2003).

3.3.5 Extraversion and introversion

Sharf (2010) adds that introversion and extraversion also have an impact on how individuals use perception and judgment. The meaning of introvert and extravert relates to how the individual sees the world.

Introversion therefore refers to how the individual makes perceptions and judgments based on the inner world. For the introvert, the inner world, consisting of concepts and ideas, is important. Introverts prefer to think; they like to think before taking action. They prefer activity allowing time for thinking. Extraversion refers to using perception and judgment in the outer world. For the extravert, the outer world, concerned with other individuals and entities, is significant. Extraverts prefer to take action, speaking to people rather than writing. Extraverts tend to like activity that provides contact with people (Sharf, 2010).

The MBTI (Myers et al., 2003) is concerned with the four bipolar preferences to determine the individual's preference of one over the other. In table 3.1 the four scales correspond to the four dimensions of personality type. For the purpose of the research project, the four mental functions in table 3.2 (ST, SF, NT, and NF) were of interest. Combination of the S-N and T-F dichotomy leads to the mental function of ST, SF, NF and NT. These four mental functions are considered as the most important of the groupings of types; these types differ in their interests, values and needs and therefore appreciate different occupations more suited to their personality types (Myers et al., 2003).

Table 3.1: *Type differences at work (Myers et al., 2003, p. 287 – 288).*

EXTRAVERSION	INTROVERSION
Like variety and action	Like quiet conditions for concentration
Enjoy interaction with people	Enjoy focusing on a project or task
Develop their ideas through discussions	Develop their ideas internally
Learn new tasks by talking and doing	Learn new tasks by reading and reflecting
Interested in how other people do their work	Enjoy working alone with no interruptions
SENSING	**INTUITION**
Focus on immediate issues	Follow their inspirations
Provide a realistic and practical perspective	Provide connections and meanings
Like to perfect standard ways to do things	Like solving new, complex problems
Build to conclusion by collecting facts	Start with the big picture, fill in the facts
Draw on their own and others' experience	Prefer change, new ways of doing things
THINKING	**FEELING**
Focus on the tasks	Focus on people's interaction
Use logical analysis to understand and decide	Use values to understand and decide
Want mutual respect and fairness among colleagues	Want harmony and support among colleagues
Are firm-minded, can give criticism when appropriate	Are empathetic, prefer to accommodate and reach consensus
Apply principles consistently	Apply values consistently
JUDGING	**PERCEIVING**
Want to plan their work and follow the plan	Want to have flexibility in their work
Like to get things settled and finished	Like to be spontaneous
Feel supported by structure and schedules	Feel restricted by structure and schedules
Reach closure by deciding quickly	Leave things open as long as possible
Focus on timely completion of project	Focus on enjoying the process

Table 3.2: *Four mental functions (Myers et al., 2003, p.33)*

People who prefer:	ST	SF	NF	NT
	Sensing and Thinking	**Sensing and Feeling**	**Intuition and Feeling**	**Intuition and Thinking**
Focus attention on:	Facts	Facts	Possibilities	Possibilities
And handle these with:	Non-personal analysis	Personal warmth	Personal warmth	Non-personal analysis
They tend to become:	Practical and matter-of-fact	Sympathetic and friendly	Enthusiastic and insightful	Logical and ingenious
And find scope for their abilities in:	Technical areas with facts and objects	Practical help and service for people	Understanding and communication with people	Theoretical and technical developments

3.4   PSYCHOLOGICAL CAREER RESOURCES

The psychological career resources model of Coetzee (2008) is of relevance to this study. Coetzee (2008) describes psychological career resources as the set of career-related orientations, values, abilities and attributes that lead to a self-empowering career and promote general employability. The psychological career resource model consists of meta-capacities such as career enablers, career drivers, career harmonisers, career preferences and career values, which can be linked to an individual's extrinsic or intrinsic lifetime career experience that leads to career success (Gunz & Heslin, 2005). An individual's repertoire of psychological career resources needs to be well-developed and balanced to enable enactment of pro-active career behaviour and ensure maximum functioning of all resources to facilitate self-empowering career behaviours (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009).
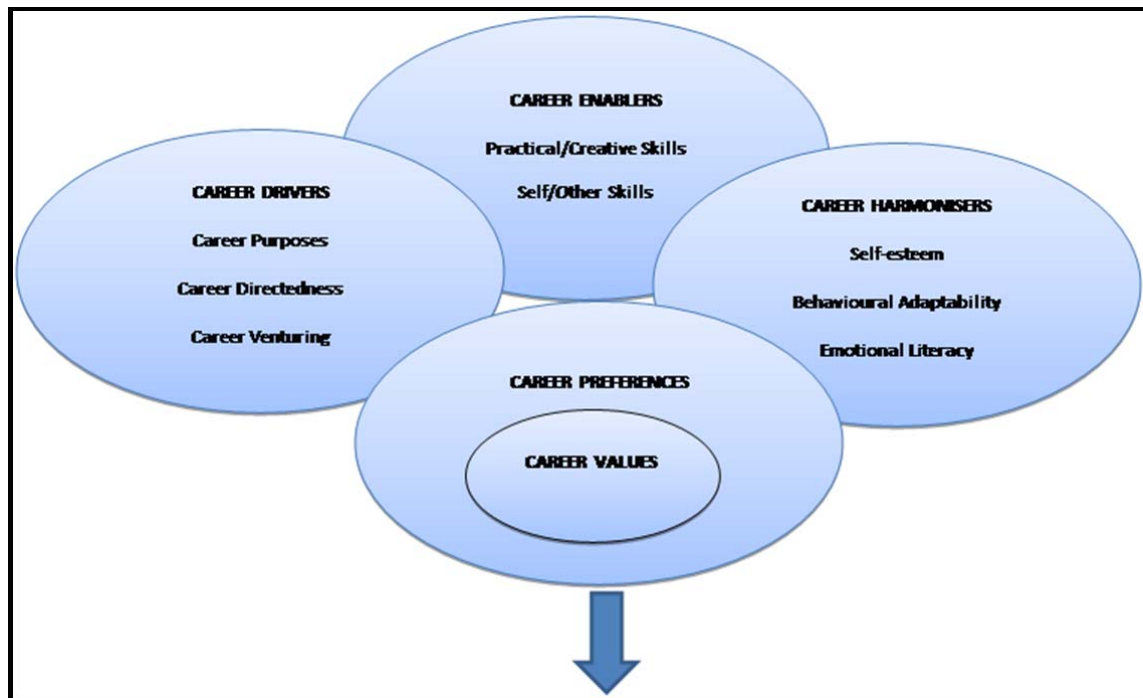
Figure 3.1: Theoretical framework of the construct psychological career resources (Coetzee, 2009, p. 11)

As depicted in figure 3.1, career decisions are guided by the individual's career preference and career values. The career drivers are considered to be the attitudes that provide individuals with the energy and motivation to experiment with possible careers. This in return provides a viewpoint of the possible self they could become and the possible working roles they could experience. The role of career enablers is to assist the individual to be successful in his or her career by having the required abilities. Career harmonisers provide control by keeping the career drivers in balance, preventing people from going overboard or pursuing and reinventing their careers. Career harmonisers further act as promoters of flexibility and resiliency. The individual's psychological career resources therefore reflect his or her career consciousness (Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee & Bergh, 2009; Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007). Coetzee (2008, p. 10) defines psychological career resources as "the set of career-related orientations, values, attitudes, abilities and attributes that lead to self-empowering career behaviour and promote general employability."

3.4.1 Career preferences and career values

Career preferences and career values assist individuals in determining the directions their careers should take and assist them in their career choices. Therefore career preferences

and career values are also considered as the cognitive structure forming the basis of the thoughts about their careers that make the career meaningful to them. Career preferences and career values therefore assist individuals in determining the directions their careers should take and assisting them in their career choices. Therefore career preferences and career values are also considered as the cognitive structure forming the basis of the thoughts about careers that makes the career meaningful to the individual. Career preferences and values therefore assist the individual in determining long-term career choices. Career preferences direct the individual's career move and career values indicate a specific career preference (Brousseau, 1990; Coetzee, 2009; Ferreira, Basson & Coetzee, 2010; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2009). Coetzee and Bergh's (2009) findings illustrate that people's dominant career preference may have some potential in predicting their life satisfaction, job satisfaction and perception of work as a valuable activity. People have a need for steady and stable employment conditions that will allow them to specialise and develop expertise in an area of interest (Coetzee & Esterhuizen, 2010).

3.4.2 Career drivers

Career drivers are determined by three different concepts of career purpose, career directedness and career venturing (Ferreira, Basson & Coetzee, 2010). Career purposes consist of the individual's sense of having a career calling. Career calling is the individual's self-reflective quest for personal and professional goals (Coetzee, 2009). Coetzee (2008) describes the concept of career purpose in career drivers as the individual's sense of having a career passion. Coetzee (2008) elaborates further on career purpose as an individual's self-belief and personal conviction that he or she has the capability to fulfil his or her career goals. Coetzee (2008) describes the concept of career directedness as the individual's sense of clarity on future career guidance and targets. Furthermore, it makes the individual aware of how and where support could be resourced to achieve targets or to find fresh career opportunities. This means that the individual will invest in career directedness once clear goals and targets have been established. Individuals will then strive to achieve these goals or targets using their strengths and abilities (Coetzee, 2008; Ferreira, Basson & Coetzee, 2010). The last concept, career venturing, refers to the individual's willingness to take risks. In order to take a risk the individual needs to explore new and fresh career opportunities. When individuals are satisfied with their careers, they need help in upholding their career satisfaction. The developing of new skills will help them to maintain career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2008; Ferreira, Basson & Coetzee, 2010).

Coetzee and Bergh's (2009) findings illustrate that people's dominant career drivers, especially career directedness, may have some potential in predicting their life satisfaction, job satisfaction and perception of work as a valuable activity. There is also an indication that career directedness contributes positively to participants' physical, cognitive and emotional coping resources (Coetzee & Esterhuizen, 2010).

3.4.3 Career enablers

Career enablers are people's transferable skills that help them to succeed in their careers (Coetzee & Ferreira, 2010). Career enablers consist of two constructs, namely practical/creative skills and self/other skills. Coetzee (2008) indicates that once individuals have developed their skills and knowledge, it enables them to sustain a feeling of satisfaction. According to Coetzee (2008), practical/creative skills include skills such as applying existing theoretical constructs in practice, in an innovative manner, leading to doing things in a new way. Practical/creative skills relate to skills envisioning one's career development. Self/other skills refer to career enablers, their self-management and relationship skills in managing one's career development. This will provide the necessary abilities that will help the individual to create a successful career. Coetzee and Esterhuizen (2010) establish that practical creative skills may have a potentially positive influence on an individual's social coping resources. The findings suggest that individuals who perceive themselves as able to apply problem-solving and practical skills in setting career goals regard themselves as able to form supportive networks in achieving their goals. According to Symington (2012) the enablers can be related to employability skills, such as technical knowledge and interpersonal or "soft" skills.

3.4.4 Career harmonisers

Career harmonisers are embedded in individuals' emotional intelligence and social connectivity (Coetzee, 2008). Self-esteem, according to Taylor, Peplau and Sears (2006), is the evaluation people tend to make of themselves; they are concerned not only with what they are like, but also with how they value these qualities. Emotional intelligence refers to the non-cognitive skills, capabilities and competence that influence the individual's ability to cope with the demands and pressures of the environment. Individuals who understand and know their emotions and are good at reading others' emotions may be more effective in their jobs (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt, 2006). Coetzee (2008) describes social connectivity as the individual's ability to interact with others and create and uphold fulfilling relationships. Most people prefer to work as a member of a group and do not want to work in isolation, therefore

peer support and solidarity support of an individual lead to a meaningful experience in the work environment. Individuals should therefore be able to recognise traits that are significant for potential performance and make the necessary change by being able to change their behaviour and to adapt to meet their career-related desires (Coetzee, 2008).

Self-esteem and behavioural adaptability may have a potentially positive influence on an individual's social coping resources; the individual seems able to deal with setbacks and failures in an emotionally literate manner (Coetzee & Esterhuizen, 2010). Behavioural adaptability also seems to be a positive predictor of job satisfaction and happiness and the individual may perceive work as a valuable activity. It seems that a positive self-view, thus high self-esteem, may predict happiness, as people who are more self-positive tend to choose goals that have a chance of making them happy in their jobs and lives (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009).

3.5   PERSONALITY AND PSYCHOLOGICAL CAREER RESOURCES

Individuals seek environments that allow them to express their interest, skills, attitudes and values and to take on interesting problems and agreeable roles (Langley, Stead & Watson, 1999). Personality, which encompasses a person's values, drives, preferences and needs, is perceived as an important determinant of career choice (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007). The choice of a career is therefore a lifestyle in which the total personality has to find expression and people will choose a career where they can express themselves and will seek an environment where they can exercise their preferences, abilities and skills (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007; Langley, Stead & Watson, 1999). Crant (2000) maintains that a person's character or personality can manipulate the degree to which he or she takes the initiative to engage in career management behaviours and accomplish career or job satisfaction. Sullivan (1999) adds that individual characteristics, such as a person's age, gender, race, marital status and personality, could have an influence on outcomes such as career success and career development, which influence an individual's employability.

One of the most important motivations for career choices is the desire for work that is interesting and satisfying and that will allow the individual the use of preferred functions and attitudes (Myers et al., 2003). New challenges, fewer employment opportunities and reduced job security have increased the personal responsibility of individuals to keep up with change and improve their employability attributes (Coetzee, 2008; Potgieter, 2012). Individuals with higher self-esteem and better career management skills are more likely to believe in themselves and take pro-active steps to develop their own careers (Potgieter, 2012).

According to Coetzee, Martins, Basson and Muller (2006), being emotionally competent leads to self-awareness and a sense of psychological well-being. Managing one's career effectively leads to high job effectiveness. Ross (1994) established that job competence can be associated with cheerful and enthusiastic mood states. Feeling in control of one's destiny could further lead to a positive attitude and cheerfulness.

3.6 BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS IN TERMS OF PERSONALITY AND PSYCHOLOGICAL CAREER RESOURCES

This research is also interested in investigating whether individuals from different gender, race and age groups differ significantly regarding their personality and psychological career resources.

Research by De Beer (1997) in South Africa confirmed the EJ, ET, IJ and IS, as well as the ESTJ and ISTJ personality types as the most common personality types among black and white South Africans. Hammer (1996) also reported that most African-American blacks belong to the STJ personality type. Romans (1996) determined that female individuals attained higher feeling scores and male individuals' higher thinking scores on the thinking-feeling scale of the MBTI. In their research study Sorenson, Hawkins and Sorenson (1995) determined that gender was related to psychological type: male respondents were predominantly "thinkers" and females were predominantly "feelers". This is supported by Myers et al (2003), who indicate that men are more encouraged towards thinking and woman towards feeling. In a research study done by Williams (1998), females were split on the introversion and extraversion scale and preferred more sensing, judging and thinking. The preference for thinking seems to be in contradiction with the previously mentioned studies, which indicated that females preferred feeling. According to Hammer (1996), females also reported a preference for the SFJ personality.

In their research study Ferreira and Coetzee (2010) determined that females have a higher need to venture out and experiment with new career opportunities. Females also have a higher level of self-esteem and emotional literacy compared to their male counterparts. However, in contradiction Coetzee (2008) found that males have higher levels of self-esteem than their female counterparts. According to Ferreira and Coetzee (2010), individuals in the age group 25 years and younger seem to have greater confidence in their ability to achieve career goals and form meaningful social connections than the age group 56 years and older. Individuals in the establishment phase of their careers (26 – 40 years) seem to have a stronger preference for jobs that expose them to a variety of opportunities for expressing

their talents and abilities creatively. Ferreira and Coetzee (2010) also established that individuals between the ages of 44 and 55 years seem to feel more obliged to continue their employment with their respective organisations. Ferreira and Coetzee (2010) also determined that Africans have a stronger need for managerial positions that expose them to a variety of growth and development opportunities and jobs in which they can express their talents and abilities creatively.

3.7   RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The theoretical framework presented in the previous section suggests that the constructs of personality types and psychological career resources are related. However, the relationship between the two variables needs to be empirically investigated. The specific research hypotheses are as follows:

H_1 – There is a significant and positive relationship between personality types and psychological career resources.

H_2 – Gender, race and age groups differ significantly regarding their personality preferences and psychological career resources.

3.8   RESEARCH DESIGN

The review of the relevant literature presented in chapter 2 and briefly outlined in the preceding introduction constitutes the foundation for the research design and methodology presented in this section. According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), a research design is a framework that sets out a plan on how the researcher is going to sample participants and collect and analyse data in order to address the problem under investigation. Furthermore, the objective of the research design involves planning, structuring and implementing the study so that the validity of the findings is maximised (Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter 2006). The research design will be explained in the section that follows by referring to the research approach and method.

3.8.1   Research approach

A cross-sectional quantitative research approach was deemed appropriate for this study because it provides evidence in the form of numbers, which are then reported in statistical terms in order to answer a given research question (Neuman, 2007). Internal and external

validity are important research designs (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2002). Internal validity is the approximate truth about inferences regarding cause-effect relationships (Trochim, 2006). Standardised instruments of measurement will be used that will ensure the validity of data obtained for the empirical study (Gregory, 2000). Internal validity will also be ensured by minimising selection bias. A sample that is as large as possible will be chosen to offset the effects of extraneous variables. The questionnaires will include standard instructions and information to all participants, while the statistical procedures will control for biographical variables by investigating differences between gender, race and age groups in terms of the variables.

External validity is the degree to which a study's results are generalisable to other research settings and people and is associated with the sampling procedures used, the time and place of the research, and the conditions under which the research will be conducted (Trochim, 2006). External validity will be ensured by the results being relevant only to the individuals employed in the fast-food industry. Targeting the total populations of employees in the targeted fast-food setting (Western Cape) will help to increase the generalisability of the results to the target population. A cross-sectional survey design using primary data was used to fulfil the research objectives. The primary data design allowed the researcher to control the data-collection conditions (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Furthermore, the quantitative approach allows for the operationalisation of constructs in terms of specific measuring instruments in a systematic and controlled way (Mouton & Marais, 1996). A quantitative approach contributes to the reliability of the study, since a defined set of rules is followed and can therefore be duplicated (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). The next section clarifies the research method followed in terms of the research participants, measuring instruments, research procedure and statistical analyses in this study.

3.8.1.1   Participants

The participants consisted of a non-probability sample of 81 participants employed in the fast-food industry from five franchises in the Western Cape. The participants were appointed at supervisory and managerial level in a full-time capacity. An initial purposive sample (N = 180) was drawn from the managerial and supervisory level staff in the various franchises to participate in the study. The final sample that voluntarily participated in the study yielded a response rate of 45% (N = 81).

The final sample (N=81), as shown in table 3.3 and figure 3.2, was skewed towards females (74%), coloureds (53%), single participants (63%) and those in the age group 26-40 (63%).

Gender

Males 26%
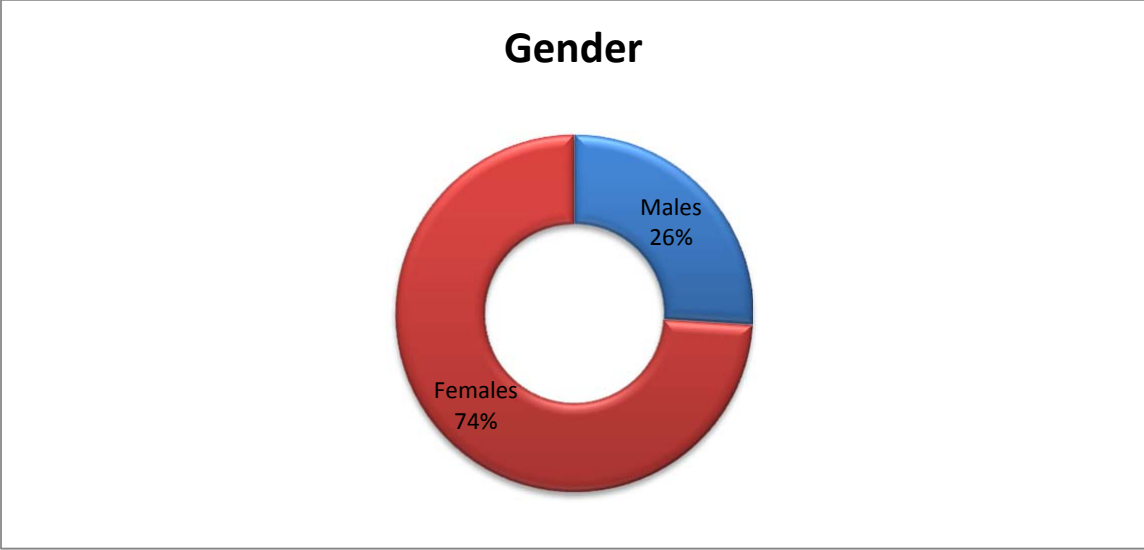
Females 74%

Figure 3.2: Percentage of males and females.

Table 3.3: *Biographical distribution of the sample restaurant managers*

ITEM	CATEGORY	FREQUENCY	%
Gender	Male	21	26
	Female	60	74
Race	White	18	22
	Coloured	43	53
	African	20	25
	Indian	0	0
Marital Status	Single	51	63
	Married	25	31
	Divorced	5	6
	Widowed	0	0
Age	Younger than 26	15	19
	26 - 40	51	63
	41 – 55	14	17
	Older than 55	1	1
Experience	Less than 1 year	9	11
	1 – 2 years	6	7
	3 – 5 years	24	30
	6 – 10 years	25	31
	More than 10 years	17	21
Qualifications	Grade 12	47	58
	Post-matric Certificate	9	11
	Diploma	8	10
	Degree	2	2
	Other	15	19

Figure 3.3 shows that whites constituted 22%, coloureds 53%, Africans 25% and Indians 0% of the sample.
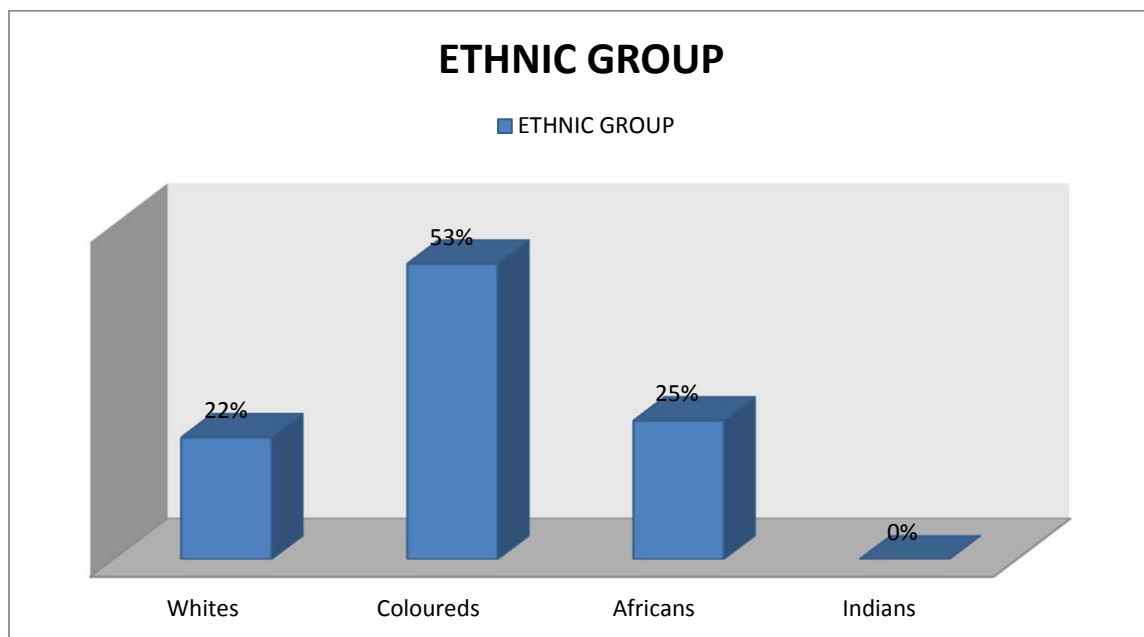
Figure 3.3: Percentages of ethnicity of restaurant managers

The sample consisted of single (62%) and married (31%) participants, mostly in the early adulthood life stage (26-40 years - 63%), as indicated by figure 3.4.
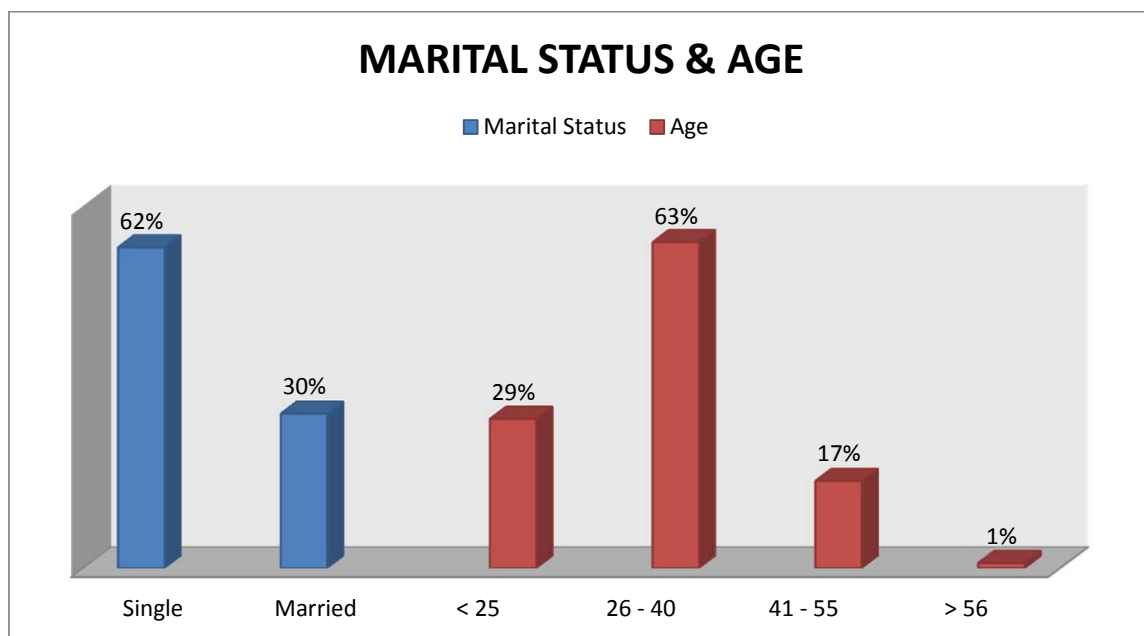
Figure 3.4: Percentage of married participants and age of the restaurant managers

Participants with 5-10 years' experience (30%) and with 2-5 years' experience (29%) composed the largest proportion of restaurant managers, as indicated by table 3.5.
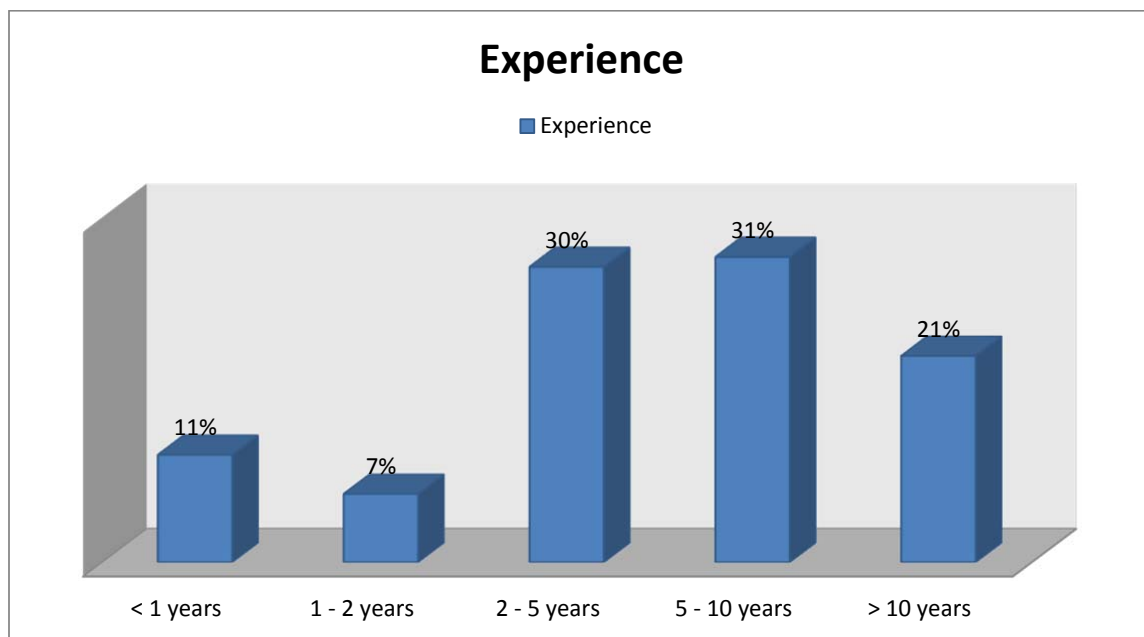
Figure 3.5: Percentage of restaurant manager's experience in the industry

The majority of the participants in Figure 3.6 had a Grade 12 qualification (58%), with 11% of participants having a post-matric qualification. Participants with a diploma (10%), a degree (2%) and other qualifications (19%) constituted the rest of the sample.
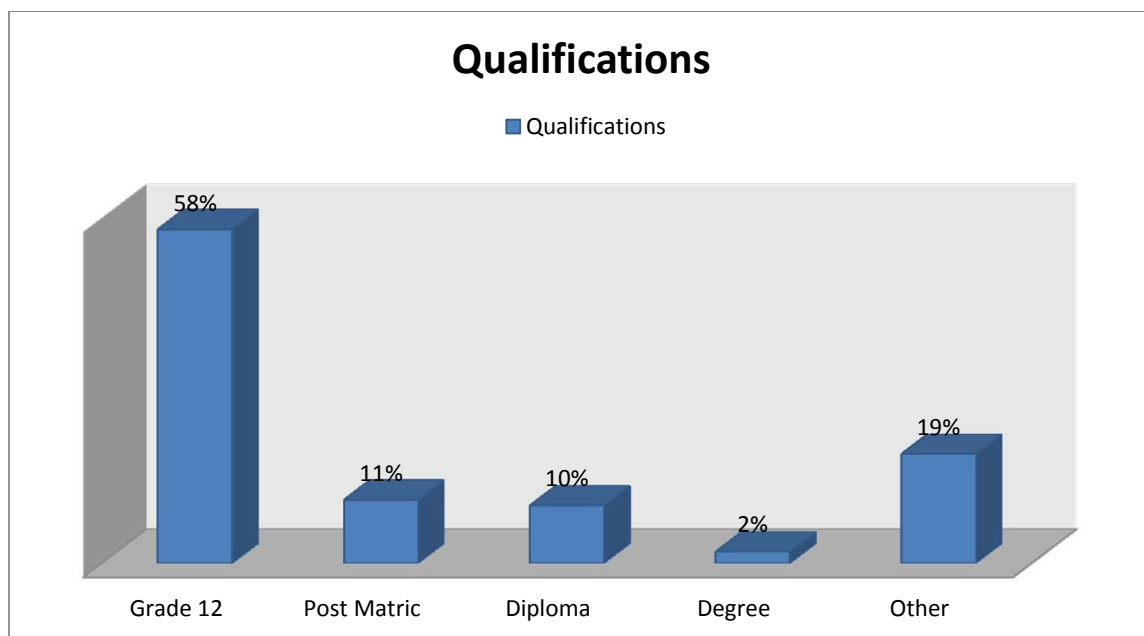
Figure 3.6: Percentage of qualifications held by restaurant managers

According to figure 3.7 the most frequent personality mental orientation preference is SF (62%), followed by ST (22%). NT represented 9% of the participants, followed by NF of 7%, with the lowest representation.

PERSONALITY FUNCTION/CAREER TYPE
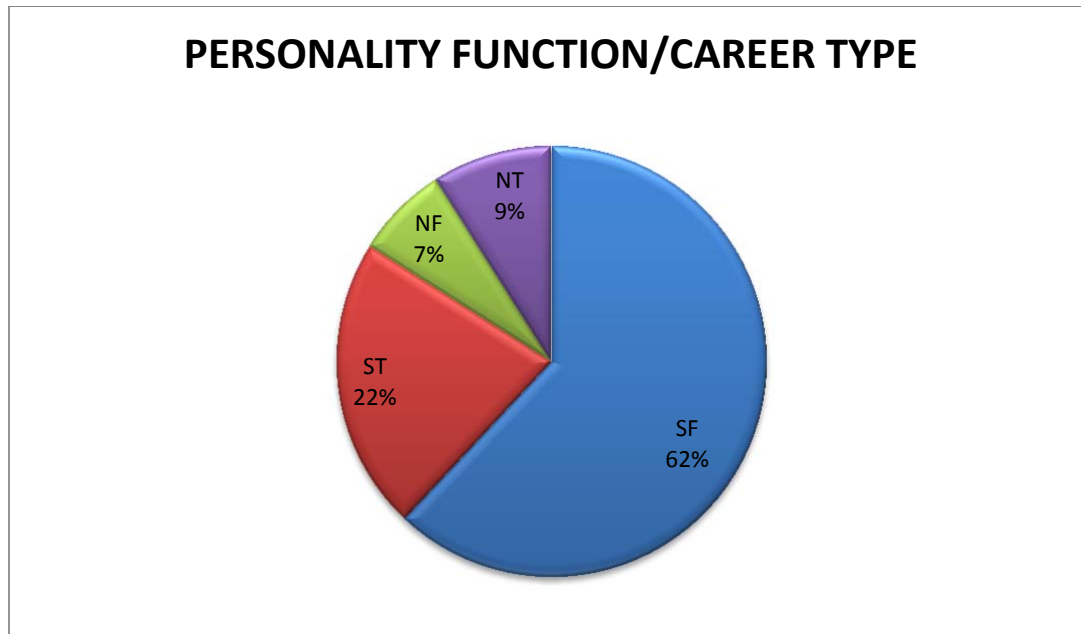
Figure 3.7: Percentage of mental orientation preferences

3.8.1.2   Measuring instruments

Personality types were measured by applying the MBTI, Form M. The MBTI, Form M (Myers & Myers, 1998) is a self-reporting questionnaire-style instrument consisting of 93 items arranged in a forced-choice format. For each item the subject is given a choice between two responses. The objective of the MBTI is to classify an individual into one of the 16 personality types (Meyer et al., 2003). The MBTI, Form M (Myers & Myers, 1998) was used to measure the participants' personality types. The MBTI, Form M, is a self-reporting instrument consisting of 93 items arranged in a forced-choice format. For each item, subjects have two responses to choose from. The objective of the MBTI is to classify an individual into one of the 16 personality types (Myers, et al., 2003). There is general agreement on the MBTI's high levels of face validity (Myers, et al., 2003: 160). Myers et al. (2003) report internal consistency reliabilities of .80 for the MBTI Form M scales. Test-retest reliabilities are shown to be high and also show consistency over time (Myers et al., 2003). Good reliabilities were found with the alpha coefficients, ranging between 0.88 and 0.92 for the South African sample (Van Zyl & Taylor, 2012). Similar reliabilities between diverse subgroups in the total population demonstrated that the instrument is reliable across a broad

sample in the South African context (Van Zyl & Taylor, 2012). Van Zyl and Taylor (2012) also determined that the MBTI appears not to display any bias against any one group in terms of gender or ethnicity.

In presenting reliability results in the MBTI manual, Myers et al. (2003) examined the internal consistency reliability of the Form M scales (continuous scores based on logical split-half correlations and coefficient alpha), none of which is below 0.8 for the MBTI Form M scales. Test-retest reliabilities are shown to be high and also show consistency over time.

Psychological career resources were measured by applying the PCRI. The PCRI (Coetzee, 2008) is a self-rated, multi-factorial measure, which contains 64 items and five subscales. The subscale career preferences has 17 items, eight career values items, eight career enablers items, career drivers with 10 items and career harmonisers with 21 items. The PCRI measures 15 constructs in total: stability/expertise; managerial; variety/creativity and freedom/autonomy (career preferences); growth/development and authority/influence (career values); practical/creative skills and self/other skills (career enablers); career purpose; career directedness and career venturing (career drivers); and self-esteem; behavioural adaptability; emotional literacy and emotional connectivity (career harmonisers). The PCRI uses a six-point Likert-type scale to analyse subject responses to each of the PCRI items. An exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis provide evidence of construct validity (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2012). In terms of reliability, Cronbach's alpha coefficients for each subscale range from 0.71 to 0.88. Studies conducted confirmed the reliability and validity of the PCRI in the South African context (Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee & Bergh, 2009; Coetzee & Esterhuizen, 2010; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009; Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010).

3.8.2   Research procedure

Permission to conduct the MBTI and PCRI were obtained from the relevant franchisor. Most participation occurred on a one-to-one basis. The other surveys were sent to possible participants. As far as ethics are concerned, the purpose of the surveys was explained and the participants were requested to sign a letter of consent, stating that they gave permission for the results to be used. Anonymity and confidentiality were guaranteed. The research institution's Research Ethics Committee granted permission for the research to be conducted.

3.8.3 Statistical analyses

Descriptive, correlational and inferential statistics were used to analyse the data. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated in order to establish the relationship between the eight MBTI ordinal personality type preferences (E, I, S, T, F, N, J, P) and the PCRI sub-scales continuous scores. The correlation command in SPSS syntax produced the appropriate statistics between a dichotomous variable (MBTI types) and a scale variable (PCRI variable). In order to counter the probability of a type I error, it was decided to set the significance value for interpreting the results at the 95% confidence interval level ($p \leq .05$). For the purpose of this study, r-values equal to and larger than .30 (medium practical effect) (Cohen, 1992) were also considered in the interpretation of the results.

Analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were performed to test for significant mean differences between the various MBTI personality types in terms of the PCRI variables. ANOVAS were also calculated to test for significant mean differences between the gender, race and age groups' personality type mental function preferences (S,N,T,F) and their PCRI scores. The significance value for interpreting results was set at the 95% confidence interval level (F$p \leq$ .05).

3.9   RESULTS

3.9.1 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics are values that describe the characteristics of a sample or population (Salkind, 2008).

Table 3.4: *Dichotomies personality types of participants*

Dichotomies Personality Type	Frequency	Per cent
Extravert (E)	41	51%
Introvert (I)	40	49%
Sensing (S)	68	84%
Intuition (N)	13	16%
Thinking (T)	25	31%
Feeling (F)	56	69%
Judging (J)	64	79%
Perception (P)	17	21%

Table 3.4 and Table 3.5 show that the dominant personality type that manifested is extravert (E), sensing (S), feeling (F), judging (J), followed by introvert (I), sensing (S), feeling (F), judging (J). According to table 3.4 extraverts (E) constitute 51%, sensing (S) 84%, feeling (F) 69% and judging (J) types 79% of the participants. Of the rest of the participants introverts (I) equal 49%, intuition (N) 16%, thinking (T) 31% and perception (P) types 21%. According to table 3.5, 27% of the participants were ESFJ, 20% were ISFJ, 11% were ISTJ and 9% ESTJ and ISFP. Of the rest of the participants, 6% were ESFP and INTJ, 4% were ENFP, 3% were INFJ, and 1% were ESTP, ENTP, ISTP, ENTJ and ENFJ.

Table 3.5: *Personality types of participants*

Full Personality type	Frequency	Per Cent
ISTJ	9	11%
ISFJ	16	20%
INFJ	2	3%
INTJ	5	6%
ISTP	1	1%
ISFP	7	9%
INFP	0	0%
INTP	0	0%
ESTP	1	1%
ESFP	5	6%
ENFP	3	4%
ENTP	1	1%
ESTJ	7	9%
ESFJ	22	27%
ENFJ	1	1%
ENTJ	1	1%

Table 3.6: *Mental orientations*

Mental Functions	Frequencies	Per Cent
ST	18	22%
SF	50	62%
NF	6	7%
NT	7	9%

The most frequent personality mental orientation preference is SF (62%), followed by ST (22%). NT represented 9% of the participants, followed by NF of 7%, with the lowest representation.

The means, standard deviations and internal-consistency reliability coefficients for the PCRI variables are shown in Table 3.7.

Table 3.7: *Psychological career resources*

Measuring Instrument	Means	Standard Deviation	Cronbach Alpha Coefficients Total sample
Career Preferences			
Stability/Expertise	4.55	.56	.66
Managerial	3.19	.69	.69
Variety/Creativity	3.3	.61	.67
Independence/Autonomy	2.62	.85	.72
Career Values			
Growth/Development	2.78	.31	.50
Authority/Influence	2.26	.57	.66
Career Enablers			
Practical/Creative Skills	3.17	.62	.74
Self/other Skills	4.51	.51	.63
Career Drivers			
Career Purpose	3.6	.40	.40
Career Directedness	3.1	.63	.62
Career Venturing	2.28	.64	.78
Career Harmonisers			
Self Esteem	4.33	.68	.69
Behavioural Adaptability	4.94	.75	.62
Emotional Literacy	3.64	.95	.76
Social Connectivity	4.24	.68	.77

The mean and standard deviation of each PCRI subscale are presented in Table 3.7, which show that the variables stability/expertise (M = 4.55; SD = 0.56) and variety/creativity (M = 3.30; SD = 0.61) are indicated as the dominant career preferences of the total sample. The sample indicated growth/development (M = 2.78; SD = 0.31) as the dominant career value. With respect to the career enabler sub-scale, the self/other skills variable (M = 4.51; SD = 0.51), participants obtained the highest score on practical/creative skills (M = 3.17; SD = 0.62). The participants obtained the highest score on career purpose (M = 3.60; SD = 0.40) and career directedness (M = 3.10; SD = 0.63). Participants also obtained higher scores on the career harmonisers subscales (self-esteem, behavioural adaptability and social connectivity). Possible causes of the low reliability could be variability in individual scores, meaning the correlation could be affected by the individual differences of the group (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2007).

3.9.2   Correlations

Table 3.8 shows the correlation between personality dichotomies and psychological career resources:

- In terms of the PCRI career preferences, introversion correlated significantly and positively with independence/autonomy (r = .34, medium practical effect, p ≤ .01), while extraversion correlated significantly and negatively with independence/autonomy (r = -.34, medium practical effect, p ≤ .01).

- Introversion correlated positively with authority/influence (r = .22, small practical effect, p ≤ .05) while extraversion correlated negatively with authority/influence (r = -.22, small practical effect, p ≤ .05).

- Introversion correlated significantly and negatively with self/other skills (r = -.32, medium practical effect, p ≤ .01) in the PCRI career enablers, while extraversion correlated significantly and positively with self/other skills (r = .32, medium practical effect, p ≤ .01).

- With regard to the PCRI career drivers, introversion correlated significantly and negatively with career directedness (r = -.33, medium practical effect, p ≤ .01), while extraversion correlated significantly and positively with career directedness (r = .33, medium practical effect, p ≤ .01).

- In terms of the PCRI career harmonisers, introversion correlated significantly and negatively with self-esteem (r = -.31, medium practical effect, p ≤ .01), emotional literacy (r = -.38, medium practical effect, p ≤ .01) and social connectivity (r = -.5, medium practical effect, p ≤ .01); while extraversion correlated significantly and positively with self-esteem (r = .31, medium practical effect, p ≤ .01), emotional literacy (r = .38, medium practical effect, p ≤ .01), social connectivity (r = .5, medium practical effect, p ≤ .01).

- In terms of the PCRI career harmonisers, introversion correlated negatively with behavioural adaptability (r = -.23, small practical effect, p ≤ .05), while extraversion correlated positively with behavioural adaptability (r = .23, small practical effect, p ≤ .05).

- In terms of the PCRI career drivers, thinking correlated negatively with career purpose (r = -.22, small practical effect, p ≤ .05), while feeling correlated positively with career purpose (r = .22, small practical effect, p ≤ .05).

Table 3.8: *Correlations between personality and psychological career resources*

		Introvert	Extravert	Sensing	Intuition	Thinking	Feeling	Judging	Perceiving
Career Preference									
Stability/Expertise	Pearson	.04	-.04	.05	-.05	.06	-.06	.21	-.21
	p-Value	.70	.70	.64	.64	.57	.57	.06	.06
Managerial	Pearson	-.02	.02	.14	-.14	.12	-.12	.09	-.09
	p-Value	.87	.87	.22	.22	.3	.3	.45	.45
Variety/Creativity	Pearson	-.07	.07	-.11	.11	.19	-.19	-.01	.01
	p-Value	.56	.56	.32	.32	.09	.09	.92	.92
Independence/Autonomy	Pearson	.34	-.34	-.06	.06	.05	-.05	-.09	.09
	p-Value	< .01**	< .01**	.62	.62	.67	.67	.41	.41
Career Values									
Growth/Development	Pearson	.02	-.02	-.06	.06	.21	-.21	.19	-.19
	p-Value	.89	.89	.62	.62	.06	.06	.09	.09
Authority/Influence	Pearson	.22	-.22	.17	-.17	.06	-.06	-.10	.10
	p-Value	.05*	.05*	.14	.14	.57	.57	.39	.39
Career Enablers									
Practical/Creative Skills	Pearson	-.09	.09	-.04	.04	.08	-.08	.08	-.08
	p-Value	.44	.44	.72	.72	.47	.47	.50	.50
Self/Other Skills	Pearson	-.32	.32	.14	-.14	-.01	.01	.06	-.06
	p-Value	< .01**	< .01**	.21	.21	.96	.96	.57	.57
Career Drivers									
Career Purpose	Pearson	-.09	.09	.03	-.03	-.22	.22	-.12	.12
	p-Value	.41	.41	.77	.77	.04*	.04*	.27	.27
Career Directedness	Pearson	-.33	.33	.09	-.09	.05	-.05	.01	-.01
	p-Value	< .01**	< .01**	.45	.45	.66	.66	.90	.90
Career Venturing	Pearson	.17	-.17	-.20	.20	-.07	.07	-.06	.06
	p-Value	.13	.13	.07	.07	.54	.54	.59	.59
Career Harmonisers									
Self Esteem	Pearson	-.31	.31	.14	-.14	-.05	.05	.09	-.09
	p-Value	< .01**	< .01**	.22	.22	.69	.69	.41	.41
Behavioural Adaptability	Pearson	-0.23	.23	.14	-.14	.12	-.12	-.03	.03
	p-Value	.04*	.04*	.22	.22	.28	.28	.81	.81
Emotional Literacy	Pearson	-0.38	.38	-.02	.02	-.08	.08	-.17	.17
	p-Value	< .01**	< .01**	.83	.83	.46	.46	.12	.12
Social Connectivity	Pearson	-.50	.50	.02	-.02	-.17	.17	-.05	.05
	p-Value	< .01**	< .01**	.83	.83	.12	.12	.64	.64
	N = 81. ***p ≤.001; **p ≤ 0.01; p ≤ 0.5 (two-tailed) / +r ≤ .26 (small practical effective size); ++ r ≥ .30 ≤ .49 (medium practical effect size)								

The results provided sufficient evidence to support research hypothesis $H1_a$: There is a significant and positive relationship between personality types and psychological career resources.

3.9.3 Tests for significant mean differences: Personality types and PCRI

Table 3.9 shows that the ISFP, ESFJ, ISFJ, ESTJ and ISTJ personality types differed significantly regarding the following PCRI variables: variety/creativity (career preference), growth/development (career value), self/other skills (career enabler) and social connectivity (career harmoniser).

- The ESTJ types (M = 3.71; Fp ≤ .05) scored significantly higher on the variety/creativity variable than the other four personality types.

- The ISFP, ESFJ, ISFJ, ESTJ and ISTJ personality types differed significantly regarding the PCRI career values growth/development. The ISTJ types (M = 3; Fp ≤ .05) scored significantly higher on the growth/development variable than the other four personality types.

- The ISFP, ESFJ, ISFJ, ESTJ and ISTJ personality types differed significantly regarding the PCRI career enablers self/other skills. The ESTJ types (M = 4.81; Fp ≤ .01) scored significantly higher on the self/other skills variable than the other four personality types.

- The ISFP, ESFJ, ISFJ, ESTJ and ISTJ personality types differed significantly regarding the PCRI career harmoniser social connectivity. The ESFJ types (M = 4.67; Fp ≤ .01) scored significantly higher on the social connectivity variable than the other four personality types.

Table 3.9: *Significant ANOVA results: Significant differences between MBTI personality types regarding the PCRI variables*

		N	MEAN	*SD*	F	ρ
Career Preference						
Variety/Creativity	ISFP	7	3.40	.62	2.6425	.04
	ESFJ	22	3.36	.62		
	ISFJ	16	2.99	.55		
	ESTJ	7	3.71	.40		
	ISTJ	9	3.50	.36		
Career Values						
Growth/Development	ISFP	7	2.60	.42	2.6425	.04
	ESFJ	22	2.85	.26		
	ISFJ	16	2.68	.33		
	ESTJ	7	2.90	.25		
	ISTJ	9	3.00	.00		
Career Enablers						
Self/Other skills	ISFP	7	4.19	.61	3.5481	.01
	ESFJ	22	4.77	.45		
	ISFJ	16	4.32	.57		
	ESTJ	7	4.81	.15		
	ISTJ	9	4.46	.46		
Career Harmoniser						
Social Connectivity	ISFP	7	4.19	.48	7.4725	< .01
	ESFJ	22	4.67	.32		
	ISFJ	16	3.92	.79		
	ESTJ	7	4.48	1.77		
	ISTJ	9	3.63	.61		
N = 81. *** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; $p \leq .05$ (two-tailed)						

Table 3.10 shows that the SF, ST, NF and NT personality mental orientation preferences differ significantly regarding the PCRI career drivers career purpose variable. The NF type (*M* = 3.72; F$p \leq .05$) scored significantly higher on the variable career purpose than the other four personality types.

Table 3.10: *ANOVA on gender: Psychological career resources and personality mental orientation preference*

	Career Drivers - Career Purpose				
	N	**Means**	**SD**	**F**	**ρ**
SF	50	3.65	.36	2.846	.04
ST	18	3.57	.38		
NF	6	3.72	.44		
NT	7	3.21	.52		
N = 81. *** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; $p \leq .05$ (two-tailed)					

3.9.4 Tests for significant mean differences: Personality types and gender

Table 3.11 shows that males and females differed significantly regarding their preferences for thinking (T) and feeling (F). The males (M = 13.71; Fp ≤ .01) scored significantly higher on the thinking (T) personality type and the females (M = 13.95; Fp ≤ .01) scored significantly higher on the feeling (F) personality type.

Table 3.11: *ANOVA on gender: Personality types*

Personality		N	MEAN	SD	F	ρ
Thinking	Female	60	10.05	4.66	10.805	< .01
	Male	21	13.71	4.92		
Feeling	Female	60	13.95	4.20	10.805	< .01
	Male	21	10.29	4.92		
N = 81. *** p ≤ .001; ** p ≤ .01; p ≤ .05 (two-tailed)						

3.9.5 Tests for significant mean differences: Personality types and race

Table 3.12 shows that the race groups differed significantly regarding their preference for sensing (S) and intuition (N). The white participants (M = 18.00; Fp ≤ .01) scored significantly higher on the sensing (S) personality type and the African participants (M = 12.15; Fp ≤ .01) scored significantly higher on the intuition (N) personality type.

Table 3.12: *ANOVA on race: Personality types (n = 81)*

Personality		N	MEAN	SD	F	ρ
Sensing	African	20	13.85	2.98	9.3317	< .01
	Coloured	43	16.98	2.99		
	White	18	18.00	3.85		
Intuition	African	20	12.15	2.98	9.3317	< .01
	Coloured	43	9.02	2.99		
	White	18	8.00	3.85		
N = 81. *** p ≤ .001; ** p ≤ .01; p ≤ .05 (two-tailed)						

3.9.6 Tests for significant mean differences: Psychological career resources and race

Table 3.13 shows that the race groups differed significantly regarding their sense of career purpose. The coloured participants ($M = 3.70$; F$p \le .05$) scored significantly higher on the career purpose variable.

Table 3.13: *ANOVA on race: Psychological career resources (n = 81)*

	Group	N	Means	SD	F	ρ
Career Purpose	African	20	3.47	.49	3.1418	.05*
	Coloured	43	3.70	.33		
	White	18	3.51	.39		
N = 81. *** $p \le .001$; ** $p \le .01$; $p \le .05$ (two-tailed)						

3.9.7 Tests for significant mean differences: Psychological career resources and gender

Table 3.14 shows that males and females differed significantly regarding their sense of social connectivity. The female participants variable ($M = 4.33$; F$p \le .05$) scored significantly higher on the social connectivity variable.

Table 3.14: ANOVA on gender: Psychological career resources (n = 81)

	Group	N	Means	SD	F	ρ
Social Connectivity	Female	60	4.33	.61	4.4674	.04*
	Male	21	3.98	.79		
N = 81. *** $p \le .001$; ** $p \le .01$; $p \le .05$ (two-tailed)						

3.9.8 Tests for significant mean differences: Psychological career resources and age

Table 3.15 shows that the age groups differed significantly in terms of the career preference managerial variable and the career purpose variable. Participants from the age group 41-55 ($M = 3.58$; F$p \le .05$) scored significantly higher on the managerial variable and participants from the age group younger than 25 ($M = 3.78$; F$p \le .05$) scored significantly higher on the career purpose variable.

Table 3.15: *ANOVA on age: Psychological career resources (n = 81)*

	Age	N	MEAN	SD	F	ρ
Career Preference						
Managerial	< 25	15	2.94	.83	4.5669	.01
	25 - 40	51	3.18	.65		
	41 - 55	14	3.58	.44		
Career Driver						
Career Purpose	< 25	15	3.78	.26	3.9839	.02
	25 - 40	51	3.51	.44		
	41 - 55	14	3.74	.28		
N = 81. *** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; $p \leq .05$ (two-tailed)						

The results provided sufficient evidence to support research hypothesis H2$_a$: Gender, race and age groups differ significantly regarding their personality preferences and psychological career resources.

3.10   DISCUSSION

The objective of this study was to assess the relationship between individuals' personality type preferences and their psychological career resources. The study also aimed to assess whether gender, race and age groups differ significantly regarding their personality preferences and psychological career resources. In interpreting the results, the following socio-demographic characteristics of the sample were kept in mind: the participants were from the fast-food industry and held mostly managerial and supervisory level positions. The sample also represented full-time employees, predominantly coloureds and females in their entry and establishment life/career stages (25-40 years). Most of the participants had attained a Grade 12.

3.10.1 Personality type and psychological career resources profile

The most dominant MBTI profiles of managers working in the fast-food industry are the ESFJ and ISFJ personality types. The majority of the participants indicated a preference for the sensing, feeling and judging types.   This personality type preference has certain implications for individuals working in the fast-food industry.

According to Myers et al. (2003), extraverts do not like to work alone or work for lengthy periods without any interruptions or if they have to reflect before taking action when exposed to a work environment with high stress levels. On the other hand, introverts prefer working or interacting with others as little as possible. They may experience stress when their privacy is not respected and when they have to act quickly without getting the chance to reflect.

Stressors for the sensing types entail focusing on possibilities, too many complexities, having to do old thing in a new way and having to look for meaning in facts (Myers et al., 2003).

The feeling type experiences stress when the individual must analyse situations objectively, set criteria and standards, criticise and focus on flaws, focus on tasks only, expect to use logic alone to make decisions and ask questions that are decisive. On the other hand, the judging type experiences stress when the individual works with too much flexibility around time frames and deadlines and has to deal with surprises or has to work with very little structure or no structure at all (Myers et al., 2003).

The dominant mental orientation preference is the Sensing-Feeling (SF) type. The Sensing-Feeling (SF) seems to lose perspective when experiencing high levels of stress and to seek approval and affirmation in time of stress. The coping mechanisms of SF types are to avoid stressful situations, talk to someone close, rely on religious beliefs, get upset or angry without showing it, get upset or angry and indeed show it, sleep or just watch television (Myers et al., 2003). Research indicates that the SF type has significantly higher levels of stress associated with health and balancing work and home than the intuition type. The SF types are also found to rate the highest in number of stressful areas and are vulnerable to emotional exhaustion and depersonalised forms of burn-out (Myers et al., 2003).

The overall psychological career profile of the restaurant managers suggests a strong preference for stability/expertise (supported by the career value of growth and development), implying a need for stable and steady employment conditions that will allow them to specialise and develop expertise in a specific area of interest (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009; Coetzee & Esterhuizen, 2010). This gives the individuals the opportunity to apply their expertise in a particular field of speciality, which may result in them having a lower need for venturing out in search of new, different and more challenging career opportunities (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009). The participants also showed a strong preference for self-management and interpersonal skills, self-esteem and behavioural adaptability.

Behavioural adaptability is a positive predictor of job satisfaction and happiness and the individual may perceive work as a valuable activity (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009). Research suggests that a positive self-view, thus high self-esteem, may predict happiness, as people who are more self-positive tend to choose goals that have a chance of making them happy with their jobs and lives (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009). Research done by Coetzee and Bergh (2009) suggests that people in the age group 25 years and younger have greater confidence

in their ability to achieve their career goals and form meaningful social connections than the participants in the age group 56 years and older. It is important for younger restaurant managers in the fast-food industry to network and establish the necessary support systems to be able to achieve their personal goals and cope with daily challenges. Once a network with superiors and peers has been established, these young individuals will have greater confidence in their ability to achieve their goals and experience feelings of accomplishment and satisfaction. On the other hand, the older generation restaurant manager (age 56 and older) does not have the need to accomplish anything anymore and may only work to survive in the current volatile economic situation of the country. They may also start disengaging from work and considering the possibility of going into retirement.

Career purpose refers to individuals' sense of having a career calling and individuals who have a stronger career calling reported much higher levels of career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2008). People with a calling orientation tend to work for the fulfilment of their jobs and may believe that their work will make an impact on society in some way (Coetzee, 2008). People with the feeling preference may wish to interact and provide a service to people. Restaurant managers must look after the well-being of their customers and in this way feeling type restaurant managers may have the opportunity to make an impact on their customers in a direct and positive way by providing excellent service.

3.10.2 Relationship between personality types and psychological career resources

The results showed that a positive relationship exists between the MBTI personality preferences introversion and a negative relationship between the MBTI personality preference extraversion, with the psychological career resources: career preferences (freedom/autonomy) and career values (authority/influence). The results also displayed a positive relationship between the MBTI personality preference extraversion and a negative relationship between the MBTI personality preference introversion with the psychological career resources: career enablers (self/other skills), career drivers (career directedness) and career harmonisers (self-esteem, emotional literacy and social connectivity. From the results the assumption is made that introverts prefer to operate independently and autonomously, they do not want to be disturbed in their work environment by external factors. Introverts also strive for more authority and influence. Individuals who have a managerial career preference view upward mobility to positions of greater responsibility, influence and authority as career success (Coetzee, 2008) Introverts having a strong management preference may thus consider having authority and influence as an indication that they have achieved career success. Extraverts, on the other hand, consider autonomy/independence and

authority/influence as less important to establish themselves in their careers. They prefer rather to interact with other people in and outside their work environment. Knowing their career traits, extraverts are able to make the necessary adjustments to achieve their career-related desires (Du Toit, Coetzee & Visser, 2005).

Self/other skills are the ability to understand, honour, empathise and interact effectively with others, as well as the ability to understand one's feelings and motivation and apply self-discipline in one's interaction with others (Coetzee, 2008). Introverts seem to consider self/other skills less important to advance in their careers. Introverts prefer privacy and personal space. They also prefer not to be put under pressure to disclose themselves. This does not mean that they do not enjoy the company of others, as long as they have their needed privacy (Myers et al., 2003). On the other hand, extraverts have a higher level of self/other skills. Knowing their traits extraverts are able to make the necessary adjustments to achieve their career related desires (Du Toit, Coetzee & Visser, 2005). According to Hammer (1996), extraverts have a more positive sense of well-being that may help them manage stress better than introverts.

The thinking preference type has a lower sense of career purpose compared to the feeling preference type that has a higher sense of career purpose. Career purpose refers to the individual's sense of having a career calling. This involves the quest for a professional and personal goal. This relates to the individual's achieving his or her goals, which include being of service to others and giving the best in what they do (Coetzee, 2008). Therefore the feeling type would prefer to provide a service to people and work in a harmonious and appreciative work environment, but on the other hand the thinking type would rather prefer work that requires logical order, especially ideas and physical objects (Myers et al., 2003). NF types have a higher preference for career purpose and may therefore have a higher sense of having a career calling. The personal warmth and commitment with which they seek and follow up possibilities tend to make them enthusiastic and insightful (Myers et al., 2003).

Career directedness is individuals' sense of clarity about future career directions and goals, as well as where to find support for achieving their career goals or finding new job opportunities (Coetzee, 2008). Coetzee and Esterhuizen (2010) established that career goals stimulate health-promoting behaviours that lead to an increase in one's physical and emotional well-being and a positive attitude to life. With regard to career directedness, introverts have a lower sense of their future career paths, while extraverts have a greater sense of their career paths. It seems that introverts do not have a clear career directedness

and is unable to find the necessary resources and support to establish their goals. On the other hand, extraverts have a higher sense of goal-directedness and wilfulness (Myers et al., 2003). They seem to have a clear goal, allowing them to network and socialise to find the necessary support to achieve their goals (Coetzee, Martins, Basson & Muller, 2006).

Career harmonisers entail the individual's emotional literacy and social connectivity (Coetzee 2008). According to the results, introverts have a lower level of career-harmonising capacities (self-esteem, behavioural adaptability, emotional literacy and social connectivity), while extraverts have a higher level of career-harmonising capacities. Having low self-esteem can lead to introverts not building social connections to establish support and resources. Lack of emotional literacy results in introverts being unable to cope in a high-pressure environment (Coetzee et al., 2006). Du Toit, Coetzee and Visser (2005) established that introverts struggle to cope with stress-provoking demands. Van Rensburg, Rothman and Rothman (2003) established that extraverts seem to focus on the outer world of people, enjoy the company of others and are more emotionally stable and conscientious. It seems that extravert types have a higher level of confidence in their own emotional competence and are therefore action-orientated, confident and sociable (Coetzee et al., 2006). Research done by Engstrom, Boozer, Maddox and Forte (2010) also indicates that extraverts scored higher on emotional intelligence compared to introverts.

3.10.3 Significant differences: Personality types and psychological career resources

The ESTJ personality type showed a significantly higher preference for a job/career that offers variety/creativity than the ISFP, ESFJ, ISFJ and ISTJ types. Variety/creativity enables the individual to develop a range of skills, abilities and knowledge that can be used in a creative and innovative way (Coetzee, 2008). Research done by Myers et al. (2003) indicates that the ESTJ type seems to prefer a clear and structured working environment and a variety of tasks. The ISFJ type had the lowest need for variety/creativity. ISFJ types tend to be practical and realistic, as well as concrete and specific. They place a low value on variety and challenge in the organisation (Myers et al., 2003).

The ISTJ type had a significantly higher need for growth/development than the ISFP, ESFJ, ISFJ and ESTJ types. This means that an individual will value his or her career more if the opportunity for growth and development does exist in his or her career. Achievement and not procrastinating can be considered to be an important value to the ISTJ individuals (Myers et al., 2003).

The ESTJ personality type appears to have a significantly higher level of self-management and interpersonal skills than the ISFP, ESFJ, ISFJ and ISTJ categories. Self/other skills are the ability to understand, honour, empathise and interact effectively with others, as well as the ability to understand one's feelings and motivation and apply self-discipline in one's interaction with others (Coetzee, 2008). Individuals belonging to the ESTJ type prefer to make use of their self/other skills to advance in their careers (Myers et al., 2003). This is a further indication that ESTJ types like working and interacting with others, and being sociable (Myers et al., 2003). The ISFP type has the lowest need for self/other skills. Individuals of the ESFJ personality type are also better able to establish social networks for the advancement of their careers than the ISFP, ESTJ, ISFJ and ISTJ types. The ISFP, ISFJ, ESTJ and ISTJ personality types have a more limited need for social connectivity compared to the ESFJ type, which prefers to connect with others and uphold relationships. These finding are supported by research indicating that ISFP individuals take time to develop intimacy with others and that ISTJ types prefer to work alone (Myers et al., 2003). On the other hand, the ESTJ type enjoys interacting and working with others; this is supported by the research study of Cilliers and Coetzee (2010), who also established that the ESTJ personality type has a preference for active and enthusiastic involvement with others.

3.10.4 Significant differences: Personality types and gender, race and age

The study indicates that males and females differ with regard to thinking and feeling. Men tend to have a preference for the thinking type and women have a preference for the feeling type. Males prefer to use their thinking side rather than their feeling side compared to females. Research indicates that men are encouraged more towards thinking activities and woman towards feeling activities (Myers et al., 2003). Research done by Full (2010) also found a significant gender difference between males and females on the feeling dichotomy. However, no gender differences between extraversion, intuition, or perceiving were found. Furnham and Stringfield (1993) determined that females tend to score higher on intuition and males higher on sensing. They also established that females tend to prefer feeling rather than thinking (T). Cilliers and Coetzee (2010) also indicated that females are significantly more sensitive towards their personal feelings and needs than males.

The results show that the white participants had a higher preference for sensing compared to their African counterparts, who scored higher on the intuition dichotomy. Research done by Kendall & McHenry (1998) and Meyer et al. (2003) found that the majority of African-Americans showed a preference for sensing. This research is further supported by the study

of Cilliers and Coetzee (2010), who determined that Africans showed a preference for sensing. Furnham and Stringfield (1993) determined that whites seemed to be more extraverted. No significant differences could be established in this study between white, African and coloured participants on the introverted and extraverted dichotomies. Furnham and Stringfield (1993) further also established that whites were stronger on sensing than intuition.

3.10.5 Significant differences: Psychological career resources and gender, race and age

It appears that females had a higher social connectivity than males. The results seem to corroborate research by Coetzee (2008) and by Ferreira and Coetzee (2010) who also found that females tend to have significantly higher levels of social connectivity. This may suggest confidence in their ability to form social connections. Research by Ferreira (2012) also indicated that females could more easily connect with others in a social environment. However, in a research study done by both Venter (2012) and Symington (2012), no significant differences between males and females on social connectivity could be determined. In a study by Coetzee and Bergh (2009) no significant differences between males and females on social connectivity could be established. The only significant differences established between males and females were on the career preference variables stability/expertise and managerial skills (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009).

Coloureds have a higher career purpose preference than Africans. Coloureds in the fast-food industry seem to experience personal and professional growth in the Western Cape. On the other hand, Ferreira and Coetzee (2010) established that Africans considered career purpose as more important than whites, coloureds and Indians in the national sample.

Based on the results, the assumption is made that the older age group strives more strongly for a managerial position than the younger age group. The age group younger than 25 indicates less interest in upward mobility. This is supported by the findings of Coetzee and Bergh (2009), although the expectation was that there should be a higher preference for managerial positions. However, the age group 41–55 shows more interest in upward mobility to a position of greater influence, authority and responsibility. Coetzee and Bergh (2009) also indicated that the younger group experiences the role and responsibilities of a manager as difficult. The fast-food industry is a very difficult and hostile environment (Miller & Madsen, 2003). Individuals in this age group may feel that they are not ready to fulfil the role of manager yet.

3.11   CONCLUSION

Based on the results obtained in this study, it is concluded that the findings present useful insight into the relationship between personality types and psychological career resources. The conclusions are discussed in more detail in chapter 4.

3.12   LIMITATIONS

A non-probability purposive sample was used, which further reduced the sample size and minimised the generalisability of the findings. This study was limited to participants in the fast-food industry in the Western Cape and the findings can therefore not be generalised to other sectors in the economy or to the fast-food industry in South Africa. Given the cross-sectional nature of the research design, this study cannot yield any statement about causation. Associations between the variables have therefore been interpreted rather than established. Moreover, the potential risk of common method bias should be considered because of the self-report methodology that was used. A comprehensive overview of all of the limitations identified will be provided in Chapter 4.

3.13   RECOMMENDATIONS

The recommendations will be elaborated on in more detail in Chapter 4. The findings of the study confirm the existence of significant differences between personality types, psychological career resources and demographical groups. There is a need for more research concerning career resources and personality preferences in the multi-cultural South African context.

CHAPTER 4

CONCLUSION, LIMITATION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter concludes the dissertation. In the first section of this chapter, conclusions are drawn in terms of the literature review and the empirical study. A discussion of the limitations follows and the final part of the chapter will contain recommendations for the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology.

4.1   CONCLUSIONS RELATING TO THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The focus in this section is the formulation of research conclusions regarding the literature review and the empirical study.

4.1.1   Conclusions regarding the literature review

The aim of the study was to determine the relationship between personality preference types (as measured by the MBTI Form M) and psychological career resources (as measured by the PCRI). The study also aimed to assess whether gender, race and age groups differ significantly regarding their personality preferences and psychological career resources.

4.1.1.1   The first aim: To conceptualise personality type and psychological career resources:

The aim was achieved in chapter 2. The following conclusions were drawn regarding the relationship between personality type and psychological career resources:

a)   Conclusion about personality types

Jung (1921) postulated that each personality may be divided into one of various personality types in terms of two constructs, namely attitudes and functions (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2002). Jung's (1921) theory of personality types is concerned with the conscious use of the functions, of perceptions and decision-making. The personality theory of Jung (1990) also accepts that apart from the dominant attitude, each person has a specific way in which he or she observes the world and assigns meaning to personal experiences.

Jung (1990) developed a personality theory that suggests two attitudinal orientations, namely introversion and extraversion, as well as four psychological mental orientation functions, namely sensing or intuition, and thinking or feeling. Myers and Briggs (Myers et

al., 2003) included two additional orientations that relate to the way people approach their outer world in terms of judgment or perception, labelled as judging and perceiving. The combination of these orientations and functions results in 16 different personality types that can be measured by the MBTI scale (Myers et al., 2003).

It is clear from the research literature that personality predicts career satisfaction and relates to career satisfaction and well-being (Myers et al., 2003; Hammer, 1996). Introverts and sensing types seem to have more limited coping skills than extraverts and intuitive types and therefore experience more work stress. Feeling and perceiving types also experience significantly higher work stress than thinking and judging types (Myers et al., 2003).

b)   Psychological career resources

Psychological career resources are defined as the set of career-related orientations, values, attitudes, abilities and attributes that lead to self-empowering career behaviour and promote general employability (Coetzee 2008; Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2012). Psychological career resources are therefore regarded as individuals' inherent resources or meta-competencies, which enable them to adapt to changing career circumstances and to shape and select environments in order to accomplish success (Coetzee, 2008). Coetzee (2008) distinguished between career preferences, career values, career enablers, career drivers and career harmonisers.

Career preferences and values are considered as the enduring cognitive structures underlying the individual's thoughts about his or her career. Career preferences guide the individual's career move and career values represent the motivation for a particular career (Coetzee, 2008). Career drivers are the attitudes that energise people and motivate them to experiment with career employment possibilities. Career enablers are those abilities that help people succeed in their careers and career harmonisers are the psychological attributes that act as promoters of flexibility and resilience and also to prevent people going overboard (Coetzee & Esterhuizen, 2010).

Coetzee and Esterhuizen (2010) determined that strong career drivers promote health-promoting behaviours that lead to an increase in individuals' physical and emotional well-being and an optimistic view of the self and one's life in general. Coetzee (2008) also established that career drivers relate to having a sense of calling or higher purpose and goal-directed intentionality towards one's career development. Symington (2012) determined that career enablers and career harmonisers positively predict individuals' career resilience

and that career enablers and career preferences positively predict individuals' openness to change and proactivity and career enablers, and career values appear to be strong predictors of individuals' generalised self-efficacy.

Coetzee and Schreuder (2009) established that managers have a stronger sense of career purpose and they appear to feel called to their careers. Managers look for employment that gives them the opportunity to apply their expertise in a specific field. They therefore have a lower need to venture out in search of new opportunities and possibilities and tend to work for fulfilment, having a preference for a steady career and career security (Coetzee & Schreuder 2009).

Ferreira (2012) determined that individuals with a strong preference for managerial positions and high self-esteem will experience emotional attachment to the organisation and the individual's planning of his or her career will be affected by his or her career preferences for a managerial position.

4.1.1.2 The second aim: To assess whether gender, race and age groups differ significantly regarding their personality preferences and psychological career resources.

The second aim was realised in chapter 2. The literature indicates that various biographical variables (race, age and gender) influence personality type and psychological career resources.

Gratia (1997) and Myers and Briggs (Myers et al., 2003) established that men are more encouraged towards thinking and woman towards feeling activities. Sensing seems to occur more in the younger and older age groups, while thinking tends to be found more often in the middle age group (Gratia, 1997; Cumming, 1995). Gratia (1997) and Hammer and Mitchell (1996) determined that whites are more introverted and slightly less sensing and thinking compared to African-Americans that were more thinking and sensing.

Coetzee and Ferreira (2010) determined that compared to males, females venture out more and experiment with possible career opportunities; they tend to be much more socially connected than males. Coetzee and Esterhuizen (2010) also established that younger individuals have higher confidence in their social ability compared to older age groups. Coetzee and Ferreira (2010) and Coetzee (2008) determined that individuals in the age group 26–40 look for more growth and development opportunities.

4.1.2   Conclusion regarding the empirical study

The research aims of the empirical study were as follows:

1)   To investigate the relationship between personality types and psychological career resources.

2)   To determine whether groups from different races, ages and gender differ significantly regarding personality types and psychological career resources.

The results provided supportive evidence for the H1 hypothesis (there is a relationship between personality types and psychological career resources) and the H2 hypothesis (individuals from different races, ages and gender differ significantly in terms of personality types and psychological career resources).

4.1.2.1   The empirical aim: To investigate the relationship between personality types and psychological career resources

The first empirical aim involved an empirical investigation of the relationship between personality types and psychological career resources of restaurant managers and supervisors in the fast-food industry in the Western Cape. Overall, it was concluded that personality types are significantly associated with psychological career resources and that the personality types differ significantly in terms of their associations with the psychological career resources. Ten specific conclusions were reached in terms of the research aim. These conclusions are summarised below:

a)   Conclusion 1: The overall dominant personality profile of the sample is the ISFJ/ESFJ personality types. Managers and supervisors with the ISFJ/ESFJ personality type may strive to inspire and build sound relationships with their subordinates, as well as focussing on the needs of their customers and providing outstanding services.

b)   Conclusion 2: The managers and supervisors in the fast-food industry's overall psychological career resource profile appear to have a strong preference for stable careers that allow them to develop their expertise. They seem to value growth and development opportunities and have a high level of confidence in their self-management and interpersonal skills (career enablers). They also have a strong sense of career purpose as the dominant career driver and behavioural adaptability as

dominant career harmoniser. These managers and supervisors are looking for long-term careers with growth and development opportunities that will inspire and allow them to provide service and show dedication to their customers and the industry overall.

c) Conclusion 3: Introverts and extraverts differ in terms of their association with career preferences and values. Contrary to extraverted types, introverted types appear to be more oriented toward career environments that provide them with independence, autonomy, authority and influence. In their research study Hendrickson and Giesecke (1994) established that introverts prefer working alone and that teamwork does not come easy for them. Hirsh and Kummerow (1998) also indicated that introverts prefer working independently.

d) Conclusion 4: Introverts and extraverts differ in terms of their association with career enablers; extraversion is positively (and introversion negatively) associated with self-management and interpersonal relation skills. Hautala (2007) established that introverts have a greater need for gentle confrontation and they do not seek as much feedback and support as extraverts.

e) Conclusion 5: Introverts and extraverts differ in terms of their association with career drivers. Contrary to the introverted types, extraverted types appear to have strong clarity about the future direction of their career paths and goals. According to Myers et al. (2003), extraverts have a higher sense of goal-directedness and wilfulness.

f) Conclusion 6: Introverts and extraverts differ in terms of their association with career harmonisers. Overall, contrary to the introverted types, the extraverted types appear to have positive perceptions about their self-esteem, behavioural adaptability, emotional literacy and ability to connect with others socially in order to further their careers. Baptista (2009) established that extraverts have a higher association with emotional intelligence. Van Rensburg, Rothman and Rothman (2003) determined that extraverts seem to focus on the outer world of people, enjoy the company of others and are more emotionally stable and conscientious.

g) Conclusion 7: The ESTJ types have a significantly higher preference for careers that offer variety and creativity than the ISFP, ESFJ, ISFJ and ISTJ types. ESTJ types also have significantly higher levels of self-confidence in their self-management and interpersonal relation skills (career enablers) than the ISFP, ESFJ, ISFJ and ISTJ

types. Research done by Myers et al. (2003) indicates that the ESTJ type seems to prefer a clear and structured working environment and a variety of tasks. ESTJ types also seem to enjoy interacting and working with others and take relationship roles seriously (Myers, 1998).

h)   Conclusion 8: The ISTJ types have a significantly higher need for careers that offer further growth and development opportunities than the ISFP, ESFJ, ISFJ and ESTJ types. ISTJ values achievement and are more likely to seek a management position (Capretz, 2003; Myers et al., 2003).

i)   Conclusion 9: The ESFJ types have significantly higher levels of confidence in their ability to establish social networks and relations in order to advance their careers than the ISFP, ESTJ, ISFJ and ISTJ types. ESFJ types are considered to be sociable and outgoing and bring a very personal, caring attitude to the workplace (Myers, 1998).

j)   Conclusion 10: The NF (intuitive-feeling) types have a stronger sense of career purpose than the SF, ST, and NT personality types. NF types are likely to be attracted to work that involves the unfolding of possibilities, especially possibilities for people, such as teaching, selling, counselling and research (Myers et al., 2003).

4.1.2.2   The empirical aim: To investigate whether managers from different races, ages and gender differ significantly regarding their personality types and psychological career resources.

The second empirical aim involved an empirical investigation of the differences between race, age and gender between personality types and psychological career resources of restaurant managers in the fast-food industry in the Western Cape.   Five specific conclusions were reached in terms of the research aim. These conclusions are discussed below:

a)   Conclusion 1: Males and females differ significantly regarding their preference for thinking or feeling. Males prefer to be the more thinking type and females prefer the more feeling type. In agreement with research by Myers et al. (2003) females, are therefore significantly more sensitive towards their personal feelings and needs than males.

b) Conclusion 2: The race groups differ significantly regarding their preference for sensing or intuition. Africans have a greater preference for intuition and whites for sensing. Research done by Myers et al. (2003) and Cilliers and Coetzee (2010) was not in agreement with this finding; they established that Africans have a greater preference for sensing than for intuition.

c) Conclusion 3: Race groups differ significantly regarding their sense of career purpose. The coloured participants seem to have a higher sense of career purpose than their white and African counterparts.

d) Conclusion 4: Males and females differ significantly regarding their social connectivity. Females seem to be more socially active and they connect more easily with others in order to advance their careers than males do. In agreement with Coetzee (2008) and Coetzee and Ferreira (2010), females seem to be more socially connected.

e) Conclusion 5: The age groups differ significantly regarding their managerial career preference and their sense of career purpose. The middle age managers (44-55) have a stronger desire for upward mobility in comparison to the younger age group. On the other hand, the younger age group (<25) has a stronger sense of career purpose than the older age groups.

4.1.3 Conclusion regarding the hypothesis

The results of the study provided supportive evidence for the two research hypotheses. Evidence was provided for the existence of a relationship between restaurant manager and supervisor personality types and their psychological career resources. Evidence was also provided that the gender, race and age groups differ significantly regarding their personality preferences and psychological career resources.

4.1.4 Conclusion regarding the contribution of this study to the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology.

Both findings from the literature review and the empirical results have definitely contributed new knowledge to the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology. The literature review provided considerable insight into personality types and psychological career resources. The relationship between personality type and psychological career resources provided valuable

knowledge on how restaurant managers and supervisors cope in this fast, driven environment.

The fast-food industry can be considered as a challenging environment where managers and supervisors need to run a small business unit effectively by leading and motivating subordinates, as well as engaging and providing excellent services to customers.

Individuals with a dominant ESFJ personality type might fit this role well. They are considered to be sociable and outgoing and should be able to relate well to customers, showing personal interest in their customers as well as their subordinates. This will result in them motivating their subordinates to go the extra mile and returning customers, which will assist them in achieving their required targets.

Managers and supervisors who work or want to work in the fast-food industry value personal growth and development, as well as the opportunity for a stable and rewarding career. The fast-food industry needs to create the platform and space that will allow these individuals to thrive and succeed.

Introverts prefer to work autonomously and do not like to be micromanaged, but may struggle to handle stress effectively. Introverts therefore want their independence, Extraverts, on the other hand, prefer to socialise and have contact in and out of the work environment and they may also be able to cope better with stress. The feeling type managers and supervisors enjoy providing service to people and the fast-food industry provides the platform for this personality preference to thrive and to experience job satisfaction.

Young people and coloureds entering the world of work seem to be ambitious and will look for careers that offer lucrative career opportunities. They will be expecting career growth possibilities and good remuneration opportunities. The older generation wants to move up the career ladder and does not want to stagnate. Africans with the intuition preference may be interested in a managerial career that involves strategic thinking and planning. They may see themselves operating on a more strategic level, such as a franchise owner.

Hypothesis accepted based on the finding of the research

H1: There is a significant and positive relationship between personality types and psychological career resources.

H2: Gender, race and age groups differ significantly regarding their personality preferences and psychological career resources.

Introverts (I):

Strive for more authority and influence. They prefer to operate independently and autonomously and consider self/other skills as less important to advance in their careers. They prefer privacy and personal space and prefer not to be put under pressure in terms of self-disclosing. Introverts may not be able to find the necessary resources and support to establish their goals and may struggle to build social connections, resulting in them not coping in a high-pressure environment.

Extraverts (E):

Prefer to have interaction with other people in and outside their work environment. They have the skills to make the necessary adjustments to achieve their career-related desires. They also have a more positive sense of well-being that may help them manage stress better than introverts. Extraverts seem to be able to network and socialise to find the necessary support to achieve their goals and they seem to have more confidence in their own emotional competence and are therefore action-orientated, confident and more sociable.

Thinking (T) and Feeling (F)

Feeling types would prefer to provide a service to people and work in a harmonious and appreciative work environment, whereas thinking types would prefer work that requires logical order, especially ideas, objects and physical objects.

Personality type

The ISFJ personality type tends to be practical and realistic, as well as concrete and specific. They place a low value on variety and challenge in the organisation and have a lower need for social contact.

The ISTJ personality type has a higher need for growth and development and people belonging to it will value their careers more.

People with the ESTJ personality type prefers to make use of their skills to advance in their careers and they like working and interacting with others and being sociable.

The ESFJ personality type is also more able to establish social networks for the advancement of their careers and they prefer to connect with others and uphold relationships.

Gender:

Males prefer to be the thinking type and females prefer the feeling type. Females are therefore significantly more sensitive about their personal feelings and needs than their male counterparts.
Female managers seem to be more socially active and connect more easily with others than their male counterparts.

Race:

The coloured managers seem to have a higher career purpose than their white and African counterparts.
Africans have the intuition preference and whites the sensing preference.

Age:

The middle-aged managers prefer upward mobility compared to the younger age group that is more hesitant to move up the career ladder into a managerial position.

Figure 4.1: Overview and summary of core conclusions

4.2   LIMITATIONS

The limitations of the literature study and empirical investigation are outlined below.

4.2.1   Limitation of the literature review

There is a lack of previous research into the relationship between personality types and psychological career resources in the South African context. It was difficult to support and integrate findings from different researchers, as the study and concepts were approached from specific theories and paradigms.

Various studies were done on psychological career resources relating to other variables, such as organisational commitment, career anchors, race, gender and age. However, no study has been done so far with regard to personality and psychological career resources, as psychological career resources is a quite new construct developed by Coetzee (2008). This resulted in lack of a theoretical model between personality type and psychological career resources and therefore industrial and organisational psychologists lack knowledge about the theoretical relationship between the two variables.

4.2.2   Limitation of the empirical study

The researcher had difficulty in finding participants. Some of the major fast-food groups and franchises with most managers and supervisors were not willing to make their managers and supervisors available for the research study. Excuses ranged from the people not having time to just not being willing for fear of revelation of information that may bring their status into disrepute, although it was clearly explained that this was not about the restaurants or specific franchises, but solely about the individual as a manager working in this type of industry.

The small sample size has limited generalisation and practical application. The study was only conducted in the Western Cape in the metropolitan area. The rest of the Western Cape and South Africa has not been included in this study. The sample group entailed a very small sample that mainly consisted of members of the coloured population. Whites and Africans were equally represented in the sample, but there was no Indian representation. Future research should thus focus on expanding the study to include a more balanced representation of the different demographical groups in a variety of franchises in the whole of South Africa.

There was limited representation of managers and supervisors regarding the 16 personality types. Some types are not represented at all, which can be seen as a limitation to this study.

4.3   RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations based on the findings, conclusion and limitation of the results are outlined in the sections below.

4.3.1   Recommendations regarding stakeholders

1)   Industrial psychologists should use the MBTI and the PCRI in management training to create awareness of individual strengths and weaknesses. Both assessments should be used in mature career counselling to assist the individual in making an informed career decision.

2)   The organisation should develop the following MBTI preferences in managers as part of management development:

- Staff members and customers relate better to the feeling personality preference. People with this preference are considered more understanding, supportive and approachable.
- Introverts and feelings personality preferences may experience more stress than extraverts and thinking types. Management can assist these employees by providing them with the necessary support to cope better in high-pressure situations.

3)   Managers should understand their personality preferences. They should be coached on:

- How to deal with stress and manage it overall;
- How to deal with their subordinates and colleagues when under stress;
- How to deal with customers when under stress;
- How to understand and support one another in normal and stressful situations;
- How to empower subordinates and peers; and
- How to advance in their own careers.

4) Top management and franchises should use this information for:

- Effective career planning and development of managerial and supervisory staff;
- Enhancing and accelerating leadership training for previously disadvantaged candidates;
- Improving their leadership programmes; and
- Improving their customer relations.

4.3.2 Recommendations for future research

The study provided some insight into the relationship between personality types and psychological career resources. Recommendations for further research in the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology are outlined below.

In order to enhance external validity, future research efforts should focus on obtaining a larger representative sample, across various occupational groups in the fast-food sector. It is recommended that future researchers replicate this study, as it was limited by the small sample of supervisors and managers who participated and the fact that the sample was restricted to a single region. Future research should focus on expanding this study by broadening the sample to include a more balanced representation of individuals from managerial levels and demographical variables (gender, race and age groups).

The results were further limited by the choice of sampling methodology. Different inventories can be used to investigate the relationship between leaders' personality types and psychological career resources. There is a need for more research concerning personality types and psychological career resources, specifically in the South African context. Further studies would be useful for organisational well-being and career development practices. The results of these studies could assist organisational psychologists in providing guidance to organisations in implementing well-being and career developmental practices that will lead to an increase in personal well-being, career improvement and less turnover.

4.4 INTEGRATION OF THE RESEARCH

This study investigated the relationship between personality types and psychological career resources. The results suggest that a relationship does, indeed, exist between these variables and that this relationship may improve organisational well-being and career development practices.

In conclusion, the findings of the study revealed a relationship between personality types and psychological career resources and contributed valuable new insights that might be used to improve employee satisfaction levels in the fast-food industry. The knowledge gained regarding the relationship between personality types and psychological career resources may also have practical implications for employee well-being. It is believed that this research will inform organisational practices aimed at enhancing employee career well-being and improving employee career satisfaction levels in the fast-food industry.

4.5   CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the conclusions of both the theoretical and empirical studies. Possible limitations of the study were also discussed, together with recommendations for future research. This research study is herewith concluded.

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